A METHOD OF TEACHING JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH GRAMMAR BASED ON SPECIFICS

BY

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CONTENTS

PART I AN OVER-ALL VIEW OF THE SPECIFIC METHOD. 1

Chapter I Introduction 2
Chapter II Meaning and Perspective of the Specific Method. 8
Chapter III The Grammatical Adaptation of this Study . . 21

PART II PUNCTUATION. 53

PART III GRAMMAR. 102

Chapter I The Noun 103
Chapter II The Pronoun. 118
Chapter III The Adjective. 167
Chapter IV The Verb 188
Chapter V The Adverb 214
Chapter VI The Conjunction. 224
Chapter VII The Preposition. 233

PART IV SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS. 242

BIBLIOGRAPHY 248

PART I

AN OVER-ALL VIEW OF THE SPECIFIC METHOD

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Problem of the Study

This study is concerned with a method of teaching junior high school English grammar congruent with that advocated by the National Council of Teachers of English, which recommends the "discovery of a generalization through the study of many specific illustrations . . ."[1] Rules, therefore, become an end product of grammatical study, not the point of departure. To show how certain facets of junior high school grammar can be isolated, studied, and developed into a nomenclature is the intent of this study.

Need for the Study

As indicated, beginning with language specifics that culminate in a governing generalization is advocated by writers of the National Council of Teachers of English. In discussing the comparative merits of this method and the formal method, which begins with rules, the Council states, "Although there is nothing wrong with stating a grammatical principle first and then illustrating it, a more effective procedure, usually, is to have the student find for

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1. National Council of Teachers of English, The English Language Arts (New York, 1952), p. 376.

himself from the analysis of a number of carefully prepared sentences the principle . . ."[2]

Other writers advocate beginning with specifics. Teach, Dakin urges, by presenting to the pupils numerous examples from which they may build up a definition, which, she says, "will then mean much more than an arbitrary pronouncement . . .of a definition . . ."[3] Hagboldt agrees with Dakin's thesis. He says, "The student finds the rule by observing and comparing the forms . . ."[4] "Teach correctness in specific situations"[5] is the admonishment of Pooley. Howe says:

> More and more we find grammar relegated to reference sections, and the supposed study of it reduced to cryptic statements of definitions and rules, with examples following. This dogmatic procedure by-passes reasoning, flouts understanding as a necessary step, and thus forestalls any possibility of interest or enthusiasm on the part of the student. Rules need be mentioned only at the end of each process . . .[6]

Therefore, a need exists for a guide to show how specifics can be developed into concepts. As Howe says, "Even the so-called

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2. Ibid., pp. 376-377.

3. Dorothy Dakin, How to Teach High School English (Boston, 1947), p. 63.

4. Charles H. Handschin, Modern-Language Teaching (New York, 1940), p. 184.

5. Robert C. Pooley, "Grammar in the Schools of Today," The English Journal, XLIII (March, 1954), p. 143.

6. M. L. Howe, "Summarized Grammar," The English Journal (June, 1951), p. 308.

'functional' texts begin with definitions instead of ending with them."[7]

Ample evidence exists that the formal method of beginning with rules and attempting to apply them is not always satisfactory. Published studies of errors made in schools where grammar is taught by the formal method reveal that "the same errors are repeated in approximately the same proportion in every grade throughout the elementary grades, secondary school, and college."[8] Numerous specific studies verify this. "Diebel and Sears found that more mistakes in pronouns were made in the eighth grade by pupils who had received instruction in formal grammar than by third graders who had not had the benefit (?) of such instruction."[9]

> One hundred sixty teachers in Wisconsin high schools rated (ten) errors as the most serious occurring among their pupils. It is significant that, although these gross errors--belonging indisputably on the illiterate level of usage--have been corrected throughout the first nine grades, they still remain the most frequent errors in grades ten, eleven, and twelve.[10]

"A survey of New York State conducted by Dora V. Smith revealed that in small-town high schools which emphasized the study

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7. Ibid., p. 308.

8. John J. DeBoer, et. al., Teaching Secondary English (New York, 1951), p. 58.

9. Ibid., p. 59.

10. Robert C. Pooley, Teaching English Usage (New York, 1946), p. 215.

of formal grammar and drill exercises . . .the pupils achieved a percentile rank of only 8 in ability to write!"[11]

"Mere definition or identification," as these studies indicate, "is of minor use in the teaching of grammar."[12] As can be seen, "The important point here . . .in the teaching of grammar is that the student shall not be tempted to memorize a statement instead of developing a clear concept."[13] As indicated, the method advocated herein shows how to develop a nomenclature from concepts derived from specifics. This new method is needed, for, as Pooley says, "The teaching of grammar as a part of English in elementary and high schools has not changed greatly in the last ten years and shows no sign at the moment of rapid change in the years immediately ahead."[14]

Purpose of the Study

Although rules result from the use of the method of beginning with illustrations, the major concern herein is to show how junior high school pupils under proper guidance can develop grammatical concepts from carefully selected language specifics and to show the values that may accrue therefrom. Too, grammar texts cater to the

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11. DeBoer, *et. al.*, *op. cit.*, p. 59.

12. National Council of Teachers of English, *op. cit.*, p. 378.

13. *Ibid.*, p. 377.

14. Pooley, *op. cit.*, p. 142.

formal method and it is somewhat difficult for teachers, burdened as they are with multiple duties, to develop and employ a method that differs radically from that of the text they are required to use. This study is designed to help those teachers who desire to veer from the formal method toward a simplified, less bookish method that utilizes sound laws of learning to develop grammatical rules from concepts surmised from specifics.

Scope of the Study

Encompassed in this study are applicable suggestions for selecting significant language specifics peculiarly relevant to punctuation and word relationships germane to junior high grammar, varied technique of analyzing the selected specifics, and appropriate means of arriving at a nomenclature arising from the analysis and governing the specifics, and pertinent exercises for checking the validity of the nomenclature surmised.

Definition of the Study

As previously stated, the method advocated by the National Council of Teachers of English begins with specifics and ends with a nomenclature; to be sure, the method advocated in this study does this. But since this study is limited to an exposition of how to isolate, study, and define specifics, the word method is used to denote the actual detailing of a classroom procedure that is directly connected with the teaching of junior high school grammar per se. To deny the validity of studying certain segments

of grammar specifically as communicative media in isolation is to deny the value of this study, for such is its scope.

CHAPTER II

MEANING AND PERSPECTIVE OF THE SPECIFIC METHOD

Meaning of the Specific Method

In current pedagogic theories, the word method is used in various ways. Its meaning is extended to include teacher-pupil rapport and the personality of the teacher. In fact, in many theories method embraces the whole of the emotional climate of the classroom. In this study, however, method is used to denote the actual detailing of the classroom procedure that is directly connected with the teaching of junior high grammar per se. The limited meaning assigned to method does not deny the validity of the broader concepts of the word. They have their place. And, to be sure, the personality of the teacher, as well as the other teaching functions often considered as part of method, drastically influences the success of any teaching activity--regardless of the procedure employed.

More specifically, method in this study is predicated on the assumption that it is necessary at certain times to teach grammar as such. In other words, at given times it is appropriate, perhaps even essential, to isolate certain segments of grammar and study them specifically as communicative media. The nature of communication makes this advisable.

> The essential skills and abilities in language are extremely complicated and highly organized. The fact that they should be acquired in the services of purposes which are broader in their significance than the tools themselves does not mean that they can be learned casually.[1]

Clearly this implies that the various facets of grammar must at some time be in the fore of the pupil's attention.

> We are often able to recall, of course, many of the things that have been in the margin, rather than the center, of attention. But this kind of incidental learning is not trustworthy. The results are too accidental and unreliable.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> Horn . . .concludes that "whatever subject matter is of little value may be left to incidental learning, but what is to be remembered should at some time be in the focus of the student's attention and subjected to his determination to remember it.[2]

The National Council of Teachers of English values direct teaching. It says:

> Learning by imitation and absorption is truly fundamental in the sense that is precedes learning by conscious effort. To recognize its importance in relation to growth in language, however, is not to deny the value of direct teaching of grammatical concepts . . .[3]

Thus, it seems reasonable to assume that it is sometimes advisable to isolate certain parts of grammar, for its correct use is a complicated skill, and teach it as a separate entity.

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1. Arthur I. Gates, et. al., Educational Psychology (New York, 1948), p. 299.

2. Ibid., pp. 298-300.

3. National Council of Teachers of English, The English Language Arts (New York, 1952), p. 290.

Of course, this does not imply that due cognizance should not be taken in all teaching activities of incidental learning, for, "unlike understanding and skill, . . .attitudes appear to be more influenced by the general tone and atmosphere of the environment than by direct and formal instruction."[4] Concomitant learnings are most important, but they are of no concern here.

Since this study is limited to the detailing of a classroom procedure which attempts to show how to isolate and teach certain segments of grammar in the currently adopted text books for junior high schools of Alabama, the unique characteristics of the pupils of junior high age will receive no attention, save that in the examples given and the discussions suggested cognizance is taken of the vernacular of this age group. And, too, it is assumed that the grammar exercises given in each text are within the limits of the mental capacities of the age group for which they are intended.

The word specific as used herein is intended to indicate that rules and definitions are derived from selected examples. In other words, each language generalization is attained from studying specifics containing the particular principle that is being sought. This is the antithesis of the traditional procedure wherein the teaching of grammar is begun with rules which the pupils memorize and then identify their adaptation in selected examples.

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4. Gates, et. al., op. cit., p. 300.

Viewed from a different perspective, teaching from specifics may be termed generalizing. "Generalizing is the process of identifying the common aspects or basic relationships in a variety of specific situations."[5] Some writers speak of the value of guiding pupils to form generalizations from specifics; others speak of generalizing from specifics. Both groups of writers are referring to the same procedure--that of helping a pupil discover for himself some given generalization or principle.

Perspective of the Specific Method

Helping pupils to form generalizations from many illustrations has long been advocated as an effective method of teaching by those who are not specifically concerned with grammar. Of generalizing Burton says, "The flexibility and adaptability, that is, the wider use of given learning products (sic) is decidedly enhanced by deliberately teaching for transfer or generalizing, . . ."[6]

Of course, applying this to the teaching of grammar, it is evident that generalization can not take place if the teaching of each segment of grammar is begun, as the texts suggest, with the stating of the generalization. Practically all of the specifics in grammar texts are examples to which the stated generalization is

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5. Ibid., p. 441.

6. William H. Burton, The Guidance of Learning Activities (New York, 1952), p. 123.

to be applied. A search for the concept that is operative in the specifics is (to the pupils) useless, for it is usually stated in bold letters somewhere in the first few lines of each grammatical section.

"An understanding," says Burton, "is a general concept that results from organizing and interpreting many specific illustrations; from generalizing . . ."[7]

This example of verbalism mistaken for learning is cited by Burton.

> Many parents and teachers are proud that their children can "say the multiplication tables." Very often, however, some of these children cannot multiply well in real situations. It is much better to teach children to multiply . . .than to "say the multiplication tables." Later the children will probably construct the tables for themselves. That is the way the tables were made in the first place . . ."[8]

Burton says, "Morrison coined a neat aphorism when he said, referring to much current school practice, 'the pupil learns his lessons but he does not learn.'"[9] Morrison did much to champion the unit plan, a teaching approach that had it greatest vogue in the 1920's. "The proponents of the unit declare that the mastery

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7. Ibid., p. 128.

8. Ibid., p. 139.

9. Ibid., p. 126.

of the contents of a properly constructed unit leads to an understanding of the desired generalization . . ."[10]

The unit plan evolved partly from the educational theory of Johann F. Herbart. Successful teaching, according to Herbart, involves these steps: (1) preparation, (2) presentation, (3) comparison, (4) generalization, and (5) application.[11]

> During the early nineties, the normal schools of the United States introduced the Herbartian "five formal steps" as a lesson formula designed to get away from the conning of isolated facts in a series of "lessons." The learner utilized facts, to be sure, . . .but was led to derive from these a generalization, a rule, a principle, or an understanding . . . The Herbartian steps . . .represented a worthy pioneer effort to rescue learning from the routine memorization of facts, and to focus attention upon broader outcomes such as understandings, meanings, and principles.[12]

Herbart in part based his five steps of teaching on the sense perception concept of Henri Pestalozzi. According to Pestalozzi, "Sense perception considered by itself is nothing else than the mere being there of external objects before the senses and the mere stirring of the consciousness of their impression."[13]

Before the time of Pestalozzi teaching was almost wholly a verbal process. The accepted generalizations were imparted by the

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10. Edgar Bruce Wesley, Teaching the Social Studies (Boston, 1942), p. 144.

11. Charles W. Coulter and Richard S. Rimampczy, A Layman's Guide to Educational Theory (New York, 1955), p. 114.

12. Burton, op. cit., p. 126.

13. Coulter and Rimampczy, op. cit., p. 111.

teachers. Investigation by the pupils was but little, if at all, valued. But Pestalozzi did not cater to this conventional concept of his day.

> He took the ground that real knowledge came through observing things, acquiring an insight into the nature of things rather than through being told about them. Knowledge, he maintained, comes not through verbal formulas and signs, but by examining . . . This is something the youth must do for himself.[14]

The stage for Pestalozzi's theory was partially set by Locke whose educational theory extolled observation as a worthy pursuit for pupils. However, before Locke emphasized observation, "Bacon contended that the mind must depend upon . . .perception; that knowledge must rise from particulars to universals (from a particular cow to all cows); . . .that the specific observed facts must be organized and projected into coordinated knowledge."[15]

That principles and generalizations emerge from the observation of a large number of specifics is the contention of Gates, Jersild, McConnell, and Challman, educational psychologists. They say:

> An understanding of ideas and principles grows out of a wealth of specific data. One may expect to forget much of the factual material in the end and retain the idea, but the idea cannot be acquired meaningfully without utilizing details at the time. Actually, if facts are organized into meaningful relations and generalized into a principle, the details themselves are likely to be better remembered than if they were acquired in discrete fashion.[16]

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14. Ibid., p. 107.

15. Ibid., p. 90.

16. Gates, et. al., op. cit., p. 398.

These writers also contend that learning by observation of many specifics is conducive to high retention and transfer. They give a brief critque of Swenson's study which employed the generalizing technique.

> Three groups of pupils learned the 100 addition facts by three different methods in which the variables were the degree of generalization among number facts and the types of organization in which the facts were presented. In "method D," the addition facts were arranged in order of difficulty as determined by studies in which "drill methods" had been used. (This resulted in an essentially mixed order of presentation.) Repetitive drill was the mainstay of this method; using previously learned facts to derive the answers to new ones was discouraged.
>
> In "method X," the teaching method was similar to that in "D," except that the children were permitted to "verify" each newly presented fact by use of concrete materials before the drill process began and the facts, instead of being arranged in mixed order, were grouped by size of sum, all combinations with a sum of 9, for example, being presented together.
>
> In "method G," facts were grouped by generalizations. These generalizations, however, were not given to the pupils ready-made; the children were led to discover them for themselves. . . .
>
> Tests given during the period of instruction and at the end of the experiment revealed that . . .the group that learned addition facts around number generalizations showed the greatest amount of transfer, and the drill group the least. Swenson found also that there was a tendency for retroactive inhibition to occur more frequently and in greater amount among children taught by the drill method than among those led to discover number generalizations and organize the facts around them.[17]

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17. Ibid., pp. 503-504.

These same writers, Gates, Jersild, McConnell, and Challman, report this study relative to the teaching of spelling.

> The theory that, if one wants to learn something, he should practice it specifically came to dominate instruction in spelling. . . .Recent investigations, however, have demonstrated that generalizing facilitates transfer of training from taught to untaught words. Gates made a careful study of this problem with 3,800 pupils in 106 classes in grades two to eight. During an entire school term, the same list of spelling words was taught by two different methods. In one, known as the generalization method, the words were grouped according to common elements, . . . Pupils' attention was directed to likenesses and differences, and they were aided in generalizing . . .
>
> The other method treated each spelling word as a specific learning problem. . . .The pupils who had experience in generalizing showed a superiority of from 6 to 8 per cent in ability to spell "new" words, that is, words which were not in the instructional list, and exceeded by 9 per cent the ability of the other subjects in converting base words into derived forms . . .[18]

As noted in Chapter I, many writers who are concerned with teaching English grammar advocate that grammatical concepts be developed from specifics; however these writers' condemnation of the traditional presentation of grammar is almost as vociferous as is their extolment of a method based on specifics. This vociferousness is evident in reports of grammatical studies.

> Among leaders in the teaching of the language arts who have published critical evaluations and intrepretations of . . .research in the teaching of grammar are Dora V. Smith and Harry A. Greene.

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18. Ibid., pp. 504-505.

In summarizing the findings of thirteen experiments and investigations reported between 1917 and 1938, Professor Smith wrote:

> These are not personal opinions concerning the values of the teaching of grammar. The educational world is no longer interested in opinions on this question when unsubstantiated by evidence. These are facts based upon scientific investigation, and they are all the facts there are available. Clearly they present a distinct challenge to those who still promulgate the old doctrine (of formal grammar). The burden of proof today rests with them.

Similar conclusions were drawn in 1947 by Professor Greene in his careful evaluation of eight investigations reported between 1939 and 1941.[19]

These findings verify early ones reported in the Ninth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors of the National Education Association.

> Studies of grammar as method in English have not proved encouraging in the light of modern objectives. Studies by Asker and by Boraas showed that "knowledge of formal grammar influences ability to judge the grammatical correctness of a sentence and ability in English composition only to a negligible degree." Ortmeyer and Butterworth both showed no significant carry-over of the knowledge of punctuation rules to the correct use of the rule.[20]

DeBoer, Kaulfers, and Miller, as seen in the quotation preceding the one immediately above, question the formal approach. They offer this suggestion for improving the teaching of grammar.

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19. DeBoer, et. al., op. cit., p. 61.

20. The Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association, The Development of a Modern Program in English (Washington, D. C., 1936), p. 55.

> As in other cases involving instruction in usage, examination of various types of effectively punctuated sentences, followed by practice in writing and evaluating sentence written in close imitation of the models, is a more direct and effective way of developing ability in punctuation than the study of grammatically phrased rules or diagraming.[21]

Pooley gives a description of the procedure involved in the teaching of grammar based on specifics. It is this: "that the student derive his definitions and rules from the observation . . .of a large number of particular instances."[22]

Beginning with specifics is advocated by other writers. On the teaching of the noun Dakin says, "On the board put illustrative sentences containing examples of different classes of nouns, avoiding, however, any mention of this phase of formal grammar."[23] From these examples she urges that "you and your students build up your definition . . ."[24] Hooks plea is "'Let them see why,' Not 'Tell them rules,' not 'Tell them why,' but 'Let them see why.' . . .give them another example, and another."[25] The "discovery of a generalization through the study of many specific illustrations should

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21. DeBoer, et. al., op. cit., pp. 99-100.

22. Robert C. Pooley, Teaching English Grammar (New York, 1957), p. 138.

23. Dorothy Dakin, How to Teach High School English (Boston, 1947), p. 63.

24. Ibid., p. 63.

25. J. N. Hook, The Teaching of High School English (New York, 1950), p. 318.

for the most part be used in introducing a new grammatical point," so says the National Council of Teachers of English. "Numerous examples of significant phenomena are to be observed by pupils, the principle governing them derived . . ."[26] observes Handschin.

"Rules," says Howe, "are scarely needed. At least they need be mentioned only at the end of each process, and the use of technical terms may be held to a minimum."[27]

As can be seen, many writers say that grammatical rules should come as a result of studying specifics; yet these writers, though they cite results of various investigations and studies in debunking the formal method of teaching of grammar, have given but few examples to indicate the precise technique of their advocated method of beginning with specifics. The National Council of Teachers of English in its latest book publication, The English Language Arts in the Secondary School, states its preference for the specific method; nevertheless only two examples to show the application of the recommended method are given. DeBoer, Kaulfers, and Miller recently authored a 417 page book entitled Teaching Secondary English. These writers, as we have seen, condemn the formal method, but they give only six examples of how grammar can be studied from specifics. Another recent book, Teaching English Usage, by

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26. Charles H. Handschin, Modern-Language Teaching (New York, 1940), p. 147.

27. M. L. Howe, "Summarized Grammar," The English Journal, XL (June, 1951), p. 308.

Robert C. Pooley, attacks current formal methods and grammar texts. He suggests varied approaches designed to improve the teaching of grammar, but not once in 255 pages does he give a concrete example of how a given segment of grammar may be studied from specifics.

Although limited examples showing how specifics can be used to develop concepts exist, no systematic attempt has been made to show how any one phase of grammar, words, phrases, or clauses peculiar to a given secondary level can be isolated, studied, and defined. This study attempts to partially bridge this gap.

CHAPTER III

THE GRAMMATICAL ADAPTATION OF THIS STUDY

As previously stated, this study attempts to show how junior high school punctuation and grammar involving word relationships can be taught from specifics. This chapter discusses the particular use, organization, limitation, and value of the adaptation of this study. But first, it is felt that a look at the perspective of rules and definitions will make the discussion of these facets of this study more meaningful.

Perspective of Rules and Definitions

Are Rules and Definitions Necessary?

As this quotation indicates, Dora V. Smith has serious reservations about the extensive use of rules.

> . . .matters of style . . .may be taught quite as effectively without grammatical knowledge as with it, if emphasis is placed upon clarity of thought and effectiveness of expression alone. For instance, a pupil writes, "I like hunting, to fish, and when I go swimming." The teacher points out (in language readily comprehensible) to him that his three kinds of sport are parallel in his thinking and will be better expressed in parallel fashion. Without any hesitation he writes, "I like hunting, fishing, and swimming" or "I like to hunt, to fish, and to swim." No mention of gerunds or infinitives need to enter into the problem at all.[1]

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1. Dora V. Smith, "English Grammar Again," The English Journal, XXVII (October, 1938), p. 645.

DeBoer, Kaulfers, and Miller cite the whole of the above quotation as an excellent example of the thought approach of a nontechical method.[2]

The National Council of Teachers of English agrees with Smith also. It says:

> . . .ability to express parallel ideas in parallel fashions, such as, I like to hunt, to fish and to swim; or I like hunting, fishing and swimming, is important for everybody, but knowledge of the fact that in one sentence he has used infinitives and in the other gerunds, is a matter for the specialist.[3]

DeBoer, Kaulfers, and Miller are of the opinion that rules as they are sometimes taught are harmful. They give this example:

> Not long ago, an outstanding graduate student, serving as interne in a public secondary school, invited the supervisor to observe her practice teaching in an unselected ninth-grade English class numbering thirty-four boys and girls. The subject of the day's work was the use of the comma as treated in a combination grammar and exercise book. During the discussion of sentences based on the grammatically phrased rules, it became apparent that at least 90 per cent of the group could not distinguish between the use of the word for as a preposition and its use as a conjunction. Consequently, few were able to apply the rule that "clauses introduced by the conjunction for must be preceded by a comma." As a result, they were putting commas before the preposition in such sentences as "We were waiting for the postman to arrive," and leaving them out in such sentences as

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2. John J. DeBoer, et. al., Teaching Secondary English (New York, 1951), pp. 84-104.

3. National Council of Teachers of English, The English Language Arts (New York, 1952), p. 288.

> "We left after the third act for it was getting late." In other words, the rule and the practice exercises assigned the day before had not helped to improve the pupils' command of written English. Instead, they had actually taught young people to make mistakes!
>
> . . . . . .

As the discussion progressed, the authors report that it became more confusing.

> . . .the performance, with its dense concentration of grammatical terms began to suggest the incantations of a voodoo doctor performing rites over the body of the great departed--in this case, the comma "before clauses introduced by the conjunction f-o-r," since by now the original subject of the meeting--the comma--had indeed been lost somewhere among the grammatical labels.

"Only the final bell," say the authors, "saved the teacher and class from a fate worse than pseudoprogressive education."[4]

The National Council of Teachers of English says, "language of today is not to be identified with that found in books but . . .upon the lips of people who are currently speaking it."[5]

"Language," says Benjamin, "is made by the needs of men, while grammar is made by professors."[6]

All grammarians do not agree with these opinions. Warfel attacks those who question conventional grammar. He says:

> By focusing attention on "it is me," "who are you," "none are," "data is," shall and will, and similar

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4. DeBoer, et. al., op. cit., p. 86-88.

5. National Council of Teachers of English, op. cit., p. 276.

6. Harold Benjamin, "Interchange of Cultural Viewpoints," Phi Delta Kappan, XXIV (Spencer, Indiana, 1941), p. 103.

> instances of divided usage, these self-called "descriptive" grammarians have hooted at "prescriptive" grammars and have created in educational circles a thoroughly rebellious attitude toward all formal study of the English language. Like all reformers, these sans-culottes claim to be asking for something better, but thus far not one has come forward with either a valid substitute for the conventional grammar or a series of principles upon which their kind of textbook can be written. They assert that they have standards, but they have not defined these standards in precise terms.
>
> Their oversimplification and overdramatization can be seen in the handling of problems of divided usage in "Current English Forum" in College English. A single item, which may occupy a few lines in a normative book, is analyzed in terms of variants found in popular speech or in the writings of a few famous authors. The existence of these variants makes possible a condemnation of normative guides.
>
> Apparently the proper standards of correctness--as opposed to "make-believe standards"--are to be created on the basis of a reply to an inquirer who asked, "Is it correct to say 'Lend me a nickel'?"
>
> What . . .standard of correctness is to be, no "new" linguist has ventured to indicate in scientific terms. Nor has anyone explained what constitutes an accurate description of the language of educated persons or what standard shall be employed in determining the criteria of educated persons.[7]

Let us review the stand of the National Council of Teachers of English. "Ability," so says the Council, "to express parallel ideas in parallel fashions, such as I like to hunt, to fish and to swim; or I like hunting, fishing and swimming, is important

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7. Harry R. Warfel, Who Killed Grammar? (Gainesville, Florida, 1952), pp. 18-20.

for everybody, but knowledge of the fact that . . .one sentence . . .used infinitives and . . .the other gerunds, is a matter for the specialist."[8] Would it be pertinent to ask who are to become specialists? And when and where shall they began to learn the very terminology used in the above quotation? Is it not evident that the teaching of grammar as advocated by the National Council of Teachers of English will give rise to some type of nomenclature?

Any special thing that gives rise to conversation gives rise to a unique vocabulary. TV technicians, auto mechanics, and medical doctors all have their peculiar yet apt vernacular.

Is it not explicitly evident that the teaching of grammar, whether it begins with rules, ends with rules, or omits rules entirely, is most certain to give rise to some form of nomenclature, rules, conventions, or principles that will eventually be couched in some relative vernacular that is peculiarly germane to the varies facets of grammar? Is this not true regardless of the procedure used?

Shall Rules and Definitions Come First or Last?

"The commonest method of teaching grammar," says Salisbury, "has been the use of rules and definitions." But he pleads for a different approach initially. "First," he says, "make the concept clear--establish perception."[9]

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8. National Council of Teachers of English, op. cit., p. 288.

9. Rachel Salisbury, "Grammar and the Laws of Learning," The English Journal, XXXV (Chicago, 1946), p. 250.

". . .in accord with good teaching procedure, the concepts of co-ordination and subordination and grammatical terms are introduced gradually after the constructions have been assimilated as such."[10] This is Minton's observation.

The weakness of beginning with rules is succinctly pointed out in this quotation.

> Perhaps it is only natural that schoolwork making extensive use of grammatical terminology should have proved less successful in improving English usage than in promoting confusion and a dislike of language study among large numbers of young people. It cannot be expected that students handicapped by limited vocabularies will respond readily to explanations of language usage phrased in such terms as prepositional phrase, subordinate clause, restrictive modifier, or even subject and predicate. The fact, however, that under continuous pressure, reinforced by frequent reviews, they can learn the verbal definitions of these terms mechanically by heart, and often parrot them along with memorized examples, has misled teachers to assume that they actually know what they are saying and should, therefore, be able to apply their supposed learning to their own writing and speech.[11]

The traditional method of beginning with rules often gives undue emphasis to phraseology. As the National Council of Teachers of English says, "Too frequently pupils' knowledge of grammar and punctuation is tested, not in terms of how well they can use it, but in terms of what they know about it."[12]

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10. Arthur Minton, "Grammar Makes Sense," The English Journal, XXXVI (Chicago, 1947), p. 28.

11. DeBoer, et. al., op. cit., p. 62.

12. National Council of Teachers of English, op. cit., p. 290.

According to the National Council of Teachers of English "there is nothing wrong with stating a grammatical principle first and then illustrating it, but a more effective procedure, usually, is to have the student find for himself from the analysis of a number of carefully prepared sentences the principle . . ."[13]

A casual look at contemporary grammar texts will reveal that the authors of them cater to the traditional method of beginning with rules followed by illustrative examples.

Use of This Adaptation

The method advocated herein can be used in two ways. Perhaps these peculiar uses can best be explained by illustrations.

Non-syntactical Approach*

To correct the error in the sentence This is for him and I through this approach does not require knowledge of personal pronouns, cases, or prepositions. Exercises like this are used.

Underscore the correct word

This is for (him, he).

This is for (I, me).

Is it not obvious that a seventh grader, although he is greatly retarded academically, will make the correct choices? After

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13. National Council of Teachers of English, The English Language Arts in the Secondary School (New York, 1956), pp. 376-377.

* Non-syntactial as used herein is synonymous with nontechnical.

sentences of this simple type have been presented to the pupils, augment the sentences to include compound objects of prepositions.

Uderscore the correct word

This is for (him, he) and (I, me).

If the pupils fail to make the correct choice instantly, present more sentences containing single objects of prepositions; but it is fairly sure, since pupils know it is correct to say This is for me and This is for him, they will reason out that it is correct to say This is for him and me.

This is a simple example of the non-syntactical approach of the specific method.

With direct objects as with objects of prepositions, the pupils will know the correct choice when the direct object is single. Therefore, since they know it is correct to say This will benefit you and This will benefit me, they will reason out the correctness of This will benefit you and me. Likewise pupils who say I went to town and He went to town can readily understand that He and I went to town is correct. The misuse of the personal pronouns in sentences like these can be corrected without resort to analyses of direct objects or subjects. The pattern is the same for indirect objects.

Thus the pupils use the specifics they know to help establish the correct usage of the unknown. In other words, pupils use the two specifics, He went to town and I went to town, and conclude

that the form He and I went to town is correct. Stated otherwise, the pupils use the known to establish the unknown. This is how the non-syntactical approach of the specific method attempts to correct grammatical errors.

What about rules or nomenclature when the non-syntactical approach is used? Shall the pupils be left free to use any jargon they please, or if they prefer, have no terms of grammatical references at all? Certainly not. One of the aims of this approach is to show how to develop a nomenclature.

What about a nomenclature for the above examples? Must there be a separate terminology for each object sequence: direct, indirect, and preposition; and still another one for subjects? Such is not essential.

Exercises like this will aid pupils to arrive at a governing generalization.

Is this sentence correctly written?

This is for him and I to decide.

Cross out the words him and and.

This is for ~~him and~~ I to decide.

Is it correct to say This is for I?

When there is only one person referred to, we say This is for him or This is for me. Right? If two persons are referred to, do the words referring to them change? In other words, do we say

This is for him and I or This is for him and me?

Continue thus with varied compound objects and subjects until the pupils surmise that the rule "Say (when there are two) what you say for each one alone"[14] suffices for all personal pronouns so used.

This rule is an example of the type of nomenclature that pupils can be led to develop for the facets of grammar taught by the non-syntactical approach.

Syntactical Approach*

A teacher who has misgivings about the approach and the nomenclature previously outlined may prefer to attack the problems of misused personal pronouns differently. Before attempting to correct the errors involved, some teachers prefer to teach the relevant syntactical relations. For example, in the sentence This is for him and I a nominative first person singular pronoun is used incorrectly as an object of a preposition. In order to correct this error through syntactical analysis, it is necessary for the pupils to know, among other things, prepositions as well as objective and nominative cases.

How is the syntactical approach of the specific method used to teach prepositions and cases? In using the syntactical approach

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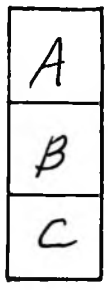
14. National Council of Teachers of English, The English Language Arts (New York, 1952), p. 289. Words in parentheses are added.

* Syntactical is synonymous with technical.

to teach prepositions, as in the non-syntactical approach, the pupils are permitted to use what they know. And from the knowns they draw conclusions. Finally, pupils describe what they discover to be grammatically true.

Since all seventh graders use prepositions, clearly the task is to get the pupils to analyze what they know. This can be simply and easily done with ABC blocks.

Arrange the blocks like this:



Now ask the pupils the relationship of block B to the other two blocks. Instantly, the unison response should denote the relationship as <u>between</u>. Have some pupil write the word <u>between</u> on the board. Then ask other questions about the relationship of the blocks--C to B (Write the word <u>beneath</u> on the board.) A to B (Write the word <u>above</u> on the board.)

Do not limit this procedure to the blocks. Ask the pupils the relationship of your feet to the desk, the relationship of the school building to the road, etc. Continue thus until some ten or twelve words that the pupils designate as showing relationship are on the board.

After this initial exercise, write vertically the numbers one through ten on the board. By each odd number write a simple sentence, including in each a word that the pupils have suggested. Have the pupils underscore each "relationship" word.

Since the first three words suggested in the "block" exercise were between, beneath, and above, the first three odd-numbered sentences should be similar to these:

1. He ran between the houses.
2.

3. The plane flew beneath the clouds.
4.

5. The crow sails above the trees.
6.

When the pupils have correctly underscored the prepositions, have them write a sentence by the number two (2), including in it a word that parallels between, the underscored word in the odd-numbered sentences immediately above. Continue this pattern with the other even numbers. Here are three examples.

1. He ran between the houses.
2. He walked AMONG the men.

3. The plane flew beneath the clouds.
4. He came BELOW the surface.

5. The crow sails above the trees.

6. The cow jumped OVER the moon.

To show the more subtle relationships have a pupil run around the teacher's desk, or run to a book, pause, then jump over it. When the pupils describe this action by writing He ran to the book; then jumped over it, they will clearly perceive that the word to shows relationship just as surely as over does.

When the pupils are able to underscore in varied sentences words that show relationship, they should be told that words which show relationship are prepositions.

The syntactical approach of the specific method can be used to teach the nominative and objective cases as well as the personal pronouns appropriate for each one. List on the board the personal pronouns I, she, them, us, they, we, me, he, her, and him. Then write

He BEAT him.

Ask the pupils to write the remainder of the words on the appropriate side of beat. Any seventh grader should produce in some correct form the following:

He		me
We		them
They	BEAT	us
She		him
I		her

After doing this, the pupils will have a conception of the meaning of the nominative pronouns which precede "beat" as they will for those which follow.

Finally, ask the pupils to place you, it, and ours on the appropriate sides. Of course, they will quickly discover that it and you are suitable for either side, while ours is inappropriate for either. (Ours unsuitableness will perhaps provoke the pupils to wonder about possible other classifications of pronouns.)

When the pronouns are properly divided, the search for the uniqueness of each category should begin. The end product of this search will be a classification of pronouns according to cases. Permit the pupils to state in their own terminology the specific function of each set of pronouns. With appropriate questions the pupils can soon be led to comprehend that the pronouns preceding the word beat are capable of doing things (of action) and that the second group is incapable of action, but can be acted upon. Those desiring a more formal terminology will not be content with this limited nomenclature. They, therefore, may specify the words, called pronouns, capable of action as nominative and those incapable of action as objective.

Point to the list of personal pronouns on the board; then ask the pupils to place the five words that are appropriate after for in this sentence.

1.
2.
This is for 3.
4.
5.

Are these words capable of action? Are they nominative or objective?

Now ask the pupils if the pronouns in the sentence This is for him and I are capable of action? Which of these pronouns is a misfit? Why?*

As can be seen, this syntactical approach, as the non-syntactical, attempts to help the pupils utilize what they know in establishing the correct usage of the unknown. Both proceed from the known to the unknown.

Which Approach Is Better?

Which of the approaches of the specific method is better? Shall the non-syntactical approach that resulted in the simple rule, "Say what you say for each one alone"[15] be used for teaching the correct use of all compound personal pronouns, whether they be objects or subjects? Or shall the correction of such sentences be attacked through the syntactical approach? The approach used will depend on the teacher's orientation and purpose. (The pupils' ability, interests and plans should be factors in determining the teacher's purpose.)

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15. National Council of Teachers of English, The English Language Arts (New York, 1952), p. 289.

* In the initial teaching aimed at establishing case concept, avoid sentences like I heard him sing.

(It should be pointed out that all of the examples given and all of the discussions suggested for each approach are presented to help the pupils (1) utilize what they know in establishing the correct usage of the unknown, and (2) establish a nomenclature or rule to describe what they discover to be grammatically correct.)

Organization of This Study

This method attempts to simplify the teaching of punctuation and grammar. Each segment of punctuation discussed is divided in three exercises: the first is language specifics; the second is a follow-up; and the third exercise is concerned with establishing a nomenclature. This same pattern is followed in teaching the grammatical definitions.

Deliberate care in the selection of specifics aids simplification. Every initial example in each Exercise with Specifics contains the principle being sought. This is not true of many grammar texts and workbooks. One of the currently adopted grammar texts for Alabama introduces the study of quotations by asking the pupils to compare direct and indirect quotations. Often the Exercise with Specifics also contains questions designed to help the pupils understand the governing rule that is contained in the examples.

The Follow-up exercises continue the probing that is begun by the questions in the Exercise with Specifics. When it is felt that the commonality governing the given function of the given

grammatical element under study is conceived, use is made of comparsion. At this stage, comparsion does not befuddle. By serving as a tester it helps to etch more implicitly the unique perspective of the new concept. Thus, when new concepts are juxtaposed with other specifics, the developed concept may be confirmed, may be only partially confirmed, or may be proved false.

The questions and exercises in the Specifics and the Follow-up are intended to help the pupils perceive some given grammatical function that is common to the examples in the Specifics; by having the pupils give form, a definite form, to these concepts, as is done in the section called Establishing a Nomenclature, the exact nature of the concept developed from studying the Specifics is further crystalized. Too, this section contains questions and exercises designed to lead the pupils to focus more precisely the exact function of the concept developed. Finally, if the pupils can talk in a general manner about the grammatical problem in question but can not put their ideas into a governing rule, the teacher is alerted to the possibility that the pupils may not fully comprehend the concept sought.

Mastery Check Exercises are suggested for all the exercises involving punctuation.

The type of nomenclature considered adequate will vary according to each teacher's point of view. Commenting on the results of studies made, Professor Greene states "The evidence shows that repeated and spaced habit-forming experiences are productive of

mastery and should be substituted for formal rules . . ."[16] It has also been observed that "all terminology beyond the names for the parts of speech . . .belong, like the technical terms used in law or medicine, on the professional level of higher education rather than on the consumer level of elementary and secondary schooling."[17] Naturally teachers sharing these views will be but little, if at all, interested in leading the pupils to base their rules on syntactical relationships. Those teachers who hold the basic point of view reflected in contemporary texts will give greater emphasis to syntactical relationships. Since this study is designed as a guide for junior high grammar teachers and since the currently adopted texts give almost full sway to formal syntactical relationships in grammar, the example and activities of the section entitled Establishing a Nomenclature are designed to develop a terminology closely approximating that found in these texts. But since this terminology is based on concepts reasoned from specifics, it is meaningful.

Each of the Exercises with Specifics begins with suggested activities that can be performed easily. These exercises are based on the common familiar vernacular of the junior high pupil. The Follow-up exercise and the exercise called Establishing a Nomenclature attempt to lead the pupils progressively from the

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16. Harry A. Greene, "Direct versus Formal Methods in Elementary English," Elementary English, XXIV (May, 1947), p. 285.

17. DeBoer, et. al., op. cit., p. 63.

obvious to the concept--from the known to the unknown is the pattern.

In going from the known to the unknown the principle of one thing at a time, as advocated by Dakin,[18] is usually applied. Therefore, the teaching of the definitions of the parts of speech proceeds from the known to the unknown progressively--one thing at a time--using the vernacular as a guide to develop concepts. Hence the peculiar function of each part of speech is taught initially as a distinct entity without resort to its dependence or relatedness to other parts of speech. Thus an adverb is taught first as a word that tells where or when, not as a word that modifies a verb, adjective, or another adverb. A preposition is introduced first as a word that shows relationship. A pronoun is initially a word that identifies either a person, place, or thing without specifically naming it. With these, as with the other parts of speech, the concept is developed before it is named.

This identical pattern is followed in the teaching of the various marks of punctuation; this same pattern is also followed in teaching the correct use of the parts of speech, but the method of presentation is different. The same type of examples, questions, and activities is suggested, but the presentation is not categorized as the definitions are.

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18. Dorothy Dakin, How to Teach High School English (Boston, 1947), pp. 44-45.

Plato, the famous Greek scholar, was concerned with a method of teaching that would enable the pupils to recall inherent knowledge. Teaching to Plato was primarily a process of drawing out. It is not contended here that a knowledge of grammatical concepts is inherited, but it is maintained that by using sentences common to their vernacular pupils can be led to analyze their speech in terms of grammatical concepts.

The National Council of Teachers of English says, "Long before children can name the parts of speech they have learned to use them to communicate meaning, . . ."[19] More specifically, when junior high school pupils hear the sentence Bill ran very fast, they know that the sentence talks about Bill; they know that ran tells what Bill did; fast tells how Bill ran, and very tells how fast he ran. This study attempts to use such knowledge to develop concepts.

Many of the specifics in the exercises of this study are carefully structured to help the pupils make the optimum use of contextual clues. The initial sentences in the exercises dealing with punctuation are written in a manner that exhibit clearly the use of or need for some given mark of punctuation. The following

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19. National Council of Teachers of English, The English Language Arts (New York, 1952), p. 283.

exercises are examples.

Which boy, John or Pete, drank both coffee and milk?

1. For lunch John had coffee cake, ice cream, and milk.
2. For lunch Pete had coffee, cake, ice cream, and milk.

How do we know which boy drank both coffee and milk?

If Bobby purchased four items at the store, how should this sentence be punctuated?

Bobby bought ice coffee cake meal and flour.

Did Bobby buy ice coffee or coffee cake? Justify your answer.

Clues from content are evident also in the sentences that are used to develop grammatical concepts. The following exercise is an example.

Which two of these sentences tell about something that happened in the past? Which two tell about something that is happening at the present time?

1. I saw it yesterday.
2. I see it clearly now.
3. I now begin to work on this problem.
4. I began to work on this problem last week.

The organization of this study is designed primarily to teach the principles of the language contained in the junior high texts. Few exceptions are discussed. This seems feasible, for without a knowledge of the conventional a pupil obviously can not understand how a unique language structure deviates.

Various suggestions are made for testing the understanding of the generalizations that are developed. Some of these suggestions are rather conventional, like this:

Which of these <u>cook's</u> is a noun?

1. They cook in here.
2. The cook is here.

Others suggestion for testing are somewhat unique, like this:

Are these three statements true?

1. Infinitives are verbals.
2. Gerunds are verbals.
3. Therefore infinitives are Gerunds.

Is the conclusion in sentence three correct? Is it based on the first two sentences?

Are things that are equal to the same thing always equal to each other? If the pupils think they are, write these statements on the board.

1. Men are human beings.

2. Women are human beings.

3. Therefore men are women.

Now ask: Are the conclusions in either of the third sentences based on the two sentences immediately preceding them?

The Limitations of This Adaptation

As mentioned previously, the scope of this study is narrow, for only a limited number of punctuation and grammatical concepts are discussed. There are other limitations. The number of specifics listed for the various facets of punctuation and grammar are usually insufficient to develop the concept they embody. In all cases, the specifics included and the questions germane thereto are intended to show the type of exercise that is relevant for the particular concept under discussion.

The chronology the teachers of English in Alabama follow in developing grammatical concepts is not known. This in part is why no over-all sequence based on an assumed graduated composite is suggested or anticipated. Thus many concepts are discussed in rather strict isolation. Such discussion has the advantage of simplifying terminology, but it limits comparison.

To maintain that the method advocated herein is feasible and effective for developing concepts from specifics and to maintain that these concepts can often be developed in relatively strict isolation is not to deny that in some cases given facets of punctuation and grammar should not be approached as adjuncts of a more

comprehensive phase. For example, to teach the use of the comma in relation to the punctuation of directs quotations before quotation marks are taught seems inadvisable.

There are many instances of usage in both punctuation and grammar, like the use of the colon in 3:45, in which the generalization that is operative can be ascertained by alert visual observation of a few specifics. Many such cases are omitted from this study.

The attributes of morpheme are used but little. Historical innovations and inferences are omitted entirely.

As stated previously, it is attempted in this study to show the type of specifics needed to develop certain concepts. It does not, however, set up critera per se for helping pupils select relevant specifics. Experience in generalizing from preselected specifics should perhaps precede training in how to set up such critera.

Since the primary intent in this study is to show how specifics can be used to develop the concepts in the grammar texts currently adopted for the junior high schools of Alabama, no evaluation of the merits of the facts and conclusions in these texts is attempted. Such an evaluation in this study would be irrelevant.

Finally, it should be noted that understanding is not always synonymous with appreciation. This, of course, is true of understanding developed from specifics. It should be noted also that

appreciation of a grammatical concept does not assure its application.

Values of This Adaptation

What are some of the advantages of the specific method as outlined herein? One of the primary advantages is that learning proceeds from the known to the unknown. That this technique facilitates learning is generally accepted. An important aspect of this facilitation that is seldom emphasized is the aid given to understanding and retention--hence making the application of the acquired more likely. The claim for this aid is quite feasible, for the whole concept, relative to some given part of grammar, that is built up from the known to the unknown, encompasses, quite naturally, the newly acquired and the previously known. Since this is true, the known element on which a new concept partly depends is not as subject to quick mental oblivion as is the newly acquired; therefore the whole of the new concept can often be reconstructed after a time lapse by reflecting on the process that gave rise to the concept which developed from the known.

When learning proceeds from the known to the unknown, it puts into practice the principle of learning which states that "teaching should begin where the pupils are." Using the level the pupils have attained as the beginning base for the teaching of grammar may have distinct advantages. It often simplifies the initial phase of teaching and enhances the chances of pupils' progress. And if

the pupils experience success, they are likely to become motivated to study, for "it is a psychological fact that success brings interest--and interest leads to initiative and effort."[20] In other words, "Success begets success."[21] Also, it is good for a child to learn that he possesses habits of speech which his teacher is willing to accept as a base for guiding his further language development. Finally, beginning with what the pupils know is a partial safeguard against the teacher's "talking over the heads" of the pupils--a fact that should not be overlooked.

Then too, learning a concept from the study of specifics may make the study of junior high grammar less confusing. If a concept is understood, the pupils may call it by varied names and still understand its function. But if pupils are given definitions and told to apply them, confusion may result. For example, observe these explanations from grammar books currently in use in the junior high schools of Alabama.

From Junior English in Action

> A pronoun is a word used in place of a noun. . . .a stand-in or substitute for a noun.

(This example of how a given sentence would sound with and without pronouns is given.)

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20. Bureau of Educational Research of the College of Education of the University of Alabama, Report of A Study of The Public Schools of Baldwin County, Alabama (University, Alabama, 1957), p. 126.

21. Ibid., p. 126.

WITHOUT PRONOUNS When the time comes for the baby to take the baby's nap, the baby wants the baby's bottle, and when the baby should be fed, the baby invariably plays with the baby's toes.

WITH PRONOUNS When the time comes for the baby to take his nap, he wants his bottle, and when he should be fed, he invariably plays with his toes.[22]

Note that his replaces baby's.

From Building Better English

Certain pronouns may be used as adjectives. Such pronouns are known as pronominal adjectives.

Willie left his raincoat here. (adj.) This is his. (pro.)[23]

From Plain English Handbook

These pronouns in the possessive case are called possessive adjectives: my, your, his, her, our, their, its.[24]

Just what is the word his? If pupils begin with rules and attempt to find the answer, the real function of pronouns and adjectives is likely to be of little concern. But if the concepts of adjectives and pronouns are developed independently without the help (?) of rules, these varied terminologies will perhaps be less

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22. J. C. Tressler and Marguerite B. Shelmadine, Junior English in Action (Boston, 1956), p. 214.

23. Mellie John, et. al., Building Better English (Evanston, Illinois, 1957), p. 255.

24. J. Martyn Walsh and Anna Kathleen Walsh, Plain English Handbook (Wichita, Kansas, 1951), p. 23.

baffling. The pupils can readily understand that the word his in the sentence "This is his book" is part adjective and part pronoun. Also, junior high pupils are less likely to be adverse to a highly technical terminology if it is used to identify known concepts.

The differences in terminology referred to above point up another major purpose and advantage of the specific method. The development of concepts, not the memorization thereof, is the result of the procedure of this method. Phraseology is commendable only if it is based on understanding. Beginning the study of grammar with an unknown rule often gives undue emphasis to vagueness. The development of concepts is paramount; the phrasing of these concepts into rules is secondary.

Other values are claimed for the process of generalizing from specifics. Pooley says, "Teaching of grammatical concepts is slower, less precise, and more demanding of patience and careful planning . . ."[25] when approached from specifics. "But the results, he concludes, "are in the long run more satisfactory, for this type of learning leads to understanding and application much more readily than does the memorization of rules."[26] E. B. de Sauzé maintains that these values accrue from generalizing. He says, "Instead of presenting the student with a rule on a platter, we set up a few

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25. Robert C. Pooley, Teaching English Grammar (New York, 1957), p. 138.

26. Ibid., p. 138.

carefully chosen illustrations of that rule and we lead him to . . .formulate his observations into a law governing those cases." Such a process, according to de Sauzé, has the following advantages:

> . . .it causes concentration, it sustains interest, it gives to the neurones the stimulation that comes from the satisfaction of having accomplished by one's own efforts a worthwhile and difficult task, it assists the memory which retains more easily and more permanently any element that has been carefully observed and stayed with. Another exceedingly valuable by-product resulting from the use of the "challenge" device is the training that the student receives . . .[27]

Finally, of generalization de Sauzé says that he "has an unshakable belief that such mental habits are transferable not only to related fields of language, but to any situation requiring systematic observation and careful generalization."[28]

Discussing the relative merits of having the pupils arrive at a generalization from specifics as opposed to beginning with a grammatical principle, the National Council of Teachers of English surmises:

> . . .a more effective procedure, usually, is to have the student find for himself from the analysis of a number of carefully prepared sentences the principle . . .The important point here and elsewhere in the teaching of grammar is that the student shall not be tempted to memorize a statement instead of developing a clear concept. He

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27. E. B. de Sauzé, The Cleveland Plan for the Teaching of Modern Languages (Chicago, 1953), p. 13.

28. Ibid., p. 13.

> must be helped to see that grammatical knowledge is a useful framework for analysis of the language he is using every day . . .[29]

Addressing English teachers Dakin says, "you and your students build up your definition, which . . .will then mean much more than an arbitrary pronouncement by you of a definition . . ."[30]

The exact phraseology that represents the conclusions is not as important as is the habit that is inculcated of critically searching grammar. Those trained to so search are more likely to continue to keep abreast of language in the future. This is important, for the language pupils search critically today will be greatly changed twenty years hence.

Too, when the pupils are free to search for a generalization common to isolated segments of grammar, they are likely to comprehend the generalization, the rule, once it is established. Whereas if the study of some grammatical phrase is begun with a pronouncement by the teacher of a rule, the pupils try to "fit" the facets of grammar they examine into the preconceived form. Free search is thus greatly hindered.

The specific method simplifies the terminology of grammar, for beginning, as it does, with the pupils' knowledge assures a vernacular understood by the pupils. This is important. "Adult

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29. National Council of Teachers of English, The English Language Arts in the Secondary School (New York, 1956), pp. 376-377.

30. Dakin, op. cit., p. 63.

specialists are much too prone to fall into what Edgar Dale has called the COIK fallacy--Clear Only If Known."[31] The method suggested herein is a partial safeguard against this fallacy.

Not to be overlooked is the value of a new reasoning technique that this specific method affords. Far too much of the pupils' attention in school is directed toward verifying principles or rules. Not enough attention is given to the task of having the pupils search for a principle or a rule. Pupils need practice in doing just this. Not all unscrupulous politicians begin their speeches with lies. They often build premises on half-truths, clever deceptions, and fallacious assumptions.

The method advocated herein can be used effectively by those who adhere primarily to the non-syntactical approach and by those who favor the syntactical approach; more important, however, this method can serve both schools of thought as a remedial adjunct or as a basic plan. This is true because specifics can be used to develop concepts based on use or syntax. An example of concepts based on each of these approaches is evident in the discussion of personal pronouns in Chapter II of Part III.

The method of beginning with specifics avoids many of the pitfalls of empty verbalism. "The difference in understanding among pupils, all of whom can say the same words, is often

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31. DeBoer, et. al., op. cit., p. 89.

liberally enormous. It may range from no understanding at all to adequate, functioning meaning."[32] Pertinent to grammar, too frequently pupils' knowledge of grammar is tested in terms of rules remembered. A pupil taught in the formal manner may verbalize about grammar without understanding the basic concepts he recites. Since rules are end products of either approach of the specific method, this weakness is partially avoided, for if an adequate nomenclature is not developed by the pupils the teacher is aware that the grammatical concept in question has most likely not been fully mastered. When the pupils develop their own terminology, it is almost certain, if the terminology is correct, that they understand the particular part of grammar under study.

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32. William H. Burton, The Guidance of Learning Activities (New York, 1952), p. 35.

PART II

PUNCTUATION

PUNCTUATION

In teaching punctuation successfully it is imperative that the pupils be led to comprehend the basic purpose of punctuation. Dakin says:

> . . .main emphasis should be placed on demonstrating that punctuation bears upon communication of thought.
>
> . . .make your pupils conscious of the fact that each punctuation point conveys to the brain, by means of the eye, a definite message; . . .
>
> . . .emphasize that the purpose of punctuation is to clarify thought or to make it forceful by the separation of elements in the sentence.[1]

Dakin herself realizes, however, that in the teaching of punctuation, rules are necessary. Speaking of such rules she says:

> You should avoid too many rules, but you should insist upon accuracy in the use of those emphasized. You cannot, for instance, condone the failure to punctuate correctly compound sentences; nor can you permit a pupil to neglect an end punctuation.[2]

If Dakin's point of view is accepted, how shall the study of punctuation proceed? How shall the communicative concept of punctuation be taught? How shall rules be made meaningful?

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1. Dorothy Dakin, How to Teach High School English (Boston, 1947), pp. 111-113.

2. Ibid., p. 113.

The specific method, if followed, demands that both the concept and the rules be approached through specifics. Of course, the type of specifics used to develop the communicative concept will serve equally effectively as a base from which rules may be drawn. Since the rules merely reflect concepts, it is, quite naturally, evident that concepts must precede rules.

Exercises like the ones below may be used to develop the communicative concept of punctuation marks.

Who is a failure in sentence one below? in sentence two?

1. Woman, without her, man is a failure.
2. Woman, without her man is a failure.[3]

What makes these sentences different in meaning?

How does punctuation affect each set of sentences of identical words below?

1. Jack Owens is running again.
2. Jack Owens is running again?

1. He came home from the Northwest; John also came.
2. He came home; from the Northwest John also came.

As pupils work with a few sentences of this type, it will become evident to them that punctuation marks communicate, since identical words can be made ambiguous with punctuation. They will

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3. Dakin, op. cit., p. 117.

see that "Punctuation shows what words cannot say, and it is of no use except to give meaning."[4] It is often helpful for pupils to glean this communicative concept of punctuation before they begin the study of any given marks of punctuation. Once this concept is understood, the teaching of any part of punctuation is greatly simplified, and "punctuation is lifted from a level of memorization to an important role in expression of ideas."[5]

When the pupils realize that punctuation marks communicate, then what? Of punctuation Hook says:

> "Let them see why." Not "Tell them the rules," not "Tell them why," but "Let them see why." You might proceed . . .using an unpunctuated example. Then give them another example, and another. Each English teacher should have his own collection of sentences or group of sentences that illustrate well the need for stops.[6]

The National Council of Teachers of English maintains that pupils "need to have before them examples of how to punctuate . . .alternating remarks, the name of the person spoken to, simple series, and appositive modifiers."[7]

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4. John J. DeBoer, et. al., Teaching Secondary English (New York, 1951), p. 40.

5. Dakin, op. cit., p. 113.

6. J. N. Hook, The Teaching of High School English (New York, 1950), p. 318.

7. National Council of Teachers of English, The English Language Arts in the Secondary School (New York, 1952), p. 340.

DeBoer, Kaulfers, and Miller also sanction the specific method.

> As in other cases involving instruction in usage, examination of various types of effectively punctuated sentences, followed by practice . . .in close imitation of the models, is a more direct and effective way of developing ability in punctuation than the study of grammatically phrased rules . . .[8]

Commenting on the teaching of punctuation, Howe says:

> If the English language is allowed to come out and show itself . . .the principles of punctuation and correct usage work themselves out almost automatically. Rules are scarely needed. At least they need be mentioned only at the end of each process, . . .[9]

This chapter details how to teach the comma, period, question mark, exclamation point, quotation marks, hypen, colon, and semicolon through the use of specifics.

Comma

Even though the communicative concept of punctuation marks in general is established before the teaching of specific marks begins, it is necessary to establish a few of the unique communicative aspects of each mark in particular before it is studied as a separate entity; especially is this true of the comma. Help pupils to "understand that each comma says to the reader, 'stop a second! Here's something you don't want to confuse with what's to

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8. DeBoer, et. al., op. cit., pp. 99-100.

9. M. L. Howe, "Summarized Grammar," The English Journal, XL (June, 1951), p. 308.

come.'"[10] A brief exercise like the following will usually suffice to show the uniqueness of the comma.

How many men went on the trip?

Smith Norman Scott Forbus Thomas Hayes and their grandfather went fishing.

Justify your answer.

In which sentence is the applesauce in the cake?

1. A good snack is applesauce, cake, and milk.
2. A good snack is applesauce cake and milk.[11]

If the pupils comprehend that commas aid communication by saying to the reader, "Stop, don't confuse this with what is to come," they are ready to commence the study of the various unique communicative functions of the comma. (Remember with commas, as with all aspects of grammar, the technique is taught and learned before its nomenclature is established.)

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10. Dakin, op. cit., p. 113.

11. Albert Gray, et. al., English in Practice: Book One (Columbus, Ohio, 1953), p. 36.

Commas To Separate Items in a Series

Exercise with Specifics

Punctuate the following sentences:

1. John went to the store to purchase ice cream chocolate cake rice bread ginger cookies corn meal and flour.
2. At the clothing store Jane bought rayon silk hose red velvet corduroy and a hat.

How many items did John purchase at the store? Can one be sure of the exact number of items purchased?

Did Jane buy three, four, or five items? Justify your answer.

Follow-up

Permit a pupil to read aloud these sentences, having his class fellows note the number of items in each sentence. Naturally, if the pupil reading the sentences does not read as he has punctuated, the number of items intended by the reader will be at variance with what the listeners glean. Only when the pupil observes the pauses suggested by the commas will the individual reader's number of items agree with what his classmates surmise from the oral interpretation.

Establishing a Nomenclature

When it is certain that the above procedure has led the pupils to understand that the comma communicates in sentences of this type, the search for a nomenclature may begin. Ask the pupils what the commas do in these sentences. From the many wild guesses

that this question will provoke, some pupil will venture, "They separates the variety of different foods John got at the store" or "They shows how many different things Jane bought." Be content with these observations. For to be sure, both are correct. And it is fairly certain that the true concept of the function of the comma in sentences simulating these has been established.

If a more formal nomenclature is desired, request the pupils to make a single observation that will describe the function of the commas in both sentences. To aid them make this observation ask such question as, "In what way are the commas in the two sentences alike?" No doubt, it will be noted that the commas in both sentences separate. "Separate what?" "Things," may well be the reply. "What's another word for things?" "Products," may be appropriately suggested. Don't give up or be discouraged, for such answers as these show clearly that the pupils perceive the function of the commas in these sentences. Just suggest that the word <u>items</u> may be substituted for the word <u>products</u> or <u>things</u>. At this point, the pupils will be in a position to surmise that "Commas separate items." This is a partially correct definition. When this nomenclature has been established, present a few sentences of this type:

1. While in town yesterday, we bought some apples and oranges at a grocery store and some ice cream and cokes at a drug store.
2. We went to New York and Boston last year.

Why are the items in these sentences not separated by commas? Immediately, the pupils will surmise, "Because they are not together." Then ask the pupils if it is not clear that commas do not always separate items in a series. Having the pupils to re-examine the items in the first two sentences will make them cognizant of the fact that only items that are together are separated by commas. The pupils, at this point, may augment the rule governing the use of commas in sentences of the first type given to read, "Commas are used to separate items that are together." Pointing to the encyclopedia set say: "Here are many books that belong together, but we don't always speak of them as books that belong together or as 'together' books but as a _____ of books." If the word set is suggested, ask: What other word beginning with an S is appropriate for the above blank? If the word series is not suggested, suggest it as a substitute for set. Now point out to the pupils that the books being together form a series, and in like manner the items being together in a sentence form a series.

After this is done, ask the pupils to observe the sentences again to determine what else separates items in a series. "And," naturally, will be the reply. Do commas precede such and's? Permit the pupils to do as they jolly-well please relative to using or omitting commas in such cases.

Additional Exercise with Specifics

After pupils know how to use commas to separate items in series of the type used in the sentences previously cited, to further extend their knowledge of the comma as a separator of items, permit them to examine sentences like these:

1. Enclosed is a self addressed, stamped envelope.
2. The library contains old and new books.
3. The young and beautiful singer appeared.
4. I like to hunt, to swim, and to fish.

Follow-up

In sentence one envelope has two words that describe it, as does books in sentence two and singer in sentence three. Why are the two items separated by a comma in sentence one only? If a comma were to replace and in sentence three, would the meaning be greatly changed? (The young, beautiful singer appeared.) How would such a change affect sentence two? (The library contains old, new books.)

What are the three items in sentence four?

Additional Exercise with Specifics

To help pupils punctuate correctly addresses and dates have them consider sentences like the following:

1. On Friday, February 7, 1958, it snowed in Birmingham, Alabama.
2. At 89 South Gopher Street, Lipscomb 4, Alabama, lives Sue Stamps.

Follow-up

How many items are encompassed in "February 7", "89 South Gopher Street", and "Lipscomb 4"?

In what respect is "Birmingham, Alabama" a series of two items?

What is peculiar about the commas after the items "1958" and "Alabama"?

How does this use of the comma vary from the rule, "Commas are used to separate items in a series"?

Additional Exercise with Specifics

The study of the comma as a separator of items (adjectives) that describe words (nouns) that follow them needs to include punctuating sentences of this type:

1. Old man Powell came.
2. Enclosed is a stamped, self-addressed envelope.

Follow-up

Point out that sentence two may be written Enclosed is a self-addressed, stamped envelope; but sentence one cannot be written Man old Powell came. Why is there no comma between old and man in sentence one?

Continue with sentences of this type until the pupils surmise that only descriptive words (adjectives) that are interchangeable are separated by commas.

Mastery Check Exercise

Insert commas where they are needed.

1. The young beautiful singer and old man Powell ate ice chocolate cake and cookies at Sue Stamps's home at 89 Gopher Street Lipscomb 4 Alabama on February 7 1958.
2. The silver covered book has been found.
3. As Joan left, her mother asked, "Did you get the three invitations for Cole Benson Crawford Edward Nelson and Green Cooper?"
4. The fun-loving gray headed janitor is liked by all.
5. Did Mr. Brown drive all the way from his home at 406 Second Street Birmingham Alabama on Thursday February 6 1958 just to see the play?

Commas To Set Off the Person Addressed

Exercise with Specifics

What is the difference in meaning between the sentences of identical words?

1. Will you help, Dad?
2. Will you help Dad?

What is wrong with these sentences?

3. Bill said, "We are going to cook John."
4. Did Henry say, "He was going to drive Dad"?

Follow-up

In which sentence is a father addressed? How do you know?

How can John and Dad be spared the discomforts implied in sentences three and four?

Without a doubt, what did Bill really say? What did Henry ask? How can what they said and asked be indicated?

Establishing a Nomenclature

The discussion of a few sentences of this type should lead the pupils to form a basic concept of the correct use of commas to set off persons addressed. To help establish this concept, write the following on the board.

1. Did you go with them, Joe?
2. Mother called Bill to lunch.
3. How old are you, Margaret?

Now ask: How does Bill in sentence two differs from Joe in sentence one and Margaret in sentence three? From the negative statement, "They are not addressed," to the positive assertion, "Commas set off persons addressed," is simple. Merely ask if Joe and Margaret are addressed.

Mastery Check Exercise

Punctuate these sentences.

1. Will you help us Jerry with this?
2. Pete I telephoned Jack last night.
3. Wait Christa for me!

If a pupil sets Jack off with commas, he needs to practice more with examples of the type found in above Exercise with Specifics.

Commas To Set Off Appositives

Exercise with Specifics

1. My teacher, an expert golfer, is considering running for lieutenant governor.
2. The duck, a water-loving fowl, walks wobbly.

Follow-up

In sentence one, does either governor or golfer means the same as teacher? What word or words describe the selected word?

What is talked about in sentence one? How is golfer related to what is talked about? In studying sentence two, follow this same procedure.

What two words in sentence one describe golfer? What words in sentence two describe fowl?

Why are the words golfer and fowl and the words that describe them set off by commas? Why is governor not set off?

Of course, the purpose of these questions is to lead the pupils to recognize that in sentence one teacher (what's talked about) is the same as golfer, not governor, and that in sentence two duck is the same as fowl.

Establishing a Nomenclature

These questions are intended to get the pupils to comprehend that in sentences of this type only the word (with its describers) that means the same as the word that it talks about is set off by commas, and to help them understand that the pause before and after the appositive makes clearer its meaning.

The teacher desiring a more formal nomenclature may assign the term appositive to the word (with its describers) which means the same as the word it talks about (renames or describes) by telling what.

Additional Exercise with Specifics

However, when the term appositive is assigned to word or words that rename or describe by telling what, the task of teaching the correct punctuation of appositives may not be complete, as this exercise will perhaps indicate.

Underscore each word or words (appositive) that means the same as what the sentence talks about (subject).

1. Red Boy, our pet turkey, weighs over forty pounds.
2. My sister Marilyn came.

Follow-up

To explain why the word Marilyn, which is the same person as sister, is not set off by commas as is the phrase our pet turkey,

which denotes the same fowl as Red Boy, can easily be accomplished by posing these two questions: "Which underscored element answers the question, 'What'"? "Which answers the question, 'Which'"? In the sentence My sister Marilyn came does the word Marilyn tell which sister came? In the sentence Red Boy, our pet turkey, weighs over forty pounds does the phrase our pet turkey tell which Red Boy or what Red Boy is?

Present to the pupils more sentences simulating these latter two, asking them to observe the punctuation of the sentences with appositives answering the question "which one" or "which ones." From this, the rule, "Appositives that tell which one or ones are not set off by commas," can easily be surmised.

Mastery Check Exercise

The pupils' comprehension of the comma as a device to set off appositives can be checked by presenting to them sentences containing one-word and multi-modified appositives.

Punctuate these sentences; then underscore each appositive.

1. Brenda my oldest sister is a good swimmer.
2. His brother Terry is studying to become a doctor.
3. Ike the 33rd president is an enthusiastic golf player.
4. The present Commissioner of Agriculture is running for governor.

Finally, before the study of the appositive is ended, point out that all appositives come immediately (the next word or words, in fact) after the word or words they describe. Check comprehension with sentences like these, asking the pupils to underscore each appositive.

1. The duck, a water-loving fowl, is often a pet.
2. My sister Marilyn came.
3. Our teacher, an expert golfer, is considering running for lieutenant governor.

If the pupils believe the predicate nominative pet to be a one-word appositive, give them more exercises of specifics; but first, point out the position of the word pet, comparing it with the word Marilyn in sentence two.

Commas To Set Off Nonrestrictive Clauses And Nonessential Elements

Exercise with Specifics

This exercise is suggested to help pupils punctuate correctly sentences involving restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses.

All of the sentences labeled (A) below express a true statement; however when their underscored words are omitted, as they are in the sentences labeled (B), some of them remain true; some become false. In the parentheses that follow each (B) sentence, write T if the sentence is true; F if false. (Each (B) sentence is a partial reproduction of the (A) sentence above it.)

(A) Usually it is most difficult for any man who has a prison record to find a job.

(B) Usually it is most difficult for any man to find a job.----------( )

(A) The piano, which is a versatile instrument, was used in the band.

(B) The piano was used in the band.----------( )

(A) Most students who are repeatedly tardy should be suspended.

(B) Most students should be suspended.----------( )

(A) The elderly gentleman, who came late, sang a solo.

(B) The elderly gentleman sang a solo.----------( )

Follow-up

What is common about the (A) sentences whose (B) counterparts are true?

What is common about the (A's) whose (B's) are false?

Why are the underscored elements sometimes necessary to make some sentences true; while in others, they are not?

Before attempting to establish a nomenclature for these specifics, proceed to the next set of specifics.

Exercise with Specifics

What quality do these sentences share?

1. Oh, I didn't know that.
2. The lesson being finished, Sandra was happy.
3. He insists, I should warn you, that his employees be punctual.
4. Yes, I agree.
5. After that, mother, we went to a show.
6. Helen, above all, is meticulous.[12]

Follow-up

What quality do these sentences share? Would all of them express a complete thought if the words set apart by commas were omitted?

Establishing a Nomenclature

Which of these sentences would remain true if the underscored words were removed?

1. Bill, on the other hand, sings well.
2. He jumped into the car and sped away at seventy miles per hour.
3. On the other hand is a scar.

Ask if the words into the car are necessary to convey the intended meaning in sentence two. (Is a person likely to jump and speed away

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12. Hook, op. cit., p. 325.

at seventy miles per hour without a car?)

Ask similar questions about the underscored words in sentences one and three.

Write on the board:

In sentence two the words <u>into the car</u> are _____ to make the sentence clear. The pupils may answer "needed," "necessary," or "essential." Now write: In sentence one the words <u>on the other hand</u> are not _____ to make the sentence clear. Again the pupils will perhaps answer "needed," "necessary," or "essential." If the latter word is not suggested, substitute it for either of the former two that may be suggested.

Now ask:

Are the words <u>on the other hand</u> essential in sentence three? If they are essential in this sentence, why are they not essential in sentence one?

Have the pupils notice how these sentences are punctuated.

Have the pupils to underscore the non-essentials parts of the sentences in the <u>Specifics</u> as is done in sentence one above. Ask again: How are all of these sentences alike? How are they punctuated? All non-essential parts are set off by what?

When this last question is answered correctly, ask the pupils to combine the question and answer into a positive statement. This rule, "Commas are used to set off non-essentials," should result.

When this definition is obtained, return to the Specifics containing the adjective clauses. The same technique employed to arrive at the rule just stated is appropriate for these sentences. Call the pupils' attention to the initial words of the adjective clauses used, pointing out that they denote the name of a person, place, or thing.

Commas To Set Off Adverb Clauses at the End of Sentences

Exercise with Specifics

List on the board a number of unpunctuated sentences ending in adverb clauses and prepositional phrases. Have each of these clauses and phrases begin with the word for.

For which of the for's could the word because be substituted?

1. We left at the half for it was late.
2. The boys left for windy Chicago.
3. The men did not stay for they had urgent tasks awaiting.
4. At eleven the children knew it was time for their lunch.

Beneath this list of sentences write, "whenever the word for means because inside a sentence put a comma (,) in front of it."[13] Then have the pupils punctuate the sentences listed on the board.

Follow-up

In sentence one, what reason prompted the people to leave at the half? What reason prompted the men to leave in sentence three?

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13. DeBoer, et. al., op. cit., p. 88.

Write these sentences on the board, having the pupils punctuate them.

1. The trip is not necessary since the letter came.
2. They left in haste at 8:05 as the concert was to begin at 8:15.

Now ask: Do the underlined elements in these two sentences state a reason as do the underlined elements in sentences one and three in the Exercise with Specifics? Could the word because be substituted for since and as?

Establishing a Nomenclature

In the "for" sentences of the type found in the Specifics, tell the pupils to apply the rule, "Whenever the word for means because inside a sentence put a comma (,) in front of it."[14] In sentences with as or since inside, like the ones above, lead the pupils to surmise that a comma precedes them if they are the beginning of a "reason why" statement--if because will substitute for since or as.

Mastery Check Exercise

Punctuate the following:

1. The children knew it was time for the peddler.
2. The children as well as the adults stayed indoors during the snow storm.
3. He is a good singer since he has studied voice.
4. Susan wanted to go for she delights in music.

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14. Ibid., p. 88.

5. The concert artist walked off the stage as she was disappointed at the response of the audience.

Commas To Prevent Misreading

Exercise with Specifics

What do these sentences have in common?

1. If James is sure there can be no mistake.
2. Her crying spell over the girl went home.
3. Mary Howard was here but he went home.
4. To cope with these people must be energetic.
5. Just opposite a tall building was in flames.[15]

Follow-up

Why does sentence one sound incomplete?

Can a "crying spell" go home as is implied in sentence two?

How do we know that the person's name in sentence three is not Mary Howard?

Why is the first impression that we get of the people in sentence four incorrect?

What false impression is temporarily given in sentence five?

Establishing a Nomenclature

After the pupils analyze the sentences of the Specifics as suggested in the Follow-up, it is fairly certain that they will

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15. Hook, op. cit., p. 325.

have gleaned that the comma can be used to prevent misreading. The simple question "What purpose do the added commas in these sentences serve?" will most likely solicit the reply "Their purpose is to prevent misreading." Such a reply is indicative of the desired concept.

Mastery Check Exercise

Punctuate the following:

1. John Beverly left after she sang.
2. To help them people gave of their time.
3. Knowing Jim to be frank made the interview easier.
4. Billey the goat butted the mirror.[16]

Commas To Prevent Momentary Misunderstanding

Exercise with Specifics

What is peculiar about each of the following sentences?

1. Just as we got set to run John's hat blew into the lake that was near by.
2. We ate the sandwiches and the dog ate the scraps.[17]

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16. Sentences three and four are based on--Gray, op. cit., p. 36.

17. Howe, op. cit., p. 310.

3. Scattered on the dressing table were jars of face powder tubes of make-up and crumpled kleenex.[18]

Follow-up

Punctuate the above sentences in a manner that will make them free of all momentary misunderstanding.

If a comma does not precede and in sentence three what happens to the kleenex? (They become tubes of . . .crumpled kleenex.)[19]

Establishing a Nomenclature

The technique used and the rule surmised should simulate those of the previous exercise. Whereas the rule for the above Specifics reads "Use commas to prevent misreading" the rule for this Exercise should read "Use commas whenever possible to prevent even momentary misreading." Pupils can be led to conceive this function of the comma with questions such as this: Even though these sentences may be quite clear upon inspection, how does the use of the common make inspection less needed?

Mastery Check Exercise

Punctuate these sentences.

1. While we were singing Rover began to howl.
2. Far off a huge iceberg was seen.

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18. Joseph C. Blumenthal and John E. Warrinor, English Workshop (New York, 1955), p. 21.

19. Ibid., p. 21.

Subsection Mastery Check Exercise

"Buy these five items at the store," Sally's mother said to her as she handed her a list with the words coffee cake ham sandwiches ginger bread and sugar written on it.

Did Sally buy ham sandwiches, coffee cake, and ginger bread? Could she have purchased all three? Did she buy ham or ham sandwiches? How could this uncertainty be removed?

In which sentence is Jim frank?

1. Knowing Jim to be frank made the interview easier.
2. Knowing Jim, to be frank, made the interview easier.[20]

Punctuate the following sentence.

My son John is a good tennis player.

Is the son a good tennis player? Why or why not? Is John the son?

Punctuate this sentence.

Didn't you tell me that on Friday February 13 1948 your aunt from Chattanooga Tennessee came to 2206 Second Street South Birmingham 4 Alabama to see me?

In sentence one below, how many people are at the New Year's reception with revolvers? How many in sentence two?

1. At the President's New Year reception the tenth man who had a revolver was stopped at the door.

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20. Gray, et. al., op. cit., p. 36.

2. At the President's New Year's reception the tenth man, who had a revolver, was stopped at the door.[21]

End Punctuation

"Fortunately, most high school boys and girls place an end punctuation point of some sort after each sentence. They do not, however, always choose the correct point, sometimes putting a period after an interrogative sentence, and frequently neglecting entirely the exclamation point."[22]

Perhaps this irresponsibility is due in large part to the fact that pupils have not had called vividly to their attention the meaning of end marks of punctuation. Having the pupils consider the specific meaning of these five sentences will perhaps make them more cognizant of the meaning that is conveyed by punctuation marks, particularly end punctuation marks.

Bill burst the balloon.

Bill, burst the balloon.

Bill burst the balloon?

Bill, burst the balloon!

A series of sentences of this type will make the pupils aware of the various end punctuations. If the series presented is composed of identical words, this awareness is much more likely to come about. The only variables in the sentences, the comma and the

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21. Dakin, op. cit., p. 115.

22. Dakin, op. cit., p. 115.

end punctuations, are made most vivid to the pupils.

Exercise with Specifics

Which of these sentences seems to need a (?), a (!), and a (.)?

1. Did he go home
2. He did go home
3. Go home

What punctuation mark may be used after each of these sentences?

1. You moved
2. I can go
3. Then it rained

Justify your answer.

Have some pupil read the words below as a simple statement, as a question, and as an exclamation. Have his fellow pupils interpret the oral reading by placing a punctuation mark after each sentence.

1. They're not going to do it
2. They're not going to do it
3. They're not going to do it

Follow-up and Establishing a Nomenclature

What punctuation mark obviously belongs after each up in the following sentences?

1. She said, come on up
2. She shouted, come on up
3. Did she say, come on up

Period

After these sentences are punctuated correctly, ask: If sentence one were read orally with the words she said omitted, would it still convey the same meaning? How would it have to be read to do this? If sentence number three is a question, what is sentence one?

When this question, or other similar ones, has evoked the answer, "statement," point out to the pupils that simple statements are followed by periods.

Exclamation Point

Is sentence two in the sentences above a question like sentence three? Is it a statement? How does this statement differ from sentence one?

The pupils will most likely suggest that sentence two indicates louder talking, more feeling, or greater excitement. Have the pupils note again the end punctuation mark of sentence two; then point out that the word exclamation denotes sudden or strong feeling. Therefore, tell the pupils that the (!) exclamation mark shows that the words are spoken with unusual feeling, not as a simple statement.

Question Mark

How could it be known that sentence three is a question if the question mark were not at the end of the sentence? If the words did she say were removed from the sentence, how could the

remainder of the words be made a question? How does one show such with voice inflection? How does one show in writing the voice inflection intended?

When these questions are answered correctly, explain to the pupils that the mark of punctuation denoting the inflected, questioning voice is usually the (?) question mark?

Ask: Do question marks always follow a question? If the answer is yes, and it is almost sure to be, write this conversation on the board.

"Did you go to the game last night?" Mary asked.

"Yes," replied Sue.

"You did?" Mary countered. "Did we win the championship!" Through examples like this lead the pupils to understand that the exclamation mark may follow either a statement or a question. It is the feeling of a word or sentence that demands the use of the exclamation mark, not its being a statement or a question.

Subsection Mastery Check Exercise

The sentence Go home may be punctuated three different ways: (1) Go home! (2) Go home? (3) Go home. Knowing what comes before and/or after each of these sentences would make them still more expressive.

For example

1. "Go home!" the farmer yelled to his dog.

2. Did she say, "Go home"?

3. Brother said, "Go home."

Why are the Go homes in these sentences more meaningful than the sentences composed of only the words Go home?

Punctuate the sentence Wait here three different ways. Then make each sentence more meaningful by putting appropriate explanatory words before or after it. Use the above sentences as a guide.

Supply the correct punctuation for each set of parentheses.

1. Oh boy ( ) we won the game ( )
2. What did she say ( )
3. Did she say for us to leave ( )
4. This is the eighth of February ( )
5. Goody ( ) tomorrow is the fourth of July ( )

Quotation Marks

The old saying "Do only one thing at a time" is most applicable in the teaching of quotation marks. To attempt to teach the correct use of quotation marks simultaneously with the pertinent commas and capitals pertaining thereto as advocated by some current grammar texts is most difficult. A few texts further befuddle the teaching of punctuation of direct quotations by suggesting that the pupils choose between direct and indirect quotations in the beginning. In teaching the correct punctuation of direct quotations it is

necessary to lead the pupils to understand the purpose of quotation marks. Once the pupils understand that such marks enclose the exact words spoken by someone, the task of distinguishing a direct from an indirect quotation is greatly simplified. And too, since the pertinent commas and capitals are placed in specific relationships to the quotation marks, certainty in the use of the quotation marks will make the correct use of relevant commas and capitals easy.

Exercise with Specifics

Underscore the actual words Christa said in the following sentences.

1. "I'm not going," Christa said.
2. "How do you know?" Christa asked.
3. "Oh boy! we won!" Christa yelled.
4. "If I find out," said Christa, "I'll let you know."
5. "Yes," Christa nodded, "if all goes well, I'll be there."

Follow-up

What comes before each group of words you have underscored? (If the pupils answer, "numbers," ask what comes before I'll in sentence four.)

What follows each group of underscored words? (If the pupils notice the four punctuation marks (,), (?), (!), and (.), ask: What common punctuation mark comes after every underscored group of words? At this time, do not discuss the accompanying punctuation that follows each direct quotation.)

Establishing a Nomenclature

Have the pupils observe closely the words they have underscored. To make them cognizant of the fact that all of the spoken words by Christa are enclosed in quotation marks, ask: What punctuation mark precedes each word or group of words spoken by Christa? Does this same mark come after each word or group of words spoken by Christa? Finally ask: Since all of the words spoken by Christa are enclosed by quotation marks, what is one use of quotation marks? The answers "They come before and after what people say," "They come on either side of what is said," or "They surround what somebody said" show understanding. But dignify such nomenclature by asking "What one word may mean the same as before and after, the same as either or the same as surround?" Continue thus, until the word enclose is suggested. When enclose is suggested, write on the board "Quotation marks are used to enclose the exact _____." Permit the pupils to complete the rule. If the pupils write the word, words, and stop, help them; ask: What words? If they reply, "The words spoken," you add "by a person."

To make more explicit the use of quotation marks, to introduce the punctuation and capitalization peculiarly relevant to such marks, and to show the unique use of single (') quotation marks is the intent of these added exercises.

Extended Use of Quotation Marks

Notice the punctuation of this conversation.

1. "Do you think it will rain today?" asked the young man.
2. "No sir, sonny boy," answered the old timer.
3. "Why not?" questioned the young man.
4. "Clouds ain't been right," replied the old time. "It won't rain for three days."
5. "Clouds haven't been right? I don't understand," replied the young man.
6. "You don't understand?"
7. "No."
8. "'Cause they ain't had fleecy tails for the last three days."

Number five above has two sentences: Clouds haven't been right? and I don't understand. In number five one set of quotation marks serves for both sentences; yet in numbers six and seven two sets of punctuation marks are used. Why?

To help the pupils answer this question, ask: How many people spoke the words contained in numbers six and seven? How many in number five?

Number four contains two sentences spoken by a single person; yet two sets of quotation marks are used to set off the direct quotations. Why? How is this sentence different from number five?

Accompanying Punctuation

Question Mark

In sentence one below, the question mark is inside the closing quotation marks; in the second sentence it is outside. Study these sentences and attempt to find the reason for this.

1. Robert asked, "Where are you going?"
2. Did Robert ask, "Where are you going"?

In both sentences the words Where are you going constitute a question. Right? Does Robert asked constitute a question? Is Did Robert ask a question?

Since the words Robert asked are not a question in sentence one, is the whole of the sentence a question? Is the whole of sentence two a question? Why? How does sentence two differ from one in this respect?

Exclamation Mark

Where does the exclamation mark belong in this sentence?

"Go home" the farmer yelled to his dog.

Where does it belong in this sentence?

It gave me great joy to say, "Serves you right"

Should all of the words in sentence one be spoken with unusual feeling? Should the words It gave me great joy to say in sentence two be read with more feeling than the words the farmer yelled to his dog in sentence one? Why?

Commas and Periods

Notice the placement of the commas and periods in these sentences.

1. "Well," said Bill, "I'm going anyway."

2. "In a few minutes, it will rise," said Robert.

3. "No," said Sue, "I don't think so."

4. "Yes, I will," said Kay. "Father asked me to do it."

How are the commas placed in relation to the closing quotation marks? How is the period placed?

Why is Kay in sentence four followed by a period, while Sue in sentence three is followed by a comma? To help the pupils answer these questions, write the exact words each said on the board. (No, I don't think so.) and (Yes, I will Father asked me to do it.) Then ask: How many sentences did Sue say? How many did Kay say? Have the pupils punctuate these sentences as they appear without the explanatory words.

Single Quotation Marks

In the following sentence underscore each word said by Bill with one line, and each word said by Keats with two lines.

1. Bill asked, "Do you think Keats was sincere when he said 'Truth is Beauty'?"

Why are the words take it easy set off by single quotations?

2. "Kay is always saying 'take it easy,'" remarked Sarah.

Repeating word for word what a person has said is called what?

Write out the words said by Bill in sentence one. Were the words Truth is Beauty actually said by Bill? Then are they part of the total quotation of what Bill asked? This being the case, should they be included within the double quotation marks?

Who said the words Truth is Beauty before Bill? If Keats said them before Bill, then is not Bill quoting them? In other words, this sentence has a _____ within a _____. If the pupils have trouble completing this sentence, give this explanation. Now in this sentence Bill asked, "Do you think Keats was sincere when he said, 'Truth is Beauty'?" Bill is quoted; yet while Bill is being quoted, he quotes from Keats; so a quotation within a quotation is evident. Now have the pupils fill in the blanks.

Analyze sentence two in like manner.

The method of following up and arriving at a nomenclature suggested for double quotation marks is appropriate for single quotation marks.

Accompanying Capitalization

Notice the capitals

1. "Well, if you wish," said Ken, "play it from the beginning."
2. "Let's wait," urged Ben, "until the rain stops."

Why is the word play in sentence one not capitalized? Why is until in two not capitalized?

If the pupils do not immediately glean that these words are not capitalized because they are not the beginning of sentences,

write sentence two on the board without the explanatory words or punctuation marks.

Let's wait until the rain stops

Should until be capitalized? Is it the beginning of a sentence?

Notice the use of capitals in these sentences.

1. "I'm done," said he. "What's next"?
2. "The red book is mine," said Pete. "It's our English text."

Why is the word what's in sentence one and the word it's in sentence two capitalized?

If the pupils have difficulty, write the sentences on the board without explanatory words or punctuation.

I'm done what's next

Are the words, I'm done, part of a question? Do the word what's next belong with the words I'm done? Now punctuate and capitalize I'm done what's next.

Now write

The red book is mine it's our English text

How many thoughts are expressed by these words? Now, punctuate and capitalize the red book is mine it's our English text.

Subsection Mastery Check Exercise

Arrange, capitalize, and punctuate this conversation.

This small book has only the poem Evangeline in it said the teacher have you read it she asked oh yes replied the pupil Virginia I enjoyed it very much tell me continued the teacher did you enjoy the short poem "First Date" Sure answered the pupil I get as much pleasure from it as I did from hearing Pat Boone sing "Young Love" on the Grand Old Opry by the way ventured the teacher don't some of the entertainers from the Grand Old Opry travel in deluxe busses they sure do answered Virginia well I guess they travel in high style like the President in the Sky Lark joked the teacher.

Hyphen

Many pupils are under the misapprehension that hyphens are decorative symbols. Dispel this false notion with this exercise.

Do these sentences convey the same meaning?

1. The peanut vendor has twenty-five pound bags left.
2. The peanut vendor has twenty five-pound bags left.

In which sentence does the vendor have twenty-five pounds of peanuts? In which one hundred pounds? How can one tell?

Hyphenated Compounds as Adjectives before Nouns

Exercise with Specifics

How is Hoover described?

1. Ex-President Hoover has remained active in governmental work.

What do the words up to date describe?

2. Here is an up-to-date record of our expenses.

The words out of the way describe what?

3. This out-of-the-way business is for sale.

Follow-up

Beside being described as remaining active, how else is the former president described in sentence one? Is Hoover just an ex? Is he President?

What do the words up to date describe in sentence two? Is the record an up record, an up to record, or a date record? Is record a person, place, or thing?

What do the hyphenated words in sentence three describe? Is it a person, place, or thing?

Establishing a Nomenclature

The hyphenated word in sentence one describe a person. Hyphenated words in sentences two and three describe what?

When these questions are answered, ask the pupils to describe

the use of hyphenated words of this type.

Most likely their summation will approximate this: "Hyphens are used to join words that come before a person, place, or thing." Of course, this is quite inadequate. Ask: How do these words affect the person, place, or thing? If the pupils answer, "They tell something about them," "They make clearer the meaning of them," or "They point out which one," be content. For these things they do. Next, ask: What one word can mean tell something, point out, or make clearer? Continue thus until the word describe is suggested.

At this point, permit the pupils to rewrite their rule. Using their limited knowledge, they know enough to write "Words that describe and come before a person, place, or thing are joined by hyphens." Show the inadequacy of this rule by asking the pupils to punctuate these sentences.

1. The tall beautiful girl is here.
2. The very old car is for sale.
3. The up to date plant was opened.

Is the girl in sentence one tall? Is she beautiful? Is she tall and beautiful? Could she be described as The beautiful tall girl?

Since both tall and beautiful describe, why are they not joined by a hyphen as the rule commands?

Is the car in sentence two old? Is it "very"? Does very describe old? Why are very and old not joined?

Is the plant in sentence three a date plant, a to plant, or

an up plant? Does either of these three words describe either of the others?

The girl may be spoken of as a tall girl, beautiful girl, or a tall, beautiful girl; the car is an old car or a very old car, but the plant is only an up-to-date plant. Right?

Are the words tall and beautiful used as one word? Are very and old used as one word? Are up, to, and date used as one word?

Now ask the pupils to write a rule showing the use of hyphens. They now know enough to write "A group of words used as one word to modify the name of a person, place, or thing should be joined by a hypen or hyphens."*

Hyphens To Make Meaning Clear

How many gallons of canned fruit has the farmer's wife in each sentence?

1. The farmer's wife canned twenty one-gallon jars of fruit.
2. The farmer's wife canned twenty-one gallon jars of fruit.

How much milk did Mary buy last month?

Last month Mary bought thirty two quart jars of milk? As the sentence is written, is it certain how much milk Mary bought? How could the meaning of this sentence be made clear without changing the word order?

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* The teacher must not lead the pupils to believe that all hyphenated words are adjectival in nature; however it is perhaps wise to teach only one aspect of the hyphen at a time.

If Joyce gathered 100 quarts of apples, how should this sentence be punctuated?

Joyce filled twenty five quart buckets of apples.

Continue with such exercises until the pupils grasp the communicative concept of hyphens. When this concept is understood, the pupils can easily write the rule: "Hyphens are used to prevent misreading."

Colon

Since the composition of the junior high pupil is relatively simple, the occasions that call for him to use the colon are necessarily few indeed.

Exercise with Specifics

If it is correct to put a (:) colon after boys in this sentence,

1. The principal needs these boys: Tim, Alec, Bert, and Phil.

after faults in this sentence,

2. Sue has three great faults: bad temper, carelessness, and selfishness.

and after us in this sentence,

3. Gus went hunting with us: John, Max, and me.

is it correct to put a (:) colon after need in this sentence?

4. The men shall need butter, bacon, and cream.

Follow-up

In the first sentence the principal needs what? (these boys)

In the next sentence Sue has what? (three great faults)

In sentence three Gus went hunting with whom? (us)

Are the answers to these questions found to the left of the (:) colon?

In order to use the colon in sentences like these, the answer to the "what" or "with whom" question must be to the left of the (:) colon.

In the last sentence the men shall need what? (butter, bacon, and cream)

If a (:) colon were placed after need would the answers to the question (shall need what?) be to the left of the (:) colon?

Does sentence four need a colon?

Explain to the pupils that the (:) colon may follow the words following, follows, or thus without the words answering the "what" or "with whom" question being to the left of the colon.

Semicolon

In varying his sentence structure the junior high pupil can utilize only to a limited degree the semicolon. Its use as a but and and substitution and its use as a joiner of independent clauses should be the extent of the junior high pupil's use of the semicolon. Its more subtle comparative aspects should not be the pursuit of the junior high pupil.

The unique communicative function of the semicolon may be shown with a simple exercise like this:

In the set of sentences of identical words below, what "spares" the "neighbors" from the "clean-up" in sentence two?

1. Last Thursday was designated as "clean-up day", so we cleaned up our neighbors promise to tidy up their yard next Thursday.
2. Last Thursday was designated as "clean-up day", so we cleaned up; our neighbors promise to tidy up their yard next Thursday.

The Semicolon as a Substitute for AND and BUT

It is imperative that the independent clauses of the compound sentences selected be extremely closely related. Also and's and but's as connectives for words and phrases should be omitted from the initial sentences presented. But as a preposition should be presented still later in the Follow-up.

Exercise with Specifics

What takes the place of the word but in the first two sets of sentences? of and in the third and fourth sets of sentences?[23]

(1a) I waited half an hour for Ed but he did not come.

(1b) I waited half an hour for Ed; he did not come.

(2a) Joe reads only nonfiction, but I prefer fiction.

(2b) Joe reads only nonfiction; I prefer fiction.

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23. These four sentences are based on--Mellie John, et. al., Building Better English (Evanston, 1957), p. 162.

(3a) Give me the list, and I'll try to check the names.

(3b) Give me the list; I'll try to check the names.

(4a) I collect Indian-head pennies, and I have thirty-six.

(4b) I collect Indian-head pennies; I have thirty-six.

Follow-up

What does the semicolon replace in each sentence?

In sentence "1b" how are the words traffic moved slowly related to the first part of the sentence?

Using this procedure, discuss the other "b" sentences.

Establishing a Nomenclature

Asking the pupils what the semicolon replaced in the Exercise with Specifics above will, no doubt, bring the response, "Periods." At this point, the pupils may surmise, "Semicolons replace periods." Broaden this definition by emphasizing the relationship of the two thoughts that are combined by the semicolons in the Exercise with Specifics; otherwise pupils may gain the misapprehension that all sentences related in proximity can be joined by semicolons. Lead the pupils to augment the definition to include this relationship. To do this, ask question such as, "When does the semicolon replace the period?" With other similar questions and more specifics, if necessary, lead the pupils to this rule, "The semicolon may replace the period if the two thoughts separated by the period are closely related."

Mastery Check Exercise

Combine the related sentences below with the aid of the semicolon.

1. I called to Bobby. My neighbor's dog slept on the porch.
2. The starting gong sounded. The battle was on.
3. The workers need the factories. The factories need the workers.[24]

Subsection Mastery Check Exercise

In the paragraph below substitute a semicolon where possible for and and but; substitute it for periods that connect related thoughts.

The children walked to school under a clear blue sky, but by 9:30 the rain came down in torrents. During recess, the pupils wanted to go outside to play. The teacher, however, thought the weather was too bad for outdoor play. She suggested several indoor games, and all the pupils but Terry joined in playing.

Comprehensive Mastery Check

Punctuate these two conversations.

Where did she go questioned Mary

I don't know said Linda

Did she say I'm tired just before she left asked Mary

Is this old fashion house for rent asked June

No said Ruth the people who live there are vacationing

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24. Sentences two and three are based on--Blumenthal and Warrinor, op. cit., p. 69.

In December

Oh yes replied Ruth to be sure they have money don't let this house deceive you

Do these words below constitute an apology?

I called Mr. Jones a liar it is true I am sorry[25]

Justify your answer.

Who thinks the other naive?

The country boy thinks the city youngster is naive[26]

Justify your answer.

Punctuate

Smith Thompson went fishing with his three neighbors Cooper Nelson Crawford Dalton Will and Loyd Leonard

What are the names of the three neighbors who went fishing with Smith Thompson?

Punctuate

No Betty Jean did not come

Do the words Betty Jean name one girl or two?

Is there a person in the store after six?

No one came into the store after six.

Justify your answer.

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25. Dakin, op. cit., p. 117.

26. Based on--Ibid., p. 117.

How many are spoken of?

Will Leonard Grady set the gauge

What is the name of the person or persons in this sentence? Now interpret the sentence two other ways without changing the end punctuation mark.

Punctuate this conversation. Use capitals where needed.

mother can I use the car tonight asked Tommy You mean may I answered the mother no I mean can I insisted Tommy can means to be able replied the mother you should use the word may when asking permission she urged oh I'm going to ask that next said Tommy if father hasn't repaired the radiator I know I shall not be able to use the car even if I have permission

PART III

GRAMMAR

CHAPTER I

THE NOUN

In his book Teaching English Grammar Pooley decries presenting definitions first in the teaching of the recognition of nouns. He says:

> . . .students have often begun the study of grammar by learning the definition "A noun is the name of a person, place, or thing." This seems very simple and easy, and a good clear way to teach a simple element of grammar. A few moments' reflection, however, will reveal that what the young student usually learns from such instruction is the words of the definition, but very little of the conceptual meaning underlying the words. Even the concept of a name is not too easy. . . .Any seventh-grade teacher can cite many instances of otherwise reasonably intelligent pupils who . . .never seem able to grasp fully what is meant by a noun.[1]

In the teaching of nouns, as with other segments of grammar, it is best for the pupil to "derive his definitions and rules," says Pooley, "from the observation . . .of a large number of particular instances."[2]

Dakin says, "Look first at the noun, as usual being concerned with recognition. On the board put illustrative sentences containing examples of different classes of nouns, avoiding, however,

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1. Robert C. Pooley, Teaching English Grammar (New York, 1957), pp. 137-138.

2. Ibid., p. 138.

any mention of this phase of formal grammar."[3]

Although these writers recommend beginning with specifics in the teaching of nouns, their detailing of how to do it is limited. Both have recently written books that discuss methods of teaching grammar. Pooley gives not one specific example on how to teach nouns, and Dakin devotes only some ten lines to the subject. These writers are typical of those who recommend the specific method.

Recognition of Nouns

Exercise with Specifics

Which underscored word in this sentence names an object?

The book is over there.

Is an object named in this sentence?

The pencil is broken.

Which word in the above sentence names an object? Is the object pencil the name of a person, place, or thing?

What word in this sentence below names a thing?

This desk is new.

Write the words lights, board, and floor on the board. Then ask the pupils to list the names of ten other things they see in the room.

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3. Dorothy Dakin, How to Teach High School English (Boston, 1947), p. 63.

Does the underscored word in this sentence below name a person, place, or thing?

A new cave was found.

Which word in this sentence names a place?

The mountains are very beautiful.

Write the words valley, hillside, and gorge on the board. Then ask the pupils to list five other words that name places. (If the pupils list proper nouns, accept them; and, as yet, make no distinction between common and proper nouns.)

Underscore the word in each of these sentences that names a person or persons.

1. The boy won.
2. The girls came later.
3. How many men came?

Follow-up

Rewrite this sentence on the board.

The book is over there.

Reask: What word in this sentence names an object? Write the word book on the board. Pointing to the word book with one hand while holding the book itself aloft with the other hand, ask: Which of these is the real object? Is the object book a person, place, or thing?

Then book is the name of a _____. (thing)

Once again, point to the book on the desk and to the word book written on the board; then ask: Which of these books is an object called a thing? Which is a word that names a thing?

Since the book on the desk is an object, an object called a thing, the book written on the board is not a thing, but a _____ (word) that names a thing.*

The pupils now understand that the book on the board is a name for a thing, and they also understand that it is a word. To help the pupils combine these two concepts into a single statement, put this form on the board.

Book is a _____ that names a _____.

When the pupils supply the words word and thing for these blanks, they will understand that the word book is the representative of the thing lying on the desk. Now tell them that the word book is a noun.

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* Some educational psychologists maintain that words should be considered as objects that are representatives of other objects. In this study, however, words are not considered as objects, but as representatives of objects. This is not intended to deny the validity of the other point of view. It is felt, however, that the considering of words as words per se will simplify the initial abstractness involved in comprehending nouns.

Junior high pupils need not be concerned with questions like this: What is the distinction, if any, between what is represented by the two identical words in the interrogative sentence Is is a verb?

Now have the pupils mark out the word book and write the two words a and noun in front of the sentence Book is a word that names a thing, like this:

A noun ~~book~~ is a word that names a thing.

Now under this sentence write

Cave is a _____ that names a _____.

Then write

Boy is a _____ that names a _____.

At this point, tell the pupils that the words cave and boy are nouns also.

These three sentences should now be on the board in this order:

A noun ~~Book~~ is a word that names a thing.

Cave is a word that names a place.

Boy is a word that names a person.

Now have the pupils mark out and add in sentences two and three as they did in sentence one. When this is done, these three sentences should be on the board.

1. A noun ~~Book~~ is a word that names a thing.
2. A noun ~~Cave~~ is a word that names a place.
3. A noun ~~Boy~~ is a word that names a person.

Now have the pupils define the noun with one sentence. To help them do this, write:

"A noun is a word that names a _____, _____, or _____."*

In order to get the usual definition sequence, point to the first blank and sentence three simultaneously; blank two, sentence two; and blank three, sentence one.

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* Should a noun be defined as a word that names a person, place, or thing? Dakin quotes part of Maurice Garland Fulton's discussion of the characteristics of an effective definition. In part this is what Fulton says, "The object or term we are to define is put under the class of objects to which it belongs. . . .We must next specify in what particulars the object or term under consideration differs from others in the same class."

However, before the class to which an object belongs is designated, the term to be defined should be named. A cognate should come next. Then, as Fulton says, the class to which the term belongs along with its differentiating characteristic or characteristics should be noted.

Applying these requirements to the definition: "A noun is a word that names a person, place, or thing," it can be observed that noun, the term to be defined, is listed first. A cognate follows. Then noun is put under the class to which it belongs--a word. Finally, it particular characteristic of naming a person, place, or thing is given.

"Careful adherence to these principles," says Dakin "will help your pupils to substitute accurate thinking and phrasing for the incomplete, inchoate expression often passing for definition."

In this study these general steps are followed in defining the other parts of speech.

According to the definition just surmised, which of these cook's is a noun?

1. They cook in here.
2. The cook is here.

Which cook names a person?

In sentence one below which man is used to name a person? In sentence two which fish is a noun?

1. Can the man man the boat?
2. Did he fish for fish?

Recognition of Proper Nouns

Exercise with Specifics

The first underscored word in the sentence below refers to how many people? The second underscored word refers to how many?

All of the boys in this room are very fast runners, but last Tuesday John outran them all.

Assume that the boys whom John outran are the boys in your class; then ask the pupils to fill in these two blanks.

The word John refers to _____ person.

The word Boys refers to _____ persons.

Follow-up

Which underscored word below denotes a particular person?

Sam was among the men.

Write

The word Sam refers to _____ person.

The word Men refers to _____ persons.

Why is it possible to have many different answers for the second blank above?

Establishing a Nomenclature

Is it known what walked among the men in this sentence?

1. It walked among the men.

Was it a person, an animal, or a robot? Why is it not known what walked?

Is it known what walked among the men in this sentence?

2. A boy walked among the men.

How do we know it was a person? Do we know what particular person?

What walked among the men in this sentence?

3. Sam walked among the men.

Do we know what particular person?

In sentence one we do not know whether what walked among the men was a person or a thing; in sentence two we know what walked among the men was a person; in sentence three we know what walked among the men was a particular person, a person named Sam.

In the sentence They grow fast does the word they denote a person, place, or thing?

In the sentence Girls grow fast what does the word girls denote?

In the sentence Joan and Jean, the twins, grow fast, the words Joan and Jean name _____ people who grow fast.

(Have the pupils look again at the above paragraph if the word particular is not immediately placed in the above blank.)

Since the underscored words below name either a person, place, or thing, what part of speech are they? (Review pages 104 through 108 if necessary.)

1. The boy is tall.
2. That mountain is high.
3. My 1953 car is blue.

Write on the board

1. The boy is Bill.
2. That mountain is called Lookout.
3. My 1953 car is a Ford.

In sentence one

Bill is a word that names a _____ person.*

In sentence two

Lookout is a word that names a _____ place.

In sentence three

Ford is a word that names a _____ thing.

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* Review again, if necessary, the paragraph on the preceding page.

Now tell the pupils that the words Bill, Lookout, and Ford are proper nouns, for they are words that name a particular person, place, and thing.

Now the pupils should be able to write this definition:

"A proper noun is a word that names a particular person, place, or thing."

According to the definition above, is the word Napoleon in sentence one the name of a particular person--that is, is it a proper noun? Is the word leader in sentence two a proper noun?

1. Napoleon was a military genius.
2. He was the leader of Germany.
3. He was the Napoleon of Germany.

In sentence two leader tells what he was. Right? Does leader designate a particular person? Since it does not, is it a proper noun?

In sentence three does the word Napoleon designate a particular person? Is it a proper noun?

Recognition of Common Nouns

Exercise with Specifics

Underscore each word in these sentences that name a person, place, or thing.

1. Bill and Sam, reputed to be the two funniest men alive, will entertain here tonight.

2. Geraldine and Crossville, small cities that border each other, are growing fast.

3. This Ford and that Plymouth, our two new cars, are blue.

Since each of the underscored words above names either a person, place, or thing, what part of speech are they? (Review pages 104 through 108 if necessary.)

Follow-up

Using the sentences in the Specifics as a guide, complete these blanks with one word. In the parentheses write person, place, or thing, according to whichever is named in the blank immediately preceding.

Name of particulars	Class to which they belong	
Bill and Sam	men	( )
Ford and Plymouth	cars	( )
Geraldine and Crossville	cities	( )

Establishing a Nomenclature

Which of the underscored words in these sentences names a class to which the other two underscored words belong?

> I have a new typewriter and so has my sister. Mine is a Royal; hers is an Underwood.

As can be seen, typewriter is a class name; Royal and Underwood are types (members) of typewriters.

Using the sentences in the Specifics as a guide, fill in each blank below with one word.

1. _____ is a class name of which Bill and Sam are members.
2. _____ is a class name of which Ford and Plymouth are members.
3. _____ is a class name of which Geraldine and Crossville are members.

Write persons, places, or things in these blanks.

1. Men is a class name for _____.
2. Cities (towns) is a class name for _____.
3. Cars is a class name for _____.

Now tell the pupils that the words men, cars, and cities are common nouns.

At this point have the pupils substitute the words a common noun for the first word in each sentence above, like this:

1. A common noun ~~Men~~ is a class name for persons.
2. A common noun ~~Cities~~ is a class name for places.
3. A common noun ~~Cars~~ is a class name for things.

To help the pupils combine these three concepts in a single sentence, put this form on the board.

"A common noun is a class name for _____, _____, or _____."

Distinction between Concrete and Abstract Nouns

Exercise with Specifics

Which underscored words have a form (shape, size, color, weight, etc.) that can be described? In short, which of the underscored words can be seen with the eye and/or felt with the hand?

1. Money often makes a person dizzy.
2. Love often makes a person dizzy.
3. Some women crave jewels.
4. Some women crave popularity.
5. She needs fresh air.
6. She needs pity.
7. Too much heat is not good.
8. Too much pride is not good.

Follow-up

Write the word money on the board. Have the pupils name any two pieces of money (with a value of less than twenty dollars). If they name, for example, a fifty-cent piece and a ten dollar bill, borrow such a bill and show it to the pupils; then ask them to describe it. They can see its color and size; they will observe the picture of Hamilton. Let them describe the fifty-cent piece, too. Then ask: Can both the bill and the coin be seen? Can they be felt with the hand?

Write the word love on the board; then ask the pupils to describe the shape, size, color, or weight of love. Why can't love be described as money was? Can love be seen with the eye or felt with the hand? (I assume this is a safe question, since junior high pupils most likely are unfamiliar with the Gestalt theory.)

Follow this same procedure with sentences three and four.

Write the words air and pity on the board. Which of these can be seen with the eye or felt with the hand?

Ask similar questions about heat and pride.

Establishing a Nomenclature

Underscore the words that name something.

desk	courtesy
honesty	goodness
seen	went
cloud	book

Now place a check (✓) after each underscored word that names something that can not be seen with the eye or felt with the hand.

desk	courtesy
honesty	goodness
seen	went
cloud	book

Now ask: What part of speech are the underscored words without checks by them? Do the underscored words with checks by them also name?

Now explain to the pupils that the nouns which name things that can be felt with the hand and/or seen with the eye are called concrete nouns;* nouns which name things that can not specifically be seen with the eye or be felt with the hand are called abstract nouns.

(Agreement of nouns and verbs is discussed in Chapter IV.)

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* Of course, you, the teacher, know that this distinction between concrete and abstract nouns is not valid in all cases. For example, the word music is susceptible to the sense of hearing. As the pupils gain in ability to comprehend abstractions, expand the definition of abstract nouns to include all nouns not susceptible to the five senses.

CHAPTER II

THE PRONOUN

The teaching of pronouns in many instances has not been too successful.

> Diebel and Sears found that more mistakes in pronouns were made in the eighth grade by pupils who had received instruction in formal grammar than by third graders who had not had the benefit (?) of such instruction. This fact led the investigators to inquire, Is the present teaching of pronouns leading to a more confused state of mind in the eighth-grade child than existed when he was in the third grade and was entirely unconscious of the rules of grammar governing the use of such words?
>
> The findings of other investigators have confirmed those of Diebel and Sears.[1]

One way to determine the most frequent and persistent errors is to study mistakes prevalent in students' writing after they have finished high school. Such a study was made at the University of Illinois.[2] This study recorded errors of lack of agreement in number of verbs, comma fault, incorrect tense or mood, sentence fragment, faulty reference of pronouns, and eight other types of errors. Of the thirteen types of errors recorded, in the fifteen per cent sampling of freshmen, only three of them were made by as many as forty per cent of the freshmen; of these three,

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1. John J. DeBoer, et. al., Teaching Secondary English (New York, 1951), p. 59.

2. J. N. Hook, The Teaching of High School English (New York, 1950), p. 293.

only faulty reference of pronouns exceeded the fifty per cent mark. But fifty-nine per cent of the pupils made this error.

Who and Whom seems to be particularly difficult. Robertson and Cassidy report:

> Many people get through life without ever saying whom; if they are aware of its existence at all, they regard it as a luxury of speech beyond their simple needs. George Ade once described in these illuminating terms a man obviously not of the folk: "He wore horn-rimmed spectacles and said 'whom.'"[3]

H. L. Mencken commented in the 1940's that most people who use whom employ it as an affectation and generally use it incorrectly.

As can be seen, the authors quoted above decry the poor results of past efforts to teach the correct use of pronouns. DeBoer, Miller, and Kaulfers include in their book Teaching Secondary English a chapter on "How to Teach Grammar and Usage." Yet in this chapter not one single example of how to teach pronouns is given. Neither do the authors Robertson and Cassidy, and some six lines exhaust Hook's single example on how to teach pronouns.

As was pointed out previously, the National Council of Teachers of English sanctions the non-syntactical approach[4] of the specific method of teaching English grammar; however the two examples

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3. Stuart Robertson and Frederic G. Cassidy, The Development of Modern English (New York, 1954), p. 298.

4. National Council of Teachers of English, The English Language Arts in the Secondary Schools (New York, 1956), pp. 376-377.

quoted therein represent the totality of specific examples given on the teaching of pronouns by the three recently published books of the curriculum series by the Council.

The remainder of this chapter is by far the most comprehensive and complete outline on how to teach the correct use of pronouns directly by the non-syntactical approach yet attempted, and it is the first, and only, systematic outline on how to teach the recognition and syntactical relationships of pronouns by the specific method.

The specific method demands that the pronoun be taught as a replacement for the name of a person, place, or thing, not as a vice noun. In fact, as will be shown, it is possible (though not advisable) to teach the pronoun before the noun is taught. Thus it can be seen that it is not essential to commence the teaching of the pronoun by proclaiming to the pupils that the pronoun is a stand-in for a noun, or that it takes the place of a noun. Such a beginning may hinder, not help, the pupils' understanding of the real function of the pronoun.

The Recognition of IT as a Pronoun

Exercise with Specifics

Make these sentences sound better by substituting a single word for the two underscored words.

1. When the book was found, the book was badly torn.

2. We should get the new desk this week, for the desk was shipped last week.

3. When I bought this bicycle, I compared this bicycle with the others on sale.

Follow-up

Pick up a book, point to it, and ask: What is this object called? Write the word book on the board.

Pointing to the word book with one hand while holding the book itself aloft with the other, ask: Which of these is the object? Which stands for or names the object?

Is the object book the name of a person, place, or thing?

In which of the sentences below is the name of a thing underscored? In which a place? In which a person?

1. The book was found by the eager searchers.

2. The tiny tot Shirley was found by the eager searchers.

3. The cave was found by the eager searchers.

What words do the it's stand for in the sentences below? Tell whether each word replaced by it is a person, place, or thing.

1. When the book was found by the eager searchers, it had been drenched by heavy rains.

2. When the tiny tot Shirley was found by the eager searchers, it had been drenched by heavy rains.

3. When the cave was found by the eager searchers, it had been drenched by heavy rains.

In sentence one, is a person, place, or thing found by the eager searchers? What is the name of the thing? What word is used in place of the word book? Follow this same procedure with sentences two and three.

In sentence one above, underscore the words book and it. Pointing to the words book and it with one hand and to the book itself with the other, ask: Which of these is a real thing? What is the name of the thing found? What other word points out what was found? Which of the words, book or it, replaces the other? Which word names a thing? Which word replaces the name of a thing?

To make this explicitly clear to the pupils hold the book aloft and ask: Is this an it or a book?

To help the pupils understand that through the use of pronouns the repeating of names may be avoided, write this exercise on the board.

In the sentence, (1) When it was new, it looked old, do we know what looked old when it was new? Why don't we know?

In the sentence, (2) When the piano was new, the piano looked old, do we know what looked old when it was new? Even though we know, why does the sentence sound peculiar?

Is the sentence, (3) When the piano was new, it looked old,

clearer in meaning than sentence one? Is it as clear as the second sentence?

Which of the three sentences is best? Why? Since the words piano and it refer to the same thing, why have two words? What makes sentence three sound better than sentence two.

Establishing a Nomenclature

Write these three sentences on the board.

1. When the desk came, it was broken.
2. When the mine was discovered, it was filled with water.
3. When a baby cries, it is often hungry.

List three it's on the board

1. it
2. it
3. it

Now ask: In sentence one above, does it replace the name of a person, place, or thing? (Write thing after the first it.) What is the thing called? (Write desk after thing.) Continue until the exercise looks like this:

1. it - thing - desk
2. it - place - mine
3. it - person - baby

In sentence one it replaces the name of a _____, in sentence two it replaces the name of a _____, and in sentence three it

replaces the name of a _____; therefore the word it may be used as a substitute for the name of a _____, _____, or _____.

At this point, the pupils can understand the substitutive function of a pronoun if told that the word it is a pronoun.

Now have the pupils substitute the word it into the above sentence, which says, "therefore the word it may be used as a substitute for the name of a person, place, or thing." Slight rewording will be necessary of course. The definition should begin, "A pronoun is a word . . ." Have the pupils complete this, using the compound sentence following the three it's as a guide.

A Special Exercise

To help pupils distinguish between possessive adjectives and pronouns is the intent of this Special Exercise.

What is the difference between the her's in these sentences?

1. I told her to come.
2. This is her cap.

If the word her in both sentences refers to a person named Jane, would the sentences then read:

1. I told Jane to come.
2. This is Jane cap.

What is wrong with sentence two?

Since sentences two should read, This is Jane's cap, is the her in sentence two just a substitute for Jane?

Continue with questions similar to this until the pupils comprehend that the word her in sentence two represents both the owner of the cap and the cap itself. Lead them to understand that it is not a true pronoun, for it does more than stand for a person, place, or thing; it shows ownership, too.

Personal Pronouns

The Recognition of Personal Pronouns

The teaching of this unique use of the pronoun needs to be very simple. Pronouns in the nominative and objective cases should be presented first. Although pupils can readily understand that the sentence John lost John's hat should read John lost his hat, avoid such examples. In fact, avoid all possessives in the initial study of personal pronouns; even avoid the use of the objective pronouns like his and her as possessives. Also, begin with singular pronouns of the first and third persons.

Exercise with Specifics

What is peculiar about the following sentence?

1. When Mary left for Denver, Mary carried with Mary some clothes which Mary had bought especially for the trip.

Ask the pupils to rewrite the sentence. Of course she and her will be substituted for the latter three Mary's. Write the words she and her on the board.

Ask the pupils to rewrite this sentence.

2. As John reached the top of the hill, John and the boys with John ran faster.

After the pupils have substituted he and him, write these words under their feminine counterparts.

Fill in each blank with the obviously missing word.

3. Earl said to his friends, "(I) myself think that (we) ourselves should take some action to help."
4. John said, "As for (me), I prefer to go alone."
5. "Men," he said, "This is for all of (us) to decide together, and I'm willing to help."
6. "If Peggy and Tom understand that (they) are scheduled to give their report before us, maybe we ought to speak to (them)."
7. "Now, girls and boys," said the teacher, "I want (you) to study pages five and six as your assignment for tomorrow."
8. Looking at a picture of Bill's sweetheart, Bestro said, (it) is a good photo."

These sentences are intended to identify all of the objective and nominative personal pronouns. If a word other than the one inserted is suggested, ask the pupils to suggest a second word. The following sentences are intended to identify possessive, personal pronouns. Pronouns that may be used as possessive adjectives are omitted.

Who owns the pencil or pencils in each of these sentences?

9. Bill said, "This pencil does not belong to John; it's mine."
10. "Sam and Sue," said Jim, "these pencils are yours."
11. Tell Linda that this pencil is hers.
12. The twins said, "The pencils with the pink lead are ours."
13. Tell Kay and Faye that these pencils are theirs.
14. Tell Lambert that this pencil is his.

Follow-up

In the first rewritten sentence above the words she and her stand for ____. In the second sentence he and him stand for ____. In sentence three the word I stands for ____. We in the same sentence stands for ____.

Write the pronoun and the words for which they stand on the board like this:

she
her Mary

he
him John

I Earl

We Earl and friends

etc.

Establishing a Nomenclature

When all of the personal pronouns have been listed thus, ask: What is the function of she and her in sentence three? Of he in sentence two?, etc. When this is done, ask: What does each of the words in column one above do? When this and other similar questions evoke the reply: "They stand for or take the place of the name of a person or persons," the pupils may be told that these words which may replace the names of persons are personal pronouns.*

The Correct Use of Personal Pronouns

Non-syntactical Approach

Exercise with Specifics

Underscore the correct word.

1. (He, Him) went to the store.
2. (I, Me) went to the store.
3. This is for (he, him).
4. This is for (I, me).
5. She gave (him, he) an apple.
6. She gave (me, I) an apple.
7. This will benefit (he, him).
8. This will benefit (me, I).

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* Of course, these pronouns also serve to identify non-personal objects.

Follow-up

In sentence one above we say, He went to the store, and in sentence two we say, I went to the store; therefore we should say, (___) and (___) went to the store. If a pupil should write, He and me went to the store, cross out the words He and and; then ask the pupil to read the sentence. He will surely glean that me went to the store is incorrect.

Pair and analyze sentences three and four, five and six, and seven and eight in this manner.

Establishing a Nomenclature

Since it is correct to say, This is for him, and This is for me, when each of these sentences is said separately, may we conclude that it is correct to say, This is for him and for me, or This is for him and me?

To help the pupils understand that both words of a compound subject or object use the same pronouns as single subjects and objects do, write exercises like this on the board.

This is for you and I.

Now cross out you and.

This is for ~~you and~~ I.

Pupils can readily see that This is for I is incorrect. Do this with subjects and objects.

Using this device, lead pupils to establish a rule.

We say, He went to town, when only one person is going;

we also say, I went to town, when only one person is going;

and we say, He and I went to town, when two people are going.

After many examples like this, involving both subjects and objects, have been given, ask: Are the words the same whether one or more than one person is mentioned? If one person goes somewhere, we say he went or I went; if two go, we say He and I went.

What rule governs the use of pronouns in such cases? Continue with questions similar to this until the pupils surmise that "say (when there are two) what you say for each one alone,"[5] will insure the correct use of these pronouns.

This same technique is applicable to one-word appositives.

We say, We worked hard, and He gave this to us;

we also say, We boys worked hard, and He gave this to us girls.

Does the addition of the words boys and girls change the word immediately before them?

If the pupils have difficulty, write exercises like this on the board.

Write to (us, we) boys at the store.

If a pupil selects we, mark out the words after we.

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5. National Council of Teachers of English, The English Language Arts (New York, 1952), p. 289. Words in parentheses are added.

Write to we ~~boys at the store.~~

The pupils will immediately see that write to we is incorrect.

With other similar examples and questions, lead the pupils to conclude that the pronoun before a one-word appositive is the same as if the appositive were omitted.

A variation of this technique is applicable to elliptical clauses.

If we say, I can not eat as much as he can eat;

then should we say, I can not eat as much as he can;

and should we also say, I can not eat as much as he?

If pupils say He is as tall as me write on the board

He is as tall as me am tall; then mark out all the words before me.

~~He is as tall as~~ me am tall

Pupils will immediately see that me am tall is incorrect.

Lead them to establish the rule, "Say what you would if the other words were added."

Syntactical Approach

In order for pupils to correct errors by syntactical analysis involving personal pronouns used as subjects, predicate nominatives, objects and possessives, it is necessary, first of all, for the pupils to know the three categories into which personal pronouns are divided. To establish this division, have the pupils do these exercises.

I. Classification of Personal Pronouns

First, list on the board all the personal pronouns save <u>it</u> and those which may be used as possessive adjectives.

Then, write on the board

Is this BOOK mine?

Ask the pupils to place as many of the remainder of the pronouns as will make sense after <u>book</u>. A seventh grader should produce with but little difficulty in some correct form the following:

		mine?
		his?
		hers?
Is this	BOOK	yours?
		ours?
		theirs?

With this done, write on the board

He CAUGHT them.

Ask the pupils to fit the remainder of the pronouns on the appropriate side of <u>caught</u>. Again, most seventh graders will produce with but little difficulty in some correct form the following:

I		her
He		him
She	CAUGHT	me
We		you
You		us
They		them

When all of the pronouns are properly placed, the search for the uniqueness of each category may begin. To help pupils understand the function of the possessive pronouns following book, ask: In the sentence "This ball is mine," said Bill who owns the ball? What word denotes Bill as owner of the ball? In the sentence The piano was shipped to Jim do we know who owns the piano? In the sentence This is yours do we know that something is owned by someone? Why?

In the exercise of placing the appropriate pronouns after the word book, do each of the words following book show ownership? Are there any other words in the list* on the board that could be placed after book to show ownership?

We say This book is his and This book is hers; why can't we say This book is "our" or This book is "their"?

How are these sentences different?

1. This book is hers.
2. The book was handed to him.

In which sentence is the book's owner shown? Do we know that the person referred to by the word hers in sentence one owns the book? Do we know for sure the owner in sentence two?

Continue with other similar sentences and questions until the pupils surmise that the words mine, yours, hers, his, ours, and

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* It was suggested earlier that the personal pronouns be listed on the board.

theirs show ownership. When this observation is made, tell the pupils that these pronouns which show ownership are in the possessive case.

To help the pupils understand the respective function of the nominative and objective cases, ask: What is the function of each set of words on either side of caught?

In the sentence He beat them, who does the action involved in beating? Who receives the action of being beat? In the sentence We overtook her, who does the action involved in overtaking? Who receives the action of being overtaken?

Which set of pronouns, those before or following caught, is capable of doing, of showing action? Which set of words does the catching? Which set is caught?

The teacher may now tell the pupils that the pronouns capable of action are in the nominative case, and those incapable of action are in the objective case.

II. Use of Personal Pronouns

Now that the personal pronouns have been categorized, the specific instances requiring the use of each case needs to be studied. Since the nominative case is the most prevalent in use, it is discussed first. The objective is discussed second, and the possessive third.

A. Nominative Case

1. Subject

What is talked about in this sentence?

Where is Bill?

Is is talked about? Is where talked about? Is Bill talked about?

What is talked about in this sentence?

Did Bill leave?

Is the sentence talking about did? About leave? About Bill?

What is talked about in this sentence?

Bill cooked.

Does the sentence tell something about what was cooked or something about Bill? What is the sentence talking about?

What is talked about in these sentences?

She left.

He came.

They sang.

Are you going?

We ran.

Is it gone?

Who left, came, sang, ran? Who may go? What may be gone?

What one word is talked about by the other two?

Then, he cooked.

Does he cooked talk about then?

What is talked about in this sentence?

He cooked the apples.

Does the sentence talk about he or the apples? Read the sentence omitting the word he. Read it omitting the words the apples. Which reading makes sense?

What is talked about in this sentence?

Yesterday, which was July 4, he, with the greatest of care, cooked these big, delicious, red apples.

Referring to the "caught" exercise, pick three words from the set of pronouns that precede caught and use each in a sentence. In the sentence that you have written what is talked about? Pick three words that follow caught. Use these in a sentence. What word is talked about in the sentence you have written?

What word in this sentence is talked about?

He came late.

Does he precede or follow caught?

What word in this sentence is talked about?

She gave her a gift.

Is she or her talked about? Read the sentence omitting she; read

it omitting her. Now which word is talked about? Does she precede or follow caught?

When the pupils glean the idea that the pronouns which precede caught are what the other words in the sentence tell something about, they may be told that words which are talked about are called subjects.

Which one of these fish's is used as the subject of a sentence?

1. He caught a fish.
2. She found a fish pond.
3. They attempted to fish.
4. We watched the fish.
5. When we came home, the fish was gone.

In sentence one mark out the word fish and the word a, like this:

1. He caught ~~a fish.~~

Do the words he caught express a complete thought? Since they do, is fish the subject?

Mark out the words a fish pond in sentence two, to fish in sentence three, and the fish in sentences four and five. In which sentences do the remaining words express a complete thought. Which sentence with the words marked out is incomplete? Of which sentence is fish the subject?

2. Predicate Nominatives

What is talked about in this sentence? Is any word an action word?

I am going.

Are the words am going the subject of the sentence? Is the word I what is talked about?

Ask the same question about this sentence.

I am going to give this to him.

What is talked about in this sentence? Does any word show action?

I am.

What is talked about in this sentence? Is any word an action word?

I am a singer.

What other word names the same person as I?

What is talked about in this sentence? Is any word an action word?

I am he.

What word means the same as I? Do both I and he point out the same person?

Which word means the same as what the sentence talks about (the subject) in these sentences below?

1. The twins are the winners.
2. She is the best players.
3. She is a singer.
4. These are they.
5. It was she.

6. The clown is he.

7. The two youngest players are you.

What word renames twins? What word renames she in sentence two and three? What other word means the same as these? etc.

Notice that sentence one could be made to read The winners are the twins; sentence two could read The best player is she; three, A singer is she; four, They are these; etc. Why is it possible to change places with the subject (what the sentence talks about) and the word that renames it?

Now tell the pupils that the word which renames what the sentence talks about is called a predicate nominative.

On which side of caught are the words used as predicate nominatives found, before or after?

Which of these sentences contain a predicate nominative?

1. I am a singer.

2. I outran him.

Do the words I and singer identify the same person? Do the words I and him denote the same person?

Sentence one may be rewritten, A singer am I. If sentence two were changed, it would read, Him outran I.

Which of these sentences sounds correct when rewritten as above?

Which of these sentences has a predicate nominative in it?

1. The boxer is the tallest.
2. The boxer is he.

Boxer is what is talked about in both of these sentences. In which sentence is boxer renamed. What word renames the boxer? In which is the boxer described? How is he described? Which sentence may be rewritten in the manner that the above sentences were?

B. Objective Case

I. Direct Objects

What is talked about in this sentence?

Bill cooked.

What did Bill do?

What is talked about in this sentence?

Bill cooked the apples.

(If any pupil thinks that the sentence talks about <u>the apples</u>, have him read the sentence omitting the word <u>Bill</u>; then have him read it omitting the words <u>the apples</u>.)

What word in the above sentence shows or implies action? Who did the cooking? What receives the action of being cooked?

What word is talked about in each of these sentences? What word shows action? What word receives the action?

1. He caught him.
2. Mother canned the tomatoes.

3. We beat them.

In sentence one what word shows action? Who does the catching? Who receives the action? Who is caught? In sentence two who did the canning? What did she can? Who is "beat" in sentence three? Who gives the "beating"?

Looking again at the words on each side of caught, ask: Which of these sets of words is capable of action?

(Remember, words that act or words that are talked about by other words are called subjects. Which set of words is capable of action?)

Which set of words, those before or after caught, and which words in the above sentences are not words of action--that is, which words do not show action? Do these words receive action?

When the pupils comprehend which words are incapable of action, yet receive action, tell them that words which receive action are called direct objects.

2. Indirect Objects

What is talked about in this sentence? What word shows action?

Bill cooked.

What is talked about in the sentence below? What word shows action? What word receives the action?

Bill cooked the apples.

What is talked about in this sentence? What word shows action?

Bill cooked us the apples.

What did Bill do? What did he cook? For whom did he cook the apples?

Write on the board

Henry mailed Joan a letter.

Who does the act of mailing? What did Henry mail? To whom did Henry mail the letter?

In the following sentences what word shows action? What word does the action? What word receives the action? What word receives the benefit of the action?

1. Nora sent Christa some coffee.
2. She left them some fruit.
3. He gave us the tickets.

In sentence one what word shows action? What did Nora send? To whom did she send the coffee?

In sentence two what word shows action? Who left? What did she leave? For whom did she leave the fruit?

In sentence three what word shows action? Who gave? What did he give? Who received the benefit of the giving?

Words that receive action are on which side of <u>caught</u>? Words that receive the benefit of the action are on which side of <u>caught</u>?

Words that receive the benefit of expressed actions, as well as the words that receive the action, are in the objective case. Words receiving the action are called direct objects; words that name to or for whom or what something is done are called indirect objects.

In the sentence

1. She left them some fruit.

What word receives the action of being left? What word shows who received the benefit of the leaving? Which word is the direct object? Which word is the indirect object? How can one tell?

In the sentence

2. She left them.

What word receives the action of left? Is the word them in this sentence a direct or an indirect object?

Does the word them receive the action of the word left in sentence two? Does the word them receive the action in the first sentence? Why is them an indirect object in sentence one and a direct object in sentence two?

3. Object of Prepositions

Obviously pupils can not use pronouns correctly as objects of prepositions unless they are able to recognize prepositions.

(For a detailed discussion on how to recognize prepositions see Chapter VII of Part III.)

When the pupils are able to recognize prepositions, put this

exercise on the board.

Underscore each word that shows relationship in these sentences.

1. He walked into the big, blue room.
2. Bill's feet are under the big, shiny desk.
3. We called to him.
4. This book is for you.
5. This book is for me.

In which group of pronouns, those that precede or follow the word <u>caught</u>, do the words that follow the prepositions in sentences three, four, and five belong? Are these pronouns in the nominative or objective case?

In sentence two above Bill's feet are under what? What is the relation of Bill's feet and the desk? What word shows this relationship?

Ask similar questions about the remainder of the sentences.

Now ask the pupils to draw a double-pointed arrow to indicate the words related by each preposition in the sentences below. Intersect the line connecting the points of the arrow with a third arrow to indicate the relating prepositions, like this:

He jumped into the pool.

1. He walked into the big, blue room.

2. We called to him.

With exercises of this type lead the pupils to see that the objective pronoun, unless it is the latter part of a compound object, is usually next to the preposition it follows. Modifiers are seldom between the pronoun and the preposition.

C. Possessive Case

List these words on the board: my, mine, your, yours, his, her, hers, our, ours, their, and theirs.

Now write these sentences on the board.

This is mine.

That is your book.

Ask the pupils to place the remaining words after the words this is or that is, according to whichever is appropriate.

Any junior high pupil should produce in some correct form the following:

	his
	yours
This is	mine
	theirs
	hers
	ours

	my	
	his	
That is	your	book.
	their	
	her	
	our	

Do the words in each of these exercises indicate ownership? Which group of words shows ownership without specifically naming what is owned?

What does Bill own in each of these sentences?

1. "This 1953 Ford is mine," said Bill. "I bought it yesterday."
2. "This is mine," said Bill. "I gave thirty cents for it."

Now ask again: Which group of words shows ownership without specifically naming what is owned?

At this point, tell the pupils that these pronouns which may show ownership without naming what is owned are <u>possessive pronouns</u>.

Who, Whom, Whose

To help pupils establish the proper case of <u>who</u>, <u>whom</u>, and <u>whose</u>, write this exercise on the board.

Place the appropriate word <u>who</u>, <u>whom</u>, or <u>whose</u>, in the following blank.

This book is _____?

Place the remaining two words on the appropriate side of caught?

_____ caught _____

Which of these words are in the objective case, the nominative case, and the possessive case?

First, Second, and Third Persons

Personal pronouns show by their forms whether they are first, second, or third person. In establishing person, it is relatively simple to identify gender, case, and number. This exercise does all three.

Tell whether each underlined pronoun in this "political speech" refers to Joe, who is talking, to John and Bob, whom Joe addresses, or to the politicians whom Joe talks about?

1. "Now, my friends," said Joe, "as for me, I myself think
2. that we should ask ourselves, is this man who has been in
3. office for twelve years for us, the people of Gravelville,
4. this town of yours and mine.
5. "Do you, my friend John," continued Joe, "want to re-elect
6. a man who says he is for lower taxes, yet he voted for a tax
7. increase only eleven years ago? Is such a man for you, my
8. friends? I say let's drive him and the other who went into of-
9. fice with him out. This town of ours deserves better. They have
10. not served us well. Let's show them this town is not theirs, and
11. let us show especially the present mayor that this town is not

12. his. When I am your mayor, Bob, this town will be part yours.
13. "I heard a housewife say just last week that taxes are so
14. high that she can hardly afford enough food to feed that lovely
15. family of hers. As she says, 'We need to do something about
16. it'!"

With this "political speech" before the pupils on a mimeographed sheet or on the board, ask: Whom do the words me and I in line one stand for? Do the words me, and I point out Joe, who is speaking?

Whom does the word mine in line four replace? Does this word indicate that Joe considers himself part owner of the town of Gravelville? Does the word mine include Joe, who is talking?

Whom does the word we in line two replace? Does Joe mean to include himself in the word we? Whom does the word us in line three replace? Does Joe include himself in the word us? Does Joe use both we and us to refer to himself and others? Do the words us and we include Joe, who is speaking?

Whom does the word ours in line nine replace? Does this word indicate that Joe considers himself part owner of the town of Gravelville? Does the word ours include Joe, who is talking?

At this point, explain to the pupils that the person speaking is the first person, the person spoken to is second, and the person spoken of is third? Also, explain masculine, feminine, and neuter as well as singular and plural.

Now place this form on the board.

Personal Pronouns

		Singular		
		Nominative	Possessive	Objective
First person		____	____	____
Second person		____	____	____
Third person	Masculine	____	____	____
	Feminine	____	____	____
	Neuter	____	____	____

		Plural		
		Nominative	Possessive	Objective
First person		____	____	____
Second person		____	____	____
Third person	Masculine	____	____	____
	Feminine	____	____	____
	Neuter	____	____	____

To guide the pupils in correctly filling in this form, ask: On which side of caught does I belong? Is I in the nominative or objective case? I stands for Joe. Is Joe the person talking? Does the word I indicate one or more than one person? Is the word I singular or plural? If I is singular, in the nominative case, and first person, where should the word I be placed?

Follow this same procedure with me in line one and with we in line two and us in line three. Using the you's in lines five and seven and the yours's in lines four and twelve, establish the proper place for these words as representing the person spoken of.

Using he in line six, she in thirteen, and it in line sixteen, the third person singular of the nominative case can be established.

The remainder of the underscored pronouns will furnish examples for all persons, except feminine and neuter third persons in the nominative and possessive singular and all three plural cases of feminine and possessive. However, since the omitted plural cases are identical with the given masculine, only additional examples in the singular are necessary.

Demonstrative Pronouns

The recognition of Demonstrative Pronouns

Exercise with Specifics

What do the underscored words in these sentences stand for?

1. After measuring the tables, Madge picked up a tablecloth and said, "This is for the table here."
2. Pointing to the big high mountains in the distance, Elease said, "That is where my grandparents live."
3. These are the mountains of which I spoke.
4. Those who came late had to wait.

Follow-up

In sentence one what word does the word this stand for? What word does that stand for in sentence two, these in three, and those in four?

Does the word this replace the name of a person, place, or thing? Does the word this point out a thing without naming it? What is the name of the thing the word this identifies without naming it?

Follow this same procedure with sentences two, three, and four.

Establishing a Nomenclature

In sentence one above, what does the word this do other than replace the name of a thing?

To help the pupils answer this question and understand the demonstrative aspect of these four pronouns, write this exercise on the board.

1. Holding up a small toy, Linda asked, "Is this what you want?"
2. Looking down the incline at the pond, Tom asked, "Is that where we are going to fish?"

Does this in sentence one point out a particular toy? Does that in sentence two refer to a particular pond?

What does the word these in sentence one below point out? What does the word those in sentence two point out?

1. Glancing at the boys as they warmed up for the game, the coach said, "These are the best I have ever coached."
2. Addressing the people in front of the ticket booth, the vendor said, "Those of you who have tickets please go to gate over there."

Continue with exercise of this type until the pupil understand that this, that, these, and those point out. When they understand this, they should be told that these pronouns are called demonstrative pronouns.

Correct Use of Demonstrative Pronouns

Is sentence two clearer than sentence one?

1. This is my book.
2. This here is my book.

Does the here after this make the "pointing out" done by this any clearer? Since it does not, why use the word here after this?

Do the same for these sentences.

1. That is my house.
2. That there is my house.

Which of these sentences is correct?

1. Looking at the cattle on the hill, Bill said, "Those are mine."

2. Looking at the cattle on the hill, Bill said, "Them are mine."

Do both of the words those and them point out? Which of these words is a personal pronoun? Which is a demonstrative pronoun? Which kind of pronouns may be correctly used to point out?

Intensive Pronouns

Recognition of Intensive Pronouns

Exercise with Specifics

Which of these sentences shows more emphasis?

1. Bill laughed at the joke.
2. Bill himself laughed at the joke.

Which of these shows more emphasis?

3. You said so.
4. You yourself said so.

Follow-up

Himself in sentence two makes what word show more stress? Yourself in sentence four makes what word show more stress?

What word does himself in sentence two identify? Does this word identify Bill without specifically naming him?

Does the first word in sentence four identify a person, place, or thing? Does the word yourself also identify the same person. Since the words you and yourself identify a person without naming

him, what part of speech are they?

Does himself in sentence two identify the same person as does the word Bill? Since himself identifies a person without specifically naming him, what part of speech is himself?

By filling in the parentheses, with one word, after each personal pronoun, make the pronoun show more stress.

1. We ( ) should take action. (ourselves)
2. He ( ) is to blame. (himself)
3. They ( ) withdrew. (themselves)

Establishing a Nomenclature

In the sentence The very act itself is crude, what effect does the word itself have on the word act?

If the pupils say that the word itself emphasizes or stresses the word act, be content, for such a reply indicates understanding. At this point, tell the pupils that pronouns which show stress, give emphasis, or make prominent are called intensive pronouns.

(Also, point out that the intensive pronoun follows immediately the word it intensifies.)

Correct Use of Intensive Pronouns

Which of these sentences shows more emphasis?

1. I went.
2. I myself went.

What is the function of myself in sentence two?

Which of these sentences shows more emphasis?

3. This is for you to decide.

4. This is for you yourself to decide.

What word is given stress by the word yourself?

Since myself in sentence two emphasizes I, why would it be incorrect to say Myself went?

Could it ever be correct to use an intensive pronoun if there is no word to be intensified?

In this sentence, This is for yourself to decide, is there a word for yourself to intensify? How should the sentence read?

What is wrong with this sentence?

"He and myself are going," said Nancy.

Does myself intensify he? What word should be substituted for myself?

Reflexive Pronouns

Recognition of Reflexive Pronouns

Exercise with Specifics

If both John's in this sentence refer to the same person, what word ending in self should be substituted for the second John?

John bought John an ice cream.

In the sentence John bought himself an ice cream, does the word himself refer to the same person as the word John.

In like manner how should this sentence be written?

I am giving I a treat with this sandwich.

In your rewritten sentence, does the word myself refer to the same person as the word I?

Do each of the words himself and myself identify a person without naming him?

Since each of these words identifies a person without naming the person, what part of speech are they?

If both you's refer to the same person, how should this sentence be written.

You should give you more time.

Follow-up

Which of the underscored words are pronouns?

1. Sue saw her.
2. Sue saw herself.
3. Sue is the clown.

Which of the underscored words refer to some other word?

In the first sentence, what did Sue see? Does the word her denote the same person as the word Sue?

In the second sentence, what did Sue see? Does the word herself denote the same person as the word Sue?

Which word, her in sentence one or herself in sentence two, refers to Sue?

It would be incorrect to write sentence one Her saw Sue or sentence two Herself saw Sue? Yet sentence three could correctly be written The clown is Sue. Since this is true, does the word clown refer to Sue or does it rename Sue?

Establishing a Nomenclature

Recopy these sentence.

1. John bought himself an ice cream.
2. I am giving myself a treat with this sandwich.
3. You should give yourself more time.

Could any one of the underscored pronouns exchange places with the first word in the sentence? Do all of the pronouns in these sentences refer to the first word of the sentences?

When the pupils understand that these pronouns refer to some previous word (noun or pronoun), they may be told that such word are reflexive pronouns.

Indefinite Pronouns

Exercise with Specifics

Does the first words in each of these sentences point out a particular person, place, or thing?

1. Each is impressive.
2. Either will do.
3. Neither is going.
4. One came.

5. None want it.

6. Some left early.

7. Others have tried.

8. Another will do.

9. Few are interested.

10. All helped.

11. Many saw it when it happened.

12. Several waited for the bus.

13. Both of them have been used.

Follow-up

In sentence one above does the word each stand for the name of a person, place, or thing? Have the pupils substitute the words she, Alabama, and television for the word each.

What does either in sentence two stand for, a person, place, or thing?

What does either stand for in each of these sentences?

1. Either John or Bill will have to change.

2. Either the cave or the hill will have to change.

3. Either radio or TV will have to change.

Continue with similar exercises until the pupils understand that the pronouns in the above Specifics are indefinite in nature.

Establishing a Nomenclature

Could one in this sentence stand for either a person, place, or thing?

This one looks older.

Have the pupils substitute the name of a person, place, and thing for the word one.

In the parentheses following each pronoun in the sentences below write person, place, or thing to designate for what the pronoun stands. If it is not certain for what the pronoun stands place a question mark in the parentheses.

1. Each ( ) should be.
2. Some ( ) ate hot dogs.
3. Many ( ) gave their money.
4. Some ( ) have been standing over a hundred years.

After doing several exercises of this type, explain to the pupils that these pronouns which are capable of replacing the names of persons, places, or things are called indefinite pronouns.

Interrogative Pronouns

Recognition of Interrogative Pronouns

Exercise with Specifics

Which of these sentences obviously ask questions? Which make simple statements? Punctuate each.

1. John is the best player
2. Who is the best player
3. This is for Sue
4. This is for whom
5. This book is his
6. This book is whose
7. Ruby Falls is the most scenic
8. Which is the most scenic
9. This is ice cream
10. This is what

Follow-up

What word in sentence two replaces the name of a person in sentence one? Since who replaces the name of a person, what part of speech is who? Which of these sentences, one or two, is a simple statement, which is a question?

Pair sentences three and four, five and six, seven and eight, and nine and ten; then ask questions similar to the ones asked above about sentences one and two.

Establishing a Nomenclature

Which of these sentences asks a question?

1. Mary is the piano player
2. Who is the piano player
3. Mary, who is the piano player, is here

What word in sentence two makes it a question? Why does the word who in sentence three not make the whole sentence a question?

Which of these who's asks a question?

1. He who tries hardest will perhaps win.
2. Who is coming?

What word in sentence two of the Specifics makes the whole sentence a question? Write who on the board. Ask the same question about the other even-numbered sentences in the Specifics. When all of the question-asking pronouns are listed, tell the pupils that pronouns which ask questions are called interrogative pronouns.

Correct Use of Interrogative Pronouns

As indicated, many mistakes occur in the use of pronouns, especially the interrogatives who and whom. A casual examination of the examples in current grammar texts will make it appear explicit that who and whom must be most often misused when they are subjects and direct objects, for some seventy-five per cent of the examples given evolve around these two.

No single, clear, obvious method of correcting errors involving interrogative pronouns has been advanced. Congruent with the plan outlined in Chapter III of Part I, this method of studying the examples of subjects and direct objects in the currently adopted Alabama text for the ninth grade is suggested.

Mark out the words in parentheses in these sentences.

1. (~~Who~~, ~~Whom~~) did you invite?
2. (~~Who~~, ~~Whom~~) is the winner?
3. (~~Who~~, ~~Whom~~) did you tell?

Read the following sentences omitting the marked out words; then insert the correct word, <u>she</u> or <u>her</u>, in each blank.

1. (~~Who~~, ~~Whom~~) did you invite _____? (her)
2. (~~Who~~, ~~Whom~~) is the winner _____? (she)
3. (~~Who~~, ~~Whom~~) did you tell _____? (her)

Now place <u>she</u> and <u>her</u> on the appropriate side of <u>caught</u>.

(She caught her.)

On which side of <u>caught</u> does <u>who</u> belong? Which side <u>whom</u>?

In sentence one insert the appropriate word, either <u>she</u> or <u>her</u>, like this:

Did you invite <u>her</u>?

Now add the words <u>who</u> and <u>whom</u> in the parentheses, like this:

(Who, Whom) did you invite <u>her</u>?

Finally draw a line from the word <u>her</u> to the word in parentheses that is on the same side of <u>caught</u> as the word <u>her</u>, like this:

(Who, Whom) did you invite <u>her</u>?

Now the sentence reads

Whom did you invite?

Do both the words her and whom follow caught? Since they do, of what case, nominative or objective, are they?

What is the objective use of the word her: direct or indirect object or object of preposition?

In the sentence You invited her what word shows or implies action? What word receives the action?

In the sentence Did you invite her? what word receives the action of the words did invite?

(If the pupils have difficulty here, see the exercises on pages 140 through 143.)

Relative Pronouns

Exercise with Specifics

To whom or what do each of the underscored words refer?

1. The girl who won the contest is here.
2. The boy whom you saw is my brother.
3. The girl whose brother kicked the winning point is Sandra.
4. The cave which is located between the hills is very old.
5. The TV that he bought is broken.

Follow-up

Does the word who in sentence one mean the same as girl? Does the

third word in each of the other sentences mean the same as the second word?

Since the word who in sentence one replaces the name of a person, what part of speech is who? Which in sentence four replaces the name of a person, place, or thing? That in sentence five replaces what?

In sentence one what word joins the word won the contest to the word girl? What do the words won the contest describe? In sentence five what word joins the words that he bought to TV? What do the words he bought describe?

What two things do you notice about these pronouns?

Continue to question until the pupils glean (1) that these pronouns follow immediately the names they replace and (2) that they join the word or words that describe the pronoun to the word they replace.

Establishing a Nomenclature

The preceding Follow-up, if successful, will establish the underscored words in the Specifics as pronouns. When the pupils understand the position and function of these pronouns, tell them that these words used in this way are called relative pronouns.

(Since the relative pronoun what has no antecedent, the above exercises are not applicable to it.)

Pronouns and Antecedent Agreement

To antecede "means to come before." Therefore, when it is said that a pronoun generally agrees with its antecedent, it is meant that the pronoun is of the same gender, person, and number as the name of the person, place, or thing which it replaces. (Remember that males, or things spoken of as males, are of the masculine gender; females are of the feminine gender; and things neither male or female are of neuter gender. The person talking is the first person, the person talked to is the second, and the person talked about is the third. A word denoting one person, place, or thing is singular in number; words denoting more than one person are plural.)

For example

Jane has worked hard; she deserves the prize.

The word she replaces what other word? Since the words Jane and she point out the same person and since Jane comes before she, then Jane is the _____ of she. (Review the above paragraph if necessary.)

Does the word Jane denote a female? Does the word she also? What gender is each of the words?

Is Jane talking, being talked to, or talked about? Does the word she also represent a person being talked about? What person is each of the words?

Does the word Jane denote one person or more than one person? Does the word she also denote just one person? What number is each of the words?

Are the gender, person, and number of the word her in the sentence below the same as the word she in the sentence above?

Jane has worked hard; this prize is for her.

Since the gender, person, and number of the words she and her are the same, how can one determine which word is appropriate?

To help the pupils answer the above question, have them place the two words on the appropriate side of caught. When they have written, she caught her, have them review the exercise on page 132. To help the pupils glean the specific function of the word she, have the pupils review the exercises on pages 135 through 140. For her, have them review the exercises on pages 140 through 145.

When this review is completed, ask again: Since the gender, person, and number of both words, she and her, are the same, how can one determine which word is appropriate? If the pupils do not answer "By its use," review again the exercises suggested. Unless this reply or a similar one is given, one can be sure that the pupils do not understand gender, person, and number; one can also be sure that they do not understand nominative and objective cases.

CHAPTER III

THE ADJECTIVE

The many English authorities mentioned in the first three chapters of this study suggest no more than eight specific examples on how to teach the concept of the adjective. Not one of these authorities details how to teach the adjective independently of grammatical syntax.

This chapter attempts to show how the concept of the adjective can be taught from specifics--independently of syntax; the exercises herein on correct usage, however, are designed to be used after the adjectival concept has been developed. As will be noted, however, the exercises on usage, are, with slight modification, appropriate as remedial adjuncts for pupils whose concept of the adjective is negligible.

Recognition of the Adjective

Exercise with Specifics

Underscore the word in sentence one that names a person. Underscore the word or words in sentence two that name a place, and underscore the word in sentence three that names a thing.

1. Woman is peculiar.
2. Mountain after mountain was seen.
3. Cake is fattening.

In which of these sentences is the name of a person underscored, in which a place, in which a thing?

4. Caves* were mentioned.

5. Women were here yesterday.

6. Hills are over there.

7. Hats were scattered about the room.

Underscore each person, place, or thing named in this sentence.

8. An apple a day will keep the doctor away.

If the pupils have difficulty with day, ask: Does day name a unit of time? Then ask: Is a unit of time described most accurately as a person, place, or thing?

Follow-up

Add the words two, quiet, those, and her to sentences four, five, six and seven.

4. Two caves were mentioned.

5. Quiet women were here yesterday.

6. Those hills are over there.

7. Her hats were scattered about the room.

In each of these sentences there is a word that explains (tells something about) the underscored word in that sentence. Draw an

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* If the question arises about the underscored words in this exercise naming person, places, and things instead of only one person, etc., explain to the pupils that the word caves names only one kind of place, etc.

arrow from this word (the "explain" or "tell" word) to the underscored word it explains.

To help the pupils draw these arrows correctly and thus learn the use of the adjective as a noun modifier, tell them that a word which describes or explains the name of a person, place, or thing usually answers one of these four questions: what kind, how many, whose, or which one. (Which one is used in the sense of pointing out.)

Ask: Does the word two in sentence four answer what kind of caves, how many caves, or which caves? Draw an arrow from two to cave.

4. Two caves were mentioned.

In sentence five what word answers what kind of hills, how many hills, or which hills? Draw an arrow from those to hills.

5. Those hills are over there.

Which word in sentence six answers one of these four questions? Draw an arrow from quiet to women.

6. Quiet women were here yesterday.

Her in sentence seven answers which of these questions? Draw an arrow to so indicate.

7. Her hats were scattered about the room.

Each underscored word in the sentences below is described or explained by some word that answers what kind, how many, whose, or which one. Draw arrows to indicate this as you did in the sentences above.

1. That woman is peculiar.

2. One mountain after another was seen.

3. Chocolate cake is fattening.

In the sentence

An apple a day will keep the doctor away.

do we know the number of apples that should be eaten a day? How many apples in how many days? Is one apple and an apple the same number of apples? Is one day and a day the same number of days? Then does an describe apple? Does a describe day? Draw arrows to so indicate. Do we know what person is kept away by the eating of an apple a day? What word points out this person? Does this "pointing out" by the word the in any way describe the word doctor? Draw an arrow to so indicate.*

Establishing a Nomenclature

Recopy on the board the eight sentences discussed thus far. Underscore the name of each person, place, or thing; and draw in the arrows.

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* Explain that the adjectives a, an, and the are called articles.

1. Two caves were mentioned.

2. Those hills are over there.

3. Quiet women were here yesterday.

4. That woman is peculiar.

5. One mountain after another was seen.

6. Chocolate cake is fattening.

7. Her hats were scattered about the room.

8. An apple a day will keep the doctor away.

In these eight sentences ten words are underscored. Copy them; then draw a set of parentheses on either side of each word.

two	*(	)...caves.....(	) place
those	(	)...hills.....(	) place
quiet	(	)...women.....(	) person
that	(	)...woman.....(	) person
one	(	)...mountain...(	) place
chocolate	(	)...cake.....(	) thing
her	(	)...hat.....(	) thing
an	(	)...apple.....(	) thing
a	(	)...day.....(	) thing
the	(	)...doctor.....(	) person

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* Parentheses are to be filled in by the pupils.

As we learned in the Follow-up, for each word above that names a person, place, or thing there is some other word in the sentence in which it is used that explains it by answering what kind, how many, or which one. For example, in sentence one of the Follow-up the word two describes the word caves by answering how many? Write two in the parentheses before caves. Do this with the nine other words.

In the parentheses that follow each word write person, place or thing, according to whichever the word names.

As we know, each word in the first set of parentheses explains the name of a person, place, or thing that follows it. At this point, if an informal definition of the adjective is desired, tell the pupils that the words in the first set of parentheses are adjectives. Ask them to write a definition. If they say, "An adjective is a word that tells something about the name of a person, place, or thing," be content, for an adjective does this.

If a more formal definition is desired, tell the pupils that the words in the first set of parentheses describe the names of person, places, and things that follows them--in other words, these words change the meaning of the words they explain. But how? Among the answers will be some that will probably approximate these: "They (adjectives) limit," "They extend," "They make clearer," "Tell which one," "Tell how many," "Tell whose," "Point out," and "Tell what kind." Now ask: What one word includes in its meaning all of

these things. Among the replies will be such responses as "change," "explain," and "tell about." If the word modify is not suggested, suggest it.

Then the words in the first set of parentheses modify the words following them; and each of these modified words is the name of a _____, _____, or _____. (person, place, or thing)

Now tell the pupils that the words in the first set of parentheses are adjectives. Then ask: Is an adjective a word that names or a word that modifies (explains) a word that names? Which column of words is a list of names? Which column is a list of adjectives?

What does the adjective quiet do in the sentence (1) A quiet woman is hard to find? Accept the answer "Tells what kind."

What does the adjective two do in the sentence (2) Two plates were broken? Accept the reply "Shows how many."

What does the adjective this do in the sentence (3) This book is mine? Accept the reply "Points out which one."

Finally, what does the adjective his in the sentence (4) John lost his hat? Accept the reply "Tells whose."

Now ask: What word includes in its definition all of these four meanings? What word means to tell what kind, show how many, point out, and tell whose?

If modify is not recalled by the pupils, recall it for them.

Then an adjective is a word that modifies. But what? In sentence one above quiet modifies woman, and woman is a word that names a person. Right?

Therefore

"An adjective is a word that modifies the name of a _____."

What do the adjectives in sentence two and three modify? When these question are correctly answered, the pupils will be able to surmise this:

"An adjective is a word that modifies the name of a person, place, or thing."

Is man the name of a person in this sentence?

John is a good man.

Does good tell what kind of man John is? Then, according to the above definition, is good an adjective?

Does good in the sentence below describe the name of either a person, place, or thing?

For the economic good of the country taxes should be reduced.

Is good an adjective?

What part of speech names a person, place, or thing? Since the pupils most likely have studied the noun, the answer to this question will be quite easy. Now substitute noun into the above definition.

"An adjective is a word that modifies a noun."

Of course, both of the definitions surmised above are inadequate. To help the pupils comprehend the adjective as a modifier of the pronoun is the purpose of this Exercise.

Additional Exercise with Specifics

What does the underscored word in sentence two stand for?

1. Is Christa here?
2. Yes, she came a few minutes ago.

Does the word Christa in sentence one name a person, place, or thing? Does the word she in sentence two name a person or does it stand for the name of a person?

Follow-up

What does beautiful modify?

1. Is the beautiful queen here?
2. Yes, and she is beautiful.

What word does beautiful modify in sentence one? Does the word she in sentence two name a person or does it stand for the name of a person? Does beautiful modify she?

Establishing a Nomenclature

To whom does the word he in sentence two refer?

1. Why didn't big Bill come on through?
2. He is too fat; that's why.

Does big in sentence one modify a word that names a person, place, or thing?

Does fat in sentence two modify a word that names a person, or a word that stands for the name of a person?

Since big modifies the name of a person, what part of speech is it?

Do the words Bill and he denote the same person? Then does the word fat in sentence two modify the same person as does the word big in sentence one?

Now tell the pupils that the word fat in sentence two is an adjective, for it modifies a word that stands for the name of a person; if the pronoun has been studied, tell the pupils that fat is an adjective, for it modifies a pronoun.

Follow this same procedure with pronouns that replace the names of places and things.

Special Exercise

To help the pupils understand the interrelationship of articles to adjectives is the intent of these exercises.

Which of the conclusions in the third sentences in the first two exercises below is logically based on the two statements immediately above it?

1. Adjectives are modifiers of nouns or pronouns.
2. Articles are modifers of nouns or pronouns.
3. Therefore articles are adjectives.

1. All adjectives are modifiers of nouns or pronouns.
2. Articles are adjectives.
3. Therefore articles are modifiers of nouns or pronouns.

Is the conclusion in sentence three below based on sentences one and two?

1. Men are humans.
2. Women are humans.
3. Therefore women are men.

Which of the exercises above has the same error as is evident in this exercise?

Is this statement true or false? Why?

All articles are adjectives, but all adjectives are not articles.

Correct Use of the Adjective

Degrees of Adjectives

Exercise with Specifics

What word does strong modify?

1. Henry is strong.

What word does stronger modify?

2. Henry is stronger than Sam.

What word does strongest modify?

3. Henry is the strongest of the three men.

What part of speech are strong, stronger, and strongest?

In sentence one the word strong is used to describe Henry.

Does the word stronger in sentence two also describe Henry? What else does the word strongest do? Do we know who weighs more, Henry or Sam? How do we know?

In sentence three what word modifies Henry? In sentence two Henry is compared with one other person. With how many is he compared in sentence three?

Is Sue compared with anyone in this sentence?

4. Sue is kind.

With how many people is she compared in this sentence?

5. Sue is kinder than Jean.

With how many people is she compared in this sentence?

6. Sue is the kindest girl in Hilltop High School.

Is Henry compared with anyone in sentence one? Is Sue compared with anyone in sentence four?

With how many people is Henry compared in sentence two? With how many is Sue compared in sentence five?

What word in sentence one modifies Henry? What word in sentence two modifies Henry? What two letters are added to the adjective in sentence two? Are these same two letters added to kind in sentence five? Are the same number of people compared in sentences two and five?

In sentence three Henry is compared with how many other people? In sentence six are three or more people compared?

What adjectives are used in sentences four, five, and six to describe Sue? What letters are added to the adjective kind when Sue is compared with one other person? What letters are added when she is compared with two or more other persons? Is this same pattern followed in comparing Henry with one or more other persons?

Using the above sentences as a guide, have the pupils do this exercise.

Is Christa compared with anyone in this sentence?

7. Christa is gay.

With how many people is she compared in this sentence?

8. Christa is gayer.

In sentence four when Sue is not compared with anyone, the sentence reads Sue is kind; but in sentence five when she is compared with one other person, the sentence reads Sue is kinder than Jean. Notice that kind becomes kinder when two people are compared.

Now in sentence seven above Christa is described as gay and in sentence eight she is described as gayer. Since gay becomes gayer, how many people are compared in sentence eight?

How many people are compared in the sentence below?

9. Christa is gayest.

How many people are compared in sentence three? What letters are added to the adjective strong? Are there three or more people compared in sentence six? What letters are added to the adjective kind?

Now ask: With how many people is Christa compared in sentence nine? How do you know?

Follow-up

Copy the nine sentences used thus far.

1. Henry is strong.
2. Henry is stronger than Sam.
3. Henry is the strongest of the three men.

4. Sue is kind.
5. Sue is kinder than Jean.
6. Sue is the kindest girl in our class.

7. Christa is gay.
8. Christa is gayer.
9. Christa is gayest.

Are the people mentioned in sentence one, four, and seven compared with other people? List after each name below the adjective that modifies it.

1.* Henry---(strong)**

4. Sue-----(kind)

7. Christa-(gay)

How many people are compared in sentences two, five, and eight? List after each name below the adjective that modifies it.

2. Henry---(stronger)

5. Sue-----(kinder)

8. Christa-(gayer)

How many people are compared in sentences three, six, and nine? List after each name below the adjective that modifies it.

3. Henry---(strongest)

6. Sue-----(kindest)

9. Christa-(gayest)

Establishing a Nomenclature

Tell the pupils that the adjectives used in sentences one, four, and seven are called adjectives of the positive degree, for they are used to modify only, not to compare.

Now ask: What do the adjectives in sentences two, five, and eight do besides modify? What do they compare? How many are compared? What two letters are added to the positive form?

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* Numbers refer to sentence numbers.

** These words in parentheses are to be suggested by the pupils.

When these questions are answered correctly, tell the pupils that these "er" adjectives which compare two things are adjectives of the comparative degree.

What do the adjectives in sentences three, six, and nine do besides modify? What do they compare? Are three or more people compared in each sentence? What letters are added to the positive?

When these questions are answered correctly, tell the pupils that these "est" adjectives which compare three or more things are adjectives of the superlative degree.

Special Exercise

To help the pupils comprehend the use of more and most in forming the comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives is the purpose of this exercise.

Write on the board

1. Sue is kind.
2. Sue is kinder than Jean.
3. Sue is the kindest girl in our class.

If Sue is beautiful as well as kind, then we may say,

Sue is beautiful.

If, on the other hand, Sue is considered Jean's "superior in beauty," would we say this?

Sue is "beautifuler" than Jean.

We said Sue is kinder than Jean; we added er to kind, the positive degree. Then why is it incorrect to add "er" to beautiful when comparing two people? Is beautiful not a positive degree?

If we want to state that Sue excels Jean in beauty, how would we say it? To help the pupils, ask how many people are compared in the sentence below?

Sue is more beautiful than Jean.

Now tell the pupils that the positive degree with more before it becomes comparative--in other words, the positive degree and more are used to compare two things.

To compare the kindness of Sue and Jean we say,

Sue is kinder than Jean.

But when the kindness of Sue is compared with more than one other person--that is, when three or more people are compared--we say,

Sue is the kindest girl in Hilltop High School.

Notice that the form of the adjective changes when the degree changes.

How many people are compared in this sentence?

Sue is more beautiful than Jean.

What degree is used?

If we wish to say that Sue excels all other girls in her high school in beauty, would we state it like this?

Sue is the "more beautiful" girl in Hilltop High School?

Remember that the positive degree, beautiful, plus more is correctly used to describe Sue in this sentence:

Sue is more beautiful than Jean.

But is the same degree needed for these two sentences? How many people are compared in the sentence immediately above? What degree does the positive degree plus more form? If this combination correctly forms the comparative degree and if the sentence Sue is the "more beautiful" girl in Hilltop High School expresses a true statement, how many girls are enrolled in Hilltop High School? Is there likely to be a high school with only two girls enrolled?

Fill in the blank in this sentence with some appropriate word other than more.

Sue is the _____ beautiful girl in Hilltop High School.

When the pupils suggest most for the above blank, tell them that the positive degree of some adjectives plus the word most forms the superlative degree.

Special Exercise

To help the pupils understand that some adjectives form their comparative and superlative degrees irregularly is the intent of this exercise.

Write this sentence on the board.

"What's What" is a great song.

What adjectival degree is great?

Now write this on the board.

"What's What" is a good song.

What adjectival degree is good?

If we wish to state that the song "What's What" excels in greatness the song "Hey There", we say,

"What's What" is a greater song than "Hey There".

If we wish to say that the song "What's What" excels the song "Hey There" in goodness, would we say this?

"What's What" is a "gooder" song than "Hey There".

If greater is the comparative degree of great, why is "gooder" not the comparative degree of good? Would it be correct to say this?

"What's What" is a "more good" song than "Hey There"?

At this point, have the pupils look up adjective in the index of the grammar text that is being used. Under adjective, have them note the page number of the subsection entitled comparsion or comparsion of.

When this is done, ask: What is the comparative degree of good? Now why is it correct to say, "'What's What' is a better song than 'Hey There'"?

Do this with other adjectives listed in the particular text the pupils are using.

Follow this same procedure in teaching irregular superlatives.

Possessive Adjectives

What is the difference between the her's in these sentences?

1. I told her to come.

2. This is her cap.

Assume that the word her in both of the above sentences refers to a person named Jane. Are sentences three and four correctly written?

3. I told Jane to come.

4. This is Jane cap.

What is wrong with sentence four?

Since sentence four should read This is Jane's cap, is the word her in sentence two more than just a substitute for Jane?

Continue with questions similar to this until the pupils comprehend that the word her in sentence four represents both the owner of the cap and the cap itself.

Does the word her in the sentence This is her cap in any way explain or describe cap? As used in this sentence, what part of speech is her? (Review pages 167 through 175 if necessary.)

Write this sentence on the board.

John lost John's hat.

If both John's are the same person, how should this sentence be written?

In these sentences do both his and her modify the word hat?

1. John lost his hat.
2. Jane lost her hat.

Is the word John masculine or feminine? Of which gender is his? Is John singular or plural? Of which number is his? Is John first, second, or third person? Which number is hat?

Then an adjective that modifies and shows possession too must agree with its antecedent* in _____, _____, and _____.**

Follow this same procedure with her and the possessive pronouns of the second and third persons.

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* For a discussion of antecedents see Chapter II of Part III.

** Number, person, case, and gender are also discussed in Chapter II of Part III.

CHAPTER IV

THE VERB

The study[1] of the persistent errors made by the freshmen at the University of Illinois reveals that misuse of the verb is common. Forty-eight per cent of the pupils studied made errors in the use of the number of verbs; twenty-nine per cent used an incorrect tense or mood.

Sullivan, who studied the errors made by high school pupils in North Dakota, found similar errors.[2]

If these studies are accepted as valid, it may be reasonably concluded that the teaching of the concept of the verb and its uses leaves much to be desired.

The current publications that discuss methods of teaching grammar are woefully brief on how to teach the concept and use of the verb. In its latest book publication[3] the National Council of Teachers of English devotes one page and five lines to the teaching of the verb, but not one specific example on how to develop the

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1. J. N. Hook, The Teaching of High School English (New York, 1950), pp. 293-294.

2. Helen J. Sullivan, Achievement of North Dakota High School Pupils in the Minimum Essentials of English with Suggested Remedial Measure (University of North Dakota, 1928), p. 24.

3. National Council of Teachers of English, The English Language Arts in the Secondary School (New York, 1956), pp. 374-375.

correct concept or use of the verb is given. In 417 pages DeBoer, Kaulfers, and Miller list two brief specific examples.[4] Remember that both the Council and these authors advocate building concepts from specifics. Other books that discuss methods of teaching grammar are likewise inadequate.

As the following quotations show, the verb is defined in various ways in grammar texts which use the formal (rule first) approach. The definition given in one of the currently adopted texts for the ninth grade is as follows: "The verb is the part of speech that shows action or state of being."[5] In one of the eighth grade texts verbs are defined as "Words which make statements about persons, places, things, or ideas, ask questions, or give commands . . ."[6] The seventh grade text says "Words which make statements, ask questions, or give commands are verbs."[7]

This diversity in defining the verb often proves very confusing to the junior high pupil who has memorized a given definition and

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4. John J. DeBoer, et. al., Teaching Secondary English (New York, 1951), pp. 92-94-95.

5. Mellie John, et. al., Building Better English (Evanston, Illinois, 1957), p. 265.

6. J. C. Tressler and Marguerite B. Shelmadine, Book II Junior English in Action (Boston, 1956), p. 205.

7. J. C. Tressler and Marguerite B. Shelmadine, Book I Junior English in Action (Boston, 1956), p. 245.

learned its application to particular examples; however the pupil who has developed a definition from specifics is perhaps less likely to be confused by these discrepancies in defining the verb.

Recognition of Verbs

Exercise with Specifics

Do these two words tell anything? Do they give information clearly?

Betty home.

Do we know the relationship of Betty and home. Did she leave home, come home, stay home?

Now insert the word loves between Betty and home.

Betty loves home.

Do these three words now give information clearly? We now know how Betty feels about home, do we not?

Consider the words

You home?*

Because of the interrogation point it may be assumed that these words ask a question. But should the answer to the question be yes or no?

Insert the word are before you. Now the sentence reads

Are you home?

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* If the pupils do not know the use of question marks and exclamation points, some of the examples given here will be inappropriate.

Now the answer can be either yes or no, for the sentence clearly asks a question.

Write on the board

home!

The exclamation point after home indicates that the word home expresses strong feeling. But what kind of feeling--surprise, joy, boredom?

Put go in front of home and it becomes part of a command.

Go home!

Insert is or go in the following blanks.

1. He ____ on.
2. ____ on!
3. ____ he on?

Follow-up

Now copy the sentences used thus far.

1. He is on.
2. Go on!
3. Is he on?
4. Betty loves home.
5. Are you home?
6. Go home!

Which sentence or sentences ask a question, give a command, or make a statement?

What word makes sentence three a question? What word or words make sentence five a question?

What word in sentence two makes the word on part of a command? What words in sentence six make it a command?

What word in sentence one forces the sentence to make a statement? What word in sentence five forces it to make a statement?

Establishing a Nomenclature

Underscore the word or words in each sentence that make it ask a question.

1. Did she?
2. Are they going?

Underscore the word or words in each sentence that make it give a command.

1. Wait there!
2. Hold it!

Underscore the word or words in each sentence below that make it give information or make a statement.

1. I have been to Chattanooga.
2. He went to town.

Write on the board

1. Is he going?
2. Throw the ball!
3. He has sung for years.

Does sentence one above make a statement, ask a question, or give a command? Underscore the word or words that make it ask a question.

Ask similar questions about sentences two and three.

When the pupils have correctly underscored the words that force the sentences to either make a statement, ask a question, or give a command, tell them that the underscored words are verbs.

To arrive at a workable definition, write:

"A verb forces a group of words to . . ."

Now ask: What do the words Is and going in sentence one force the sentence to do?

If the pupils say "They force the sentence to ask a question," add the words to ask a question to the incomplete definition above.

Continue thus with sentences two and three. When this is done, the definition should read

"A verb forces a group of words to ask a question, give a command, or make a statement."

Here is a suggestion from Dakin that will perhaps prove useful in the initial phase of testing the workability of this definition.

> . . .in such a sentence as: "The hills are green," you will be told that are green is the verb. Tell the class to test green to see whether it will make a statement. Does I green today give information? Then green is not a verb but something else.[8]

Recognition of Present, Past, and Future Tense of Regular and Irregular Verbs

Exercise with Specifics

If today is April 4, 1958, tell the date of the weighing in each of these sentences.

1. I shall weigh the cotton tomorrow.
2. I weighed the cotton yesterday.
3. I weigh the cotton now.

Write on the board

1. After class, Bill heard the opera Carmen over the radio.
2. "Since I turned the volume up, I hear Tennessee Ernie better," says Bill.
3. In the morning, Bill will hear the candidate speak.

Has Bill already heard Carmen, Tennessee Ernie, or the candidate? Which is Bill hearing at the present time? Which will he hear in the future?

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8. Dorothy Dakin, How to Teach High School English (Boston, 1947), p. 27.

In what order are the birds, the picture, and Sue seen?

1. I saw the birds yesterday.
2. I see the picture clearly now.
3. I shall see Sue tomorrow.

Follow-up

On the board list these words.

weigh	heard	shall see
weighed	hear	see
shall weigh	shall hear	saw

Have the pupils fill in the blanks below with the appropriate words from the above list, using the above sentences as a guide.

	I _____ it now. (hear)*
I	I _____ it now. (weigh)
	I _____ it now. (see)
	I _____ it yesterday. (weighed)
II	I _____ it yesterday. (heard)
	I _____ it yesterday. (saw)
	I _____ it tomorrow. (shall hear)
III	I _____ it tomorrow. (shall weigh)
	I _____ it tomorrow. (shall see)

---

* Verbs in parentheses are to be suggested by the pupils.

Which one of these exercises tells about what happened in the past? Which tells about what is happening at the present time? Which tells about what will happen in the future.

List the verbs which are used to tell about what is happening at the present time.

hear

weigh

see

Now tell the pupils that verbs which tell what is happening at the present time are verbs of the <u>present tense</u>.

List the verbs used to tell about what happened in the past.

weighed

heard

saw

Since these verbs are used to tell about what happened in the past, they are verbs of the <u>past tense</u>.

List the verbs used to tell about what will happen.

shall hear

shall weigh

shall see

Since these verbs are used to tell about what will happen in the future, they are verbs of the <u>future tense</u>.

Referring to the sentences in the exercises numbered with Roman numerals, ask: How is the present tense changed to the future tense? How is the present tense changed to the past tense? How is the past tense of hear formed? How is the past tense of weigh formed? How is the past tense of see formed?

As indicated in the blanks below, use the past or future tense of the present tense of the underscored verb listed above each exercise.

Present tense: UNDERSCORE

As I read, I (past tense) the important words in red.

When I read, I (future tense) the important words in red.

Present tense: WATCH

I (future tense) TV tonight.

I (past tense) TV last night.

Write the future and past tense of these verbs, using the sentences studied as a guide.

Present tense	Future tense	Past tense
hear	(shall hear)*	(heard)
weigh	(shall weigh)	(weighed)
underscore	(shall underscore)	(underscored)
watch	(shall watch)	(watched)
see	(shall see)	(saw)

What word is added to the present tense to form the future tense?

The addition of what two letters to the present tense of weigh and watch forms the past tense? What letter is added to emphasize and hear to form their past tense?

If the past tense of the verb see were formed as the past tense of hear is formed, it would be "seed"; and it would be correct to say I "seed" him yesterday. If the past tense of see were formed as the past tense of weigh, it would be "seeed". To be sure, there is no such word. But how is the past tense of see formed? Does this verb follow the same pattern that the verbs hear and weigh follow?

What pattern is followed in forming the past tense of each of these verbs?

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* Verbs in parentheses are to be suggested by the pupils.

Present tense	Past tense
1. watch	watched
2. wait	waited
3. hear	heard
4. emphasize	emphasized
5. sing	sang
6. go	went

The past tense, as you can see, of the words watch and wait is formed by adding ed to the present tense; the past tense of hear and emphasize is formed by adding the letter d. The formation of the past tense of these verbs follows a consistent, regular pattern.

If this pattern were applied to the verbs sing and go, the past tense of sing would be "singed" or "singd"? We would therefore say I "singed" a song yesterday. Also, we would say I "goed" yesterday.

Establishing a Nomenclature for Regular and Irregular Verbs

We say

1. I now start to work.

and

2. I now begin to work.

We also say

3. I started to work yesterday.

Then why is this sentence incorrect?

4. I "begined" to work yesterday.

Do the verbs in sentences one and two tell about what is happening at the present time? Does the verb in sentence three tell about something that happened in the past? Does sentence four also tell about something that happened in the past? Since it does, why is it incorrect? Is ed not added to the present tense of the verbs start and begin? Since the addition of the letters ed to the present tense of the verb start correctly forms its past tense, why is this same addition not appropriate for the verb begin?

Write on the board

I see it now.

I saw it yesterday.

Which of the underscored verbs is present tense? Which is past tense?

Present tense	Past tense
see	saw

Have the pupils look up in their dictionaries the verb see. What word is listed immediately after (on the same line) the word see? Is this word the same as the one listed above for the past tense of see?

Now look up the verb begin. What word follows immediately? Is the word began in the same relation to begin as saw is to see? If saw is the past tense of see, what is the past tense of begin?

Now ask again: Why is it incorrect to say I "begined" to work yesterday? Why should we say I began to work yesterday?

Look up the verbs weigh, watch, hear, and emphasize. Why is the past tense of these verbs not given? The past tense of the verbs see and begin is given. Why this difference?*

Look again at the past tense of these verbs.

Present tense	Past tense
weigh	weighed
watch	watched
emphasize	emphasized
hear	heard
begin	began
see	saw

The present tense of weigh and watch plus what two letters equals the past tense? The past tense of emphasize and hear is formed by the addition of what letter?

Is the past tense of believe listed in the dictionary? Why not? Is the past tense of play listed? Why not? Is the past tense of bring listed? Why?

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* Some dictionaries specify the past tense and past participle of regular verbs; others follow the regular verb with the past tense-past participle verb form but do not identify it. If your pupils have such dictionaries, slight modification of the above questions will be necessary.

Is the past tense of burst "bursted" or "burst"? How can one be sure?

What is the past tense of each of these verbs?

Present tense	Past tense
burst	(burst)*
shake	(shook)
underscore	(underscored)
sneak	(sneaked)
climb	(climbed)

The past tense of which two of these verbs is listed in the dictionary? Why is it necessary to list the past tense of these verbs?

How is the past tense of sneak, climb, and underscore determined?

Which of these verbs, drug or dragged, may be correctly used as the past tense of drag?

Fill in these blanks; then underscore the correct choice in the parentheses.

If the past tense of a verb is formed by adding ____ or ____ to the present tense, its past tense (will not be, will be) listed in the dictionary.

---

* These are to be completed by the pupils.

When the pupils do this correctly, tell them that a verb whose past tense is formed thus is called a regular verb.

Ask the pupils what the verbs see and go are? If they do not know, ask: What word means the opposite of regular? Now tell the pupils that a verb whose past tense is not formed by following the d or ed pattern is called an irregular verb.*

Recognition and Use of Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

Exercise with Specifics

Which sentences below contain verbs** that show action.

1. Bill hit the ball.
2. The hero was carried off the field.

Is there any action involved in hitting the ball? Do the verbs hit and was carried indicate action?

Are the receivers of the action of these verbs named in the sentences? What receives the action of the verb hit? What is hit? Who was carried?

Does the verb in this sentence show action? Is the receiver of the action named? Underscore the verb.

The man fought the bear.

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* Some verbs that end with t's are exceptions.

** For a detailed discussion on verb recognition see pages 188 through 194.

Draw an arrow from the verb to the word that receives its action.

The man fought the bear.

Underscore the verb in this sentence.

The bear was fought.

What was fought? Draw an arrow to indicate.

The bear was fought.

What is fought in this sentence? Draw an arrow to indicate.

The bear was fought by the man.

A transitive verb requires (1) an actor and (2) a receiver.

Which sentences have verbs that are not transitive?

1. He is very heavy.
2. Ted won a prize.
3. Johnny played well.
4. Tom was elected.

Does the verb is in sentence one show action? Since it does not, is the verb is transitive?

Does the verb in sentence two show action? Is the receiver of the action named? What was won? Then is the verb won, as used in this sentence, a transitive verb?

Does the verb played in sentence three show action? Is the receiver of the action of this verb named? Is anything or anyone played? Is Johnny "played"? Since the receiver of the action is not named, is the verb played transitive?

Does the verb was elected show action? Is the receiver of the action named? Who was elected? Is the verb a transitive one?

Since all verbs are either transitive or intransitive, of what type are the verbs in sentences one and three? If they are not transitive, then clearly they are _____.

In review, it can be noted that the verb in the sentence Ted won a prize is transitive, and the verb in the sentence Johnny played well is intransitive; yet both verbs, won and played, show action. Right?

Now answer these questions.

Can a verb be transitive if it does not show action?

Can a verb be intransitive if it does show action?

Consider these statements.

All transitive verbs show action.

Some intransitive verbs show action.

Therefore some intransitive verbs are transitive.

Are the first two statements above true. Is the third statement true? Justify your answer by citing examples.

Underscore the verbs in these sentences.

1. Ted won a prize.

2. Tom was elected.

Draw an arrow from the verb to the word that receives the action of the verb.

1. Ted won a prize.

2. Tom was elected.

Is the word in sentence one to which the arrow points the subject of the sentence? Ask the same question about sentence two?

Since transitive verbs whose receivers are subjects are known as transitive passive and since transitive verbs whose receivers are words other than subjects are known as transitive active, is the transitive verb in sentence one active or passive? Is the transitive verb in sentence two active or passive?

Agreement of Subject and Verbs

Exercise with Specifics

Underscore the correct verb* in each of these sentences.

1. The twins (is, are) here.

2. (Is, Are) the boy here?

3. She (were, was) asked to come.

4. Bill and Tom (were, was) behind.

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* For verb recognition, see pages 188 through 194.

Underscore the correct subjects.*

5. The (men, man) is here.

6. Are the (men, man) here?

7. (She, They) was listening to us.

8. (They, He) were sure it was true.

Follow-up

To help pupils determine the subject of the verb, put this exercise on the board.

Underscore the verb in this sentence.

The crowd came.

Now write

The crowd came. Who or what came? (crowd)

Now explain to the pupils that the word answering the who-or-what question is the subject of the verb.

Fill in these blanks.

Mother called for us. Who or what called? _____

The mule ran away. Who or what ran? _____

What is the subject of each verb?

After the pupils have done a number of sentences in this manner, ask them to spot the verb and pose an imaginary who or what before it, and then draw an arrow from the verb to its subject, like this:

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* For subject recognition, see pages 135 through 137.

The boy went home. (Who or what went?)

Continue with other similar sentences.

To help the pupils grasp the number agreement of the verb and its subject is the purpose of the following sentences.

Which verb is correct in each sentence?

They (are, is) here.

He (are, is) here.

After the pupils have underscored the correct verbs, ask: Does the word they denote one person or more than one person? Does the word he denote one person or more than one person? Is the word they singular or plural? (Singular, of course, refers to one person; plural to more than one.) Is the word he singular or plural?

Since the verb are is used with the subject they, is it singular or plural? Is the verb is singular or plural?

Since it is correct to say Jean IS here and Joan IS here, why is it incorrect to say The twins, Jean and Joan, IS here?

Does the word twins denote one person or more than one? Is twins singular or plural? Is the verb is singular or plural? Then why is it incorrect to use twins as the subject of the verb is?

Since was is singular and were is plural, and since she is singular, it is correct to say She (was, were) asked to come.

Follow this procedure with the sentence Bill and Tom (are, is) behind.

In the sentence The twins are here, the verb are is used to agree with the plural noun twins. Which word, men or man, is of the same number (that is, singular or plural) as the word twins? Therefore which is correct, The men is here or The men are here?

Establishing a Nomenclature

Underscore each verb; then draw an arrow from the verb to is subject.

1. The twins are here.

2. They were the first.

3. The boy is here.

4. She was there.

Does the word twins denote one person or more than one? Is the verb are singular or plural--do we say They is or They are?

Since we say They are, the verb are is _____.

Is the verb in sentence two singular or plural? Is its subject singular or plural?

What is the number of the verbs and their subjects in sentences three and four?

Using the above sentence as a guide, fill in these blanks.

In sentence three, is, a singular verb, is used with a _____ subject; in sentence four a singular verb, was, is used with a _____ subject.

To help the pupils state their knowledge of number agreement in another way, put this form on the board.

In sentence one a _____ verb is used with a _____ subject;

in sentence two a _____ verb is used with a _____ subject.

Ask the pupils to combine the above information into a rule. It may be necessary to help the pupils by putting this form on the board.

Use a _____ _____ with a _____ _____.

Use a _____ _____ with a _____ _____.

Additional Exercise with Specifics

Studies indicate that lack of subject-verb agreement is commonplace in the writing of high school pupils. No doubt, much of this confusion is contributable to prepositional phrases and other words standing between the subject and verb. Exercises like these will, it is strongly believed, correct much of the number disagreement currently evidenced by high school pupils.

Fill in the blanks below with the appropriate words.

1. The man is singing. Who or what is singing? _____
2. The man accompanied by his two sons is singing. Who or what is singing? _____
3. The last was found. Who or what was found? _____
4. The last of the broken pieces was found. Who or what was found? _____

Using the "a" sentences below as models, underscore the verbs in the "b" sentences, and draw an arrow from each underscored verb to its subject.

1a. The hunter got wet.

1b. The hunter as well as his dogs got wet.

2a. The boat sank.

2b. The boat together with its cargo sank.

3a. Each is invited.

3b. Each of the boys is invited.

Additional Exercise with Specifics

It is correct to say

1. Bill is here.

2. John is here.

But is this sentence correct?

3. Bill and John is here.

Why not?

Apply the who-or-what question to sentences one and two. Does the answer to this question in each case denote one person or more than one person?

Apply the same question to sentence three. Does the answer denote one person or more than one? Then why is it not correct to say Bill and John is here?

It is correct to say

1. Bill and John are going home.

It is also correct to say

2. Either May or Ethel is going home.

Apply the who-or-what question to these sentences.

1. Bill and John are going home. Who or what is or are going?* _____ (Bill and John)

How many people are actually going home? Since both Bill and John are going, is a singular or plural verb needed? Is are a plural verb?

2. Either May or Ethel is going home. Who or what is or are going? _____ (May or Ethel)

How many people are actually going home? Are both May and Ethel going? Is only one going? Since only one person is going, is a singular or plural verb needed? Is the verb <u>is</u> singular?

It is correct to say

1. The boy was invited.
2. The girls were invited.

It is also correct to say

3. Neither the girls nor the boy was invited.
4. Neither the boy nor the girls were invited.

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* Note the augmentation of this question.

Have the pupils underscore the verbs, and then draw an arrow from each verb to its nearest subject.

Now write these sentences on the board.

5. Neither the girls nor (the boy <u>was</u> <u>invited</u>.)

6. Neither the boy nor (the girls <u>were</u> <u>invited</u>.)

Compare the word in parentheses in sentence five with sentence one; compare six with two.

Explain: When a singular and a plural noun are connected by the words <u>neither-nor</u>, <u>either-or</u>, <u>or</u>, or <u>nor</u>, the verb agrees with the nearest noun to it.

Many examples of comparing sentences with simple subjects and compound subjects, as is done with sentences one and five and two and six above, will greatly aid in developing the concept stated in the above explanation.

CHAPTER V

THE ADVERB

As with the other modifer, the adjective, the adverb is almost completely omitted from the examples authorities give on how to teach grammatical concepts from specifics. Few, very few, examples are given. The authorities cited in Part I give only two.

This part of speech is easy to teach from specifics. Since most adverbs are words that answer the question when, where, how, and (in a sense) how much, one or two of these aspects should serve as the initial approach in the teaching of adverbs. To present a series of sentences containing adverbs answering all four questions may confuse the pupils. More confusion, however, may be caused by telling the pupils that "An adverb is a word which modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb."[1] As Pooley says, "In part this rule is circular, for a student is told that he can learn what an adverb is by observing that it modifies another adverb!"[2]

As the most obvious questions answered by the adverb are when

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1. Max J. Herzberg, et. al., Better English (New York, 1952), p. 324.

2. Robert C. Pooley, Teaching English Grammar (New York, 1957), p. 138.

and where, it is appropriate to begin with these attributes of the adverb.

Adverbs That Answer When and Where

Exercise with Specifics

Underscore each word in the sentences below that answers the question when.

1. We fed our chicken daily.
2. The man left early.
3. Then came the rain.
4. Shall we leave today or tomorrow?
5. Now we know.
6. Some of our daily habits we perform with but little thought.

Underscore each word that tells where in these sentences.

7. Go downstairs and then turn.
8. Man poineers moved West.
9. If we were to move here, will our children go to West End High?
10. Next, we went downtown.
11. How long can a diver stay beneath without air?
12. Did you notice any bargains in the downstairs department?

Follow-up

Have the pupils underscore the words in sentences seven through twelve that answer the question when?

Is the word daily used in sentence one as it is in sentence six? What question does daily in sentence one answer? Does daily in sentence six answer when?

Would it be possible to establish what part of speech the word downstairs is in sentences seven and twelve by looking it up in the dictionary? Why does downstairs in sentence twelve not belong with the other words you have underscored? Why does it answer where in sentence seven but not in sentence twelve?

Establishing a Nomenclature

When the pupils have completed the underscoring, list on the board all adverbs in the twelve sentences, permitting the pupils to designate which ones answer where and which answer when. This being completed, tell the pupils that a single word which answers the question when or where is an adverb.

Adverbs That Answer How

Adverbs in the "how" category are more subtle. This being the case, this exercise deals with the more obvious aspects of this phase of the adverb. Its more complex uses are detailed in an exercise of Additional Specifics.

Exercise with Specifics

In each of the following sentences one word tells how something is done. Underscore this word.

1. Glen moved quickly.
2. Peggy sang softly.
3. The plane sounded close.
4. Tom batted the ball hard.
5. These clothes are priced cheaply.

Follow-up

How did Glen move? Peggy sang how? The plane sounded how?

Hard in sentence four describes what? Cheaply in sentence five describes what?

Possible answers to these questions are these: "Hard tells how the ball was batted," and "Cheaply tells how the clothes are priced."

Have the pupils notice that the words quickly, softly, and close all answer the question how.

Establishing a Nomenclature

Permit the pupils to add this "how" function of the adverb to the definition previously developed. They can now surmise:

"An adverb is a word that answers when, where, or how."

Adverb That Answer How Much

Adverbs in the "how much" category are even more subtle than those that answer the "how" question. This being the case, this exercise deals with the more obvious aspects of this phase of the adverb. Its more complex uses are detailed in an exercise of Additional Specifics.

Exercise with Specifics

In each of the following sentences, one word tells how something is done. Underscore this word.

1. Glen moved too quickly.
2. Peggy sang very softly.
3. The plane sounded extremely close.
4. Tom batted the ball real hard.
5. These clothes are priced very cheaply.

Follow-up

Glen moved how in sentence one? How quickly?

Peggy sang how in sentence two? How softly?

Continue thus with sentences three, four, and five. When completed, ask: How are the words too, very, extremely, real, and very alike?

Does the word quickly in the sentence Glen moved too quickly tell how Glen moved? Does the word too tell how quickly?

In the sentence Pete came very late, does the word late tell when Pete came? Does the word very tell how late?

In the sentence From here the river flows slightly west, does the word west tell where the river flows? Does slightly tell "how west" it flows?

From these sentences it can be observed that quickly tells how Glen moved; late tells when Pete came, and west tells where the river flows.

Now ask: What do the words too, very, and slightly do? If the pupils reply, "They tell how something happened or how something is done," substitute the word much for something.

Establishing a Nomenclature

Have the pupils include this "how much" idea in their definition. They can surmise:

"An adverb is a word that answers the question when, where, how, or how much."

Adverbs That Modify Action Words

The teacher who uses a composite approach that has previously identified the verb and who desires a more formal nomenclature may now ascribe to the adverb its modification function; but, since the examples used thus far do not exhibit the adjectival aspect of the adverb, the formal terminology can show the adverb only as a modifier of a verb or another adverb. The sentences listed in the

Exercise with Specifics immediately above may be used for this purpose, for each of them has an adverb modifying a verb and an adverb modifying an adverb.

Additional Exercise with Specifics

To further develop the pupils' concept of the adverb in the Specifics previously used and to introduce the adverb as a modifier of the adjective is the purpose of this exercise.

Underscore the adverbs in the following sentences.

1. He ran fast.

What word does fast describe?

What word does left describe in the sentence below?

He turned left.

How are the words described by the adverbs below alike?

1. He skipped happily.
2. He raced madly.

What words do these adverbs describe? Do the described words show action?

How are the words described by the adverbs below alike?

1. I see him now.
2. I have gone daily to the store.

Do the words described by these adverbs show or imply action?

Do all of the adverbs in the ten sentences of the two previous Exercises with Specifics describe words that show or imply action?

What is the difference in meaning of these two sentences?

1. I have seen the movie Hamlet.
2. I have just seen the movie Hamlet.

In sentence two what word or words does the word just explain?

Is either of these sentences correct?

1. I have just the movie Hamlet.
2. I just seen the movie Hamlet.

Now ask again: What words does just explain (change, describe)? Is one of them an action word? If so, in what sense?

What is the difference in the meaning of the following two sentences?

1. I have seen the play Hamlet.
2. I have not seen the play Hamlet.

What word drastically changes the meaning of sentence two?

How are the words not and just alike? Which has the more profound influence? Are they both adverbs?

The primary purpose of this Additional Exercise is to lead the pupils to comprehend that the adverb often functions in situations that are not specifically covered by the definition "An adverb is a word that answers where, when, how, or how much." Especially is this true of adverbs that modify verbs or verb phrases that show

or imply action. If the sentences presented thus far convey to the pupils this aspect of the adverb, not as an adverb can be readily understood. If such is not the case, continue with other sentences that reveal the descriptive aspect of the adverb.

Adverbs That Modify Descriptive Words

To further extend the pupils' concept of the adverb as a modifier of action words and to introduce the adverb as modifier of the adjective is the purpose of this exercise.

What word in this sentence shows action?

Edward ran.

What word in this sentence tells how Edward ran?

Edward ran fast.

Since fast tells how Edward ran, what part of speech is it? Draw an arrow from the word fast to the action word it describes.

Edward ran fast.

What word in this sentence tells how fast Edward ran?

Edward ran very fast.

Draw an arrow from fast to the word it describes; draw an arrow from very to the word it describes.

Edward ran very fast.

Now tell the pupils that fast is an adverb that modifies an action word (a verb), and very is an adverb that modifies another adverb.

What word does fat describe in the sentences below? Does fat answer either when, where, how, or how much? Does it describe (modify) an action word? Is fat an adverb? Draw an arrow from fat to the word it describes.

Edward is fat.

What word in this sentence describes fat? Draw an arrow to indicate.

Edward is very fat.

Since very tells how fat Edward is, what part of speech is it?

If the adjectival concept has been developed, tell the pupils that very is an adverb modifying an adjective.

(The development of the correct degree concept of the adverb can be accomplished in the same manner as adjectival degrees. See Chapter III for the approach used with the adjective.)

CHAPTER VI

THE CONJUNCTION

The publications cited in the first three chapters of this study make very few references about the teaching of the conjunction. But this is not indicative of the attention which is given the conjunction in junior high grammar texts. For example, Walsh's Plain English Handbook devotes some six pages to the pronoun and two pages to the conjunction. In Building Better English, a ninth grade text, seven pages are given exclusively to the conjunction. This is about a third of the total that is given to pronouns in this text.

The conjunction as a joiner of phrases and clauses is extremely difficult to teach without the extensive use of formal grammatical terminology. Nevertheless, this chapter attempts to show how the subordinate and the simple coordinate conjunctions can be taught without the aid of extensively involved syntax.

Exercise with Specifics

Does each of these sentences express a complete thought?

1. They went.
2. They saw.

What word is used in sentence three below to unite these two complete thoughts into a single sentence?

3. They went and they saw.

Write on the board

4. Mary went to town.

5. John went to town.

Does sentence six below give as much information as sentences four and five?

6. Mary and John went to town.

Follow-up

Which and, the one in sentence three or sentence six, joins complete thoughts? (Words that express a complete thought are independent clauses.) Do the words They went express a complete thought? Are these words therefore an independent clause? Are the words They saw an independent clause?

What does the and in sentence six join? If the pupils reply "Mary and John," write the following sentence on the board.

The books and tablets are here.

Now ask: What does and in this sentence join? If the pupils reply "books and tablets," ask: What are Mary, John, books, and tablets other than names for persons and things?

Continue with similar questions until the pupils surmise that these four names are words.

Establishing a Nomenclature

Now the pupils should know that the and in sentence three joins complete thoughts (clauses), and they should know that the and in sentence six joins words.

At this point, tell the pupils that the word and is a conjunction, for it joins.

Coordinate Conjunction

To establish and as a simple coordinate conjunction ask: What are the two thoughts joined by and in sentence three of the Specifics? Are these two thoughts equal? Does the and in sentence six join equals. Does the and in the sentence Books and tablets are here join equals?

Are equals joined by each of the and's in these sentences?

1. Many men and women attended.
2. The piano and violin make beautiful music.
3. There is bread on the shelf and in the basket.

Now tell the pupils that and is a coordinate conjunction, for it joins equals.

Underscore the word in each of these sentences that joins equals.

1. No men or women attended.
2. Many men but no women attended.

Do or and but join equals? Since they do, are they coordinate conjunctions?

Subordinate Conjunction

Exercise with Specifics

Do these words express a complete thought clearly?

And the rain fell more rapidly.

Do these words express a complete thought?

When he is fully recovered.

Is each of these sentences clear?

1. The clouds grew darker and the rain fell more rapidly.
2. Bill intends to attempt to climb the mountain again when he is fully recovered.

Follow-up

Draw a line between the words darker and and in sentence one above; draw a line between again and when in sentence two.

1. The clouds grew darker/and the rain fell more rapidly.
2. Bill intends to attempt to climb the mountain again/when he is fully recovered.

Do the words that precede the line in each sentence express a complete thought? Do these form an independent clause?

Do the words following the line in sentence one express a complete thought? Are these words an independent clause?

Do the words following the line in sentence two express a complete thought? Since they do not, are these words an independent clause?

Since all clauses are either independent or dependent, of what type is the clause following the line in sentence two?

Which clauses following the lines in these sentences are dependent?

1. He left/before it started to rain.
2. Tom cleans the pants/and Tim cleans the dresses.
3. I don't think we'll leave/unless the sun shines.
4. I'm going/if I can.

Establishing a Nomenclature

Which group of words following the lines expresses a complete thought clearly? In other words, which is a complete sentence?

When read alone, do the words after the line in sentence one, three, and four express a complete thought clearly? Are these groups of words independent or dependent clauses?

Of course, since an independent clause can stand alone as a

complete sentence, it has a subject and a verb (predicate).* But does a dependent clause have a subject and verb?

Now have the pupils cross out the word immediately following each line.

1. He left/before it started to rain.
2. Tom cleans the pants/and Tim cleans the dresses.
3. I don't think we'll leave/unless the sun shines.
4. I'm going/if I can.

Now do the words which are not crossed out following the lines express a complete thought clearly? Does each of these groups of words have a subject and predicate?

Now rewrite these four sentences as follows:

1a. He left before it started to rain.

1b. He left; it started to rain.

2a. Tom cleans the pants and Tim cleans the dresses.

2b. Tom cleans the pants; Tim cleans the dresses.

3a. I don't think we'll leave unless the sun shines.

3b. I don't think we'll leave; the sun shines.

4a. I'm going if I can.

4b. I'm going; I can.

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* See Chapter II of Part III for a discussion on how to recognize subjects and verbs.

As you can see, a semicolon has been substituted for the first word of the second clause in each "b" sentence above.

Are the meanings expressed by sentences "1a" and "1b" the same? Are the meanings expressed by sentences "2a" and "2b" the same?

Do the two independent clauses, I don't think we'll leave and the sun shines, in sentence "3b" convey the same meaning as does sentence "3a", which says I don't think we'll leave unless the sun shines?

Likewise in sentence four, do the two independent clauses, I'm going and I can, in sentence "4b" convey the same meaning as does sentence "4a", which says I'm going if I can?

Do the two independent clauses, Tom cleans the pants and Tim cleans the dresses, in sentence "2b" convey the same meaning as does sentence "2a", which says Tom cleans the pants and Tim cleans the dresses?

Which of the following sentences could be written as two separate sentences (omitting the word in parentheses) without greatly changing the meaning of the sentence?

1. He was here (before) the wind storm came.

2. Elease likes the movies (and) I like the theater.

In sentence one is the word before part of the clause that follows the word here? In sentence two is the word and part of the clause I like the theater?

Which of these two clauses, before the wind storm came or I like the theater, expresses a complete thought clearly? Is it an independent clause?

Underscore the dependent clauses in these sentences with one line; underscore the independent clauses with two lines.

1. He left before it started to rain.
2. I don't think we'll leave unless the sun shines.
3. I'm going if I can.

Enclose in parentheses the words that join the dependent clauses to the independent clauses. When this is done, like this:

1. He left (before) it started to rain.
2. I don't think we'll leave (unless) the sun shines.
3. I'm going (if) I can.

tell the pupils that the words enclosed in parentheses are subordinate conjunctions, for they join the dependent clauses to the independent clauses on which they depend.

Point out again that the words following the subordinate conjunction when read alone express a complete thought.

Special Exercise

To help the pupils understand that the unique function of a word in a sentence determines its being a particular part of speech is the purpose of this Special Exercise.

Which of these before's is a subordinate conjunction?

1. This never happened before.

2. He came before the rain.

3. He came before she left.

Does before in sentence one join? Since it does not, is it a conjunction?

Which set of words, those following before in sentence two or three, express a complete thought? Which before is a conjunction?

Which until is a coordinate conjunction?

1. I shall wait until tomorrow.

2. I shall wait until tomorrow comes.

CHAPTER VII

THE PREPOSITION

From the authorities quoted in the first three chapters who advocate the use of the specific method, one example from one author on how to teach the preposition is given. A few of them theorized about the teaching of the preposition, but this is the extent of their "show-how".

As will be immediately noted, the exercises suggested in this chapter for the preposition, when compared with other exercises in this study, are unique. It is felt that the usual divisions used in presenting the other parts of speech are not appropriate for the preposition.

(As will be noted too, part of the examples given here repeat portions of chapter three.)

Recognition of the Preposition

Since all seventh graders use prepositions, clearly the task is to get the pupils to analyze what they know. This can be simply and easily done with ABC blocks.

Arrange the blocks like this:

Then ask the pupils the relationship of block B to the other two blocks. Instantly, the unison response should denote the relationship as between. Have some pupil write the word between on the board. Then ask other questions about the relationship of the blocks--C to B (Write the word beneath on the board.) A to B (Write the word above on the board.)

Of course, the words suggested as answers to the above questions will vary, but the words suggested will usually indicate rather accurately the relationship of the blocks.

Do not limit this procedure of identifying words that show relationship to the "block" exercise. Ask the pupils what is the relationship of your feet to the desk, the relationship of the school building to the road, etc. Continue thus until some ten or twelve words that the pupils designate as showing relationship are on the board.

After this initial exercise, write vertically the numbers one through ten on the board. By each odd number write a simple

sentence, including in each a word that the pupils have suggested. Have the pupils underscore each "relationship" word.

Since the first three words suggested in the "block" exercise were between, beneath, and above, the first three odd-numbered sentences should be similar to these:

1. He ran between the houses.
2.

3. The plane flew beneath the clouds.
4.

5. The crow sails above the trees.
6.

When the pupils have correctly underscored the prepositions, have them write a sentence by the number 2, including in it a word that parallels between, the underscored word in the odd-numbered sentences immediately above. Continue this pattern with the other even numbers. Here are three examples.

1. He ran between the houses.
2. He walked AMONG the men.

3. The plane flew beneath the clouds.
4. He came BELOW the surface.

5. The crow sails above the trees.

6. The cow jumped OVER the moon.

Of course, the relationship of physical, stable objects discussed thus far will not give the pupils a broad concept of prepositions. In describing relationships of this nature, prepositions such as to, from, out, in, upon, through, and around are not likely to be suggested, for they often describe relationships of objects that are not stable. But these more subtle relationships can be shown with simple cartoons. It does not take an artist to draw a cartoon depicting a cow jumping over the moon, around the moon, to the moon, through the moon, from the moon, etc. If you do not wish to use cartoons, ask a pupil to run around your desk, or run to a book, pause, and then jump over it. When the pupils describe this action by writing He ran to the book and then jumped over it, they will clearly perceive that the word to shows relationship just as surely as over does.

When the pupils are able to underscore in varied sentences words that show relationship, they should be told that words which show relationship are prepositions.

To help the pupils recognize the words related by prepositions is the purpose of this exercise.

Does this group of words express a complete thought clearly?

The cow ran.

Is this sentence clear?

The cow ran the house.

Why is this sentence not clear? Do cows run houses?

Is this sentence clear?

The cow ran around.

Is it now known how the cow ran?

In this sentence is it known how the cow ran in relation to the house?

The cow ran around the house.

What word shows the relationship between how the cow <u>ran</u> and the <u>house</u>? Draw a double pointed arrow connecting <u>ran</u> and <u>house</u>.

The cow ran around the house.

Now intersect the line connecting the points of the arrow with an arrow pointing to the word that relates <u>ran</u> and <u>house</u>, like this:

The cow ran around the house.

Underscore the prepositions in these sentences.

1. The cow ran to the house.
2. The cow ran from the house.
3. The cow ran toward the house.

4. The cow ran over the house.

5. The cow ran by the house.

What two words are related by each of the above prepositions?

What word in this sentence shows the relationship of pool and jumped.

The boy jumped into the pool.

What words in the sentence below show relationship?

The man in the boat jumped into the water.

What words are related by the word in? by the word into? Draw arrows as directed above.

The man in the boat jumped into the water.

What words are related by to? Draw arrows to indicate.

You go to him.

In the sentence The man in the boat jumped into the water is the word that in relates to man the name of a person, place, or thing? Which of these is the word that into relates to jumped. What part of speech are boat and water?

In the sentence You go to him is the word related to go by to the name of a person or a word that stands for the name of a person? What part of speech is him?

In sentence one above the prepositions relate the words boat and water to other words in the sentence. Right? In sentence two

the preposition relates the word him to some other word in the sentence. Right?

Since these words either name a person, place, or thing or stand for the name of a person, place, or thing, what part of speech are they? What part of speech relates these nouns and pronouns to other words?

The pupils now know that prepositions are words that show relationship and they know that nouns and pronouns are related to other words by prepositions. To help the pupils unite these two facts into a definition, put this form on the board.

A _____ is a word that shows the relationship of a _____ or _____ to some other word in the sentence.

Special Exercise

To help the pupils comprehend that the particular function of a word in a sentence determines its identity as a given part of speech is the purpose of this Special Exercise.

Which of these sentences contains a preposition?

1. The enemy closed in.
2. They came in quickly.
3. It was found in the car.

Does the word in in sentence one show relationship? Since it does not, is it a preposition?

Which in, the one in sentence two or three, shows the relationship of a word that names a person, place, or thing (noun) to some other word in the sentence? Which in is a preposition?

Correct Use of Prepositions

Between and Among

In the parentheses at the end of each sentence put a (2) if the noun or pronoun related by the preposition to some other word refers only to two things; put a (3) if the noun or pronoun related by the preposition to some other word refers to three or more things. Underscore each preposition.

1. Tom walked between the two big oaks. ( )
2. Jim walked among the trees of the forest. ( )
3. Shorty walked between the president and the vice president. ( )
4. After his speech, the candidate shook hands with his supporters as he walked among them. ( )

Between is correctly used in sentences one and three, for only two things are denoted by the nouns related by each preposition. If between were substituted for among in sentences two and four, why would they sound peculiar?

They would read

1. Jim walked between the trees of the forest.

2. After his speech, the candidate shook hands with his supporters as he walked between them.

If between is correctly used in sentence one, how many trees are actually in the forest? Do two trees make up a forest?

If between is correctly used in sentence two, how many supporters has the candidate?

In and Into

Which of these sentences describes motion from outside to inside? Which describes motion within only?

1. He walked from the yard into the house.
2. She walked around in the room.

What preposition is used to describe motion from one place to another? When the motion is confined to one place, what preposition is used?

What is the difference in the meaning of these sentences?

1. He walked in the kitchen.
2. He walked into the kitchen.

To which sentence could the words from the dining room be correctly added? Why?

PART IV

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The research occasioned by this study reveals that no comprehensive plan showing how to develop concepts from specifics is now existent. As Howe says, "Even the so-called 'functional' texts begin with definitions instead of ending with them."[1] Those who recommend beginning with specifics, including the National Council of Teachers of English, have not set down an over-all, sequential plan for executing their recommendation. The discussions that introduce Part II and the chapters in Part III indicate the almost complete lack of illustrative examples.

In this study is a detailing of how to develop certain grammatical rules and definitions from concepts surmised from specifics. How specifics can be used to correct errors through a syntactial or a non-syntactial approach is demonstrated. However, since it is the intent of this study to show how to develop the concepts contained in the current grammar texts used in the junior high school of Alabama, specifics that are intended to lead to concepts based on syntax account for more than ninety per cent of

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1. M. L. Howe, "Summarized Grammar," The English Journal, XL (June, 1951), p. 308.

the total examples. Only in the discussion of the correct use of personal pronouns are the two approaches specifically designated as syntactial and non-syntactial. In all cases, however, the approach is obvious.

Throughout this study the specifics used to develop concepts are couched in the common vernacular of the junior high pupil.

It is shown in this study that sound laws of learning can be used in developing concepts from specifics. One of these principles is that of building from the known to the unknown. That utilization of this principle aids understanding and retention is generally accepted.

The method of beginning with specifics puts into practice the principle of learning which states that "teaching should begin where the pupils are." When this principle is operative, as it is in this study, it simplifies the initial phase of grammatical teaching and thus enhances the chances of pupils' progress. Since success often begets success, initial progress often leads to intense interest, initiative, and effort. Too, beginning where the pupils are is a partial safeguard against grammatical instruction being pitched "over the heads" of the pupils--a most important fact that is not overlooked in this study.

As previously stated, how to develop concepts from specifics is shown in this study. In addition to being a safeguard against

empty verbalism, generalizing from specifics help promote understanding and application. That facts generalized into an understanding are much easier to remember and apply is the contention of many educational psychologists.

Not to be overlooked is the reasoning technique that is prevalent in this study. Pupils are shown how to develop principles and rules. Conclusions are not presented to the pupils; they are led to develop their own from pertintent specifics.

Recommendations

The present array of communication media are voluminous and complex. Contemporary secondary school students are bombarded daily with words from radios, TV's, books, magazines, pamphlets (and teachers). It is fallacious to believe that all of these words are void of propaganda, half-truths, clever deceptions, and outright misrepresentations. But it is imperative that citizens in a democracy understand words, for action ensues from ideas derived from words.

Since action does ensue from ideas derived from words, it is important that English teachers help pupils learn how to make generalizations from a wealth of specific data. In our culture many empty cliches, old saws, and verbalisms have standing of

their own without reference to meaning.[2] By giving the pupils opportunity to utilize specifics to develop concepts, the teachers of English can help inculcate a respect for concepts based on facts. It is felt that the method used in this study has much to offer in this area. Therefore, it is recommended that English teachers give consideration to utilizing techniques that will give pupils practice in generalizing.

As pointed out, building grammatical concepts from specifics is advocated by many. Those so advocating, as noted previously, make rather extensive claims of the values that are likely to accrue from generalizing from specifics. That beginning with specifics in the teaching of grammar is superior to beginning with rules is not as yet a statistical fact. Since beginning with specifics has proved superior in other areas of learning, it is often inferred (perhaps correctly) that grammatical concepts can be taught better from specifics than from rules.

In this study the groundwork for obtaining statistical evidence is laid. By augmenting the examples, the various exercises on punctuation and word relationship herein are appropriate for classroom use. If this were done in comparison with the formal (rule first) method in a statistically sound setup, the claims of

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2. William H. Burton, The Guidance of Learning Activities (New York, 1952), p. 123.

the advocates of the method of beginning with specifics could be verified, partially verified, or proved false. Such needs to be done.

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