Presented in this publication are the findings from a selected group of 52 studies conducted by graduate students at the University of Kansas. Undertaken as research for masters' and doctoral degrees, these studies are limited to problems occupying public school teachers of grades 7-13. Specific areas of the research are grammar and usage (6 studies), spelling (2), writing (10), speaking and listening (7), literature (7), readability (5), reading (9), and the English teacher and English curriculum (6). A summary is provided for each study. (LH)
Studies of the Language Arts in Grades 7-13 at the University of Kansas

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KANSAS STUDIES IN EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS PUBLICATIONS
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION—LAWRENCE, KANSAS

January, 1966 No. 1
FOREWORD

We are happy to share with our readers the findings from a selected group of studies on language arts that were completed by graduate students in our program. We hope that these students and women of education will find these summaries in this issue of Kentucky Studies in Education useful. As you may have been reading, our research has focused on the role of language in grades even through thirteen.

This issue is a product of your dedication and the contributions of the many people involved in our program. We hope that it will be of value to you as it serves as a tool for improving your work in grades even through thirteen.

The purpose

Kentucky State University

UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

This issue is dedicated to the Kentucky Department of Education.

The content of this issue will be included in the annual report of the program.

The editorial board for the KENTUCKY STUDIES IN EDUCATION.

The year 2023
Studies of the Language Arts in Grades 7-13 at the University of Kansas

Oscar M. Haugh and Edwyna F. Condon

In no decade of this century has there been as much interest in research and experimentation in the Language Arts as in the "Sixties." The search for greater knowledge about the teaching of English was given a significant thrust forward in 1961 by the creation of Project English under the supervision of the United States Office of Education. Soon such publications appeared as Needed Research in the Teaching of English which was coupled with the establishment of curriculum centers that have prepared many reports as well as materials to be tested in the classroom. Fully as important to the English teacher have been such publications of the National Council of Teachers of English as Research in Written Composition, Research Design and the Teaching of English, and the summaries of research in the Language Arts appearing annually in the English Journal. Also, a recent issue of the Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals describes the experimental programs sponsored by the NEA Composition Project.

In addition to the foregoing, much research has been completed at what might be called the "grass roots" level. This is the type of experimentation that has been done throughout the nation by teachers in the classroom. Many studies have been completed to fulfill theses requirements for the master's and doctor's degrees at colleges and universities. Too often the findings become purely local; in many cases neither the teachers within the state nor those outside know that their colleagues have wrestled with problems with which they too are concerned.

It was for this latter reason, principally, that this issue of Kansas Studies was prepared. Accordingly, 52 studies were chosen which have been completed recently at the University of Kansas. Obviously certain criteria had to be followed to keep within these limits. First, those studies which were selected had to be concerned with problems that are currently being studied by public school teachers of the Language Arts. Second, grade limits were defined as seven through thirteen, so that college freshman English and

Speech could be included. The inclusion of grade thirteen seemed to be advisable since so many secondary English teachers are vitally concerned with the problems of high school-college articulation. Finally, arbitrary classifications of types of studies had to be set. Thus, the studies were divided into eight categories: Grammar and Usage, Spelling, Writing, Speaking and Listening, Literature, Readability, Reading, and The English Teacher and the English Curriculum.

The reader will note that the studies are arranged chronologically within each of the eight categories. Also, some of them overlap; for example, several listed under Grammar and Usage are concerned with the relation of grammar to writing. Similarly, several listed under Literature are related to Reading. The term "Studies" has not been limited to the type of research which is statistically oriented and involves both experimental and control groups. While studies of status that are principally of the normative-survey type often are dated, this is one reason they may be of value: they enable us to compare conditions at one time with those of another.

The summaries that follow have been presented in enough detail so as to be relatively self-sufficient. Therefore the reader should not have to obtain the original manuscript unless he plans to make a comparable study of his own. Those who wish to examine any of these studies in more detail will be able to secure the complete thesis through an inter-library loan with Watson Library, the University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas.

**STUDIES OF GRAMMAR AND USAGE**


The purpose of this study was to discover usage items which are frequently missed by seniors of high, average, and low ability and to determine the curricular validity of these items by consulting authoritative studies and books on language. The 1135 subjects were seniors in 46 Kansas high schools selected by stratified, proportional, representative sampling.

Each student took the language usage section of the Essential High School Content Battery Form AM and the Terman-McNemar Test of Mental Ability. The former test was used to find a sample of usage and the latter for purposes of classifying students into the three ability groups.

Results showed that in many instances the same items were difficult for students of all three ability levels. Items most often missed by all subjects, including the high and low ability groups when considered separately, involved the following concepts: the dangling verbal phrase; the use of "sort" after the demonstrative "this"; the distinction between "principal" and "principle"; the use of the plural or singular verb with a collective noun; the use of the plural or singular verb with a singular subject separated from the verb...
Studies of Grammar and Usage

by an "as well as" phrase; the "stretching" of a verb form to cover two or more cases which would ordinarily require different forms; the use of "which" to refer to persons; and the use of the possessive noun before a gerund.

An analysis was made of each of the 60 items in the test as to its curricular validity which was determined by its acceptance by authoritative sources such as the Leonard study, the Marckwardt and Walcott study, and books by Curme, Jespersen, Roberts and Pooley. The answers to 20 items were accepted by all of the authorities, while the answers to 19 of the items were not accepted, and 21 were open to dispute. Of the 15 most difficult items for all subjects in the study, only four were accepted as valid by the authoritative sources.

"To summarize, for all ability levels and all sizes of schools, subjects had more trouble with items which lacked curricular validity than with valid items, ... this tendency was more marked for the high ability subjects than for the low ability subjects. It seems more than possible that the subjects, at least those of high ability, were ahead of the test makers in recognition of truly valid usage concepts. In any case, there is little to help the teacher in a listing of items most often missed by the test group of Kansas secondary school students, since so few of the most-often-missed items have any curricular validity."


"That current English usage differs from the traditional rules so often cited in textbooks" was the starting point of this author's thesis. Nine of the most common usage errors were identified according to three methods of judging acceptability: judging of the experts, ruling of authoritative grammars, and actual usage.

The nine usage items analyzed and the treatment they were given in three Kansas state-adopted textbooks in ninth grade English are as follows:

1. **Disagreement of a pronoun with its antecedent**—All three books emphasized the traditional agreement of a pronoun with its antecedent in number; only one accepted the plural pronoun as correct with a word like everybody when the pronoun clearly refers to more than one as "Everybody was here, but they went home early."

2. **None are**—All three textbooks follow the traditional pattern of treating none as singular; sentences like "None of them are going" are conspicuous by their absence.

3. **Confusion of adjectives and adverbs**—All three textbooks follow tradi-
tional distinctions between adjectives and adverbs; only one textbook mentions “Drive slow” as acceptable.

4. *Predicate nominative not in the nominative case*—“It’s me” is acceptable colloquially in one text, is evaded in another, and the traditional form is intensified through oral repetitive drill in the third textbook.

5. *Who and whom*—All three textbooks mention colloquial acceptability for constructions like “Who do you want?” Only one of them, however, makes the distinction between formal and informal English clear.

6. *The split construction*—One text makes no mention of placing modifiers, such as “only,” next to the words they modify while the other two advocate the traditional practice and do not mention acceptability for “We only had one left.”

7. *Can and may*—The traditional distinction of can for ability and may for permission is advocated in all three textbooks, although one mentions that this distinction is disregarded in ordinary speech and then advises the student to “follow the rules.”

8. *Have and have got*—All three textbooks omit the discussion of the “have got” construction.

9. *Shall and will*—Two books give only the traditional usage while the third mentions that the traditional distinction is not followed but points out “you will never be wrong if you follow the rules.”

The author concluded that these three textbooks do not adequately deal with the nine usage items selected for analysis.


At the time of this study, nine textbooks, three for each of the three grades, seven, eight, and nine, had been adopted by the state of Kansas to be used for instruction in English composition. The purpose of this thesis was to make an analysis of the content in grammar of each of these textbooks.

The findings were as follows:

1. With the exception of verbals, the complex and compound-complex sentence, and mood and voice of verbs, there is little differentiation in the items of grammar presented from grades seven through nine.

2. The presentation of grammar and the use of grammatical terminology in English textbooks has not changed noticeably since the results of the Smith study in 1946.

3. Items of grammar concerning parts of speech that are given most emphasis are as follows: *nouns*—proper nouns, plural forms, appositives, and
possessives; pronouns—person and number, personal and relative pronouns, agreement with antecedent, and gender; adjectives and adverbs—degrees of comparison and articles; verbs—regular and irregular forms, principal parts, six tenses, auxiliary and linking verbs; verbals (grades 8 and 9 only)—gerund, participle, infinitive, and danglers; prepositions—adjective and adverb phrases; conjunctions—coordination and subordination; interjections—little mention.

4. Items of grammar given most mention under sentences and sentence structure include the declarative, exclamatory, imperative, and interrogative types; the simple and compound types, with the complex in grades eight and nine and the compound-complex in grade nine; subjects and predicates, direct and indirect objects, as well as predicate adjectives, pronouns, and nouns.

5. The differences in approach to grammar and grammatical content are such that students transferring from one school to another and using different texts would be handicapped.

6. Since more material is provided in any one text than can be completed in any one year, except superficially, teachers are advised to use these grammar books as reference texts and adapt their contents to the needs of their students.


This study was based on a detailed analysis of all the grammatical exercises in 12 current seventh and eighth grade English textbooks.

Three types of exercises were found: (1) those related to writing, that is, the construction of original sentences; (2) those related to rewriting sentences; (3) those unrelated to writing. Those exercises in which students had to add only a word or two were put in class 3. The following elements of grammar were included in the analysis: sentence structure, including run-on sentences and sentence fragments; subjects and predicates; agreement of subject and verb; nouns; pronouns; verbs; adjectives; adverbs; prepositions; interjections; and conjunctions, including simple, compound, and complex sentences.

The writer reached the following conclusions:

1. Exercises related to verbs averaged 37 for the seventh grade textbooks and 35 for the eighth grade texts; exercises related to interjections averaged only one per book.

2. Exercises unrelated to writing made up the highest percentage of exercises in both seventh and eighth grade textbooks in all areas except sentence structure and here the highest percentage was in exercises requiring rewriting.
3. There were more exercises devoted to writing sentences than to re-writing, but the two together equaled less than 30% of the total, since over 70% of all exercises were classified as "unrelated to writing."

4. There is little agreement among the seventh and eighth grade textbooks in the number of exercises included in each of the 11 grammatical areas.

The writer makes the following recommendations: Textbooks in English should include fewer grammatical exercises totally unrelated to writing and more exercises that require the student to construct sentences in which the principle of grammar that has just been taught can be applied; teachers should stress the functional use of grammar—its application to the writing of effective sentences.


The writer's purpose was to analyze the texts used in the college freshman English classes in Kansas to determine how these authors related grammar to writing. To compile the basic list, she sent questionnaires to the Directors of Freshman English in the 43 institutions of higher learning (including colleges, universities, and junior colleges) in Kansas. From the 40 replies to the questionnaire, the writer found that there were 23 different composition textbooks used. The writer then chose for analysis the four most popular texts which were Writing with a Purpose (Third Edition), Houghton Mifflin Company; Prentice-Hall Handbook for Writers (Third Edition); The Macmillan Handbook of English (Fourth Edition); The Perrin-Smith Handbook of Current English (Second Edition), Scott-Foresman and Company.

Exercises in the texts were divided into three types: those related to writing, exercises requiring original sentences by the student; those related to re-writing, exercises requiring revising or rewording of textbook material by the student; those unrelated to writing, exercises requiring student correction or addition of one or two words. Oral exercises were included in the latter group.

On the basis of the writer's analysis, she concluded:

1. Since the grammar section of the textbooks was apparently designed as a reference handbook, few exercises related to writing are included.

2. The greatest number of exercises related to writing was found in chapters on the paragraph, the library paper, the synopsis, and the summary; the second largest was the type concerned with sentence structure, although only eight percent of these exercises were related to writing while 62% were related to rewriting.

3. None of the textbooks had exercises related to writing on subjects and
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predicates, nouns, pronouns, adjectives and adverbs, coordination and sub-
ordination, but one textbook had an exercise related to writing on verbs and
verbals.

The writer recommended that authors of freshman English textbooks
should include more exercises in grammar that are related to writing, and
when they do not, the teacher should supply the type of writing exercise that
will enable the student to apply in sentences of his own the grammatical
principle that is being taught.

THOMAS, JULIA W. "An Analysis of the Relationship between Grammar and
Writing in Eleventh and Twelfth Grade English Textbooks." Master's

The writer was concerned with analyzing grammatical exercises found
in a sampling of ten current eleventh and twelfth grade English textbooks.

Grammatical exercises were classified according to one of three types:
those related to writing were exercises requiring the student to write one or
more original sentences; those related to rewriting were exercises requiring
the student to rewrite material given by the textbook; those not related to
writing were exercises requiring no writing or the writing of one or two
words by the student. Oral exercises were included in this last type.

The writer found that the greatest number of exercises in the textbooks
examined was related to verbs and the smallest number to interjections;
exercises not related to writing made up the highest percentage of exercises
in both eleventh and twelfth grade textbooks; exercises related to rewriting
ranked second in percentage; exercises related to writing ranked lowest in
overall percentage; there is little agreement among either eleventh or twelfth
grade textbooks in number of exercises included in each of the 15 grammati-
cal categories in which the grammatical divisions were made.

In view of the findings of the study and the writer's conviction that "the
purpose of studying grammar is to help students write and speak more
effectively," she recommended that textbooks should include more exercises
that allow the students to construct original sentences and fewer exercises
that are unrelated to writing. The writer stressed the need for the teacher
to be more selective in the choice of exercises and when necessary to construct
the kind of exercises that will relate grammar to writing by providing func-
tional practice in the principle that has been taught.

STUDIES OF SPELLING

LINGO, HAZEL FLEISCHER. "A Study of the Spelling Program in Topeka Senior

This study was designed to test the effectiveness of the spelling program
at Topeka Senior High School. Basically, the program involved the study
of 10 words each week taken from a list prepared by teachers in all subjects. These words were printed on large cards which were displayed in every classroom. The complete list of 1020 words was divided into three sections of 340 words, each of which was displayed in groups of 10, one each week for a period of 34 weeks. The complete list is covered in three years. In addition, spelling assemblies were held in the form of spell-downs at which monetary prizes were awarded.

The study included an analysis of gains made on a spelling test given in the fall and the spring, plus an opinion poll of the ten-card system used, and the value of the assemblies. Participants in the poll included three administrators, 12 English teachers, and 100 students selected at random in the tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades.

The spelling test consisted of 50 words which were chosen from the year's master list of 340 words and were given by the regular sophomore, junior, and senior English teachers in their regular classes. The following conclusions were drawn from the data:

1. The boys made a greater mean number of errors than the girls in all three grades.
2. Greater improvement was made, for the most part, by the boys than by the girls. This was especially true of the sophomore boys who also had the lowest beginning scores.
3. "Because the seniors, a selective group, and the juniors, a somewhat selective group, showed a lower mean number of errors on the first test, it is evident that as these students advanced in high school they became better spellers."
4. "Students gain significantly in spelling when a program of instruction is provided such as that used in Topeka High School. This proved to be true according to the t-test of significance applied to the test scores for the first and final tests for all groups."
5. The poll revealed that Topeka High School's spelling program has been accepted wholeheartedly and that students, English teachers and administrators had exceedingly favorable attitudes toward it.


The purpose of this investigation was to determine whether there would be a significant improvement in spelling ability in a single semester among high school students if spelling was specifically taught in the English class.

In Group I, spelling was taught as a part of the work in English. Words that were misspelled in themes were studied as well as words taken from spelling and vocabulary lists in addition to words considered to be important
Studies of Spelling

were encountered in literature lessons. In Group II, no emphasis was placed upon spelling other than that which the teacher would ordinarily make when themes were returned and errors discussed.

The two testing methods used were (1) a 150 word spelling test and (2) a 50 minute in-class theme written by the students. These evaluations were made first in January and again in May.

At the beginning of the experiment, there was no statistically significant difference between the means of Groups I and II on the spelling test or on the number of errors in spelling on the in-class themes. Group I did show improvement on the May spelling test that was statistically significant; however, Group II did not show statistically significant improvement.

For the measurement by theme writing, Group I's "decrease in mean number of errors" between January and May was statistically significant at the .01 level whereas Group II's errors increased from January to May. The difference between these means was statistically significant at the .001 level.

"The results of this experiment indicate that a significant improvement in spelling is possible when such work is properly motivated, encouraged, and emphasized within the English class."

Studies of Writing

STUDIES OF WRITING


The purpose of this investigation was to determine the difference between themes written in class under teacher supervision during a 50 minute period and those written outside of class to fulfill assignments in college freshman English. The writing of a regular freshman English class consisting of eight boys and 11 girls was analyzed. These students wrote a total of 16 themes, eight in-class and eight out-of-class, during their first semester of college English. Themes 1, 8, and 14 were chosen as representative samples of in-class themes and themes 2, 7, and 13 as representative samples of out-of-class themes. A total of over 50,000 words of student writing was marked by a member of the English Department who was "engaged in his eleventh semester of teaching freshman English to college students."

Findings were as follows:

1. Out-of-class themes averaged 508 words and were relatively stable in volume during the semester. In-class themes averaged 330 words, starting with 289 words for theme 1, 358 for theme 8, and 364 for theme 14.

2. All three in-class themes were five paragraphs long, with paragraphs averaging 55 words in theme 1 to 71 in theme 7 and 72 in theme 14. Out-of-class themes started with eight paragraphs for theme 2 and decreased to five
paragraphs in themes 8 and 13. Paragraph length increased from 67 words per paragraph in theme 2, to 88 in theme 8, and 91 in theme 13.

3. For the in-class themes, sentence length decreased steadily from 19.73 words (theme 1) to 18.84 (theme 8) to 18.55 (theme 14). For out-of-class themes, sentence length averaged 17.15 (theme 2) to 17.60 (theme 7) to 18.47 (theme 13).

4. The number of simple sentences averaged between six and seven for each in-class theme. Each of the out-of-class themes averaged between 13 and 15 simple sentences. The greater average length of the out-of-class themes accounted for this difference.

5. The subordination index was used to determine the extent of subordination. It increased for in-class themes from .26 to .30 during the semester while for out-of-class themes it dropped from .29 to .23.

6. Spelling constituted the greatest number of errors ranging from .00437 (theme 2) to .00382 (theme 8) to .00389 (theme 13) per 100 words in in-class themes. For out-of-class themes the number of spelling errors for 100 words was .00504 (theme 1) .00418 (theme 7) to .00345 (theme 14).

7. Percentages of error in the in-class and out-of-class themes were respectively as follows: spelling, 34% and 35%; punctuation, 31% and 32%; grammar, 12% and 9%; diction, 9% and 10%. Variation was so great as to type of error that errors may best be classified as individual matters.

8. Students made the same type of error and in relatively the same proportion in in-class themes as in out-of-class themes.


The author began this study by writing to a stratified, proportional, representative sample of 100 Kansas high schools asking the principal to name a teacher of tenth or eleventh grade English who would be willing to participate in a theme-marking experiment. The 56 English teachers who responded were given three handwritten themes (reproduced by hectograph) which had been chosen by another group of English teachers as representative examples of “poor,” “average,” and “above average” writing for sophomores. They were then asked to evaluate these three themes as if they had been received by a class in tenth grade English at the middle of the year, and to record the number of minutes required for the evaluation. In addition, a two-page questionnaire was included which the teachers were asked to fill out.

The teachers assigned grades to the themes as follows: “Above average” theme—A 36%, B 43%, C 17%, D 4%; “Average” theme—A 4%, B 38%, C 46%, D 12%; “Poor” theme—C 9%, D 59%, F 32%. The greatest difference
Studies of Writing

was shown by 17% of the teachers who rated the “average” theme as better than the “above average” theme.

The average amount of time required for marking each of the themes was as follows: “above average”—10.9 minutes; “average”—12.1 minutes; and “poor”—15.2 minutes. Since the word length of these themes varied from 484 for the “above average,” 299 for the “average” and 312 for the “poor,” the themes were equated to 250 words each. The evaluation time now became 5.6 minutes for the “above average,” 10.1 for the “average,” and 12.2 for the “poor” theme.

The actual marking by the teachers on each theme consisted of words of comment, corrections for mechanics, and corrections of ideas. The average number of words in each of these three categories varied for each of the three themes as follows: “above average”—24.2, 10.5, and 4.1; “average”—24.1, 16.8, and 6.7; “poor”—39, 44.6, and 9.8. Thus, the average number of total words written on each theme by the teacher was almost 39 for the “above average,” 48 for the “average,” and 93 for the “poor” theme. When all marking data was quantified, 78% of the teachers’ comments were related to mechanics and 22% to idea quality. Also, the teachers marked only slightly more than half of the errors made by the students. The author attributes this to “selective” marking by some and carelessness or ignorance by others. When the marking of different teachers was compared, those with master’s degrees did a faster, more thorough job throughout.

Among the author’s recommendations are that more themes be written in class under teacher supervision and greater emphasis given to idea quality, teachers should make greater use of indicating errors rather than correcting them for the student, teachers need more training in how to make skillful comments on themes, and teachers need more time to mark themes if they are to do the job adequately.


For this study the investigator selected grades seven, nine, and eleven consisting of 249 students. First, form PM of the Cooperative English Test was administered. Next, each of the participating students wrote an in-class theme entitled, “Why I Need an Education.” The investigator first read the themes and then tabulated all theme errors which were then ranked by grade level—seventh, ninth, and eleventh—in descending order of frequency. A similar tabulation was made for all errors on Form PM of the Cooperative English Test.

In all three grades, “change in person” ranked as the most common theme error, but this item was not tested specifically on Form PM. The fragmentary
sentence, which ranked second in theme errors in seventh and eleventh grades and fourth in ninth grade, also was not tested on Form PM. Other frequent theme writing problems of the students were the run-on sentence, incoherence, and the use of the comma after an introductory adverb clause or lengthy introductory phrase.

Many errors made by students on themes were not covered on the test questions. Similarly, many errors occurring in the objective test were not found on the themes. Thus, either one alone did not present a complete picture of the factors contributing to success or failure of the students in grades seven, nine, and eleven in written composition. The investigator recommended early identification of the students' deficiencies through both the objective test and in-class theme and a direct attack on deficiencies discovered to be most serious.


This study was confined to a review of the studies of the errors made by sixth grade students through upper class college students in written composition. Its purpose was to ascertain whether any pattern existed and to evaluate the findings and report them to the teacher of written language.

A total of over 50 error studies was located. Since the findings of 25 studies could be classified according to Johnson's 14 categories of error, tabulations were made for these under the following headings: case of pronouns, pronoun errors other than case, use of verbs, use of adjectives and adverbs, prepositions and conjunctions, sentence structure, failure to express clear meaning, punctuation, the apostrophe, capitalization, omission or repetition, spelling, quotation marks, and miscellaneous errors. Findings from other error studies were reported under those of Johnson's categories to which they most clearly applied.

When errors were considered in terms of frequency, punctuation had the highest total percentage—35%—at all levels. Next was spelling, 17%, followed by capitalization, seven percent. The category of least error, 5%, concerned mistakes in case of pronouns. A small percentage of error was likewise found in misuse of quotation marks and errors in using adjectives and adverbs.

Trends in error from grade to grade were "irregular and indefinite and no pattern could be established indicating either the progression of errors or the elimination of errors." Since children may make man; different errors and/or one error in innumerable variations, the author concluded that "although error studies are valuable, they cannot be truly predictive of the types and amounts of error that a child will make in the written language." The
writer noted the need for "developing some classification for error studies in the future that would be uniform, precise, and inclusive for all error items" so that comparisons between studies could be made with a higher degree of accuracy and thus become more useful in curriculum work.


In this study the writer presented opinions favoring the teaching of the research paper in high school and successful methods for the undertaking, as well as opinions against teaching it. Opinions were gathered from a wide variety of sources including books and periodicals principally.

Those supporting the research paper project maintain that the values are "the importance of the skills and techniques learned in writing the paper, the value the students place on preparing this type of project, and the needs the students have for learning the skills and techniques that are used in preparing a research report, especially for those who will continue their education in colleges and universities." The teachers admitted that writing a research paper is a difficult task, but they felt it was a necessary part of a student's education.

"Arguments against assigning such difficult work to high school students included such as the following: students lack maturity, library facilities are inadequate, plagiarism may occur, and time may be wasted on a research project that could be put to better use on other skills."

An analysis of eight of the Kansas state-adopted textbooks revealed that all included the research paper in grades eleven and twelve, but in three tenth grade books the research paper was omitted. Only one textbook included the "miniature" research paper as a substitute form for students of less than average ability and as a kind of preliminary experience to the longer research report for average and above-average students.


The author states, "The purpose of this investigation has been to compare students' writing ability with their ability to recognize errors in an objective composition test." One hundred and thirteen students in five tenth grade English classes took "Test 2: Composition" of Tests of Academic Progress, Form I, which requires the student to identify correct answers for 70 multiple-choice items in six separate compositions: one friendly letter, one business letter, two one-paragraph themes, and two themes of three or more paragraphs. Four separate compositions were written in class under teacher supervision on separate days over a 10 week period: a paragraph developing
a topic sentence, a friendly letter of three or more paragraphs, a business letter of several paragraphs, and a theme of several paragraphs.

The four compositions were evaluated by two English teachers and assigned values ranging from eight for a paper of "A" quality to 0 for a failing paper. The two evaluations for each of the four compositions were averaged and then the four averages were totaled. Cumulative totals ranged from 2 to 27.5 with a mean of 17.64, which was between a B− (20 points) and a C+ (16 points). Three of the five classes were labeled "average" while two were labeled "enriched." The mean intelligence quotient was 117.66 with a standard deviation of 9.34.

The scores on the objective test, "Test 2: Composition," were compared with the cumulative totals for the four compositions and a product-moment coefficient of correlation was computed. The result was +.791, indicating a high degree of relationship between this objective test and the students' level of achievement in writing four compositions. "A comparison of the specific questions on the test and the specific errors made on the themes showed that there was some similarity in the type of errors and their frequency... commas, sentence structure, and spelling were responsible for most of the errors made by students in their themes... there was a definite agreement in the types of errors made by the students among all four compositions."


This study was designed to test the assumption that the more frequently students write, the more improvement their writing will show. Accordingly, an experimental group of 74 college freshmen wrote 24 themes during a semester while a comparable control group wrote eight themes and read and analyzed approximately 20 essays. In all other respects, the two groups underwent the same instruction. Three teachers took part in the experiment, each teaching one experimental and one control class.

Students in the two groups were compared at the beginning of the semester on scores on the Cooperative School and College Ability Test, the Sequential Test of Educational Progress (Writing), the New Purdue Placement Test in English, and the Measurement Test prepared by the English Department of the University of Kansas. In addition the students were compared on marks received on themes written in class under the teacher's supervision. None of these measures showed a significant difference between experimental and control groups at the beginning of the experiment.

At the end of the semester all students were given the New Purdue Placement Test in English, the Measurement Test, and again were required to
write an in-class theme which was parallel in topic to the one written in the fall. The results were as follows:

1. Both groups made statistically significant gains as measured by the to formula when beginning and end-of-semester themes were compared. Gains by the experimental group were slightly higher than those of the control group but were not large enough to be statistically significant.

2. On the Purdue test, both groups made gains from the beginning to the end of the semester which were statistically significant for the reading section but not for the section on vocabulary. However, when the gains of the two groups were compared there was no significant difference.

3. On the Measurement Test, both groups gained significantly, but again there was no significant difference in gains made when the two groups were compared.

The assumption that more writing results in better writing was not proven by this experiment: apparently the reading done in the control classes contributed as much to promote growth in writing as did the writing of 16 extra themes in the experimental classes.


In May 1964, 115 questionnaires were sent to a selected sample of Kansas high schools with enrollments of 250 or more. A total of 51 schools responded with information about their creative writing programs.

Although two-thirds of the responding high schools required four years of English, only 14% offered a special class in creative writing, and in four percent of the schools creative writing was substituted for senior English. "English chairmen suggest that teacher interest influences the time and place of creative writing in the curriculum." Only 14% of the teachers assigned a regular time every day, week, or month for creative writing.

The most appealing types of creative writing for students were the essay, the short story, and poetry respectively. It would appear from the response by the teachers that the teaching of creative writing met with greatest success in senior English classes.

Almost one-third of the teachers used a regular English text in creative writing, while a fourth had special texts. Twenty-nine percent of the teachers composed their own materials. Successful motivation for creative writing experiences came from "good reading by the students individually and by the teacher in the classroom, provocative discussion, and the use of audio-visual materials."

One-fourth of the responding schools indicated that there is no participa-
Most teachers felt that “to give the student an opportunity to express his ideas and feelings” was the primary purpose of teaching creative writing. “While teachers appear to be aware of the value to students in creative writing, they, themselves, are frustrated by the requirements of the school administration, extracurricular activities, the lack of time for proper evaluation of writing, and the other responsibilities of large enrollments.”


In order to determine what type and amount of writing should be done by the college-bound senior, the author chose to make a survey of the opinions of high school and college teachers of English, to examine courses of study to see what was included, to analyze a group of twelfth grade English textbooks, and then to relate the preceding three to determine points of agreement and disagreement.

The survey of opinions revealed that emphasis should be placed on expository writing; students should frequently write and revise short papers; research papers should be written only when library facilities are adequate; students should be required to study purpose, content, organization, the use of supporting detail, sentence structure and variety; students should write on topics related to literature and also analyze literature to learn the skill of organization.

An analysis of 10 courses of study revealed an emphasis upon expository writing with six including the research paper and only three mentioning letter writing. All indicated that students should write frequently, while some specified the writing of short papers as frequently as one each week. Seven courses of study recommended relating writing to the study of literature, and five specifically mentioned teaching such items as organization, content, purpose, supporting detail, transitional devices, and sentence variety.

Five textbooks in senior English were analyzed with the following results: letter-writing occupied as few as nine pages in one book and as many as 30 in another, with 10 types of letters included in one text and only two types in two others; the research papers varied among the five textbooks from a low of 21 pages to a high of 34, the latter book containing a complete research paper as a model plus an example of the “miniature” research paper; pages devoted to vocabulary varied from a low of 17 to a high of 45; two textbooks included sections on the “thinking process,” while others included this
within the regular composition work; the number of exercises in which writing is done varied from a low of 29 to a high of 56.

The author recommended that for points of disagreement, such as letter writing, research should be conducted to reveal which point of view is the valid one to follow.


The purpose of this study was to test the value of providing individual comment upon a student's theme by his teacher through the medium of the tape recorder. In the experimental group, consisting of three classes of ninth grade English with 78 students enrolled, each of the ten themes written during the school year was first marked for mechanical errors. Next, the teacher made comments on tape about each theme. Each student had an opportunity to listen to the recorded comments as he studied his theme. The teacher's comments on each theme averaged from two to four minutes.

The control group consisted of two classes of ninth grade English containing 61 students. In all respects the class instruction was the same in both groups except that in the control group comments about the theme were made in writing while in the experimental group the comments were recorded on tape.

At the beginning of the experiment there was no statistically significant difference between the means of the two groups in intelligence, in mean scores on Form 1 of “Test 2: Composition” of the Tests of Academic Progress, and in mean scores on themes written in class and rated on a 12 point scale by two experienced teachers of English. The t-test of significance was used.

Both the control and experimental groups made statistically significant gains from September to May when the means on “Test 2: Composition” were subjected to the t-test. However, there was no statistically significant difference between the gains of the two groups.

Neither group made statistically significant gains when in-class themes written in the spring were rated. A study of theme ratings revealed a disagreement between the two raters: one rated the May themes slightly higher than those in September while the other teacher rated the May themes considerably lower.

Students in the experimental group stated that they preferred the tape recording method to the traditional method of written comments. A time study revealed that tape recording the comments added an average of at least two minutes to the marking of each paper. However, more extensive comment about each theme was given when tape recording was used.
While neither method was proven to be superior, the tape recording method created more interest among the students and a greater desire to improve writing because taped comments were more thorough and detailed than written comments. The experimenter felt that using taped comments was one way of reaching students individually when there was no time available for personal conferences with the student about his writing.

**STUDIES OF SPEAKING AND LISTENING**


In this thesis the author attempted to discover to what extent choral reading was being taught in Kansas secondary schools, who taught it, the success of choral reading in the curriculum as determined by teachers and by students, and the kinds of choral reading experiences offered.

A survey was made of a sample of 66 schools chosen to represent the 598 public and 44 private or parochial secondary schools in Kansas. These sample schools were chosen according to a table of random numbers. Because such a small number of schools responded, a second sample of 60 schools was selected in the same manner as the first sample. A total of 33 public and four private schools was in the final tabulation. Ninety-four teachers of English and/or speech completed and returned questionnaires. They were distributed evenly among small schools (0-99 students), average (100-499 students), and large public secondary schools (over 500 students).

Of the 126 schools approached, the 37 schools who returned questionnaires had 58 teachers using choral reading. If this situation is representative, by extrapolation one could estimate that about 250 teachers in Kansas high schools provide choral reading for their students. All of those using choral reading were teachers of English or speech. Most of the teachers agreed “that choral reading is of very much or much use for improving speech and voice, increasing appreciation of poetry, interpreting poetry, and listening critically.”

The amount of time devoted to choral reading varied from a total of one to a maximum of 10 hours per year. Two-thirds of the teachers considered it “occasionally helpful” while 29% declared that choral reading is “very useful.” Three-fourths of the teachers said it was enjoyable, and over half felt that it filled a gap in the language arts program. Nearly three-fourths of the teachers felt students accepted choral reading favorably. Of those who did not use choral reading 58% said they would try it and eight percent said they might try it if they knew more about it. The writer expressed the opinion that a lack of information about choral reading is the reason it does
The purpose of this experiment was to determine whether direct instruction through ten listening lessons would result in significantly greater listening ability among ninth grade students as measured by two forms of the Brown-Carlsen Listening Comprehension Test. A control group of Ninth Grade Unified Studies students was given Form AM in April and BM in May with no direct teaching during the three-week interval. With this group the teacher “merely discussed the importance of good listening habits, reviewed note-taking skills, and called the attention of the students to some listening experiences which most people encounter during the day.”

The Experimental Group was also given Forms AM and BM of the BCLCT as pretest and post-test respectively and in the interval between those two tests had 10 listening lessons as follows: I—An analysis of listening—“What does a good listener listen for? What detracts from good listening?” II—“Following Instructions” and “Helpful Hints for Better Listening.” III—Development of a listening log. IV—A study of the important elements of listening to or reading about an event, and the five W’s. (Each student in class listened to a classmate give a report in history and then identified the five W’s in each report.) V—Listening to a biography and identifying important facts. VI—Developing standards for delivering and listening to reports, as “Is this material factual, or is it opinion? If it is opinion, whose opinion is it?” VII—Applying listening standards to tape-recorded reports. VIII—Study of note-taking. IX—A lesson to help students differentiate between the speaker’s stated purpose and his real purpose. X—Making a written analysis of the listening skills studied and the areas in which students thought they needed to improve.

The results showed that the significance of the difference between the pretest and post-test means of the experimental group had a t0 of 13.36 which is so great that it could happen by chance less than once in a thousand times. The Control Group showed a t0 score of 2.32 which is of doubtful statistical significance. The experiment showed that ninth grade students will improve significantly in listening skill, as measured by the BCLCT, if they are given as few as 10 lessons in listening.

The author's title clearly indicates the purpose of this study. Forty-four percent of the total number of accredited junior colleges in the United States responded to the writer's questionnaire.

The results of the tabulations showed that there are 29 different titles for the beginning speech course the most frequent names being "Fundamentals of Speech," "Public Speaking," and "Speech." Averaging three semester hours or 3.4 quarter hours, the beginning speech course had a class average of 21.8 students. Of the 29 different textbooks in use, the most frequently named was Monroe's Principles and Types of Speech. Eighty-three percent of the schools required teachers of the beginning speech course to have a master's degree. Although 22 percent of the respondents characterized beginning speech as a terminal course, 66 percent described it as fulfilling both the function of the terminal speech course and of the preparatory course for further work in speech.

Class time was divided as follows: discussion of theory, 12.2%; lectures, 12.3%; criticism, 12.5%; student performances, 58.5%; others, primarily audio-visual activities and tests, 4.5%. Students had an average of 9.7 speaking experiences. The instructor has a major role in determining the content of the beginning speech course while the textbook, syllabus, and the students ranked next in order of importance respectively.

The objectives regarded as most important in the beginning speech course were those primarily concerned with individual improvement in oral communication. Delivery and composition of speech were almost always included in the beginning speech course; critical listening, audience analysis, diction and voice were frequently included.

Of the responding schools, only 20.3% required all students to enroll in a speech course. Four junior colleges reported that they offered no speech courses at all.


The writer's purpose is clearly stated in the title. Using 793 students in the Fundamentals of Speech course at the University of Kansas during the second semester of 1960-1961 school year, the writer used the contingency coefficient to test the relationship between the following:

1. Average grades on speeches given before mid-semester and grades on the mid-semester written examination.
2. Average grades on all speeches given during the semester and grades on the final written examination.
3. Grades on the final speech and grades on the final written examination.
4. Average grades on all speeches given during the semester and grades on the common 50 item written examination of course content administered to all students.
5. Grades on the final speech and grades on the common 50 item examination of course content administered to all students. All of these relationships were positive and statistically significant, the first four at the 0.1 level and the fifth at the 0.5 level of confidence.

A second phase of this investigation was a study of the relationships among six sets of measures of linguistic and vocabulary ability, speech performance, and performance on a written examination of course content in Speech I at the University of Kansas. Students ranking in the highest one-fourth of the distributions of the American Council on Education Test—Linguistic, the School and College Ability Tests—Linguistic, and the Cooperative Reading Tests—Vocabulary test had numerically higher grades on both speeches and written examinations of course content than did those in the lowest one-fourth of these distributions. In five of the six relationships investigated, these were significantly higher at the .01 level of confidence when the t-test by analysis of variance was applied. The one which was not, was in the ACE-L test where the upper one-fourth of the distribution did not receive significantly higher average grades on all speeches given during the semester than those in the lower one-fourth.

The conclusions which must be considered primarily in their local context at the University of Kansas are that:

1. "There is a significant positive relationship between speech performance and performance on written examinations of course content in a beginning college speech course as reflected in assigned grades."

2. "There is a significant positive relationship between linguistic ability, as measured by standardized tests such as the ACE-L and the SCAT-L, and speech performance as well as performance on written examinations of course content in a beginning college speech course as reflected in assigned grades. A similar relationship exists between vocabulary ability, as measured by standardized tests such as the CRT-V, and these measures of performance."


By means of a stratified, proportional, representative sample of 75 Kansas high schools, 65 public and 10 private, the writer tried to determine the place given to oral communication in high school English classes. A questionnaire divided into four main categories—personal data, data about oral com-
munication, teacher’s opinions, and type of oral communication—was sent to each of the 148 participating English teachers.

Thirty-three percent of the total group had obtained master’s degrees and only one teacher had not received a bachelor’s degree. Sixty-one percent were English majors, with 13% social studies majors. Forty-five percent taught English exclusively, with 20% teaching a combination of English and speech. There was a trend toward fewer class preparations for teachers in the larger schools. Forty-three percent had had four undergraduate semester hours in speech or less, 24% had taken from five to nine hours of undergraduate speech, 20% had from 10 to 17 hours, and 13% had 18 or more.

Teachers with the most experience were found in either the smallest or largest schools “while the middle-sized schools, enrollments between 100 and 499, attract a larger number of new teachers just beginning their careers.”

Sixty percent of the participating teachers estimated that they spent “10% of class time on activities in oral communication,” whereas 31% of the teachers spent five percent of class time or less in conducting speech activities. The two types of speech activities used more than all others were class recitation and class discussions. Eighty-seven percent of the teachers provided for weekly class recitation and 82% conducted weekly class discussions. Poetry recitation and oral book reports were “the two most popular types of oral communication presented on a six-weeks’ basis” and were provided by 42% and 36% respectively of the teachers surveyed. Panel discussions, oral book reports, and dramas were presented once each semester by one-third of the teachers.

Seventy-one percent of the participants declared that speech activities in English class were very useful while 26% found these to be only occasionally helpful. Student reaction to speech training was quite favorable according to 65% of the responding teachers.

“How do formal speech courses affect the extent of speech training provided in English classes?” In answering this query, 56% of the teachers said they provided fewer speech activities in their English classes because of speech courses offered in their schools. However, “71% of the teachers in schools not offering formal speech courses indicated that they would not provide fewer speech activities in their classes if formal speech courses were offered.”


The problem was to determine the significance of the difference between good and poor listeners in grades nine, eleven and thirteen with regard to sex, age, socio-economic status, marks in school, participation in extracurricu-
lar activities, the amount of high school speech training, reading test scores, yearly grade-point average, yearly English grade-point average, scores on a standardized ability test and choice of favorite subjects. Good listeners were defined as those students in the upper quartile on the Brown-Carlson Listening Comprehension Test; poor listeners were those in the lower quartile.

Students completed forms with their names, their parent’s occupation, the extent of their participation in extracurricular activities, and their favorite subject of study. The remaining data—grade-point average, scores on SCAT/DAT, English yearly-grade-average, reading scores—were taken from school records.

Students were selected from Olathe Junior and Senior High Schools, Shawnee Heights High School, and the Speech I program at the University of Kansas. Form AM of the BCLCT was used on tape as the instrument for securing listening scores.

The following differences were statistically significant:

1. The difference between mean listening scores of good and poor readers in all grades in all schools tested.

2. The difference between mean listening scores of active participants in extracurricular activities and “non-participants” in both ninth grades and in one eleventh grade.

3. The difference between good and poor listeners according to SCAT/DAT scores in all grades in all schools tested.

4. The difference between good and poor listeners in grade-point average in English in all grades in all schools tested.

5. The difference between good and poor listeners in grade-point average in all subjects in all grades in all schools tested.

6. The difference between mean scores on the BCLCT for students of “high” socio-economic status and students of “low” socio-economic status in the ninth and eleventh grades in one community.

7. The difference between mean scores on the BCLCT between students with one or more high school speech units and those with less than one in the ninth and eleventh grades in one community.

The zero-order correlations between listening ability and grade-point average in English, listening ability and grade-point average in all subjects, and listening ability and scores on the SCAT/DAT were significant at the .01 level in all grades in all schools tested. (It should be noted that “the magnitude of the correlation coefficients may be somewhat distorted by the absence of the middle 50% with respect to listening ability in each of the groups.”)

“The above results lead one to believe that . . . students who score high on
a standardized test in listening also score high on standardized tests of reading and of intellectual ability and these same students obtain a high grade-point average in English as well as a high total grade-point average in all subjects taken."


This study of dramatic activities was made (1) to determine the type of plays studied in the classrooms and those produced in Kansas secondary schools, (2) to evaluate the drama curriculums in the literature sequence and the plays produced, (3) to develop an ideal drama curriculum which will be an integral part of the secondary literature sequence and to present a method for teaching the plays which comprise this drama curriculum, and (4) to make recommendations for the improvement of drama education in Kansas secondary schools.

A four-page questionnaire was sent to all teachers of drama in Kansas high schools with 200 or more students. The questionnaire was also sent to a stratified, proportional, representative, random sampling of high schools with less than 200 students. The results of the survey represent drama education in 148 high schools of 200 or more students, 409 high schools of less than 200, and 80 junior high schools.

The more important findings were:

1. The beginning teacher of English was usually required to assume responsibility for the production of plays. The professionally prepared teacher of drama was likely to be found in the high school of 500 or more students. In schools of less than 200 students, 75% of the teachers had no preparation in technical production, direction, and play production.

2. Approximately 50% of the English teachers had no formal preparation in dramatic literature written before 1800 except that received in survey courses, and 55% had no formal instruction in dramatic literature written after 1800.

3. About 70% of the schools used a series of literary anthologies for the kind and amount of literature taught and 30% reported this material in drama to be inadequate. The majority spent about six weeks in teaching drama in a full year's English course. The majority of the teachers used outside-reading lists which often contained plays that deserve and would require intensive study in the classroom.

4. Plays produced in the high schools were likely to be comedies, farces, or melodramas presented for entertainment value. The quality of plays presented decreased as the size of the school decreased.
5. No general plan prevailed in Kansas as to how a teacher should be compensated for extra duties required in producing a play.

6. The student’s introduction to the study of the dramatic genre was comprised largely of Shakespeare’s plays.

7. An analysis of the most typical literary experience in drama of a Kansas high school graduate was more misrepresentative than representative of the dramatic tradition, of dramatic genre, and of the value which major dramatists have considered worth writing about.

8. The author concluded that the ideal curriculum in drama should be a generic-incremental-logical organization of plays with the ninth grade studying farce and melodrama, the tenth comedy, the eleventh tragedy, and the twelfth tragicomedy. He suggested a canon of 17 plays from which students may read in grade nine, 28 in grade ten, 26 in grade eleven, and 13 in grade twelve.

**STUDIES OF LITERATURE**


As stated by the author, “The purpose of this study was to measure gains made in appreciation and knowledge of literature and in general reading ability by eighth grade students in two common learnings classes.” The 50 students in the testing program had a mean IQ of 115.54.

Students were given the Carroll Prose Appreciation Test in the fall of 1962 along with the experimental form of the Literature Test of Form I of the Tests of Academic Progress. Scores on the Iowa Silent Reading Test were available from the preceding spring so this test was not administered in the fall. All three tests were given again in the spring of 1963. During the interim the teacher conducted the common learnings classes “in the usual way without emphasizing literature more or less than she had been accustomed to do with classes of this general ability.”

Correlations were computed among the three tests to determine to what extent they were measuring the same thing. The correlations were as follows: Reading and Prose Appreciation +.31; Reading and Literature +.66; and Prose Appreciation and Literature +.24. Only one correlation, +.66, was significant at the .01 level.

When the pretest and post-test scores were tested for statistical significance of difference between means by the t formula, gains in prose appreciation were significant at the .01 level and gains in reading and literary knowledge were significant at the .001 level.

Although not measured objectively, the writer believed the students showed progress also in the critical analysis of literature particularly in the
following: character development, theme, human values, structure, and literary techniques. Progress was also made in the quantity and quality of reading done outside of class.


The purpose of the study was to determine the differences in the ability of high school sophomores to read varying types of literature.

Three tests measuring the intelligence, reading ability, and ability to read six varying types of literature—short story, novel, essay, narrative poem, lyric poem, and prose drama—were given to 58 sophomores at Washburn Rural High School. The tests were the Henmon-Nelson Test of Mental Ability, the survey section of the Science Research Associates Diagnostic Reading Test, and an experimental form of the literature section of the Tests of Academic Progress. Findings were as follows:

1. The mean intelligence quotient of the students was 109, and the mean reading score was at the 67th percentile for sophomores.

2. The correlation between the intelligence and literature tests was +.795, between the reading and the literature tests +.762, and between the intelligence and the reading tests +.87.

3. All forms of literature tested showed a positive relationship to each other ranging from +.494 to +.711.

4. Types of literature with a narrative element within them, such as the short story, narrative poetry, and the novel, had higher coefficients of correlation with each other than did lyric and narrative poetry with each other.

5. On the basis of the percentage of correct responses in tests of each type of literature, the short story was the easiest and lyric poetry and narrative poetry the most difficult. The other types, in order of percentage of correct responses to questions, were the novel, essay, and drama. However, these conclusions are subject to the limitation that scores on the individual tests were not equated. Even so, the study by Irion, which was limited to fewer types of literature and conducted among ninth grade students, reported similar findings for poetry and drama.


The author's purpose was to determine whether students would make significant improvement in the areas of reading skills and comprehension of literary selections, and in their ability to discriminate among various levels of literary quality during one year of instruction in eleventh grade English.
In order to measure the students' growth, the Carroll Prose Appreciation Test, Reading Comprehension Tests, Forms 2A and 2B of the Cooperative English Tests, and the Literature Test of the Tests of Academic Progress, were given to five classes of 110 juniors in Shawnee Mission North High School at the beginning and end of the 1962-63 school year. The mean IQ of the group was 109.

In presenting literature, much information concerning the historical and social period in which the author lived and wrote was given. Technical knowledge about the various literary forms was stressed so that students would more fully appreciate the fact that it requires more than inspiration or emotion to create a literary piece of significance. The teacher read to the class passages from novels of "various standards of quality" so that the students could discover the differences between good and poor literature. Vocabulary lessons, as such, were not given but rather words in the reading selections were consistently studied throughout the year. The teaching of reading skills was not included in the course.

An analysis of results was made by comparing fall and spring means for the tests given and applying the t formula to determine if gains were statistically significant. The students made significant gains in literary knowledge, as measured by the Tests of Academic Progress, and literary discrimination, as measured by the Carroll Prose Appreciation Test. The gain in reading skill, as measured by the Cooperative English Test, was not statistically significant. This would indicate that if specific and direct instruction in reading skills is not given during a semester's study in literature the students will not improve significantly.


The purpose of this thesis was to discover what types of books are specifically recommended for college-bound students in Kansas. The inquiry was confined to the English or language arts teachers in high schools and colleges in the state. Letters requesting book lists for college-bound students were sent to 66 high schools, each of which had 400 or more students. Included in the letters to the 43 Kansas colleges was a "one page compilation of the Kansas, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin recommended book lists for college-bound students." Over 53% of the colleges and 80% of the high schools returned the requested information.

From the evidence presented in the thesis and "on the arbitrary judgment of the investigator," the revised list is as follows:

Novels: Jane Eyre; The Good Earth; Alice in Wonderland; My Antonia; Lord Jim; The Last of the Mohicans; The Red Badge of Courage; Robinson Crusoe; one novel—Dickens; Crime and Punishment; Silas Marner; The
Great Gatsby; The Mayor of Casterbridge; The House of Seven Gables; The Scarlet Letter; The Old Man and the Sea; Brave New World; Sons and Lovers; Babbitt; Arrowsmith; Call of the Wild; Moby Dick; Cry, the Beloved Country; All Quiet on the Western Front; Giants in the Earth; 1984; Ivanhoe; Grapes of Wrath; Kidnapped; Treasure Island; Huckleberry Finn; and Tom Sawyer.

Short Stories: Winesburg, Ohio; Heart of Darkness; Sherlock Holmes; Turn of the Screw; and a group of short stories from each of the following: Camus, Faulkner, Hemingway, Joyce, de Maupassant, and Poe.

Drama: The Cherry Orchard; She Stoops to Conquer; Peer Gynt, or one play by Ibsen; Ah, Wilderness! or one play by O'Neill; Death of a Salesman; Cyrano de Bergerac; Romeo and Juliet, Julius Caesar, Macbeth, or one play by Shakespeare; Pygmalion; The Rivals; Oedipus Rex.

Non-Fiction: Autobiography—Franklin; The Oregon Trail—Parkman; Abraham Lincoln—Sandburg; and several essays from each of the following: Arnold, Bacon, Emerson, Lamb, and E. B. White.

Poetry: Several selections from each of the following: Auden, Browning, Coleridge, Donne, T. S. Eliot, Frost, Milton, Sandburg, Whitman, and Wordsworth.

To the list above Coiner recommended that the college-bound student should become familiar with each of the following, although reading the entire selection in every case should not be expected: Andersen's Fairy Tales, The Bible, Boswell's Life of Johnson, Pilgrim's Progress, Beowulf (in translation), Don Quixote, The Canterbury Tales, Grimm's Fairy Tales, The Iliad, The Odyssey, Paradise Lost, a mythology source book, Gulliver's Travels, Walden, and War and Peace.


In order to prepare an annotated book list for gifted high school students, the titles recommended on 25 reading lists were first compiled. Next, a questionnaire based on these lists was given to 58 students in honors English classes in a high school "in a new, middle-class, predominantly white neighborhood." The authorities' ratings of books were then compared with the students' ratings. The titles on the annotated book list were those chosen by the students and agreed upon by the authorities as being important for and interesting to gifted students. The list did not include poetry, drama or short stories.

Among the 153 titles on the book list were the following in order of frequency of mention: Huckleberry Finn; Moby Dick; Pride and Prejudice; The Scarlet Letter; The Red Badge of Courage; Don Quixote; The Good
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Earth; Gulliver's Travels; Jane Eyre; Vanity Fair; Walden; Wuthering Heights; Crime and Punishment; Cry, the Beloved Country; David Copperfield; The Odyssey; The Return of the Native; Brave New World; Grapes of Wrath; The Great Gatsby; Ivanhoe; Lord Jim; My Antonia; The Way of All Flesh. Each of these titles was recommended at least 10 times on the reading lists studied.

When the gifted students were asked to indicate areas of reading interests, the girls chose modern novels first, followed by historical fiction, mysteries, stories of romantic love, and classics. Boys chose science fiction first, followed by adventure, sports, classics and humor.

The seven books read and liked most by the gifted students were, in order of highest total mentions, To Kill a Mockingbird, Great Expectations, The Bible, Huckleberry Finn, Ben Hur, Silas Marner, and Gone with the Wind. The seven books these students stated they would like to read were, in order of highest total mentions, Tom Jones, Grapes of Wrath, For Whom the Bell Tolls, Lord of the Flies, Of Human Bondage, The Hunchback of Notre Dame, and Profiles in Courage. The seven books these students rated as "did not like," were, in order of highest total mentions, Les Miserables, Wuthering Heights, Great Expectations, Alice in Wonderland, The Scarlet Letter, and Silas Marner.


The author's purpose was to provide an annotated list of dramas ranked according to the appearance of plays on 14 booklists designed for senior high school students. A total of 221 different plays by 116 different playwrights was recommended.

Many lists included the mention of collections of a certain author as well as his individual plays. The most popular playwrights were Shakespeare and Galsworthy, mentioned 242 and 79 times respectively. Collections of Lady Gregory were mentioned 14 times and those of Moliere and Odets 12 times each.

Fifty-five dramas were annotated on the final list. Each of these plays appeared on at least four of the book lists. They were listed in order of frequency of mention, the first three appearing in 10 book lists each.

Cyrano de Bergerac; Hamlet; Romeo and Juliet; Winterset; Green Pastures; St. Joan; Pygmalion; Our Town; You Can't Take It With You; Macbeth; Elizabeth the Queen; The Barretts of Wimpole Street; The Doll's House; She Stoops to Conquer; Abe Lincoln in Illinois; Caesar and Cleopatra; The Admirable Crichton; What Every Woman Knows; The Cherry Orchard; Life with Father; Victoria Regina; An Enemy of the People; Emperor Jones; Mary of Scotland; Death of a Salesman; Waiting for Lefty;
Plays chosen from collections included the following: Julius Caesar; Loyalties; Workhouse Ward; The Misanthrope; Golden Boy; Dream Girl; The King and I; Six Characters in Search of an Author; Deidre; The Plough and the Stars; and The Three Sisters.


The writer could locate no "standard" definition of the Humanities; definitions varied widely from the negative description of "those areas of learning which are not included in the sciences and social sciences" to "those activities which label us as 'human.'"

A total of 33 programs in the United States was located and described: 14 from the East, six from the Midwest, 10 from the West, and three from the South. While all these programs were different from one another, nearly all emphasized the interrelationships of the arts and stressed man's importance as a creative being. One common goal of most programs was the fusion of knowledge, with music, art, literature, and philosophy usually represented.

An examination of the Organization Reports of all Kansas high schools in 1964-65 revealed 37 schools which may have had a course related to the Humanities in some way. All 37 were sent a questionnaire and eight indicated they were offering a course in the Humanities. These included the following high schools: Emporia, Hutchinson, Lincoln Rural, Sacred Heart (Salina), St. Xavier (Junction City), Washburn Rural, Wichita North, and Wichita Southeast.

Variation among Kansas programs is as great as that found among the programs nationally. Four utilize team teaching while four use only one teacher for the course. Class size varied from 11 to 122 students. In one school the Humanities course is offered to all sophomores, juniors and seniors and in one school to only average and above-average seniors. In four schools a chronological order is followed while four others emphasize concepts, areas of study, or types. Common goals were to increase understanding and enjoyment of the arts, to provide a broader background in music, art, literature, and philosophy, and to bring to the student an increased awareness of relationships among the arts and various civilizations.

The author then proposed a humanistic approach for a traditional Language Arts class for juniors in which the literature, art, and music of America be combined in a series of seven units organized chronologically.
STUDIES OF READABILITY


The three novels studied were Ivanhoe, Silas Marner, and A Tale of Two Cities. An attempt was made to study them in terms of literary merit, reading difficulty, and the interests of young people.

While all three novels have a high degree of literary merit, a critical analysis revealed that none is of such aesthetic merit as to be irreplaceable for any given student. Ivanhoe is criticized for inadequate character development, A Tale of Two Cities for its contrived plot and overt use of coincidence, and Silas Marner for its moralizing and improbability.

Two readability formulas, the Dale-Chall and Flesch, were used to determine reading difficulty. Average difficulty by grade level for the Dale-Chall and Flesch formulas respectively was found to be: Ivanhoe, grades 11 and 9; A Tale of Two Cities, grades 8 and 7.5; and Silas Marner, grades 10 and 9. The grade ranges of difficulty according to the Dale-Chall and Flesch formulas respectively were as follows: Ivanhoe, grades 6-16 for both formulas; A Tale of Two Cities, grades 5-16 and 4-12; and Silas Marner, grades 5-16 and 5-17.

A random survey of 100 University of Kansas students was made to determine whether or not high school instruction resulted in increased reading of the novels by authors studied in high school. While 84% had read Silas Marner in high school, only six percent had read another novel by George Eliot; 56% had read Ivanhoe in high school and 18% of them had read another novel by Sir Walter Scott; 35% had read A Tale of Two Cities in high school and 28% of them had read another novel by Charles Dickens.


The subjects in this study were 92 pupils in grades seven through twelve in the Emporia, Kansas, public schools. To determine retardation, a graduated scale was employed: grade 7—those one and one-half years below grade level; grade 8—two years below; grade 9—two and one-half years; grade 10—three years; grade 11—three and one-half years; and grade 12—four years below grade level. The 47 pupils in grades seven through nine were divided into a control group of 26 and an experimental group of 21. The 45 pupils in grades 10-12 were divided into a control group of 20 and an experimental group of 25.

Students in the experimental groups were given opportunities over a period of six months to read from a list of 26 books. These books were of
three types: adapted classics, materials especially written for retarded readers, and textbook or informational type materials. The Dale-Chall formula was applied to all of the 26 books. Intelligence scores for all students were available from the Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Test and pretest and post-test scores from the Metropolitan Reading Test (Advanced) Form T.

The major findings were as follows:

1. There was no statistically significant gain from pretest to post-test scores in reading comprehension, vocabulary, or total reading score for either the experimental or control groups. Thus, using “easy” materials for free reading by retarded readers does not, of itself, result in improvement in reading comprehension or vocabulary.

2. Teachers reported that the pupils in the experimental group were voluntarily reading more books than ever before and students often reported, “This is the best book I ever read.”

3. When reporting the difficulty of a book, one should include the range of difficulty with emphasis upon the “hardest” samples.

4. There was a significant relationship between average difficulty and the number of unfinished books; likewise, the number of unfinished books among those with the greatest range of difficulty was significantly greater than chance.

5. Books that were written especially for retarded readers ranked highest in interest among the experimental group, adapted classics were second, and informative or textbook type materials ranked lowest.

6. Books with highest average difficulty received low interest ratings much more often than would happen by chance.

7. Interviews with students revealed that even though a book scored above a student's reading level in readability he thought it was “easy” if it was interesting; similarly, a book scoring below a student's reading level in readability was considered “difficult” if it was uninteresting.


A group of 113 retarded readers from 56 classrooms, grades four through eight, in six elementary schools in Northeast Kansas participated in this study. The students were divided into three groups: an experimental group who read books from a selected list of materials written especially for retarded readers, Control Group A who took no part in the program, and Control Group B who read none of the books but were in the same classrooms with children in the experimental group.
Children in the experimental group completed short reports on the books they read indicating their interest in the book and an estimate of its difficulty. The Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Abilities Test: Beta, Form Cm was used to determine intelligence, and Form T of the two Metropolitan Reading Tests was used to determine gains in reading.

Major findings were as follows:

1. The range of difficulty of a book and the difficulty of the hardest sample tested had an important effect upon the actual readability of a book.

2. When interest was high, students had a tendency to read above their measured reading levels.

3. Books of highest average difficulty, hardest sample passages and widest ranges of difficulty were not finished by a number of readers.

4. Interest in a book influenced a pupil's estimate of the book's difficulty. Books with high interest scores were judged as "about right" even though rated two or more grades above the measured reading level of the readers by a readability formula.

5. Retarded readers were sensitive to the physical make-up of books. Those that were typical of books for primary children were frequently rejected.

6. The experimental group gained significantly more (.05 level) than the two control groups in reading ability. This may have been the result of increased interest and effort on the part of the teachers, favorable pupil response to extra attention received, plus the opportunity to experience success because of more effective practice with reading materials within their range of ability.


This study was designed to evaluate the appropriateness of basic instructional materials in three subject-matter areas in a junior high school and to explore further the difference between readability and difficulty by attempting to determine to what extent conceptual difficulty and interest appeal influence reader success.

The writer restricted the evaluation to seven textbooks, one each in seventh, eighth, and ninth grade language arts and social studies and one in eighth grade science. The subjects of the study were approximately 50 students in two classes from each subject area at each grade level under investigation.

The Dale-Chall formula was employed to measure readability of the seven textbooks and the Flesch Human Interest Index, to measure interest appeal. Also, the percentage of pages devoted to illustrations in each text was computed. Two tests were constructed for each book on two passages which were
equal in readability but Test A was on a passage with high interest appeal and low conceptual difficulty while Test B was on a passage with low interest appeal and high conceptual difficulty. In order to determine conceptual difficulty, the writer obtained the judgment of teachers who had used these materials in the classroom and agreed in their ratings that they were "high" or "low."

Findings were as follows:

1. For five of the seven tests, students scored significantly higher (.001 level) on passages of high interest appeal and low conceptual difficulty than on those of low interest appeal and high conceptual difficulty even though readability scores of the passages were identical.

2. In selecting materials for instruction, readability and difficulty must not be considered to be synonymous for neither interest appeal nor conceptual difficulty is considered in readability formulas.

3. In selecting junior high school materials the range of scores for either readability or human interest is fully as important as the mean score which is the one usually reported for a textbook.

4. None of the books examined provided for growth in reading skill by the students from the beginning to the end of the text nor from one grade level to another.

5. When the illustrations were analyzed in the textbooks there was great inconsistency from book to book and no pattern could be found either in percentage of total illustrations, color illustrations, or action illustrations.

6. Of all the texts analyzed, the one in eighth grade science was identified as most inappropriate for instructional purposes since its mean readability level was above the grade for which it is intended, the upper range is as much as seven years beyond this grade level, and it was rated only "mildly interesting" on the Flesch Human Interest Index.


The purpose of this study was to compare the results of applying two readability formulas to four prose and two poetic passages with the results of giving from 10-12 questions over each of the six selections to two samples of high school students of 2,903 and 5,834 students respectively. The readability formulas used were the Dale-Chall and Flesch. The tests were taken from six selections in literature in the Tests of Academic Progress.

Conclusions were as follows:

1. The results of the application of the Flesch readability formula did not correspond closely to the results of the tests. In every instance, the Flesch readability level was lower than test scores would indicate it should have been.
2. The Dale-Chall readability formula had a slightly higher correspondence with results of tests taken by these students than did the Flesch formula.

3. The failure of the readability formulas to measure conceptual and stylistic factors in literature may account for the disparity between the results of the readability formulas and the tests. Another possible reason for the disparity may be the difference between the types of writing on which the readability formulas were based and the types of writing encountered in the test.

4. With the exception of one selection taken from an essay and another from a novel, the readability formula predictions for various types of literature fell wide of the mark as indicated by test results.

5. Since the test questions were specifically related to the selections being tested, they offered a more reliable means of evaluating the difficulty of selections than did the readability formulas.

6. Because all readability formulas have several serious limitations, they should be considered only as rough estimates.

7. The terms readability and difficulty are looked upon as synonyms by many educators; this study would indicate that there is a vast difference between them. One prose selection rated as grade six in readability by both formulas had only 62% correct responses for sophomores, 71% for juniors, and 74% for seniors on an 11 question test on this passage.

8. “Probably all teachers should understand the difference between readability and difficulty. They should have some knowledge of various devices for measuring readability and should have experience in using these devices lest they attempt to equate readability results with the scores made by students on standardized reading tests.”

Studies of Reading


A group of 128 seventh-grade students from five junior high schools in Kansas City, Kansas, participated in this study. All were two or more years retarded in reading ability and below average in intelligence. A questionnaire on reading habits was designed which contained specific rather than general terms. The words "stories" and "facts" were used instead of "fiction" and "nonfiction." Students also indicated whether each item was a favorite, one that was read frequently, or one that held no interest at all.

In fiction, the boys preferred stories of frontier heroes, wars of our country, the jungle, western adventure and Indians. Girls preferred stories of teenage romance, adventures of girls, funny stories, and pioneer life. Least attractive
to boys were modern sea stories, modern travel stories, teenage romance, and adventures of girls. Least attractive to the girls were sea stories of the past, football stories, and stories of jet planes.

In nonfiction, the boys preferred books and magazines about hunting, fishing, making things, and airplanes. Girls preferred books and magazines about how to make friends with other girls, how to act at parties, and "how to fix my room at home." Least attractive to boys were books and magazines about "how to fix my room," and how to act at parties, jobs people do, and how to eat better balanced meals. Least attractive to girls were books and magazines about stamp collecting, trains, airplanes, and how engines run.

An analysis of materials available for the slow learner revealed the need for books that are mature in format and of a higher interest level than reading level; also, few nonfiction books and magazine articles in the areas of greatest interest for the slow learner have been produced.


The purpose of this experiment was to determine the amount of growth that could be accomplished in 60 lessons of instruction and practice in reading during a single semester. Two classes, one of 34 seniors and the other of 29 freshmen, took the course in the fall semester and two classes of 27 and 22 freshmen respectively completed the course during the spring semester. Form A of the Diagnostic Reading Tests, Survey Section, was given at the beginning of the semester and Form B at the end to obtain scores on rate, comprehension, and vocabulary. Intelligence scores from the Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Test, Gamma Test Form C were available for the three freshmen classes but not for the seniors.

The program of instruction included working with materials like How to Improve Your Reading and How to Become a Better Reader by Paul Witty, the SRA Reading Laboratory, and the SRA Better Reading Books, 1, 2, and 3. In addition, one day each week was given to free reading. A controlled reader was used at intervals to give the students practice in reading rapidly, and numerous lessons were devised by the instructor in teaching phrase reading, skimming, dictionary usage, library training, vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation.

All four groups showed significant gains in both rate and vocabulary at the .001 level. Three of the four groups gained in comprehension and one was possibly significant, ranking between the .05 and .02 level of probability.

The highest level of development was reached in speed, the means for all four groups ranking above the 90th percentile at the end of the semester. The group whose gain in comprehension was of possible statistical significance reached the 70th percentile at the end of the semester. It was this group that had the highest mean I.Q., 109, of all four groups.
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The purpose of this study was to determine the changes that took place in the reading abilities among 119 students from grade nine to grade twelve and the relation of reading ability to intelligence and to scholastic achievement in subjects that were reading dominated and those that were non-reading dominated. Different forms of the Iowa Reading Test, New Edition, were used when these students were tested in grade nine and four years later in grade twelve. The Henmon-Nelson Test of Mental Ability, given to these students in grades nine, was used to determine their I.Q.'s. Reading dominated courses included subjects like English, social sciences, science, mathematics, and foreign languages. Nonreading dominated courses were of the performance type like typewriting, physical education, art, and industrial arts.

The mean I.Q. was 105.65 indicating a select group since dropouts had been excluded from the study. In the ninth grade, the mean reading score of these students was at the 42nd percentile for high school freshmen. In the twelfth grade the mean reading score was at the 54th percentile for high school seniors. One hundred eighteen of the 119 students improved in reading ability during the four years of high school instruction: 62% improved more than normal, eight percent made normal progress, and 29% improved less than would be normally expected. The gain for the 119 students as a whole was statistically significant at the .001 level. The students who did not make normal progress in reading were found at all intelligence levels, but the greatest percentage was found in the group of 95 I.Q. and below. For the girls, the correlation between reading and intelligence was +.71 and for boys +.45. The correlation between reading and scholastic average in reading dominated subjects was +.50 and between reading and scholastic average in non-reading dominated subjects was +.46. The correlation between I.Q. and scholastic average in reading dominated subjects was +.54 and between I.Q. and non-reading dominated subjects was +.40.

The volume of reading done during high school was determined by analyzing the students' record of book reports given. Only one relationship worth noting was discovered between volume of reading and reading ability or intelligence. Students who were more than one standard deviation above the mean in reading ability read about one-third more books than those one standard deviation below the mean in reading ability. It was obvious that students did not report on all the outside reading done, for minimum requirements had a tendency to dictate maximum performance.

The subjects of this study were 127 students in the 1956-57 freshman class at Marshall (Missouri) High School who constituted a control group and 154 students in the 1957-58 freshman class who became an experimental group. The purpose of the experiment was to determine what the effects would be of devoting fifty class periods to the use of the SRA Reading Laboratory during the spring semester in the usual freshman literature course.

Scores on the Iowa Tests of Educational Development were available for both groups at the beginning of the freshman and sophomore years and thus provided a basis for comparison as pretest and post-test data.

With pretest scores held constant, the experimental group gained significantly at the .01 level over the control group in the following sections of the Iowa Tests of Educational Development: Basic Social Concepts, Correctness of Expression, Quantitative Thinking, Interpretation of Natural Sciences, Interpretation of Literature, General Vocabulary, and the composite score. In background of natural sciences the experimental group gained more than the control group but the gain was not statistically significant. In interpretation of social studies and use of sources of information the control group gained slightly more than the experimental group.

The author concluded that while the SRA Reading Laboratory can be justifiably used to supplement a literature course for high school freshmen, the reading program would need to be supplemented with activities designed to provide more reading materials of a scientific nature, instruction in the use of various sources of information, and additional experience in the kind of critical thinking required in the social studies.

KNUDSON, BETTY JANE. “A Survey of Programs in Reading among the Junior and Senior High Schools of Kansas.” Specialist in Education thesis, July 1963, 103 ps.

In an attempt to determine the status of the teaching of reading in the secondary schools of Kansas the writer sent questionnaires to 192 secondary schools in the first and second class cities. Of the 105 questionnaires that were returned, only 46 reported having a program in developmental reading. Twenty-two schools had a class entitled “Reading” and 24 schools included reading in other fields of study. These schools were identified as Group I and II, respectively. Almost all of them were “new” programs, having been established within the last decade.

Of the total of 5,396 pupils enrolled in the schools with reading programs, 1,924 were enrolled in Group I and 3,472 in Group II. Most of these students were enrolled in grades seven, eight and nine; only 770 students, less than 15% of the total, were in grades ten, eleven, and twelve.
One-fourth of the teachers answering the questionnaires had no formal college training in teaching reading. About 70% of the total had either a major or minor in English. Nearly one-half of the teachers had taught reading five years or less, and slightly over half of the teachers had attended a regional, state or national workshop, conference, or meeting related to the teaching of reading within the past five years.

The time allotted for the teaching of reading showed little variation among the schools, approximately two hours per week being reported by both groups. About 40% of the teachers stated that their reading classes were too large and nearly 30% said the amount of time available was not adequate to help students individually. For schools in Group I, the number of students in a reading class averaged between 20 and 25 while in Group II reading was taught within regular classes and therefore the class size was considerably larger.

In addition to decreasing class size, the teachers made the following suggestions: expand the reading program, allow more time to help students individually, improve the testing program, increase the amount of teaching material for reading, provide school-wide knowledge and support of the reading program, and improve the scheduling.

The writer concluded that there are few well-developed programs in reading in Kansas high schools, both remedial and developmental programs are needed if all students are to be reached, and few high school teachers are properly prepared to teach either remedial reading or developmental reading within their subject matter areas.


The purpose of this study was to determine what gains would be made in reading ability if the teaching of reading skills was incorporated into a sophomore English class in conjunction with the study of literature.

The experimental group included 23 students in a regular English II class and the control group 23 students taken from five other classes in which no special instruction in reading was given. The students were paired on the basis of scores on the Otis Self-Administering Scale of Intelligence; Cooperative English Tests: Reading, Form 2A; and the Carroll Prose Appreciation Test.

Instruction in vocabulary and word recognition, comprehension, work-study skills, and critical reading was given in the experimental group in conjunction with the study of literature. The control group received no special instruction in reading other than that normally given in relation to the regular study of the literature read.
At the end of the semester, students in both groups were given Form B, Reading, of the Cooperative English Test and the Carroll Prose Appreciation Test. Since the two groups were highly correlated, the t₀ formula for determining significance of differences between means was used. The findings were as follows:

1. An English teacher without specialized training can give high school students sufficient instruction in reading skills to cause significant improvement in reading ability.

2. Even in a period as short as one semester, improvement can be achieved as shown by the gain of the experimental group from January to May.

3. Almost no improvement in reading skills will occur if no reading instruction is given as indicated by the negligible gain of the control group during the semester.

4. Students below average in general intelligence and "distinctly substandard in reading ability" did not benefit much from the instruction as indicated by their failure to improve their reading scores. This was due partly, perhaps, to the fact that since the mean I.Q. of the experimental group was 109, the instruction was necessarily directed toward the average and above-average students. Also, these poor readers needed more individual attention than could be provided in a class of 23 students by a classroom teacher who had no specialized training in reading.

5. Some degree of improvement in literary discrimination skills can be achieved in one semester; however, a longer period of time would be more beneficial "because few sophomores have read much literature of high quality on their own, they come to literature class with a very limited basis for judging quality in prose or poetry, and the exposure they have to good literature during one semester is not enough to cause a marked increase in their discrimination."


Two different types of reading programs were used in this experiment: three groups totaling 126 students were given reading instruction for an entire semester and three groups totaling 132 students were given reading instruction for a period of six weeks. When progress was measured by using Forms Am and Bm of the Iowa Silent Reading Tests, New Edition, as the pretest and post-test, all groups showed statistically significant gains at the .001 level when the t₀ formula was applied. The gains in mean grade level were 2.8+1, 1.3, and 1.8 for the three groups in the one-semester program. The lowest gain was that of a group of students who ranked low academically. The three groups in the six-weeks' program showed gains in mean
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grade level of 1.8, 1.8, and .8, the latter being a group of students who had received average and below-average marks.

To determine to what extent reading gains persisted, 79 students were re-tested three years later when they were seniors. Sixty-one of these students who were average and above in ability had received only six weeks of instruction. They not only retained their reading skill but increased their percentile ranking slightly as seniors from 65 for grade nine to 69 for grade twelve. The other group of 18 who completed the one-semester program had ranked low academically. They started at the 15th percentile (grade nine) and rose to the 32nd. Three years later they ranked at the 30th percentile for grade twelve, indicating that they had retained considerable reading skill.

The author concluded that students of all types showed definite improvement in reading skills by participating in a program of reading instruction, but that students of low ability need a longer period of training if the gains are going to persist.


The purpose of this study was to determine how the volume and quality of reading material available to a student in his home is related to his progress in reading achievement.

A total of 51 eighth grade pupils was studied. On the Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Tests, the mean I.Q. was 101.22 with a standard deviation of 13.01. They were also given the Stanford Achievement Test in the fall and the spring to determine their progress in paragraph reading, spelling, and language. That the year's work in the language arts was a success may be attested to by the fact that in all three measures gains were statistically significant at the .001 level.

A survey of the amount of reading done during the year revealed that the mean total number of books read was 20.61 with a standard deviation of 10.35. Of these, 11.55 were regular books from the library and 9.06 were books from Scholastic units. A survey of reading material available in the home revealed a mean of 9.65 newspapers and magazines (S.D. 5.79), 30.04 reference books (S.D. 20.11), 27.76 teen-age books (S.D. 16.62), and 49.49 "other" books (S.D. 42.44).

Correlation coefficients were computed with the following results: gain in reading on Stanford Achievement Test and total books read in school—.19; gain in reading on Stanford Achievement Test and scholastic books read—.12; gain in reading and total reading materials available in the home +.03. All of these coefficients exceed a probability of .10 and are not statistically significant.
The coefficients of correlation between level of reading attained and total number of books read in school was +.56 and that between the level of reading attained and the total amount of reading material available in the home was +.35. Both of these are statistically significant, the first at the .01 level and the second at the .02 level.

The writer states that the reading material in the home contributed less to the reading development of these students than that in the school because most of the students' reading came from school resources. Also, the small amount of material available in home libraries in this community may be related to the fact that its population is composed of low-income to middle-income families. For this reason, the school library must assume the major role of providing reading materials for these pupils.


The purpose of this investigation was to evaluate the results of a year of reading instruction with four classes of below-average tenth grade students during the 1964-1965 school year. The experimental group contained 62 sophomores whose mean I.Q. was 82.7 with a standard deviation of 6.94 on the Otis Self-Administering Test of Intelligence. Their scores on the Gates Reading Survey, Form I, were grade 6.4 in speed, 5.0 in vocabulary, and 5.3 in level of comprehension.

During the year all the language arts were interrelated in the instructional program although more time was devoted to developing reading skill than to writing, speaking and listening. Spelling was included as a part of both writing and vocabulary study. Included in the reading and study program were Swiftwater; Mama's Bank Account; Marty; It's Like This, Cat; From Counts to Kings (an anthology); Les Misérables (adapted); the Topeka Daily Capital; Saturday Evening Post; Time; SRA Laboratory; Practical English; Reading for Understanding; and the Webster Classroom Library. The writing program included some grammar but emphasized writing paragraphs and both business and friendly letters. Numerous speaking and listening lessons were also provided.

When these students were tested in the spring they showed reading gains of .7 of a year in speed, .8 of a year in vocabulary, and 1.2 years in level of comprehension. All of these gains proved to be significant at the .001 level when the scores of the fall and spring tests were subjected to the t test.

In addition, from regular English classes a control group of 20 sophomores was selected whose sex, age, I.Q. and total raw scores on the Gates Reading Survey, Form I, were the same as those of 20 students selected from the ex-
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A study of a group of 62 students. When the mean gains were compared, those of the experimental group were significantly greater (.01 level) in speed, level of comprehension, and total reading score. The gain in vocabulary was greater in the experimental group but was not significantly greater statistically since the probability was greater than .05.

On the basis of this study, the writer believed the program for these below-average sophomores met their needs in reading better than the typical high school course in sophomore English.

STUDIES OF THE ENGLISH TEACHER AND THE ENGLISH CURRICULUM


This study began by securing a stratified, proportional sample of 46 high schools which was representative of all types and sizes in Kansas. A total of 69 English teachers filled in questionnaires about themselves and their positions: 27 in small high schools (99 pupils or less); 22 in high schools of average size (100-499 pupils); and 20 in large high schools (500 pupils or more). Findings were as follows:

1. The average English teacher had 91 pupils per day, 68 in English classes and 23 in other subjects. In small high schools (Group I) the total was 60 students per day with 38 in English, in high schools of average size (Group II) the total number of daily students was 100, with 73 in English classes, and in large high schools (Group III), the total was 142 with 128 in English classes.

2. Only 40% of the teachers taught English full time, while 49% taught English in combination with another subject, and 10% were part-time English teachers. None of the latter was found in Group III schools.

3. The average English teacher had between three and four preparations per day: four in Group I schools, slightly over three in Group II schools, and between two and three in Group III schools.

4. By using the Douglass Teaching Load Formula, the average load of the English teacher equalled 35½ hours per week in curricular duties such as teaching, preparing for class, correcting papers, etc. The extracurricular load equalled 14 hours per week. In Group I schools this was 34 and 13 hours weekly; in Group II, 40½ and 17; and Group III, 39 and 7.

5. The average English teacher had 12 years of experience, the last five having been spent in his present position.

6. The average annual salary of high school English teachers in Kansas was $3,184.68 in 1953. In Group I schools it was $2,981.93, in Group II $3,049.91, and in Group III $3,461.80.
Teachers estimated that they could successfully teach 21 pupils in a single period if they were to provide one theme writing experience per week, and 17 pupils in a single period if they were to provide numerous speaking experiences. Teachers of high schools of all three sizes reported substantially the same estimates.

KELTCHER, OTIS WESLEY. "An Experimental Study of a Method of Instruction in English which Equally Emphasizes the Four Language Arts and Includes Guidance Aims." Master's thesis, August 1954, 81 ps.

The purpose of this thesis is stated in the title. One small senior class and one large junior class participated. A tabulation of activities and time spent during the school year revealed the following percentages for juniors and seniors respectively: reading—24%, 25%; writing—33%, 31%; speaking—18%, 17%; listening—15%, 11%; unassigned—10%, 16%.

In order to determine the students' achievement in the mechanics of grammar or usage, their understanding of sentence structure, paragraph structure and writing style, and their ability in the reading skills, the Cooperative English Test Form T was given. The Carroll Prose Appreciation Test was used to check the ability to discriminate between good and poor writing.

The gains for the seniors were significant at the .05 level in vocabulary, reading comprehension, and mechanics of expression and at the .01 level in the test on appreciation of literature. For the juniors, the gains were significant at the .05 level for effectiveness of expression and appreciation of literature.

A 40 minute creative writing test situation was given to the juniors in the fall and again in the spring. The following evaluation of the progress shows that the number of writing errors and the number of spelling errors decreased, the "subordination index" increased, there was overall improvement in handling and developing ideas, sentence variety increased, there was a wider choice of topics and these showed a greater social awareness, and there was a tendency toward "communication of ideas rather than a summary of incidents and happenings."

Two guidance functions emerged during the experiment. The first was to make the student aware of his potential and to encourage him to work up to it. Accordingly, a graph was made for each student and his standard test scores were plotted on it. Indication was also given where his scores should be if he worked up to his ability level. The second function was to provide opportunities for social as well as personal growth. Here many opportunities for speaking and participating in group work were provided. While growth in these areas could not be measured objectively, the students did acquire a better understanding of themselves and of society.
The writer chose 110 high schools which were a stratified, representative, proportional sample of all Kansas high schools. Of these, 63 responded to her inquiry, 40 stating that they had a senior English course, 10 that they had a substitute course, and 13 that they had no course at all. An additional sample of 44 schools yielded a response of 23, of which nine had senior English, 10 had a substitute, and four had no course at all.

Responses of teachers of senior English to a questionnaire revealed the following:

1. All teachers of senior English had bachelors' degrees, 90% had either a major or minor in English, and about one-fourth had masters' degrees. The average number of years of teaching was 15, the number of college credits in English was 27 undergraduate and 12 graduate which included an average of eight hours of credit in courses in writing.

2. In all the schools 43% of the seniors were enrolled in senior English and in only 16% of the high schools was senior English required of all.

3. In all schools time was divided as follows: 39% in written composition, 18% in oral composition, and 43% in the study of literature.

4. The study of literature was divided among all schools as follows: 77% British, 15% American, and eight percent world literature.

5. All schools combined spent an average of 29% of their class time in studying poetry and roughly 17% of the time on each of the following: the drama, short story, novel and nonfiction.

6. The average number of book reports or book reviews required was six.

7. Eighty percent of the teachers integrated the teaching of literature and composition, while 20% divided the work by semesters.

8. The average number of required themes was 20; two-thirds of the schools required research themes.

9. Types of writing included book reviews, essays, news stories, poetry, short stories, character sketches, letters, autobiographies, journals, drama, precis, and yearbook material.

10. One-fourth of the teachers said they placed a great deal of stress on grammar while two-thirds said they taught an average amount.

The writer recommended that more contemporary and world literature should be taught; periodicals should be studied more extensively; reading skills such as skimming, reading between the lines, and reading critically should be taught; oral activities should be increased and diversified; the teacher must not expect colleges to recommend specific content to be studied in the senior English course; and administrators must be made to realize that
no one can competently teach senior English and also assume responsibility for a large number of extracurricular activities.


The assumption that the more English a student has taken in high school the better he will perform in college was tested in this investigation. Two groups were studied: 739 freshmen entering a midwestern college in 1954 and 837 entering in 1958. For both groups complete high school records and marks earned in the basic college English courses were available. For the 1958 group, the college also had scores on the A.C.E. Psychological Examination and Cooperative English Test.

Students in each of the two groups were divided into four categories: those with only three years of high school English, those with three years of English plus one or more years of related language arts instruction such as speech or journalism, those with four years of high school English, and those with four years of English plus one or more years of related language arts instruction. Division into these categories permitted the use of the contingency coefficient and chi-square to determine whether two variables being tested were significantly related. Findings were as follows:

1. For the 1954 class, students who studied English a greater number of years in high school received higher marks in first term college English and were less likely to take remedial English. For the 1958 class, neither of these relationships was statistically significant.

2. For both classes, the amount of high school English instruction and marks in second semester college English were not significantly related.

3. High score on the A.C.E. Psychological Examination and scholastic success in first and second semester college English were significantly related.

4. Scholastic success in college English courses at all levels was significantly related to reading comprehension scores on the Cooperative English Test.

5. The number of years of high school English and scores on mechanics of expression in the Cooperative English Test were significantly related but when these scores on mechanics of expression were related to success in college English, no significant relationship was found.

Thus, the assumption made in this study was refuted, for mere quantity of instruction in high school English did not insure success in college English; however, factors such as reading ability were crucial to success in college English while high scores on tests of mechanics of expression were not significantly related to success in college English.

In this experiment the effectiveness of two plans of teaching tenth grade English was evaluated. The separated program was one in which the school year was divided into two parts with composition taught the first semester and literature the second. In the coordinated program the students received instruction in composition and literature during both semesters.

Two English classes were taught by each method and 32 students were chosen from each group and matched on three test scores: Inglis Test of English Vocabulary, Cooperative English Test, and Test 2: “Composition” and Test 6: “Literature” of the Tests of Academic Progress. In addition, pupils’ grades for the preceding year and scores of the Differential Aptitude Tests were used.

When students were tested in the spring, both groups made statistically significant gains in all tests given, but “there was no statistically significant difference between the mean gains of the two groups on any of the tests.” However, in only one instance, English Expression in the Cooperative English Tests, was the mean gain of the separated classes higher than that of the coordinated classes. On each of the other tests, the coordinated classes made greater, although not statistically significantly greater, mean gains than did the separated classes.


The purpose of this experiment was to determine the differences between the effectiveness of a team teaching approach and the conventional, self-contained classroom approach in eleventh grade American history and eleventh grade English which emphasized American literature.

Students from 13 tenth grade English classes taught by five different teachers were placed in eleventh grade English and American history classes with no consideration for ability grouping. Four classes were directly involved in the experiment. The control group of 29 girls and 25 boys included two classes of eleventh grade English taught in the conventional manner; the experimental group of 31 girls and 19 boys was taught by the team teaching approach. The same textbooks and the same course of study in different sequence were used by both groups and each of the classes was taught by the same English teacher.

In September and again in May, three of the Tests of Academic Progress were given. Results of these tests in Composition, Literature, and Reading revealed that both groups made statistically significant gains on each of the three sections of the tests. However, when the mean gains of the two groups were compared, there was no statistically significant difference between them.
Students in the experimental group were asked to indicate their opinions of team teaching. Seventy percent preferred the team teaching class while 17% preferred the self-contained classroom. Part of this preference may have been due to the fact that team teaching was a new experience for them.

The teachers reported that teaching in the self-contained class was easier, but team teaching was more stimulating and challenging because of the wider range of activities and flexibility of the classroom setting. Also, the teachers felt that they came to know the students better in the team teaching situation.