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An Archival Study of Grammar Instruction: Looking to the Past for Future Best Practices in Writing Instruction

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Positioning Myself as a Researcher

There are two types of grammar lovers (we call ourselves grammarians): prescriptive and descriptive. *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* distinguishes the difference between the two: descriptivists “outline and illustrate the principles that govern the construction of words and sentences in the present-day language without recommending or condemning particular usage choices” (Huddleston and Pollum 2). The prescriptivists – myself included – view grammar as a hobby with rules to be memorized and followed. When I spied incorrect syntax, at the risk of being pedantic, I would push my glasses up my nose, widen my eyes, and tell the writer “Rule 42a under ‘nouns’ found in *The Blue Book of Grammar and Punctuation* tells me that you, sir, are wrong.” Because who doesn’t love learning about grammar? I’ll tell you who, it’s probably everyone except us grammar nerds and most certainly the above-mentioned “sir” I was correcting at the moment.

I am the purist. Direct grammar instruction – at least in my mind – must have direct positive influence on writing practices, so I looked for validation for my position. When I began my research, I read many grammar textbooks, from Lindley Murray’s 1807 *English Grammar*, Nellie B. Wallbank’s 1897 *Outlines and Exercises in English Grammar*, up to the surprisingly still popular John Warriner’s 1988 *English Composition and Grammar* (for full list see Appendix A). The selection of some of these textbooks stemmed from annual textbook reports found in Rollo LaVerne Lyman’s 1922 dissertation *English Grammar in American Schools before 1850* (83), but most of the books were selected based on access, happenstance, and biologic safety - you’d be surprised how many booklice and mold spores love grammar as much as I do. The end result is not an exhaustive list, nor is it entirely scientific, but it is representative of popular texts in use within schools from over a century-and-a-half of instruction.
I created a comprehensive taxonomic chart (see appendix A) to organize my information and help with analysis. I looked at three categories of information: 1) I identified how each manual taught various parts of speech and mechanics of grammar; 2) I examined prefaces, which were often written by the author, instructing teachers how to teach the grammar textbook; 3) I included examples of exercises and descriptions of the arrangement of topics to see how each piece of grammar was suggested to be learnt.

What became clear from these textbooks is that grammar instruction has changed but little over the course of two centuries. Every early textbook addressed grammar instruction with a prescriptivist, traditional approach, listing rules to be memorized and sentences to be parsed or labeled “correct” or “incorrect.” Lindley Murray’s 1807 *English Grammar* preface reads, “it is presumed that those students who learn the definitions and rules contained in this abridgement, and apply them by correcting the Exercises, will obtain a good knowledge of English grammar” (iv). The purpose of grammar instruction in Murray’s text was for the same reason that I learn grammar - to simply “obtain a good knowledge” of it. Alfred Holbrook’s 1889 *New English Grammar* suggests that “teachers will use the preliminary drills given for introducing each part of speech and each modification, either as suggestive of oral instruction from themselves, or they will read them responsively with their pupils in preparing them to write out each successive lesson in analytic parsing at their desks” (iv). Students were to learn listed grammar rules through written and oral repetition and drilling with rules that recommends or condemns usage.

Not surprisingly, I interpreted these early textbooks as in agreement with my fixed, prescriptivist mindset. Direct instruction in grammar must yield stronger writing (and speaking, though I am less interested in that) in students. It wasn’t until I began reading publications and
teacher testaments about grammar pedagogy that I realized there was not as clear a link between learning grammar mechanics and improved writing skills as I had imagined and hoped.

If it is not the case that direct grammar instruction is correlated with improving student writing, then what is the role of grammar instruction in the model English Language Arts (ELA) classroom? A casual reading of current evaluations of the state of student writing seems to imagine that direct instruction should improve student writing, and, further, that there was, in the not-too-distant past, an ELA classroom where grammar was taught and student writing was better. My question is, then, where does that idea come from? To answer that question, I turn to the historical record as represented in grammar texts from the past century and a half.

Although I am the prescriptivist and I love learning grammar simply to learn grammar, I recognize that direct grammar instruction within the classroom might not help my writing as much as I thought it had. Maybe grammar does do this, and maybe it doesn’t. I originally wanted to find evidence to prove that I was right in some capacity - my own 42a if you will, but instead I discovered that while 42a exists, knowing 42a for exactly what it is does not specifically better my own writing abilities. My research evaluates the role direct grammar instruction has played (or not played) historically in the teaching of writing, to understand what the historical record tells us about why and how grammar instruction was understood, and considers how past practice might inform current practice in the English Language Arts classroom.

The majority of my research was archival and exploratory; I spent many a day with my nose in grammar textbooks, *The English Journal*, and other *The National Council for Teachers of English* publications, all ranging from the early nineteenth century to the start of the 21st century. My research, while not an exhaustive overview for the history of grammar education, highlights the shifts of why grammar was believed to be needed in the English Language Arts
classroom and how it was subsequently taught. Why grammar has been taught has changed remarkably over the years, but the how has mostly stayed the same. By evaluating the history of grammar education throughout the last two centuries, we can trace the tension educators felt between how and why grammar should be taught in the classroom based on textbooks and personal narratives published by teachers. Through my research, I came to understand that direct grammar instruction in the ELA classroom was not linked to better writing skills. And although I read many articles and research that reinforces my findings, educators for the past two centuries have taught with traditional pedagogies of repetition and recitation based on the directions of the textbooks they taught with and, often, how they themselves were taught to interact with grammar. Educators recognized the need for grammar instruction at that precise moment, but with limited guidance on how to teach grammar that was effective, how grammar was taught shifted minimally over the time period.

I’m going to take you back, now, to the foundation of English grammar education in America to trace how grammar was meant to be taught as well as why it was taught - what will become clear is that while the means of grammar instruction has changed very little in all of this time, the reasons why grammar is taught has changed significantly.
1975 and Merrill Sheils

“Willy-nilly, the U.S. educational system is spawning a nation of semiliterates.”

– Merrill Sheils “Why Johnny Can’t Write” pg. 58

I am going to open the history of United States English grammar instruction with a relatively niche Merrill Sheils’s 1975 Newsweek magazine article “Why Johnny Can’t Write.” I chose Sheils to introduce the history of grammar instruction because she echoes a claim generations of educators argued: writing ability now is greatly reduced from some “golden age” where students all wrote well. I argue that the golden age of writing never was, for teachers have taught with the same traditional pedagogies of grammar instruction for the past two centuries and have complained about student ability for just as long.

Sheils identifies a myriad of reasons for why writing abilities have dropped including television, dialects, stimulants, and a lack of proper composition teaching. And many other articles have mimed this argument, claiming writing levels are not what educators anticipated them to be and that there has been a sudden decline in writing ability. Merrill Sheils opens her article with a bemoaning of lost ability:

If your children are attending college, the chances are that when they graduate they will be unable to write ordinary, expository English with any real degree of structure lucidity.

If they are in high school and planning to attend college, the chances are less than ever that they will be able to write English at the minimal college level when they get there …

Willy-nilly, the U.S. educational system is spawning a nation of semiliterates. (58)

According to Sheils, writing knowledge has significantly decreased over the past few decades and has becoming incoherent and nonsensical. We have seen this type of publication over and
over again; student writing is on a steep decline. Even today, the trope “Why Johnny-” has been used repeatedly to identify some ability that has slipped from the mainstream. Articles like “Why Johnny Can’t Choose” (1998), “Why Johnny Can’t Name his Colors” (2010), and the most recent “Why Johnny Still Can’t Encrypt” (2016) were published in subsequent years to follow the same general pattern: identify a skill that is deficient and to call blame in a variety of factors where teachers are not teaching properly, students are not listening enough, and the whole system is broken. According to Sheils’s “Why Johnny Can’t Write,” we need to return to a time where writing just works, and yet an overview of publications from the past two centuries has suggested that writing doesn’t just work, and that perhaps this golden age of writing never really was.

It is useful to understand the context that Sheils is writing out of. Sheils witnessed a major shift in collegiate education and composition studies from the late 1960s into the 1970s. Many four-year colleges began accepting students who were not traditionally ready for college and did not write at what was considered college level. In 1970, colleges like the City University of New York promised any high school graduate placement within one of eighteen campuses, “opening its doors not only to a larger population of students than it had ever done before (enrollment was to jump from 174,000 in 1969 to 266,000 in 1975) but to a wider range of students than any college had probably ever admitted” (Shaughnessy 1-2). The wide range of students noted by Shaughnessy took writing placement exams and either met the college requirements or wrote with low abilities. To cater to those with limited writing training, colleges developed their first “remedial” courses to teach lower performing students.

In 1975, Sheils saw repercussions of remedial writing courses throughout the country and the dramatic impact on national test scores. Sheils noted students were left “seriously deficient
when it comes to organizing their thoughts on paper” (62), but that is only because students were not prepared to take college-level writing courses. Sheils mentions grammar instruction minimally – and that’s partially why I’m using Sheils as my opener to this history of grammar instruction. Sheils bemoans the “loss” of writing skills in the United States, but does little to offer remedy to the issue. Sheils comments when writing is taught in high schools “the creative school discourages insistence on grammar, structure and style. Many teachers seem to believe that rules stifle spontaneity” (60). Sheils is writing directly about the role of traditional grammar instruction – the rote memorization and repetition of rules without context of why students are learning grammar. Her suggestion here is that if grammar was more rigorously taught, students would write better.

18th Century and Early 19th Century

“It would be much more for the reputation of Americans to unite in destroying provincial and local distinctions, in resisting the stream of corruptions, that is ever flowing from ignorance and pride and in establishing one uniform standard of elegant pronunciation.” – Noah Webster A Grammatical Institute of the English Language pg. 12

The Revolutionary War marked the end of England’s rule over the thirteen American colonies; America, faced with the task to form a government and create a new, independent country, needed an equally new characteristic separating itself from its British counterpart. Inspired by the newly established government and establishing a country separating itself from England, in 1783 Noah Webster published A Grammatical Institute of the English Language, which demanded America create a standard, unified American English that individualized
America linguistically from its English speaking counterparts. This new American English would reflect the way Webster thought Americans should speak. Webster writes:

The principal part of instructors are illiterate people, and require some early guide to the standard of pronunciation, which is nothing else but the customary pronunciation of the most accurate scholars and literary Gentleman. Such a standard, universally used in schools, would in time, demolish those odious distinctions of provincial dialects, which are the objects of reciprocal ridicule in the United States. (5)

Standard English would be taught to those who were less educated, and through speaking a standard English, these people would sound more intelligent. Further, in 1791, Webster published Dissertations on the English Language where he believed “as an independent nation, our honor requires us to have a system of our own, in language as well as government. Great Britain … should no longer be our standard” (qtd. in Algeo 367). Webster marked a new era in America; by systematically dismantling “odious distinctions of provincial dialects,” American English would distinguish itself from its colonial overlord. Creating a new language through grammar instruction and speech was to instill a sense of national pride and sense of identity by creating a standard speech to symbolize “status, stability, and political unity” (Crystal 424).

Six years after Noah Webster’s institute of grammar publication, Massachusetts created an education law which introduced English grammar into the curriculum for the first time in United States history. The law stated that grammar and education shall be implemented in areas of highly populated areas: “every town … containing fifty families … shall be provided with a schoolmaster … to teach children to read and write and to instruct them in the English language, as well as arithmetic, orthography, and decent behavior” (qtd. in Lyman 72). According to grammarian Rollo LaVerne Lyman’s English Grammar in American Schools before 1850,
Massachusetts’ law corresponded to Noah Webster’s 1783 publication *A Grammatical Institute of the English Language*, which taught American English and separated itself from its European counterparts. Massachusetts’s students in highly dense areas would learn national pride and moral integrity through spoken language – and, of course, decent behavior.

Lindley Murray’s 1807 *English Grammar* and Samuel Kirkham’s 1834 *English Grammar in Familiar Lectures* reflected Noah Webster and Massachusetts’s 1789 education law’s need for a standard English in different ways. According to a study of used grammar textbooks in New York published in Rollo LaVerne Lyman’s dissertation, Lindley Murray’s *English Grammar* lost popularity as the nineteenth century progressed, while Samuel Kirkham’s *English Grammar in Familiar Lectures* steadily gained popularity until 1810 and then was progressively dropped from usage within the classroom toward the 1850s (Lyman 43). Lindley Murray’s textbook was of particular interest because Murray was born in Pennsylvania and moved to Great Britain after the Revolutionary War and was considered a British grammarian. *English Grammar* was used heavily in United States classrooms primarily at the end of the eighteenth and into the nineteenth century with about 15.5 million textbooks sold between 1800 and 1840 throughout the United States and Great Britain (Garner 1). The popularity of the text speaks perhaps to the lack of a standard American English grammar of the time and as Samuel Kirkham’s American English grammar textbook rose in popularity, Murray’s swiftly dropped.

Murray’s text was divided into sections and lists of questions and answers regarding grammar mechanics; he defines grammar as “the art of speaking and writing the English language with propriety” where grammar is divided into “orthography, etymology, syntax, and prosody” (5). The textbook would serve well as a manual for pupils who need to learn mechanics
of grammar and have questions regarding English, but this textbook did little to address spoken English, which is where Samuel Kirkham’s text comes into play.

Samuel Kirkham’s 1834 *English Grammar in Familiar Lectures* dedicated a whole section to orthoepy, or the study of correct and standard pronunciation with individual “orthography,” or words. Students’ vernacular speech was categorized as “improper” and standard English pronunciation was juxtaposed and labeled “corrected.” Kirkham differentiates orthoepy correction from provincialisms as evaluating words “often erroneously pronounced by polite people, as well as by the vulgar, their correction, in this place, agreeably to *Cobb’s Dictionary*, it is presumed, will be useful to many. Some of the mispronunciations given are provincial” (201). With reference to the *Cobb’s Dictionary*, grammar instruction and spoken word is closely linked to a prescriptive teaching, with language being described as recommending or condemning language usage (Huddleston and Pollum 2). The language instruction happened orally: Lessons were spoken aloud and repeated by students.

The section on Provincialisms was prefaced this way: “As each of the following provincialisms and vulgarisms, has its locality in some one section or other of our country, it is hoped that these corrections will be found useful in the districts to which the various phrases respectively belong” (Kirkham 205). Provincialisms are spelled phonetically, with a “correct” spoken version and orthoepy alongside the incorrect.

*English Grammar in Familiar Lectures* lists New England or New York provincialisms as improper: “I be goin. He lives to hum. He ben to hum this two weeks. You had dent ought to do it. Yes had ought,” compared to the corrected, standard: “I am going. He lives at home. He has been at home these 2 weeks. You ought not to do it. Certainly I ought.” Grammar was taught through Noah Webster’s suggestion of creating a language that unified America, creating a
speech that was independent of British English. Grammar instruction in Kirkham’s *English Grammar in Familiar Lectures* harkens to Webster’s assertion that: “it would be much more for the reputation of Americans to unite in destroying provincial and local distinctions, in resisting the stream of corruptions, that is ever flowing from ignorance and pride and in establishing one uniform standard of elegant pronunciation” (Webster 12). Provincialisms would work against national pride, and teaching a standard pronunciation would “resist corruptions” and ultimately unite the country.

Grammar instruction in the eighteenth century should be seen as taught through repetition and speech correction to create a standard English separate from the English of England. A unified, unique English language would distinguish itself from British English, creating an equally new language, while simultaneously morally edifying its citizens. So in the earliest texts directed at grammar instruction in this new country, we see a first purpose for teaching grammar and a first pedagogy.

**Late 19th Century**

“In recitation of all studies, opportunity should be given the classes for mutual criticism on pronunciation, as well as in other particulars.”

– Alfred Holbrook *New English Grammar* pg. 21

The nineteenth-century saw increases in urbanization and industrialization, and an increase of “newly arrived and newly rich Americans,” which made “the purpose of the traditional school grammar book … to help people master a socially prestigious form of the language” (*Grammar for Teachers* 102), which subsequently meant changes in the structure of
education. Increased urbanization saw a growth in the workforce, and educators needed an education system that created more “educated citizens” (Parker 4). Because most of the workers entering urban centers were minimally educated, teachers began to teach through spoken language to remove markers of class. Spoken language was a major component of grammar instruction in the nineteenth century, as it had been in the eighteenth century, but the purpose for grammar instruction was to blur the class markers in America.

Alfred Holbrook’s 1889 *New English Grammar* first chapter addresses how teachers should read his text. The example below from section 63, “Drill in Articulate Sound,” exemplifies the prescriptive nature of instruction, with oral exercises based on repetition and rote memorization. The section reads:

Commence with vocals as given in Chart, page 20.

1. Repeat each long sound twice in order.
2. Direct the class to do the same in concert with yourself.
3. Direct the class to do the same without your aid. Continue this process until the large majority make the sounds correctly, and in the order of the chart.
4. Drill individuals failing, before the class, in groups or singly, till each pupil masters all the difficulties.
5. Pursue the same course.
6. Repeat and vary these drills until every pupil can *go through* the vocals, long and short, and name the organ at which the sound is modified. (19)

With students asked to “repeat,” “continue,” “drill,” and “pursue” proper pronunciations, grammar through oral recitation was reliant on what we might call traditional pedagogies of teaching grammar. We can link the oral repetition of sentences to the purpose of grammar
instruction at the time: to erase class markers through speech and education. Through a reading of publications in the nineteenth and early twentieth century, I can identify that while the purpose of grammar instruction may have shifted, the method did not.

It is not until the beginning of the 20th century that we find record of an interest in the relationship between the written word and grammar instruction. Teacher testimony “Oral Composition” by Mrs. Henry Hulst in 1912 strayed from the general need for grammar instruction to be spoken and discussed the implications of grammar instruction and oral correction on written pieces. Hulst revealed, “oral composition and class-correction are good means of improving written composition, but the time will never come when careful correction of papers is unnecessary” (1). While she admitted the benefits of spoken language and “class-correction,” she bemoaned the lack of written correction on papers. Her article, though brief, suggests that the popular grammar instruction during the time period for strengthening language skills, as suggested in Holbrook’s *New English Grammar*, has minimal effect on student writing skills. This is not the first example we have seen of grammar instruction critique. Many before her and many after recognized grammar instruction taught traditionally had little influence over written skills.

Educator Oliver Farrar Emerson published “The Teaching of English Grammar” in 1897 for *The School Review*, a widely read journal for English educators. Emerson believed that grammar instruction was too prescriptive and did not follow the nature of evolving language. Teaching traditional grammar from a textbook, according to Emerson, does not teach students language reflective of the time period, which “terribly hampers the teaching of English grammar, and throws teacher and pupil back upon mere dogmatic statement. There is nothing left but the dry and deadening processes of memorizing rules and definitions, and the unreasoning
application of set formulae” (132). Emerson witnessed that grammar education in the late nineteenth century did not reflect language as it was being spoken. He recognized the traditional methods of grammar instruction did little to meet the needs of why grammar was being taught in the first place. He suggested textbooks should be more descriptive and “should describe the grammar of our language in terms which apply to the spoken as well as to the written form” (135). Emerson noted, as a descriptionist, that traditional grammar instruction relied on strict rules and did little to improve students’ speaking skills or influence writing abilities.

Throughout all of these discussions, grammar was still being taught as its own subject with minimal transfer into the reason grammar was originally being taught: to educate a new working class. Emerson and Hulst witnessed disconnect between grammar textbooks, like Alfred Holbrook’s 1889 *New English Grammar*, and an improvement in speech or writing skills. Without integration into why grammar instruction was being implemented at the time, grammar is taught simply to memorize and repeat rules.

**Early 20th Century**

“The first aim has been to make the book practical - to develop such principles of language as shall be of value in higher English study; to bring about such an understanding of our language as shall lead to a better use of words and clearer constructions.”

– Nellie B. Wallbank *Outlines and Exercises in English Grammar* pg. 2

As the Hulst excerpt above indicates, a search through journal articles, publications, and textbooks from the early twentieth century indicates increased interest in a discussion of
grammar instruction in connection to bettering writing skills and having *function* within the classroom.

In 1915, educator E. A. Cross from The State Teachers College in Greeley, Colorado, published “The Functional Teaching of English Grammar” under the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE), the most well known English teaching journal since 1912. Grammarian Cross promoted grammar to be taught as a function of language that improves speech and clarity in written pieces. Cross’ article argues “one of the most serious mistakes ever made by the specialist in education has been made by those who know more about the science of mind than about the science of language” (643). Cross asserts that grammar is taught from too much of a scientific approach and does little to better writing from the stance of writing. Grammar instruction should be taught to “have a *function*, an office, a work to do in directing the student toward the standard literary or spoken use of the language by the large body of cultured men and women who use as a medium of thought-exchange the code which we call the English language” (654). Grammar’s purpose was to better students outside of the academic setting and to give language a *function*. Knowledge of grammar within the context of formal writing and oratory skills would directly influence students’ professional lives. Grammar, for Cross, served a functional purpose in day-to-day life, which indicates a significant departure from a grammar for speech improvement, but without widespread teaching pedagogies, grammar instruction would not much change and, further, would not accomplish such a goal.

In 1917, educator William H. Cunningham of the Boston school system declared in “Grammar as a School Study,” that “grammar seems to be on its last legs, if one may speak so familiarly of an ancient and decorous subject” (18). In his publication, Cunningham reported that test scores have fallen, teachers have ceased to teach effectively, and the country had fallen into a
composition performance rut – a sentiment expressed in 1917 that sounds quite a lot like the Shiels argument in 1975. He laments the loss of grammar within classrooms. But his opinion was not the only opinion about grammar to be found at the turn of the century. A 1906 study conducted by Franklin Hoyt was to “reevaluate the amount of time devoted to formal grammar study in an overcrowded curriculum” (Hancock and Kolln 23). Cunningham rhetorically asks “Will grammar solve the problem? Who would be silly enough to return a ‘yes’?” (24).

Cunningham, akin to the necessity of grammar instruction in the past century and a half, believes that grammar instruction should be used to educate an uneducated class of people:

  No more, perhaps, is necessary in the way of grammar for children who have cultivated surroundings. These, however, of less fortunate environment, who come to school speaking the scrappy dialect of the streets, need to have some norm definitely set up, by which they must judge their efforts to speak correctly. (24)

William Cunningham believes that the role of grammar instruction in the early twentieth century classroom was to improve lower classes’ speech, to make students sound more educated. Other than creating a standard speech in a lower class, grammar served no purpose in the English language arts classroom.

  The early twentieth century proved to be one of the most difficult time periods to find grammar textbooks. The closest book I could find was Nellie B. Wallbank’s *Outlines and Exercises in English Grammar* from 1897. Wallbank’s text is prefaced by “It has not been the intention in the preparation of this work to produce a book that will take the place of a text book in grammar, but one that will serve for the assignment of all class work, to be used with any thorough, advanced grammar” (3). The textbook reads like the other manuals discussed throughout this thesis, and outlines rules with subsequent exercises for students to complete.
Without seeing an accompanying textbook, it is hard to conclude what grammar instruction would have looked like in the early twentieth century, but based on the publications and the trajectory of textbooks from the last two centuries, the grammar textbooks may rely heavily on listed rules and mechanics with concluding parsing exercises, much like *Outlines and Exercises*.

1930s & 1940s

“The oral-drill approach proved to be fully as effective as the grammar approach.”

– C. C. Crawford and Madie M. Royer “Oral Drill versus Grammar Study” pg. 119

In the 1930s and 1940s, grammar was discussed minimally in academic journals; after a search on the NCTE publication website, *English Journal*, and *College Composition and Communication* databases, few articles regarding grammar instruction could be identified. When grammar was discussed, educators questioned or challenged the usage of grammar instruction within the ELA classroom. H. D. Austin’s “Grammar Pitfalls” blamed “grammar confusion” on the “result of inaccurate definition and incomplete understanding…due to nothing more or less than pure and unadulterated heedlessness,” (119) for both the students and teachers of English grammar. Austin believed that grammar instruction was an inaccurate representation of language and impeded learning of English. Without a clear-cut definition that reflected language usage, grammar instruction becomes pointless. Just learning grammar could not be the reason for grammar within the classroom; the topic cannot be integrated within the context of another subject.

C. C. Crawford and Madie M. Royer’s 1935 “Oral Drill versus Grammar Study” compares the effectiveness of grammar instruction through drills and memorization. Oral drills
included repeating grammatically correct sentences, while grammar study was memorization of particular grammar rules. Two middle school classrooms participated in the study, with one learning through oral drill and the second learning through grammar study. The study concluded “the oral-drill approach proved to be fully as effective as the grammar approach,” (119).

Grammar learned through repetition - either orally or read sentences - proved to be effective in the middle school classroom. Crawford and Royer’s study, however, only tests short-term knowledge of grammar mechanics and does not test if students could translate grammar knowledge into another context – like writing. Grammar had no context to be taught within, and thus served no purpose other than learning grammar to learn grammar.

These texts all embody a tension for why grammar instruction existed in the 1930s and 1940s; there was no unanimously agreed upon purpose for grammar, and thus it was not taught within context. Austin’s “Grammar Pitfalls” argues that grammar is not taught with proper definition and is thus ineffective. Crawford and Royer’s “Oral Drill versus Grammar Study” argue that grammar learned through oral drill is equally as effective as traditional grammar study. Both show that educators believed that grammar was necessary within the curriculum, but there was not a wholly agreed upon purpose – nor on how to teach it.

In 1935, the NCTE, under pressure from educators like Austin, Crawford, and Royer, created a committee to evaluate the role of grammar in the classroom and suggest curriculum. An Experience Curriculum in English recommended that grammar be taught in connection with writing, rather than as a subject of study in itself (Hancock and Kolln 23). The committee created curricula guidelines comparable to the modern Common Core State Standards, which detailed twenty-four criteria taught from grades 2-6 that would promote writing and literacy skills. The committee’s suggestions were not taken well, and educators stuck to teaching the comfortable
traditional grammar that they had been acquainted. The committee’s suggestions were never adopted into mainstream curriculum.

A year later, in 1936, the Curriculum Commission under the National Council of Teachers of English suggested “all teaching of grammar separate from the manipulation of sentences be discontinued … since every scientific attempt to prove that knowledge of grammar is useful has failed …” (*Encyclopedia of Educational Research* qtd. in *Grammar for Teachers* 5). The only textbooks found for the 1930s and 1940s were reproductions from late nineteenth century textbooks. This finding may suggest that grammar as a whole was under such scrutiny that no “new methods” of teaching grammar were being produced within the United States.

**1940s-1960s Quantitative Research**

“There was little or no relationship between grammar and composition or between grammar and literary interpretation.”


The 1950s and 1960s saw an increase in research and evaluation of direct grammar instruction within the context of writing. Constance Weaver, and Craig Hancock with Martha Kolln, and Richard Braddock have already published extensive overviews of this quantitative research (Weaver 1996; Weaver 1979; Hancock and Kolln 2010; Braddock 1962); as to not be redundant, I will briefly outline this research.

The *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* in 1950, as quoted by Weaver, summarizes the quantitative research done in the 1940s:
Concluding that the study of grammar has a negligible effect in helping people think more clearly, and that a knowledge of English grammar does not contribute significantly to achievement in foreign language. Furthermore, the results from tests in grammar, composition, and literary interpretation led to the conclusion that there was little or no relationship between grammar and composition or between grammar and literary interpretation. (*Grammar for Teachers* 4)

From this encyclopedia summary, we note that the research performed emphasized the lack of connection between traditional grammar instruction and improved writing skills. Quantitative research performed in the 1950s worked to complement the findings in the 1940s.

In 1955-1956 Earl Buxton studied a college classroom to see if writing in a collegiate setting would improve over the course of seven months through error-based, gradeless feedback or consistent revision and rewriting. The study concluded that traditional grading and heavy revision was as effective in writing development as revision and rewriting processes (Braddock 69-70). In 1959, Nora Robinson studied students, testing their grammatical knowledge compared to their writing and correlated a grammar test with impression marking, looking only at work classes (Kolln and Hancock 17).

A majority of the 1960s was structured by Noam Chomsky’s study of generative grammar, which was founded on speech patterns and grammar acquisition was based on innate abilities to formulate and process language. He believed that individuals had a “language acquisition device” in the brain that would help decipher language structure. Chomsky believed that students did not learn grammar through “conditioning,” “drill and explicit explanation,” or through “elementary ‘data processing’ procedures” (qtd. by Hancock and Kolln 27).
In 1962, Roland J. Harris investigated the role formal, traditional grammar instruction played within the English classroom, specifically in writing. Harris concluded that there was “a lack of effective tie between a relatively high grammatical score and improvement of the measured items in the essay” (qtd. in Braddock 82-83). Braddock concludes that this study alone does not prove the ineffectiveness of formal grammar instruction, but does provide evidence against the case of traditional grammar study.

In 1966, a study by Bateman and Zidonis investigated the effect of transformational grammar on student writing and showed that students in the experimental group displayed more mature sentence structures, which could be attributed to the usage of sentence combining, which is one of the few grammar lessons that displays immediate results (Grammar for Teachers 89). In 1969, John Mellon researched the benefits of sentence-combining. He concluded that sentence-combining is one of the most simple foundations of English grammar (Grammar for Teachers 90).

In 1975/76, Elley et al. studied the effects of grammar instruction on student writing for three years with 248 students. The study concluded “English grammar, whether traditional or transformational, has virtually no influence on the language growth of typical secondary school students” (qtd. in Grammar to Enrich and Enhance Writing 50).

The brief synopsis of quantitative research into the effectiveness of grammar instruction and its relationship to improved writing was part of the new field of composition studies during the 1960s and demonstrates a scientific approach to the study of the teaching of grammar in the ELA classroom. This shift and study provided evidence for educators and researchers that traditional grammar instruction did little to improve student writing over a period of time. These studies created a suggestion for new research and publications in the next few decades.
1960s

“One of the most heavily investigated problems in the teaching of writing concerns the merits of formal grammar as an instructional aid. Study after study based on objective testing rather than actual writing confirms that instruction in formal grammar has little or no effect on the quality of student composition.”

– Richard Braddock *Research in Written Composition* pg. 37.

In the 1960s, articles published by the NCTE questioned how traditional grammar pedagogies when taught “properly” could better writing skills. NCTE meeting notes “The Current Approaches to Grammar” (1962) and “The New Grammar and Composition” (1964) and articles like Ralph B. Long’s “A Traditionalist Looks at Generative Grammar” (1964) reflected the quantitative studies done in the 1950s and 1960s and questioned the traditional approach to teaching grammar in the ELA classroom. “The Current Approaches to English Grammar” wrote “the Traditional Grammar has failed because teachers have not understood it and have, therefore, been unsuccessful in applying it to the structure of Modern English” (50). Here, the NCTE concluded that grammar does little to better writing because the teachers do not know how to teach and traditional grammar is only used for its “security and comfort” (50). Grammar was still being taught as it had been for almost 200 years and with minimal effect on what had become the focus of grammar instruction – improved writing. And although the NCTE concluded grammar had minimal impact on writing skills, there was no proposed solution or reform to make grammar relevant to the improvement of writing.
After pushback from educators for an in-depth study of grammar and its influence on writing, the NCTE commissioned Richard Braddock’s 1963 pamphlet *Research in Written Composition*, which reviewed the qualitative research done in the 1950s and early 1960s. Braddock concluded, “study after study based on objective testing rather than actual writing confirms that instruction in formal grammar has little or no effect on the quality of student composition” (37). He advertised “anti-grammar,” where “teaching of formal grammar has a negligible or, because it usually displaces some instruction and practice in actual composition, even a harmful effect on the improvement of writing” (37-8). Braddock dismissed any level of grammar instruction within the public classroom. The section on formal grammar instruction is brief, yet the impact of Braddock’s assertion of no formal grammar bled into other publications, and shifted the future of grammar instruction.

Responding to *Research in Written Composition*, Francis Christensen published the article “Grammar in Rhetoric” in 1965, which reported “one does not learn to write by osmosis from grammar any more than from reading. Grammar is not likely to have any bearing on writing unless there is a teacher or a textbook to bring it to bear” (125). Christensen further writes “I have heard of no experiments where the grammar – either the kind used or the way it was used – could be expected to produce results” (126). Instead, Christensen argues that grammar should be integrated into the rising composition studies field. Without integration of grammar skills into writing, grammar serves minimal purpose. Christensen’s grammar reform focused on reworking grammar education.

The 1966 Dartmouth Conference marked the climax of tension within the 1950s and 1960s. The conference was funded by the Carnegie Endowment, and organized by the Modern Language Association (MLA) and the National Conference of Teachers of English (NCTE). The
conference brought together the two opposing sides in the grammar instruction/writing improvement debate, pitting those who believed in a traditional approach and value to grammar instruction against those who denounced grammar as a “waste of time” (qtd Muller 1967 by Myhill 78) in public education and composition studies. Hancock and Kolln attribute “The notion of correcting grammar or correcting texts as central activity had to be dismissed before a more professional ground could be established” in composition studies (Hancock and Kolln 30).

Constance Weaver and Reintroducing Grammar Instruction

“Formal grammar instruction in grammar may have a harmful effect, partly because it tends to alienate students, and partly because it takes time that might more profitably be used in helping students read, write, listen, and speak more effectively.”

– Constance Weaver - Grammar for Teachers pg. 89

Richard Braddock’s 1963 pamphlet Research in Written Composition, in conjunction with the 1966 Dartmouth Conference, ended most discussion of grammar instruction as a topic of study in the classroom. Between the years of 1966 and 1979, few texts were published regarding grammar, and when they were issued, they received little favorable notice.

In 1979, educator Constance Weaver published Grammar for Teachers: Perspectives and Definitions, which answered the question of why grammar at a point in history where grammar instruction was not openly taught or required in the classroom without a research base. Weaver proposed that grammar should be taught in the context of teaching writing – as part of a larger whole of good writing practice. Weaver further argues, “students do need to develop a good intuitive sense of grammar, but they can do this best through indirect rather than direct
instruction. Instead of formally teaching them grammar, we need to give them plenty of structured and unstructured opportunities to deal with language directly” (5). This, as you will be able to tell, is not a new idea. Weaver echoes the NCTE 1935 *An Experience Curriculum in English* that was denounced by teachers. Looking even further back, Weaver’s argument is very similar to A. E. Cross’s work in 1915. The focus of grammar instruction should be based on integration of grammar into the work of writing to provide long-term improvement in writing ability. Grammar instruction should provide students with tools for “structured and unstructured opportunities to deal with language directly.” The focus of grammar instruction should not rely on finding errors to simply find errors, but rather grammar instruction should help writers increase their store of stylistic and rhetorical options. Her book includes reasons for not teaching with direct grammar instruction fortified by contemporary research and models of how to teach grammatical concepts within the context of writing exercises.

The most current textbooks I examined pulled away from the prescriptive nature of grammar instruction in use for nearly 200 years. In Prentice Hall’s *Writing and Grammar* (2008) introduction to “Writing,” a model labeled “The Process of Writing” lists prewriting, drafting, revising, editing and proofreading, and publishing and presenting as steps that are cyclic and often require “jump[ing] back to earlier stages” throughout the work (5). Hall’s chart mimics Constance Weaver’s model of writing that “consists of at least three major stages: prewriting, writing, and rewriting” (*Grammar for Teachers* 65). The 2008 textbook falls back onto prescriptivist tendencies, however, when it comes to grammatical mechanics. For the sake of exemplifying what I mean by this, I will dissect section 27.2 addressing commas. Commas are first introduced, defining the purpose and concluding with “study the rules, making certain you understand each relationship described within them” (520); commas are then introduced with an
example and students are asked to parse sentences through repetition and application. While some of Weaver’s intention of infusing grammar instruction into the context of writing is prevalent more-so than with textbooks before 1950, there is still minimal connection to student writing, making the texts more prescriptivist. What this suggests to me that it is difficult to imagine how to show how one might teach grammar as part of the writing process without first teaching grammar.

I promised my mentor that I won’t make Constance Weaver’s Grammar for Teachers (1979) or Grammar to Enrich and Enhance Writing (2008) my bible and guiding light, but it is difficult not to idolize her work. Weaver’s Grammar for Teachers is not unique, but her writing was published in a period where grammar had no purpose in the classroom and the challenge of teaching new populations of students, this time the flood of students who began to attend university due to open admissions, who struggled as writers. She introduced a method of grammar instruction as integrated into writing assignments to better student writing long-term and makes real effort to remedy the problem that “Why Johnny Can’t Write” identifies.

Grammar for Teachers was published in a period where grammar was taught traditionally – as it had been for centuries – with no designated purpose in the curriculum, not taught at all, or taught traditionally. Grammar for Teachers was not the first publication, nor will it be the last, that proposes students learn grammar through error-based editing instead of rote memorization, but her book proves noteworthy because at this exact moment in time, grammar instruction serves a purpose to better writing within the ELA classroom.
Intro to Unit Plan: Research

“If we want [students] to improve their reading, they must read; if we want [students] to improve their writing, they must write. This does not mean, of course, that grammar is of no use whatsoever, or that grammatical terminology should be entirely avoided. Rather, it means that teachers need not teach grammar so much as use their own knowledge of grammar in helping students understand and use language more effectively.”

– Constance Weaver Grammar for Teachers pg. 5-6

Research since Constance Weaver’s 1979 Grammar for Teachers reinforces the assertion that grammar instruction in the context with writing exercises can be beneficial to students’ rhetorical and stylistic choices and improve writing long-term. Feng and Powers (2005) studied a fifth-grade classroom that integrated grammar in the context of writing and found “accuracy can be improved through mini-lessons that target both errors identified in student writing in both short and long-term measurements” and that “error based instruction is an effective approach to grammar teaching in language arts” (69). Feng and Powers assert that grammar in the context of writing is beneficial for long-term skill acquisition within the scope of writing. Jones, Myhill, and Bailey in 2013 studied three different writing instructors who integrated implicit and explicit grammar lessons into fictional narrative, argument, and poetry writing units. The research concluded, “the embedded teaching of grammar relevant to the writing being studied had an overall beneficial effect on students’ achievement in writing” (1252). Both studies evaluated that grammar instruction in the context of writing would improve student writing skills long-term.

A majority of contemporary research regarding grammar instruction and the influence of student writing centered on English language learners (ELLs). While this research was not of
direct interest, it does offer insight into who benefits from direct, explicit grammar instruction within a diverse classroom. As to not pull away from my discussion of grammar instruction within the L1 classroom, I will briefly discuss one article. Educator Yuru Shen discussed the difference between explicit and implicit grammar instruction within writing lessons for ELLs and found implicit instruction, where students are taught grammar in the context of spoken language, was more effective in gaining writing skills than explicit grammar instruction, which was the traditional method of repetition and recitation, but that a combination of the two would yield better results for speech and writing skills. Shen asserts that implicit grammar instruction “strengthens the use of communicativeness of a language,” “integrates skill training and comprehensive training,” which in turn fosters enthusiasm and initiative because “students may have a lasting memory of the grammar rules” (77), but that explicit grammar instruction helps ELL students understand the mechanics and function of the English language.

Teachers’ attitudes and knowledge regarding grammar instruction and mechanics, too, seems to play a role in the effectiveness of grammar lessons to better student writing. As Hudson and Walmsley reported in 2005, many teachers in the United States are “happy to go on record as knowing nothing whatsoever about the grammar of their native tongue” (qtd. By Kolln and Hancock 21). The amount of teachers in the United States who gladly admit to knowing little grammar mechanics may become troublesome when needing to teach students grammar instruction that improves writing. Myhill, Jones, and Watson in “Grammar Matters: How Teachers’ Grammatical Knowledge Impacts on the Teaching of Writing,” distinguishes subject content knowledge from pedagogical content knowledge, where subject content knowledge is the knowledge of an academic domain and pedagogical content knowledge is the knowledge of how to teach the domain (77). The 2013 British study examined 32 teachers across 32 secondary
schools and the effect of teacher knowledge about the subject of grammar compared to the improvement in student writing over the course of a unit. The study found “effective teaching of writing goes beyond naming and labeling grammatical items” (88) and teachers are expected to be well acquainted with the modern research in grammar pedagogy.

A case study in 2015 by Annabel Watson observed one teacher who taught a writing unit and answered questions on her feelings towards grammar instruction. The teacher admitted to not liking grammar instruction to improve writing although she used integrated grammar instruction into her writing lessons. The study revealed “negative attitudes to grammar which have been repeatedly observed in the profession may hinder teachers’ ability to implement effective grammar pedagogy” (343). Watson contributed students’ lack of writing skill improvement to the teacher’s aversion to grammar and its accompanying research. Such a study suggests that while a teacher need not have a perfect knowledge of grammar, her attitude towards grammar is important. As with all things connected to literacy, a teacher’s attitude affects how a subject is part of a classroom.

Leech, in *Students’ Grammar – Teachers’ Grammar – Learners’ Grammar*, suggests that teachers must be the authorities of grammar content, regardless of knowledge for pedagogical skills. Leech asserts that teachers without grammar knowledge will ultimately fail students’ writing, for “grammatical knowledge needs to be richer and more substantive than the grammar they may need to teach students, requiring a higher degree of grammar consciousness than most direct learners are likely to need or want” (Leech 1994 and Perera 1987 qtd. in Myhill 78-9). In 2015, Annabel Watson wrote “the ‘problem’ of grammar for teachers is therefore not simply an issue of a lack of linguistic knowledge . . . or pedagogical knowledge . . . but also an issue of tackling the problematic beliefs about grammar that many hold” (340). So it is not so simple as
not teaching grammar or erasing it from the ELA classroom. As a future teacher in the ELA classroom I must understand and value complex grammar so that I might be better able to help my students write effectively.

Weaver epitomizes the struggle that teachers face when it comes to grammar instruction within the classroom:

Teachers are faced with an apparent contradiction. On the one hand, a considerable body of research and the testimony of innumerable students suggest that studying grammar doesn’t help people read or write better (or, for that matter, listen or speak better either). On the other hand, the public in general and many English and language arts teachers in particular seem convinced that studying grammar does help, or at least it should.

*(Grammar for Teachers 4)*

Educators are given conflicting information on modern grammar instruction within the English language arts classrooms. They are presented with research that shows traditional grammar instruction does little to improve writing long-term, and yet there is little else available to teachers interested in including thoughtful grammar instruction into the writing classroom. When teachers do follow the research, they are often met with resistance from those who believe traditional grammar instruction still holds a place within curriculum. Without direction, however, teachers are sometimes left without guides and references to teach grammar within the scope of writing and teach traditionally in hopes that traditional grammar instruction will somehow translate into better writing.

The challenge, then, is to develop a curriculum that respects the value of grammar knowledge and thinks beyond traditional grammar instruction strategies to include it in the ELA classroom. The next portion of my thesis is a model English language arts unit plan for a seventh
grade classroom that guides teachers on how to integrate grammar instruction into writing lessons through mini-lessons, journaling, writing, and workshops.

**Conclusion**

I am still the purist and I love rules, but grammar is not the fixed topic that I once believed, and grammar an independent topic of study within the classroom does little to improve writing skills. I admit, too, that my latest research launched from Constance Weaver’s *Grammar for Teachers* only reflects the most recent answer to “why grammar” and this may shift over the course of a decade.

I know, though, that in this moment we no longer believe that grammar will build national identity, strengthen the moral character of our youth, or eliminate telling class markers in our speech. We do, however, believe that a comprehensive understanding of grammar will develop strong writing skills. What is interesting, most of all, is that most educators and certainly the general public - myself included - believed that we *always* thought grammar instruction was designed to improve writing and that in some golden age of education when direct grammar instruction was an essential part of a classroom it did improve writing. But even this cursory look at the historical record of grammar instruction demonstrates how this has not been the case.

Grammar is not to be feared. We need to embrace grammar instruction and the *why grammar* of our time and use it to our advantage, to better writing. Perhaps the Golden Age of grammar is not today, as it hasn’t yet been, but we can strive for grammar integration *that makes sense.*
### ESTABLISHED GOALS

CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.W.7.2
- Write informative/explanatory texts to examine a topic and convey ideas, concepts, and information through the selection, organization, and analysis of relevant content.

CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.W.7.2.C
- Use appropriate transitions to create cohesion and clarify the relationships among ideas and concepts.

CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.W.7.5
- With some guidance and support from peers and adults, develop and strengthen writing as needed by planning, revising, editing, rewriting, or trying a new approach, focusing on how well purpose and audience have been addressed. (Editing for conventions should demonstrate command of Language standards 1-3 up to and including grade 7)

CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.W.7.10
- Write routinely over extended time frames (time for research, reflection, and revision) and shorter time frames (a single sitting or a day or two) for a range of discipline-specific tasks, purposes, and audiences.

### Transfer

**Students will be able to independently use their learning to:**
- Effectively write an expository essay.
- Build mechanic writing skills and abilities.
- Write with diverse grammar mechanics.

### Meaning

**UNDERSTANDINGS**

**Students will understand that…**

U1. Expository essays explore ideas, evaluate evidence, expound an idea, and create an argument concerning the idea. (“Expository Essays”)

U2. Peer editing can help build critical thinking skills when it comes to writing/grammar conventions

### ESSENTIAL QUESTIONS

Q1. What does expository writing do?
Q2. How do different grammar mechanics change writing?

### Acquisition (Knowledge and Skills students will gain from unit)

**Students who successfully complete this unit will:**

**Students will know…**

K1. The mechanics, characteristics, and purpose of an expository essay.
K3. Usage of some grammar mechanics for style/structure.

**Students will be skilled at…**

S1. Using various sentence structures and grammar mechanics in writing.
S2. Using expository essays to describe a change.
S3. Stylistically adapting grammar mechanics into writing.
S4. Writing with coherence and structure.
Stage 2 - Evidence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluative Criteria</th>
<th>Assessment Evidence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For written work or student products:</td>
<td>CURRICULUM EMBEDDED PERFORMANCE ASSESSMENT (PERFORMANCE TASKS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>See rubric for grading of final writing</strong></td>
<td>Expository Essay: Changing Life Events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The CEPA will be a final essay written about a life event that has changed the student. Writing ideas will be influenced by warm-ups and introductory tasks (journaling, brainstorming, prewriting, writing, revision, reflection). The writing will display grammar mechanics that offer diverse writing styles and rhetorical options. Over the course of the unit, students will be asked to exemplify grammar mechanics.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Stage 3 – Learning Plan

Summary of Key Learning Events and Instruction

Prior Knowledge and Events:
Students will have prior knowledge of essay mechanics (formatting, structure) and would have already been acquainted with the format of worksheets distributed. Grammar mechanics/mini-lessons may not be new to students, but work as lessons to enhance student writing long-term.

Estimated Time of Completion: This unit will take 18-25 days depending on the time-spent editing/learning each convention. Some lessons may need to be retaught/structured based on the needs of the students.

Learning Plan Lessons:

1) Introduction to Expository Essay & Brainstorming Map/Prewriting³
2) Journaling & Appositives mini lesson The Giver & Family Journaling (2 days)
3) Nouns Collages⁴
4) Writing Day
5) Journaling & Visual Adjectives – Menu Writing
6) Introduction to Parallelisms/Parallel Structure (2 days)
7) Peer Review Day/Writing Workshop
8) Journaling & Word Works with Pronouns
9) Journaling & Mini-Lesson on Commas

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¹ Page 54
**Culturally/Diverse Student Bodies:**

- These lessons will be distributed in hard copy and projected on the board so visual and audio learners have equal access to information. The notes will be printed and passed out at the end of every lesson (or at the beginning of the next class) to all students to ensure that everyone has proper notes.
- ELL students will be paired in groups of L1 speakers, so if they need help selecting a word or have questions, then they can follow along with more ease. These students benefit more from explicit grammar instruction.\(^5\)
- Students will be asked to highlight or circle the pieces that we are talking about, so ELL, IEP, and other students can follow along with pacing.
- Writing prompts are personalized per individual IEP and other documentation. Lessons are meant to be accessible for all learning abilities and can be adapted to help students fully achieve the full essay.

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General Notes and Resources:

Over the course of this unit, I will assess students through warm-ups (journaling), group work, exercises, interactive lessons, class-work with identification, mini-lessons, and more. The summative assessment at the end of the year will be a portfolio that displays the students’ most refined and peer-edited work, while the unit summative assessment will be an expository essay. Students are asked to write about a moment in their life that they believe has changed/altered them today. Writing assignments throughout the semester will help formulate their final assessment.

While this unit is designed for grammar instruction within the context of writing, the grading/assessment of the final expository essay will not solely rely on grammar mechanics. Content, explanation, clarity, and overall growth are taken into account (note rubric).
Lesson Plans:

LESSON ONE: Introduction to Expository Essays & Brainstorming Map (Prewriting)
Time Frame: 1 Day

The first lesson will introduce expository essays. Students will be given brainstorming maps to start forming ideas for the essay.

STUDENT LEARNING OUTCOMES FOR THE LESSON: Students will be able to use their learning to...

- Introduce expository essays and their purpose.
- Generate ideas around the expository essay.

UNDERSTANDINGS: Students will understand that...

- Expository essays investigate an idea, evaluate evidence, expound an idea, and set forth an argument.7

ASSESSMENT PLAN:

- **Evaluative Criteria:** The worksheet utilized will help stimulate and cultivate student ideas, while simultaneously providing notes to be used throughout the unit.
- **Assessment Activities to Provide Evidence of Student Learning:**
  - **Pre-assessment:** Students will be asked to do a journaling assignment about how they think they have changed over the year.
  - **Post-assessment:** Students will be asked to do complete the outline for organization and prewriting.
  - **Formative assessment:** Worksheets completed for prewriting will track evidence of brainstorming.
  - **Summative assessment:** This introductory lesson lays the groundwork for the CEPA essay.

LESSON CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES:

**Pre-assessment** (5 minutes): Warm-up activity: Students will be asked to journal about how they believe they have changed over the past year. This journaling exercise will help mold the entire unit.

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7 "Essay Writing." *Purdue OWL*. Purdue University, n.d. Web.
**Formative Assessment** (8 minutes): As a class, students will be asked to discuss their journaling exercises. We will then talk about what an expository essay does as a writing piece. The worksheet\(^8\) will then be distributed and discussed.

(15 minutes): Students will be given 15 minutes individually to reflect/complete the prewriting chart.

(5 minutes): Students will share – in groups – the charts completed to help reflect/formulate ideas.

**Post-Assessment** (5 minutes): Students will be asked to write two or three sentences that discuss what they are going to write about in their expository essay.

**SUMMARY OF KEY LEARNING EVENTS AND INSTRUCTION:**

**Materials Needed:**
- Prewriting Worksheets
- Journals
- Binders

**Homework:** A prewriting worksheet will be distributed in class. Students, from prior units, will be familiar with the layout/process of completing the sheet. This will not be due until lesson three, but I will check the progress on lesson two.

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\(^8\) Adapted from Hillary Boles “Writing an Expository Essay.”
**LESSON TWO:** Appositives & Sentence Phrases/Family Journaling

*Time Frame: 2 Days*

The second lesson will briefly review the prewriting homework assignment from the prior lesson and then will introduce appositives through journaling and a class exercise.

**STUDENT LEARNING OUTCOMES FOR THE LESSON:** *Students will be able to use their learning to...*

- Analyze prewriting to build upon writing process.
- Identify/practice appositives within literature and writing.

**UNDERSTANDINGS:** *Students will understand that...*

- Expository essays investigate an idea, evaluate evidence, expound an idea, and set forth an argument.
- Appositives make sentences more complex by adding details.

**ASSESSMENT PLAN:**

- **Evaluative Criteria:** Students will be asked to create new sentences based on the ideas presented on the board from Lois Lowry’s *The Giver.*
- **Assessment Activities to Provide Evidence of Student Learning:** (state pre/post/formative/summative as applicable)

  **Pre-assessment:** Students will be asked to complete sentences, as projected on the board, by including descriptive noun phrases.

  **Post-assessment:** Students will be asked to write about their family, using as many appositives as they’d like to add descriptions.

  **Formative assessment:** As a class, we will review the sentences created on the board. Students will be asked to include appositives in their next journaling assignment, which we will review on the board.

  **Summative assessment:** This introductory lesson lays the groundwork for the CEPA essay.

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9 This lesson is adapted from Benjamin and Berger. The prewriting is borrowed from Hillary Boles (note lesson one).

10 “Essay Writing.” *Purdue OWL.* Purdue University, n.d. Web.


12 Note “Excerpts for Lessons”
**LESSON CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES:**

**DAY 1:**

**Pre-assessment** (5 minutes): *Warm-up activity:* Students will be asked to discuss in small groups the prewriting assignment they did for homework and the progress.

**Formative Assessment** (15 minutes): Students will be asked, in pairs, to read sentences pulled from Lois Lowry’s *The Giver* and insert descriptive noun phrases handed out to them.

(13 minutes): As a class, we will discuss how students inserted the clause into the sentences. This portion of class should not worry about commas and punctuation, but rather that they understand the phrase can be inserted into the original sentence to add detail.

**Post-Assessment** (5 minutes): Students will be given an extra sentence, written on the board, and asked to insert a noun phrase of their own that would maybe enhance the sentence. In group-pair share, students will then share ideas with their classmates.

**DAY 2:**

**Pre-assessment** (5 minutes): *Warm-up activity:* Students will journal for five minutes about their families.

**Formative Assessment** (3 minutes): Students will be asked to share some of the journal entries (perhaps 2 or 3) (this will see if students added noun phrases based on the prior lesson – if not, then the lesson had not transferred over, which is fine because it’s a new concept not fully discussed.

(8 minutes): Appositives will be introduced to the class in the form of a mini-lesson. Direct discussion of how appositives add color to sentences, accompanied by the examples used the day prior will help students form ideas of what appositives (noun clauses) can do to better a sentence. We can, if the class is comfortable, use examples from previous writing samples.

(8 minutes): Students will be asked to review their journal from the warm-up and insert any commas/appositives to better their writing.

(10 minutes): In small groups, students will be asked to discuss their new sentences. Then, as a class, we will read some of the journal entries to see how appositives have colored their own writing.

**Post-Assessment** (5 minutes): In small groups, students will each choose one appositive sentence from their journaling that they believe is “best.” These best sentences will be put on an appositive tree so students can review them on the board at any point.
SUMMARY OF KEY LEARNING EVENTS AND INSTRUCTION:

Materials Needed:
- Worksheets (see excerpts from Louis Lowry’s *The Giver.*)
- Journals
- Binders
- Projector

Homework: Students will be asked to continue the prewriting assignment addressed and distributed in lesson one. They will be thinking now, too, about family influence and experience based on the second day.
LESSON THREE: Noun Collage

Time Frame: 1 Day

The third lesson introduces noun collages from Noden’s *Imagine Grammar* to depict setting.

STUDENT LEARNING OUTCOMES FOR THE LESSON: Students will be able to use their learning to...

- Identify nouns
- Write noun collages that depict a setting.

UNDERSTANDINGS: Students will understand that...

- Nouns can be used to “paint” a setting without adjectives.
- Descriptions can provide vivid language through nouns.

ASSESSMENT PLAN:

- **Evaluative Criteria:** Noun collages produced in class will help evaluate students’ knowledge of nouns, while simultaneously working...
- **Assessment Activities to Provide Evidence of Student Learning:**
  (state pre/post/formative/summative as applicable)
  - **Pre-assessment:** Students will be asked to do a journaling assignment that describes a farm using only nouns.
  - **Post-assessment:** Students will be asked to write another noun collage based on a room in their house.
  - **Formative assessment:** Noun collages during class will help students write.
  - **Summative assessment:** This introductory lesson lays the groundwork for the CEPA essay.

LESSON CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES:

**Pre-assessment** (5 minutes): Warm-up activity: Students will be asked to describe a farm setting in their journals.

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13 “The noun collage involves building images with noun fragments” that portrays a setting or character through only noun usage (Noden 103).

**Formative Assessment** (10 minutes): As a class, students will be asked to discuss their journaling exercises. We will then talk about how they discussed the farm’s setting and then, as a class, we’ll introduce the usage of nouns through a mini-lesson, using the example given on the board and distributed in a worksheet.\(^\text{15}\)

(10 minutes): Students will be asked, in groups of two or three, to create their own noun collage based on a setting given to them.

(10 minutes): Students will share – in groups – the charts completed to help reflect/formulate ideas.

**Post-Assessment** (5 minutes): Students will be asked to rewrite their original journal entry about the farm setting with imagery through nouns.

**SUMMARY OF KEY LEARNING EVENTS AND INSTRUCTION:**

**Materials Needed:**

- Prewriting worksheet
- Noun collage worksheet
- Journals
- Binders

**Homework:** Students will be asked to write a noun collage based on a room within their house. This will strengthen students’ ideas of setting and descriptive language.

\(^{15}\) See excerpts for worksheets.
LESSON FOUR: Writing Day

Time Frame: 1 Day

This lesson focuses on writing based on the prewriting exercise done within lesson one and homework done from the first three days.

STUDENT LEARNING OUTCOMES FOR THE LESSON: Students will be able to use their learning to...

- Implement learned grammar mechanics into their writing (explicitly or implicitly) especially appositives (noun phrases).
- Create logical writing from the prewriting assignment.

UNDERSTANDINGS: Students will understand that...

- Appositives can transfer into writing.
- Expository essays investigate an idea, evaluate evidence, expound an idea, and set forth an argument

ASSESSMENT PLAN:

- **Evaluative Criteria:** The writing assignments will be submitted at the end of the day, so I can review how much students completed.
- **Assessment Activities to Provide Evidence of Student Learning:**
  
  (state pre/post/formative/summative as applicable)
  
  **Pre-assessment:** Students will be asked to discuss their homework from the night before.
  **Post-assessment:** Small reflection at the end of their essay to see where students are headed next.
  **Formative assessment:** Submission of progress and reflection.
  **Summative assessment:** This introductory lesson lays the groundwork for the CEPA essay.

LESSON CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES:

**Pre-assessment** (5 minutes): Warm-up activity: In small groups, students will be asked to share their noun collages from homework. The students will choose the one they believe is most effective in painting a picture of the room they were in.
**Formative Assessment** (5 minutes): Students will share their noun collages from the prior night’s homework with the class, using correction and editing through the class if necessary (peer feedback)

(15 minutes): I will reintroduce the expository essay and discuss what elements they were, asking the class and writing the elements on the board. They will be asked to procure their prewriting worksheets they had been doing for homework and, on their laptops, will begin writing their essay.

(3 minutes): Students will be asked to share their progress with their peers.

(11 minutes): Students will share – in groups – the charts completed to help reflect/formulate ideas.

**Post-Assessment** (4 minutes): Students will submit their work through the portal so I can see their progress. At the bottom of the page, I’ll ask them to write a sentence or two for where they’d like their papers to head next and what they’d like to add.

**SUMMARY OF KEY LEARNING EVENTS AND INSTRUCTION:**

**Materials Needed:**

- Prewriting worksheet
- Laptops
- Journals
- Binders

**Homework:** No homework.
LESSON FIVE: Adjectives and Menu Writing
Time Frame: 1 Day

For this lesson, I will be introducing adjectives as descriptive and visual. Students will be asked to create menus based on descriptive adjectives.

STUDENT LEARNING OUTCOMES FOR THE LESSON: Students will be able to use their learning to...

- Decipher descriptive versus visual adjectives
- Implement adjectives to create an image

UNDERSTANDINGS: Students will understand that...

- Adjectives can help describe nouns, settings, characters, etc.
- Adjectives add color to a text and can either be descriptive or visual.

ASSESSMENT PLAN:

- Evaluative Criteria: The prewriting/journaling activity will engage students and get them to start thinking/imagining adjective usages in the context of something they’re familiar with (foods), and then students will learn the difference (mini-lesson) between descriptive and visual adjectives.
- Assessment Activities to Provide Evidence of Student Learning:
  (state pre/post/formative/summative as applicable)
  Pre-assessment: Students will be asked, in groups, to define adjectives and see what they do to sentences/phrases.
  Post-assessment: Students will be asked to do exit-tickets. They will be asked to write a new sentence describing food that is visual and one that is descriptive.
  Formative assessment: Students will be asked to create a menu that uses visual adjectives. These descriptions should paint a picture.
  Summative assessment: This introductory lesson lays the groundwork for the CEPA essay.

LESSON CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES:

Pre-assessment (5 minutes): Warm-up activity: Students will be asked to journal about their favorite food, thinking about visuals, scents, tastes, temperature, etc. Students will be asked to keep their eyes closed so they could try to “paint a picture.”
Formative Assessment (3 minutes): In pairs, students will be asked to read their descriptions of their favorite foods to each other. The student listening will have their eyes closed to see if they could visualize the food.

(5 minutes): I will give a mini-lesson on adjectives and what their purpose is in writing. I will give them a list of *descriptive* adjectives (see excerpts for lessons), where students will read and explain the differences.

(20 minutes): I will introduce the lesson and tell students that they are to create a menu with *visual* language. I will project a model of a menu on the board so students can see the format.

Post-Assessment (5 minutes): Students will be asked to rewrite their journal entry about their favorite food choice, but they will be asked to use language that is more *visual*.

**SUMMARY OF KEY LEARNING EVENTS AND INSTRUCTION:**

**Materials Needed:**

- List of descriptive/visual words
- Worksheets
- Journals
- Binders

**Homework:**

- Students will be asked to create a list of adjectives based off an object given to them (horse, apple, flute, etc.)
LESSON FOURTEEN: Final Peer Editing Day

Time Frame: 1 Day

This lesson focuses on editing based on the writing done throughout the unit.

STUDENT LEARNING OUTCOMES FOR THE LESSON: Students will be able to use their learning to...

- Implement learned grammar mechanics into their writing (explicitly or implicitly) especially appositives (noun phrases).
- Create logical writing from the prewriting assignment.

UNDERSTANDINGS: Students will understand that...

- Editing skills can better an essay
- Expository essays investigate an idea, evaluate evidence, expound an idea, and set forth an argument

ASSESSMENT PLAN:

- **Evaluative Criteria:** Peer editing will help students implement grammar mechanics and strengthen essay contents.
- **Assessment Activities to Provide Evidence of Student Learning:**
  (state pre/post/formative/summative as applicable)
  - **Pre-assessment:** Students will have their working essays.
  - **Post-assessment:** Peer edits will show students what they need to work on.
  - **Formative assessment:** Submission of progress.
  - **Summative assessment:** This introductory lesson continues work for the CEPA essay.

LESSON CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES:

- **Pre-assessment (2 minutes):** Warm-up activity: Students will be asked to prepare their essays for peer revision – getting them opened and ready.
**Formative Assessment** (5 minutes): Students will receive a checklist to assess their peers’ writing. These checklists will be familiar to them based on prior units, but the grammar mechanics from the unit will be new material. We will go over the mechanics and how students are meant to peer revise essays.

(10 minutes): Students will swap essays, going through the checklist and making suggestions for what could be stronger.

(10 minutes): As a class, we will select two or three pieces of writing and go over them, making edits and suggestions for the writer to implement.

**Post-Assessment** (2 minutes): Students will write one or two sentences to their peer of whom they editing, making one or two helpful suggestions.

**SUMMARY OF KEY LEARNING EVENTS AND INSTRUCTION:**

**Materials Needed:**

- Peer Revision worksheet
- Laptops
- Journals
- Binders

**Homework:** Students will be asked to revise their essays from the peer edits.
LESSON FIFTEEN: Reflection Day
Time Frame: (1 Day)

In this lesson, students will be asked to revise their final expository essays for the last time. They will be given a checklist for pieces of grammar and composition that we have gone over throughout the unit, as well as elements pulled from the rubric. They will then be asked to reflect on their writing pieces for what they did best, what they’d like to work on, what went well, etc.

STUDENT LEARNING OUTCOMES FOR THE LESSON: Students will be able to use their learning to...

- Revise their final essays for grammatical/content bits
- Reflect on writing throughout the unit

UNDERSTANDINGS: Students will understand that...

- Revision helps build stronger papers.

ASSESSMENT PLAN:

- **Evaluative Criteria:** Students will be able to edit their final expository essays and then write reflections on their writing. These essays and reflections will help me, the teacher, understand where student learning is, how it has grown, and what still needs to be done.
- **Assessment Activities to Provide Evidence of Student Learning:**
  (state pre/post/formative/summative as applicable)
  **Pre-assessment:** Students will be asked to review their expository essay for errors based off a checklist.
  **Post-assessment:** Students will submit their final expository essay and reflections.
  **Formative assessment:** Individual work in editing and reflections will demonstrate where student learning is.
  **Summative assessment:** This lesson closes the expository essay/grammar unit.

LESSON CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES:

**Pre-assessment** (5 minutes): *Warm-up activity:* Students will collect a checklist with a list of everything done over the course of the unit. For the first five minutes, students will be asked to open their essays and read over them once.

**Formative Assessment** (5-7 minutes): As a class, we will read over the checklist and quickly summarize/describe what each check is.

(15 minutes): For fifteen minutes, students will be asked to revise their final expository essay and check off grammatical mechanics/lessons that we learned throughout the unit to see if they are effective or present in the writing.
(10 minutes): Students will be asked to write a reflection for what they did well, what they could work on, what needs more revision, how they could grow in their writing.

*Post-Assessment* (2-4 minutes): Students will be asked to submit their final essays online with the reflection pieces.

**SUMMARY OF KEY LEARNING EVENTS AND INSTRUCTION:**

*Materials Needed:*

- Laptops
- Peer Revision Checklist
- Essays
**Final Assessment – Summative – Expository Essay**

Over the course of the unit, students have been completing journals and brainstorms to work through the final essay. The following worksheet has been adapted from Hillary Boles’ 7th grade unit plan on expository essays. The essays will have been worked on throughout the unit through self-assessment and peer editing. Attached is a copy of the rubric (to be edited and adapted) that Ms. Boles used within her own classroom. Included are brainstorming ideas, step-by-step instructions on how to write an expository essay, and ideas for how to grade such a piece of writing.

Students will be given a handout on the final revision day (lesson 14) to see where they could implement the grammar mechanics learned throughout the unit (see checklist). This checklist, in combination with the rubric, will reinforce that the students will include at least one of each lesson throughout the unit.

---

16 See expository essay assignment and prewriting activity
17 https://betterlesson.com/lesson/610641-peer-review-expository-essay
# Rubric

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exemplary</th>
<th>Proficient</th>
<th>Emerging</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ideas</strong></td>
<td>The content shows a sophisticated response to the prompt. The expository essay:</td>
<td>The content does not appropriately respond to the prompt. The expository essay:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Skillfully compares the past to the present and establishes the significance of the change</td>
<td>• Inadequately explains the change, comparison, or the factors leading to it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Details the factors leading to the change</td>
<td>• May not provide the reader with a sense of the author’s change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Communicates its impact to provide the reader with a clear sense of the author’s change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organization</strong></td>
<td>The expository essay is well organized and includes:</td>
<td>The expository essay lacks the following:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• An introduction with a hook and a thesis that describes a change in the author from the past to the present and makes a value judgment.</td>
<td>• An effective introduction that describes a change or hooks the reader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Detailed body paragraphs that include specific reasons that support the ideas</td>
<td>• Organized and/or focused body paragraphs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• A focused conclusion</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Clear transitions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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- A concluding paragraph that connects to the thesis and explains the impact on the future
- Transitions to guide the reader through the text

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use of Language</th>
<th>Vivid details (descriptive/visual adjectives, noun phrases, descriptive verbs, appositives) are used to enhance the description</th>
<th>Details (descriptive/visual adjectives, noun phrases, descriptive verbs, appositives) are attempted to enhance the description</th>
<th>Inappropriate details (descriptive/visual adjectives, noun phrases, descriptive verbs, appositives) are used and/or the description is inadequate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conventions</td>
<td>Writing has few or no errors in spelling, punctuation, or capitalization</td>
<td>Spelling, punctuation, and capitalization mistakes do not detract from the text</td>
<td>Spelling, punctuation, and capitalization mistakes distract from meaning and/or readability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence of Writing Process</td>
<td>Extensive evidence reflects the various stages of the writing process</td>
<td>Evidence reflects the various stages of the writing process</td>
<td>Little or no evidence reflects the stages of the writing process</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comments:**
Excerpts for Lessons

Lesson two:

Example for Introducing Appositives


Students will be asked to view these sentences:
1. Jonas is an inquisitive boy.
2. Jonas can no longer share ideas with Asher.
3. He loves his sister, but he cannot confide in her.
4. Jonas’s father disappoints his son.
5. He needs advice from the Giver.

Students will be asked, in pairs, to insert the noun phrase into the sentences:

- A wise man
- An adorable girl with braids
- A respected nursery-school principal
- A fun-loving boy
- The book’s main character
- A well-known superhero
- A great athlete
- A macho movie star
- A fabulous singer
- A good teacher
Lesson three:

Example for Noun Collage


Excerpt from F. Scott Fitzgerald’s “The Crack-Up.”
Seen in a Junk Yard. Dogs, chickens with few claws, brass fittings, T’s elbow, rust everywhere, bales of metal 1800 lbs., plumbing fixtures, bathtubs, sinks, water pumps, wheels, Fordson tractor, acetylene lamps for tractors, sewing machine, belle on dinghy, box of bolts (No. 1), van, stove, auto stuff (No. 2), army trucks, cast iron body, hot dog stand, dinky engines, sprockets like watch parts, hinge all taken apart on building side, motorcycle radiators, George on the high army truck. (1945, 107)

Lesson five:

Example for Adjectives


List of descriptive words:

Ambitious, annoying, anxious, brave, caring, cranky, dependable, egotistical, fearful, friendly, gullible, happy, immature, insincere, lazy, naïve, nervous, observant, patient, perceptive, petty, playful, reliable, religious, responsible, sarcastic, sentimental, shy, sociable, strong-willed, trusting, vain. (34).
Assignment:
Your assignment is to write an expository essay explaining how a change in your life has affected your life today.

Prewriting:
1. Think about the many ways in which you have changed in the past several years.
2. Examine the following chart.
3. Think about changes for which you can explain the cause or changes that have had a major impact on your life. Refer to your journaling done this morning.
4. Fill in the following chart with as many details as you can recall. You might want to ask questions of someone who has known you for a long time, preferably an adult.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Then, When I was ______ Years Old</th>
<th>Now that I am ______ Years Old</th>
<th>Explanation (Cause/Effect)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Responsibilities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Relationships and/or Structure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hobbies/Interests</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Prewriting Activity: In Class and Homework

Expository Essay Outline

1. Hook (Catch the Reader's Attention)...Could be Rhetorical Question, Quote, or

   [Blank]

2. Thesis Statement (A sentence that states your position or opinion on the topic of
   the essay.)

   That incident brought about change in my life because ____________________
   ____________________, and ____________________, I am more ________
   because this happened.

3. Transition/Topic Sentence

   The first way this incident brought change into my life...

4. Explanation

   This change was important because...

5. Connect back to the thesis

   Now I'm more ____________ because...

6. Transition/Topic Sentence

   The second way this incident brought change into my life...

7. Explanation

   This change was important because...

8. Connect back to the thesis

   Now I'm more ____________ because...

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>9. Transition/Topic Sentence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The third way this incident brought change into my life...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>10. Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This change was important because...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>11. Connect back to the thesis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Now I'm more ____________ because...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>12. Restate the thesis where the reader is convinced that this incident changed you!</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>13. Wrap it up by telling how different your life is now, and what the future might look like because of that change.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
**Peer Revision/Editing Checklist**

**This checklist can be adapted to peer-editing, self-revision, and writing workshops. The list can be manipulated to change what grammar mechanics/instruction was taught throughout the lesson. The following checklist serves as a guide.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Capitalization</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Checklist Items</strong></td>
<td><strong>Check here when it’s completed</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The beginning of each sentence is capitalized.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proper nouns (names, places) are capitalized.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Punctuation</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have read my essay aloud to see where to stop for periods, question marks, exclamation marks, and commas.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commas are placed in the right spot to separate dependent from independent clauses, and to help my sentences be more complex.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammar</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At least one appositive is included to help add descriptions/make my sentence complex. There is appropriate punctuation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At least one descriptive noun phrase is used to describe a setting.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parallel structure is being used throughout the essay.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Highlight** the descriptive adjectives and underline the visual adjectives. The adjectives help paint a picture.

Verbs used are in the proper tense. There is at least one descriptive verb phrase in the essay.

---

**Organization/Coherence**

I read my essay aloud and it makes sense.

The order is in sequence and helps the argument.

The introduction contains a hook

The introduction has a thesis that describes a change in the author from the past to the present

Body paragraphs are detailed with reasons and examples

The concluding paragraph connects to the thesis

Transitions are present to help guide the reader

---

**Additional Comments:**
### Appendix A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Textbook</th>
<th>Background (Biography)</th>
<th>What</th>
<th>Why</th>
<th>How</th>
<th>Why</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lindsay Murray</td>
<td>English Grammar 1877</td>
<td>Quaker</td>
<td>Preface</td>
<td>Preface</td>
<td>Layout</td>
<td>Layout</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This text is used for seasoned learners, not necessarily new grammar students. However, this makes the book more intriguing because of usage in schoolhouses. It was the most popular grammar textbook for English classrooms in the US. The second edition's students are documented to read and respond to the exercises, which are often written sentences. This translates to a modern proof reading, but not necessarily a modern writing tool, because they are rarely rectified or corrected.

The content section lists parts of speech. It includes: adjectives, conjunctions, prepositions, pronouns, adverbs, and determiners. Grammar is divided into four parts: orthography, morphology, syntax, and style. Each part is separated and defined.

The lot within the prose is meant to be an ordered content, but other alphabetical (see mentioned he was to be more organized). Verbal grammar and pronunciation remain important, but somehow drift off with the text's flow.

### Preface

Remarks used not particular to the English student. This remark adopted rather to perfect those scholars in the knowledge of Grammar, who have general acquaintance with the subject, than to benefit those who wish to obtain a knowledge of its principles. It is presumed that those students who learn the definitions and rules contained in this arrangement, and apply them by correcting the exercises, will obtain a good knowledge of English grammar.

Grammar is the science of language making it more fluent for a general audience. The book was created "because creators of grammar have all overlooked what the author's creators is a very important subject and creates a systematic order of learning. This helps the reader to understand the definitions in a relatively simple way. Note that, in his forties as part of speech, and in oral lecture, unbridled and unfolded at its properities.

"Objective method" for moving from memorization to appreciation. Thousands of teachers, by this "Valentine method" thus revealed, have converted the study of Grammar from a burdensome, hateful, useless process of memorizing definitions and rules, into an exciting and enthusiastic work of understanding and applying principles in the correct use of the various forms and arrangements of the English language.

Traditional grammar teaching methods are archaic and unjustifiable. The method of learning grammar was thought of as a peril and unnecessary. Holbrook's book offers a way of teaching and learning grammar that is meaningful. Grammar is not formal be learn English. There is too much analysis and too little "nursery" for the language and the intellect.

Holbrook's book is the "Normal method" for teaching being introduced to grammar education.

### Layout

Part 1: Orthography
1. Etymology
2. Syntax

Part 2: Praxis

Part 3: Punctuation

Part 4: Exercises

Every "part" begins with a sequence of questions and answers (i.e. what the reader would add/fill out later in the text.

Following the questions/answers, subsections or "modules" break down the parts into separate and defined.

Teachers will use the pedagogical skills for introducing each part of speech and each modification, either as suggestion of oral instruction from themselves, or they will model the response with their pupils in preparing them to write out each successive lesson in exact parsing and their definitions (h). The book begins with the "spelling" and (f) written history of language. This prose-along with definitions, explanations, and remarks, begins the book.

Part 5: ORTHOGRAPHY

PART 6: SYNTAX

Then different parts of speech, syntax, praxis, and analysis.

Teachers have the responsibility to read before the lesson. Teachers are to guide the student. NOT INDEPENDENT LEARNING.

The book is to help with writing. Both for the teacher and the student. Part one (orthography) suggests the amount of vibrations should be reduced. This bit suggests that sound and spoken language is in integral components to a language course. The textbook seems to invest in linguistics, placing these as the "foundations" of learning grammar.
Exercises

This is the order that the text places emphasis on writing out grammatically proper sentences. It speaks to the importance of exercises and practice during this time period. Grammar is a formal, bettering education/look/subjective life rather than a tool for writing and comprehension. This also suggests an instructor will be helping during this portion of the textbook. Writing is a

a. verb is a word which signifies to be, to do, or to suffer. As I am a rule, I am ruled. "Verbs designate mood, number, person, and tense. Mood seems to take up majority of the verb section - where verbs can tell how the speaker/better feels about a situation. This type of writing suggests that readers are analyzing either writing/speach. There is about four pages of listed irregular verbs in each tense with no indication of exercises -- traditional grammar.

b. a noun is the name of any person, place, or thing. As man, Charlotte, knowledge is a common and proper noun, discussed, as well as proper nouns with "Africa," where in other tests there is a distinction between proper and common nouns. Gender is discussed in masculine, feminine, or neuter. There’s about two pages of listed gendered nouns.

Rules

The preliminary drill is to change a proper noun into a sentence full of prepositions. Prepositions are defined as singular or plural) or (first, second, and third persons). The nearest reference to a rule is "A." Pronouns can be found in the text. Rules are listed by number, and give general בראשית. Exercises do not.

The verb section is treated with recitation and learning tense, as directed by the teacher. Singular and plural tenses are diagrammed to see the difference. The only tenses in this textbook are present, the past, and future, with infinitives to participles, active and passive words, and four pages of listed, irregular verbs (two columns). This is the longest section in the textbook.

Exercises

Exercises are found at the end of the text. A note: "It is recommended to instructors to require of their pupils to write these exercises, correcting them according to the rules. Though this may require more time than simply to read them with their corrections, yet the pupil, by writing them, will be improving his hand writing, and learning to spell, while he is learning grammar and the rules will be more firmly fixed in the mind."

Exercises correlate to the rule number, making reference to the memorization of lists and correlating rules.

This defining of parts of speech without writing and reading by example has no clear cut examples. E.g. watch me do this, then you do it, too. By parsing sentences like this and referring to particular rules, the idea of repetition and definition of command suggest the traditional form of grammar, although defining is still possible and influential.

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The interesting piece of language is when
Kristin ma	language like "publik" this is not a
British lick" as pre-Wabisabi. Like Muting, to
suffer in our subjugation works
Mixed plus a large role towards the end of the
book. Now a piece of writing is read plus a
large role.

Pronouns [contractions,
suppressions, and other impoverishing] point
to children's location and an attempt to standardize
a language (for example, 'have' is not
allowed, but 'you' is). There's also a
pronunciation key, asserting that spoken
language spoken (S/H/N/AA/A/B/G/H/Y/whatever that is)
the only English.

1881 Lippincott's First Reader by Marcus Wilborn

This text suggests that students must "read a sentence just
as he would talk it" (5). This suggestion of teaching
the auditory with reading skills. Wilborn writes that students
should read the way they speak, with speech influencing
analysis of textual pieces. Reading is described as "pure" and
"natural." Phonics are embraced and encouraged but
only for teachers who are pedagogically equipped. Breaking
down reading into letters, the student is instructed to first
memorize, visually, letter shapes and then will learn
pronunciation. While Samuel Kristin's text ends (189) with
rules on correctness within Standard English and explains
in detail proper orthographic, spelling, and orthography,
pronunciation. This suggests that students are to speak
using a Standard English, while Wilborn's First Reader utilizes
natural language to learn reading. Grammar is seen as a
separate science for language, while Wilborn's goal is to
develop language with naturally acquired speech.
Nellie & Wallbank's Outlines and Exercises in 1919 English Grammar

It has not been the intention of the author to produce a book that will take the place of a text book. 

This text is highly accessible for the general reader. The text is meant to be used to give students a valuable English study, and to increase their reasoning within English education. Grammar is to be applied to any subject, not just English, to better "assignments." 

Sentences are built upon a previously learned word—phrase—clause. Parts of speech are also seen this way. (first its classes, then its properties, then sentences.

Nellie believes this text is an aid for readers, high schools. But then do we need a textbook if it's for the general public?

The reader must learn through examples.

English Composition and Grammar

Master the skills of English Build composition skills further study

The book was made for instructional skills—and to give solutions to writing problems—a handbook for better accessibility. Practice is important because you learn to write by writing. This book contains those skills which will carry you further into the study of more advanced skills which lead to better writing.

Most of this textbook is based off of composition skills and the benefit of grammar. The test is broken into five parts.

1. Composition: The writing process
2. Composition: Writing and revising sentences
3. Methods for writing and revising
4. Resources for writing
5. Speaking and listening

Prentice Hall's 2008 Writing and Grammar

Writing as the focal point of the test — how and why can we learn from this? Grammar is the tool to mobilise and formulate word. It's discussed in peer sessions and sentence structure, but is not directly addressed in the "writing" section (first half of the textbook).

There is no format for writing — only an introduction to chapter one titled "The Writer in You" with no mention of grammar.

Grammar is used to better writing and it helps the student to understand writing as an instrument and a component of formal education. Here we see the introduction of composition as an integral piece of English education. The purpose of the instruction is described as helping the learner build on the ability to write a "letter," wherein grammar makes the students "value purpose." The act of writing a letter is no end to be developed. Not all what grammar can do.

There is a heavy significance and importance on the ability to write and respond to texts.
This textbook demands previous knowledge and is used for the empirically oriented case, where skills are meant to be perfected and executed with precision (e.g. 196). Students who use this textbook should pull away from the traditional memorization/repetition and should rather, rely on their own instincts within language.

Pressure are not clearly defined, but they are exemplified with sentences, i.e. Adverbial modifier—indirect object. The people got longfellow much praise because they believe he is a hero. There is nothing to do with opinion for this is the case, so presumably the teacher would have to instruct this. Students have been asked to know how they are pronouns, but by reason and personal questioning rather than repetition and negation.

Gender—masculine, feminine, and neutral. The book asks questions but doesn’t answer them—now is it right? Lists of words and why, but no definite answers and no teacher copy that I can find as of now.

A noun is a word used in place of a noun or of more than one noun. The text discuss personal, possessive, reflexive, and intensive pronouns and speaks about identifying them, but don’t talk about plural and singular. Perhaps this is because of the grade level for the listener, or perhaps it’s unimportant. Indefinite pronouns are a new usage not seen in other textbooks. The exercises for the pronouns is rewriting the sentences (re-writing, although repetitive) and filling in (or) the pronouns used within the sentence.

“ar e a word used to name a person, place, thing, or idea.” Nouns are discussed as proper or common and abstract or concrete. There is no distinction between a feminine and masculine noun, nor is there a “neutral.”

This notion seemed to have faded between this text and the years previous that I was taught. The exercise in this portion is, again, writing. The exercise for this portion deals with Hamlet, where illustrations and idioms help to describe abstract nouns (power, freedom, love, magic, success) (16). The writing assessment is hands on compared to previous years.

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**Student Work is Progress**

with examples of how other students are parts of speech to better their writing and depictions. Each section begins with a “diagnostic test” where it appears the students have to respond to questions and have the teacher check. Exercises are based on writing the responses, not verbally answering.

Prompts like other parts of speech are separated into what clause they make, before, under several sentences, etc. concept, there is an exercise where students are asked questions about identifying parts of the pronoun (which is meant to be known (e.g. because they do not talk about gendering). Another pronouns are only discussed as types of pronouns that can be bi- or tri-functional, in singular and pluralization are still discussed at length. There is a “section review.” It is the end, where students are asked to begin by recognizing pronouns, then identifying, using, discovering in reading, discovering in personal writing, their writing applications. Always familiarity and writing/learning trends may play a role here.

The verbs section is relatively brief compared to the other parts of speech. Perhaps because the knowledge is learned earlier. "VERB PARADIGM” are the only consistent lesson, exercises in the "section review” build upon each individual sections and still build on writing. "Shift” is still used as to do verbs. This is the use of the first sections I’ve seen with answers to the exercises (perhaps because of how complex they are getting now grade wise). The only other thing in the text when verbs are mentioned is a more comprehensive with other items. The older tests seem to divide and separate parts of speech and not delve further (verb phrases & nouns as adjectives).

Prompts are divided into people, places, and things with mention of an abstract noun, one that cannot be perceived through five senses. This abstract noun is not mentioned in other texts. Nouns are only discussed as singular/dual. The need to specify gender only occurs with proper nouns in the pronouns section. Other than that, there is no definition/written off of a gender being attached to nouns.
1912 Munroe: argues for a more oral composition and heavier grammar exercises.
1914 Duckson: Grammar is to be taught separately from everything else. Grammar is to be
professional and only enter college. 1915: SA Cross: grammar and language is a social skill,
communication, to convey ideas and knowledge. Written grammar is learned via
“conscious imitation and memory” (154).
Teach grammar via essay, lyrics, stories, poetry, prose. 1916
Rough quality based on essay. Papers should be
graded based on grammar at 25% of the
final.
1930: NCTE publishing of conferences. Vernacular is
important because students live in a democracy,
usually and independently important (44).
Elementary education should focus on use and
function instead of subject of grammar. (67)

1961 - Elbow: does explicit knowledge of
grammar support writing development and
attainment in writing, where “nothing helps
your writing so much as ignoring grammar”? (p66
in Myhill, 1964).
1967 - Shulman: distinguished between subject
content knowledge (knowledge of an academic
domain) and pedagogical content knowledge
(knowledge of how to teach that academic
domain)
(2014 for the 164th): Myhill: believed that
grammar is prescriptive for the public and
descriptive for the educator.

2002 - Gafker and Halaim: grammar knowledge as
essentially about the naming of grammatical
constructions but did not understand that
pedagogically “grammar awareness is about
making available a range of choices for writers
to use for particular purposes in particular
contexts” (p6, in Myhill, 1964).
2010 Grammar Wars: a collection of texts
advocating/introducing how to teach grammar
(Requested via IFL) - suggests that grammar is
still a heavily debated topic for writing
pedagogy.
2012
Common Core State Standards refers to
accuracy and no error. Students are expected
to have no error, but teachers must be able
to intervene and teach all topics within grammar.
Mixed expectations.
2014 - Myhill: no closer to reaching a consensus
over the role of grammar. Still an ongoing
debate.
Works Cited


Kolln, Martha, and Craig Hancock. "The Story of English Grammar in United States Schools." 


