A Comparison of Extant Articulated English Programs with Current Articulated English Program at Bonneville High School, Utah

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A COMPARISON OF EXTANT ARTICULATED ENGLISH PROGRAMS WITH CURRENT
ARTICULATED ENGLISH PROGRAM AT BONNEVILLE HIGH SCHOOL, UTAH

by

Wilford M. Hale

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Wilford M. Hale
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INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

Introduction

Throughout the decade of the sixties, teachers, administrators, curriculum writers, and textbook companies have all made vigorous attempts to redefine the teaching of English. Teachers have organized themselves on local, state, and national levels to concentrate their efforts and share their knowledge. In part they have been responsible for some of the current trends: better preparation of teachers, experimentation with new methods in the classroom, and more consistent evaluation of what is taking place in the classroom—what teachers teach and what students learn.

Another significant trend is the increasing rejection by teachers of the publisher's series and the pre-packaged programs, partly because school systems are, more than ever before, inclined to give teachers time off to look for ideas, for in-service training, and for workshops to develop their own new materials. Moreover, funds have been made available from national and state sources to develop new programs.

Underlying the teaching of English are several ever present questions. How are programs organized? Are the new programs significantly different? Do experimental programs produce significant measurable changes in student growth? In the final analysis, who determines what goes on in the classroom today? If English teaching should build in some sensibly cumulative way, there must needs be some plan for sequential introduction of concepts and ideas to help students develop
desireable skills in the use of English. Moffett shows his concern for articulation with the statement:

I do not think that important improvements can come about until teachers up and down the line know what their colleagues in other grades are doing and are enabled by their administration to meet and collaborate. The main thing I have learned from experimenting in schools is this: how well a student fares with a certain assignment in, say, tenth or eleventh grade depends enormously on what he was asked to do in the lower grades; sometimes this past education seems even more critical than age and ability. (Moffett, 1968, p. 3, 4)

**Statement of Purpose**

The purpose of this study is to survey the literature on articulated English programs to determine the features of such programs, analyze the Bonneville program on the basis of this survey, and to determine if the program of the present articulated English program at Bonneville High School produces a significant, measurable change in student achievement.

**The Problem**

Essentially, the problem concerning articulated English programs lies not in defending or criticizing the concept of articulation but rather in finding a relevant and practical approach to sequential articulation in the English classroom with adequate evaluation procedures.

**Basic Procedure**

The basic procedure will be divided into two phases. First, the literature will be reviewed to obtain a rational for a sound evaluation of the articulated and sequential English program. Second, an evaluation will be made of the present program at Bonneville High School
based on the rationale obtained in the review of literature and the statistical evidence provided by the "Iowa Test of Educational Development" beginning with the school year of 1971 when the present English program was developed and implemented.
LIMITS OF STUDY

With the current trend of school districts to write and to publish their own curriculum guides and sequential programs, The National Council of Teachers of English could see an increasing need to make available to these schools an instrument to guide as well as to evaluate their efforts. Several studies have been made to try to determine what makes a good program successful. In 1961 the NCTE made a national study of some 7000 high schools to attempt to identify superior programs. A check list for evaluating the English programs in the junior and senior high schools was prepared and published by the Committee of Curriculum of the NCTE in 1962. In 1966 another study was begun (Squire and Applebee, 1968) with selective high schools. A new evaluation was published in 1968 by Paul H. Jacobs at the University of Illinois, entitled Criteria for Evaluating High School English Programs.

This last study by Squire and Applebee (1968) is used in this report to evaluate all other programs reviewed. (See Study Explanation, Appendix H.) Because of the limitations of space in a report of this nature, rather than including within the body of the report each program reviewed, Appendix G has been prepared with a brief description of several programs which seem to be worth further study and consideration.

This report is divided into two major sections: the first part deals with the ideal English program; the second part is an evaluation of Bonneville's present English program using the criteria of part one for the evaluation. Each part is subdivided into eight areas of concentration. The first three are the school climate, teacher preparation,
and the English department. The five curriculum areas are literature, composition, reading, language, and student evaluation.
School climate

Quite clearly, the English program in a given school is influenced by characteristics common to the academic and administrative program of the school as a whole; and according to the NCTE Study, two broad factors--more than anything else--determine these characteristics: (1) the quality of instructional and administrative leadership demonstrated by the building principal, (2) the tradition of learning and education within the school and the community. (Squire and Applebee, 1968)

The quality of the school administrator again and again affects the assessments of a school, with some two-thirds of the characteristics noted in the observer's summaries directly attributable to his work or influence. An observer is impressed with the near absolute authority wielded by a principal in some school situations: selecting staff, determining course content, making decisions about both building and instruction, sometimes without reference to higher administrative authorities and often without reference to many members of the faculty. (Squire and Applebee, 1968)

In such cases, the decisions on instruction are made at the school level and are integrally related to the program. Where authority was removed from the principal and assigned to a central office, however, observers were quick to note the stultifying effect on the overall tone of the school. The most disturbing observation was the removal from the school site of decisions about teachers and teaching, about textbooks, about curriculum—about the very matters that can be decided
wisely only in relation to the individual class. The principal's interest and effectiveness are also reflected in the concern which some faculties show for the educational, cultural, and social issues of our day. (Squire and Applebee, 1968)

Among other considerations directly traceable to the leadership of the building principal is the general adequacy of the building plant. Newness or architectural beauty seem less important than functional contribution to the instructional program. (Moffett, 1968) Are rooms provided with adequate equipment; has shelving and study space enhanced the use of the library; do teachers have a departmental English center, student conference rooms, and adequate work space when not assigned classroom duties? Where these conditions exist, studies seem to agree the physical plant is a helpful adjunct to the instructional program.

The second major influence on the overall program is the tradition of learning and education in the school and community, an influence stronger than differences in social class and home background. More important in many schools is the simple supposition that the program must be excellent, "parents expect their students to learn here . . . we have long had a tradition of academic learning," reported one principal. (Squire and Applebee, 1968, p. 17)

Despite the oldness of the building and the crowded conditions, there is a spirit of learning reflected in this school. From class to class, in hallways, the informal encounters—teachers and students seem to understand that they are here for educational purposes . . . (Squire and Applebee, 1968, p. 203)

In these schools, achievement-oriented students and staff seem to restrict their concern to major academic objectives.

Sometimes an ethnic group is responsible or credited with establishing a vigorous academic program within a school. Nearby military
installations or governmental laboratories and research centers contribute materially to the intellectual atmosphere of many schools, which may explain the number of out-of-the-way schools that are emerging as particularly promising institutions.

The tradition of experimentation also influences the character of school faculties, engendering a "esprit de corps" and attracting visitors from everywhere in the country. Unfortunately, this publicity frequently seems to have an undesirable effect, creating among some faculties a smugness, a satisfaction with conditions as they are, an attitude of superiority and lack of concern with the total profession. Theodore Seizer, (1965) refers to the school sufficiently distinguished to attract national attention as being influenced by the "GEE WHIZ" syndrome.

Per pupil expenditure in experimental programs was found to be double that of the regular programs, which may be construed as a strong point of such programs. Although experimental programs tended to excite both teacher and pupil in the beginning, confusion and uncertainty as well as error in judgement are characteristic of all innovations. Curriculum sequence in the experimental programs was found lacking. (Moffett, 1968) Of the four basic innovative patterns in experimental programs—variations in the use of staff, variations in scheduling the use of time, variations in grouping students, and development of programs in the humanities—unfortunately, in all but one or two cases, the many theoretical advantages of such practices are simply not realized. (Squire and Applebee, 1968)

**Teacher preparation**

Participants of the National Study began with the premise: "English teachers will be well prepared in English, will be active in
professional associations, and will make use of opportunities for continuing their education through in-service training, sabbatical leave programs, or extension school services." (Squire and Applebee, 1968, p. 4)

This hypothesis has been conclusively supported. The teachers in the Study schools are better prepared than teachers nationally. An earlier survey reported by NCTE in The National Interest and Continuing Education of Teachers of English (1964) provides data for English teachers nationally with which the present study can be compared. In the Study, 72 percent of the teachers have majors in English with another 19 percent with minors or a total of 91 percent. Nationally, the percentages are 51 percent with majors in English and 22 percent with minors for a total of 73 percent. On the average there are more than twice as many teachers with Master's Degrees in the Study schools than those in the National survey. (Squire and Applebee, 1968, p. 55)

Teachers of English in the specially selected schools are not only better qualified initially to teach but also continued their education after they began to teach. Since beginning their career, 43 percent have earned a degree, with 36 percent having acquired at least a Master's Degree since beginning full time teaching. An additional 14 percent have achieved this level of education before beginning to teach. Thus, more than half of the teachers in schools with outstanding programs continue their education at least to the Masters level. The national level is only 35 percent. (NEA Research Report, 1963)

The majority of the classes observed dealt with literature while comparatively few offered language (grammar) or composition. Parallelizing the classroom emphasis, 59.8 percent of the teachers have taken one
or more literature courses since beginning to teach; only 25 percent
have taken any composition; and only 34 percent have taken any in language.

Analysis of the classrooms of these teachers led to a number of
significant deductions, probably none so revealing as the tendency to
emphasize literature almost to the exclusion of others. According to
the reports on 32,580 minutes of classroom observation, the teaching of
literature is emphasized in the high school 52 percent of the time-
more than all other aspects of English combined. In contrast only 13.5
percent is devoted to language and 15.7 percent to composition, while
other aspects of English (drama, speech, etc.) receive even less. (See
Appendix A.)

The schools in the Study do provide for greater incentives for in-
dividual teachers to continue their education than do most schools na-
tionally. For example, over 89 percent of the schools in the Study,
compared with only 64 percent nationally, encouraged continuing educa-
tion through salary incentives. Almost two thirds also encourage the
organization of local extension courses; half grant sabbatical leave to
teachers; one quarter will, on occasion, underwrite tuition and fees for
outside courses; at least 20 percent pay stipends for summer study or
release teachers for in-service work. The difference is so striking be-
tween the Study schools and the national sampling that it is evident the
adoption of rather extensive incentives is one of the unique character-
istics of schools with strong English programs. (Squire and Applebee,
1968)

The English department

Although one still hears an occasional argument against the depart-
ment system in the high school, the observations of this project clearly
indicate that schools with a considerable degree of organization tend to have superior English programs. This view is not confined to the National Study of High School English Programs. A report of the CEEB Commission on English in 1965 asserts that English departments must learn to exercise considerably more enterprise and autonomy than they have at present. G. Melvin Hipps writing in The Clearing House, April, 1965, pleads for greater responsibility for the department chairmen, particularly in the area of supervision. Even the American Association of School Administrators indicates that the number of department heads is increasing. (ERS Reporter, 1966) The NCTE observers ranked the quality of the English department leadership among the three special strengths in successful English programs. (Squire and Applebee, 1968)

Department chairmen, especially in large schools, should be given responsibility in four major areas: the appointment, supervision, and evaluation of teachers; the development of curriculum; the stimulation of support for the English program in the school and the community; and the administration of the many procedural details that affect teaching. If chairmen are to be effective, they must be given substantial time, money, and authority to carry out their duties. The schools in the Study have departments which are more fully organized than the average school nationally, and the chairmen are better compensated for their efforts. The important concern is that teachers have someone to whom they can turn with questions about methods and content in the English program, as well as someone to relieve them as much as possible from procedural detail and problems of public relations.

The direct involvement of the department chairman in the appointment, supervision, and evaluation of teachers is especially important
to a smoothly functioning program. Only the chairman has the intimate knowledge of the needs and the personalities of a given department necessary to pick additional teachers who will complement the existing program and who will teach well within it. Results of the studies have convinced the project staffs that the involvement of the principal and more specifically the department chairman in the final selection of teachers is essential to the establishment of a superior English department. Not every English teacher is effective in large group lectures, nor is every teacher comfortable in teaching reading or in directing the work of slow learners. Teaching teams have disintegrated when a teacher with needed skills cannot be found within a school; classes have to be cancelled; and excellent English programs have deteriorated because an excellent teacher has moved on and has been replaced by a mediocre one.

From either a practical or a theoretical point of view, the single most important reason for appointing an English department chairman in the secondary school is to improve instruction. Therefore, considerations of years in service, personal friendship, or immediate conveniences should give way to the professional and intellectual role that he must play as department leader. He must provide vigorous intellectual leadership pervading the department and other reaches of his school as well. That he must be a teacher of stature who is willing to demonstrate his ability as opportunities are available is obvious; yet he should also reveal a more than common knowledge of his subject and extend this knowledge by a continuing study of English and of research in the teaching of English. (Squire and Applebee, 1968)
The department chairman is responsible for creating a favorable climate for learning by working with teachers and administrators to give English teachers time to teach. By promoting within the department an atmosphere of mutual respect, by encouraging the exchange of ideas, and by guarding against an excess of clerical and administrative impediments, he will hopefully achieve the necessary climate for effective teaching and learning.

Too often when educators talk about curriculum, they confine the meaning to what is currently being taught. If it is assumed that improvement of the curriculum is necessary or that a new course of study is to be developed, there is an assumption that the subject content or sequence might be changed. It becomes obvious that a chairman's primary responsibility in the area of curriculum is the continuing assessment of its strengths and weaknesses. Such an evaluation suggests that he know what happens, not only during three or four years of high school English, but in the years before and after—in the English programs of contributing elementary and junior high schools and in the local colleges and universities where the majority of college bound students will go. An understanding of these programs and a knowledge of new developments in subject matter and method allow the chairman, in association with his fellow teachers, to make intelligent decisions concerning curriculum changes. (Dixon, 1970)

A wise supervisor asserts an oblique influence on curriculum by working with fellow teachers in selecting books, by preparing suggestive guides for teaching particular works of literature and by outlining special approaches to teaching language or composition.
As the supervisor works with curriculum committees, a prime concern is to remember that the interests, needs and abilities of students at different levels vary considerably. Very few courses of study show well-developed programs for more than one level, and that one level is almost without exception that of the college bound student. (Moffett, 1968) In all studies the lack of definition between groups is reflected in the treatment students receive in the classroom. The average or below average class is being neglected everywhere.

It becomes clear that curriculum efforts divorced from the classroom and the students, however well intentioned and ably led, are of no great consequence to the process of teaching. New ideas, opinions, classroom expertise are all necessary in developing curriculum, but the rewards of such time consuming and expensive projects must be found in the doing. The observers are of the opinion that beneficial results of such projects do not carry over into the classroom unless the teachers themselves have helped to shape the final document.

One aspect of the department organization that is often either over-looked or underestimated is the physical matter of space for the department center or office. Although obviously affected by financial considerations, the more successful were the rooms outfitted with enough desks and materials to accomodate many of the department's teachers at once - a space where they could either relax or work, or what is more common, a place where they could discuss mutual problems and tentative soluations. (Squire and Applebee, 1968)

A good public relations program is a decidedly important function of the English chairman. The accepting and placing of interns from nearby colleges returns bonuses to the school, such as the opportunity
to single out promising future staff members by seeing them in action and the opportunity to receive evaluation from the colleges in the process. More important is the opportunity to dispel the common public notion that English is nothing more than an accumulation of rules regarding spelling and verbal niceties, and to interpret the program to administrators, parents, and the community. The chairman has an opportunity to raise the public image of the teaching of English.

Subject Areas

Literature

The programs for the teaching of literature were more extensive, more carefully organized and more effective than any other aspect of English instruction in the schools of the Study. Not only was 52 percent of the class time utilized in literary studies, but also considerably more attention was devoted to concepts important to literature. Notwithstanding, only 33 programs were cited for outstanding instruction. Again, the observers found that individual teachers more often than school or department were singled out for distinction. Few faculties were found with an explicit philosophy or commitment to purpose, that literature contributes essentially to the education of each student. Out of 102 departments of English, 62 ranked student development as the primary objective of literary study. The ability to comprehend the meaning and development of a given work was given first place by only 24 schools. Observers indicated that programs in Study schools tend to emphasize the ideas in literature more than do average school programs. (Squire and Applebee, 1968)
Although a variety of approaches are used in the classroom to achieve desired objectives, reports from department chairmen revealed no dominant trends. Observers found that the depth and quality of each class’s experience with literature is of more importance than any pattern of organization and emphasis. Few new patterns of study were discovered. The patterns familiar to most American teachers are common in these schools: in grades nine and ten, the thematic or typological study; grade eleven, American literature (most common); and grade twelve, English or world literature. Variations moved world literature to grade ten. The only radical changes occur at the senior level with electives: English literature, modern literature, world literature, humanities, special courses in Shakespeare and the drama, in the novel, and in great books. Advanced courses oriented around the individual text and close analytical study are being introduced in a few locations and not infrequently provide the context for some of the most exciting teaching.

In programs cited for outstanding teaching of literature, books all plentifully available; anthologies are supplemented by sets of longer works; seminar discussions are enhanced by the use of group sets; and classroom book collections are much in evidence. The literature anthology continues to be widely used, but it is introduced largely to provide a common core of readings and is supplemented by other texts. Thus, among frequently observed practices, the use of anthologies ranks first, multiple sets of books fourth, and classroom book collections eighth. The availability of many texts is clearly a distinguishing characteristic of outstanding programs for teaching literature. (See introduction to Jenkinsm and Daghlyan, 1968) Having such collections
available seemed not only an excellent basis for developing a program of guided personal reading, but also an indication that school and teachers viewed such programs as important. One way of organizing guided reading programs is a three year list of required out-of-class reading intended to ensure that graduates should be acquainted with certain major works not studied in class. In several schools, summer reading assignments are reported as particularly beneficial, books are assigned in the spring and discussed during the opening weeks of the fall semester.

Wide spread reading carefully related to continuing classroom work does seem to be characteristic of outstanding programs of English. The critical discovery is that where attempts are made to provide worthwhile literature for adolescents, students do read!

More important than any particular pattern of organization seems to be the extent to which the program provides for the careful study and close reading of individual texts and supports this close reading with a broadly based program of guided individual reading.

Composition

The component of English which is probably the most elusive and difficult to assess is the teaching of composition. On the basis of classroom observation, teachers at all levels in all schools combined spent only 15.7 percent of their class time in this area. (See Appendix A.) There seems to be a slight variation of time spent among grade levels and even less between those groups considered terminal and those labeled college preparatory.

The bulk of instruction devoted to writing is instruction "after the fact," after papers have been written. The primary process of
writing instruction consists of having students write compositions, then after correction and annotations by the teacher, returning the paper to the students to be revised and submitted again.

There is no way to determine statistically how effective this process is. In spite of the lack of empirical knowledge, however, there can be little doubt that those students who are forced to think back through their first writing and then rework the original into something better must gain in fluency and precision. (Braddock, 1963)

Moffett (1968) is an advocate of the trial and error method; he implies that the teacher not try to prevent the learner from making errors. For him, the learner simply plunges into the assignment, uses all his resources, makes errors where he must, and heeds the feedback. So teachers need to propose meaningful trials (assignments), in a meaningful order, and to arrange for a feedback that insures the maximum exploitation of error.

The greatest difficulty to this process is that the average teacher meets 130 students daily. If he spends as much as 8.6 minutes, the average number of minutes in annotating each theme which was required "to teach writing and thinking," eighteen hours weekly would be required for paper correction alone.

One method for reducing the paper load of classroom teachers is to employ lay readers, a practice being followed in a significant number of high schools across the nation. (Virginia Burke, 1961) Twenty percent of Study schools indicate that readers were used to one degree or another. Lay reader programs differ in many respects. Some readers never see the students because the papers are exchanged through the mail; some readers visit classes when writing assignments are being made. In
the Rutgers Plan, (Diederich, 1960) graders are assigned to specific teachers and classes. Less structured programs allow several teachers to call upon a reader as they require.

The most obvious source of instruction is the occasional or systematic use of textbooks. Only 28 percent of teachers polled reported the use of texts regularly, 51 percent infrequently, and 13 percent never. A content analysis of 14 sets of composition grammar textbooks by Lynch and Evans in 1963 reveals an interesting parallel between the emphasis found on instruction in composition and the proportion of instructional material as evidenced by the number of pages given to composition and rhetoric in the texts. Over twice as many pages dealt with matters of grammar, usage, and mechanics in these books than on units larger than a sentence. (Lynch and Evans, 1963)

Within the last few years, however, several companies have offered texts that are different concerning language and emphasis given to instruction. (Squire and Applebee, 1968, p. 128) Moffett (1968) says that if we learn to write best by doing it and heeding the feedback, then of what use is the presentation of materials to the learner from a textbook.

The lack of any real differentiation in the approaches which these textbooks take at successive stages of composition seem typical. A given series will list essentially the same topics for each of the four years of high school, topics more often than not concentrated on experiences or ideas assumed to be very close to the student's immediate concerns rather than on literary experiences. (Lynch and Evans, 1963) Yet at least twice as many papers are based on literature as on all other subjects combined, including personal experiences, the social sciences generally, and imaginative topics involving creative writing.
Perhaps as a result of the lack of creative writing assignments, the rigid assignments and mechanical instruction that characterize so much composition teaching, two-thirds of the sixty advanced twelfth grade classes which indicated they would like to see an improved composition program specify more creative writing, an emphasis reflected, too, in the enthusiasm of students enrolled in such classes. (Squire and Applebee, 1968)

In the opinion of Jenkinson and Daghlian, (1968) the occasional experience of creating a poem or story can carry a number of extrinsic dividends. The experience may not turn the student into an artist, but it should help him develop an appreciation of the distinctions between the language and conventions of literature and the language and conventions of his own immediate world.

With few exceptions, any concerted efforts of English departments has been directed to setting standards for grading or for establishing requirements for student writing in terms of numbers of words or assignments. It would seem little thought or effort is given to "how" a student's writing ability can be improved.

One method of encouraging continuity and progression in the individual classroom is to use cumulative folders or note books containing all of the consequential pieces that a student writes. This practice gives an opportunity to observe student progress throughout the year. Some departments continue this practice reserving selected writings over a three or four year period. While providing perspective on the growth of the individual student, it is one method of ensuring sequence and continuity within the writing program of a school. (Moffett, 1968)
In my study I found a number of schools had written new courses of study, frequently called "sequential guides" to composition. (Kitzhaber, 1967) Inherent in the design of these programs is the principle that the important skills of writing are developed incrementally. (Meaning and Function of Language, 1965) A typical guide provides from 20 to 50 writing experiences for each grade level, from which some 12 to 20 will be chosen by the individual teacher on the basis of the needs and capabilities of his class. At all levels students are required to write narration, description, exposition and argumentation; though in the tenth grade, there is likely to be a greater emphasis on narration and description, and in the twelfth, greater concern with more complex and subtle forms of exposition and argumentation. Many of these assignments are clearly related to the literature taught at particular grade levels, and at times students are asked to emulate the style of an author to write in the manner of Jonathan Swift or Samuel Johnson for example while developing a personal essay. (Moffett, 1968a)

As a teacher I am more impressed by guides developed by individual schools and/or districts than by the text books prepared by the textbook companies. (Appendix G)

The high school research or term paper is a fairly well entrenched requirement in most English programs. Seventy-one percent of the teachers in Study schools support a requirement for at least one such paper in every student's high school career; yet the process of gathering information, taking notes, and preparing a paper has for some time been questioned by both high school and college instructors. (Squire and Applebee, 1968) Might the time not have been more profitably spent on other aspects of composition or on the study of literature and language?
A common criticism of term papers is that very few high school libraries have adequate materials for a student to pursue a subject in depth. Another criticism often heard is that the teachers are prone to emphasize the mechanical aspects of taking notes, preparing footnotes, and compiling bibliographies to the exclusion of processes of thought or logical development.

Unless the long paper evolves from written assignments over a period of years and unless the subject matter of these efforts has some relationship to English (or else some immediacy to related disciplines), observers feel that the instructional time might better be spent on other writing. Still, these seems to be a consensus among curriculum committees that it is profitable for a student to pursue a subject in depth and to sustain his best writing efforts in an extended paper. Other academic departments both expect students to know the proper form and procedure for writing a long source paper and regard the English class as the appropriate place for such instruction. Teachers who support this claim report that former students return from college to tell them how useful this instruction had been in their beginning college course. Yet, a student's first three required English college classes deal with writing a research paper (at least two out of three). To consider instruction on the long paper as a necessary end in itself, as a service function to other high school departments or as an assumed college requirement, makes the task unrewarding and the practice unsound. (Moffett, 1968) Needless to say, there are many qualitative differences among the various composition programs. Those schools that are committed are involved in continuous efforts to improve instruction in writing. Although a good deal of research has been undertaken on the teaching of
writing, too few of the findings are easily translatable to classroom techniques.

Teaching of language

Of the three major components of English: literature, composition and language, the teachers, students, and observers all agree that language is the least well taught. In the 1,609 classes visited, only 13.5 percent of the teaching time emphasized language. (See Appendix A.) When the teachers were questioned concerning preparation in this area, more than two-thirds questioned the adequacy of their preparation and indicated the need for advanced study. Only 17 of 99 advanced twelfth grade classes interviewed by the project staff indicated that their instruction had been particularly beneficial. (Squire and Applebee, 1968)

There still seems to be general confusion as to what should be taught in a language curriculum. More than 90 percent of all schools do teach such concepts basic to literary study as metaphor, imagery, blank verse, satire, and epic, but the same schools experience a total lack of agreement over concepts associated with the study of language.

James Moffett (1968), Ken Donelson (1972) and George Hillock, Jr., (1972) all strongly support a student-centered curriculum in which students use language more than they customarily do. The curriculum is based on a "naturalistic approach" whereby students learn essentially by doing and receiving feedback. The student should be guided from a state of simply receiving language to one in which he uses, experiences, and produces it. The curriculum in these programs emphasized thinking skills, writing from personal experience, self-awareness, sequential development, trial-and-error learning, small group interaction, and language as a social act.
In no other area of language are standards more variable, confusion greater, and differences more apparent than in the teaching of usage. Presumably, any formal study of modern grammar and usage should lead to some understanding of geographical and social variations in usage and of complexity; however, criteria for identifying some appropriate but flexible standard of usage for instructional purposes are necessary. What is surprising is the discovery that in the selected high school programs so little is being done to alleviate the confusion.

According to linguists and specialists in language, a well-designed school program in the English language will contain, in addition to the study of grammar and usage, some attention to dialect study, lexicography, semantics, the history of the language, and perhaps phonology. The data collected in this study indicates that the specialists on the teaching of English have yet to persuade teachers in secondary schools that the study of the language is more than a minor adjunct to the program as a whole. (Appendix A)

One of the major problems in this area, mentioned above, is the confusion of teachers about the study of grammar and usage. They talk about "functional grammar" (which to them really means assigned drill based on student errors) and provide instruction in only a haphazard way. Instead of giving attention to the study of historical, geographical or social aspect of language, their major concern is with problems of syntax and usage appearing in the student's own writing and speech. Errors in sentence structure are especially emphasized: parallelism, misplaced and dangling modifiers, run-together sentences, faulty reference, and problems in agreement. (Moffett, 1968b)
A good program emphasizes usage and the ways in which social level, situation, geographical region, and medium of communication dictate the appropriate form. Regretfully, in view of the substantial research indicating the contributions of oral drill and pattern practice to the effectiveness of instruction in usage, few teachers utilize this approach. (Moffett, 1968b)

When teachers were surveyed concerning the use of language and composition books, selected or required by their school district, more than 70 percent rejected or disliked them on the basis of poor quality. When forced to bring such textbooks into the classroom, the teachers simply ignored them. In spite of these criticisms, when asked about their reasons for requiring a single series of language and composition texts, some schools stressed the need for continuity, scope and sequence in instruction. It would seem, in view of the report by Lynch and Evans (1963) that whatever the claims of the publisher, most of the language and composition books teach the same concepts at every grade level, that taxpayers are spending tens of thousands of dollars to purchase books that teachers do not want and do not use.

On the other hand, a well-designed grammar may be a useful tool in assisting the teacher to provide systematic instruction. The conclusion; where language books are purchased for a particular purpose, they appear to be carefully used.

One of the best programs was using Paul Roberts' Patterns of English (1966) beginning in grade nine. All teachers were required to study the textbook closely to establish a consistent approach. A four to six week unit on lexicography was planned for grade ten, involving not only consideration of the meaning but a comparison of three standard student
dictionaries. The language unit for grade eleven was devoted to dialect and linguistic geography and covered such problems as the effect on differences in language usage in location, education and occupation. Grade twelve included the study of a unit on the history of language, taught in relation to the study of a selection from "The Canterbury Tales. An advanced study of the problem of appropriateness in English completed the four year sequence. The success of this type of program is credited to the commitment of the English teachers to instruction in structural grammar parallelism and to their confidence in what they are doing. This attitude seems to be the result of an in-service education program. Classes studying Patterns in English, despite a disturbingly rigorous adherence to the textbook at the expense of teacher creativity, were at least directing their attention toward key generalizations about the English language. (Note: Roberts' series are not the "in" thing at present.)

Teaching of reading

Although reading and oral language skills are essential to nearly every activity which occurs in the classroom, teachers are apt either to associate sequential instruction with the primary grades or to feel they teach it all the time.

Department chairmen interviewed in the National Study agreed that the fundamental purpose of reading instruction is to help the student become a more active and critical reader. They seem to recognize that developmental reading instruction in the total program in English includes not only instruction in the basic skills (word attack, comprehension, and speed) but also instruction in the reading of literature. Learning to adjust reading speed according to the variety of materials
and purpose of the assignment is also reported to be important, as is helping students understand better what they read in other subjects.

"Only three to four percent of instructional time in grade ten is devoted to reading and declines to two percent in grade twelve."
(Squire and Applebee, 1968, p. 153) In a school year, this approach would allow only four to seven class hours for the teaching of reading development. Only 71 of 1,609 separate classes observed devoted time to reading: 12 of these were designated as "reading" rather than regular English classes. What is distressing is that 50 percent of the schools actually employ reading specialists who are usually members of the English department; however, there is little if any coordinated teaching of reading.

Developmental programs were found in a well-developed form in only 17 percent of the schools. Reading laboratories were not introduced in over half of these schools and were seldom seen in all but five others. Similarly, work in remedial reading was found much in evidence in only seven of the 95 schools reported on. Tachistoscopes, reading pacers, accelerators, and reading films were found here and there; however, the "hardware" was not widely used even by reading specialists. In several schools, rooms of reading equipment stand idle while desperate officials search for reading teachers who can manipulate these mechanical aids.

If teachers would start to recognize that the teaching of literature in high school must necessarily involve the teaching of reading, at times "explicitly," it would at least be a beginning. This recognition is not likely to occur until the high school teacher of English is more aware than he is at present that in teaching Julius Caesar, for example, he has an obligation to prepare students to read other
Shakespearian plays as well. What special skills are needed to read a sonnet? To analyze an essay? To comprehend a metaphor?

Unfortunately, evidence in this study suggests that, in these schools at least, departments of English have yet to find effective ways either to incorporate developmental reading into the regular English program or to provide remedial instruction for the substandard reader.

The conscious recognition that texts used in literary study can and often should be explicitly considered as examples of critical problems in reading and that the skills and methods used to approach these texts are representative of those needed to approach a large number of similar texts could lead to a considerable improvement in almost every program observed. (Squire and Applebee, 1968)

**Evaluation procedure**

Evaluation of student learning and teacher effectiveness is considered to be one of the weaknesses of most programs that were evaluated. The NCTE reported a majority of the schools had failed to use department testing as one of the most important ways of promoting articulation among grade levels. In schools using a department test, only 19 percent of the schools contacted involved the department chairman in the preparation of this test. Squire and Applebee report,

While the primary responsibility for the department examination should indeed lie with the teachers, the involvement of the department chairman also seems necessary if the examinations are to evaluate in some manner the effectiveness of the program, not simply the performance of the student. (Squire and Applebee, 1968, p. 161)

Sixty percent of the schools in the Study reported no portion of the final exam as departmental, and 70 percent required no form of
examination to test minimum essentials to be mastered at a particular grade level.

As to what teachers emphasize in their evaluation, here again, they are not consistent. Although 52 percent of all classroom activity is involved in the teaching of literature, while language receives only 13.5 percent, (see Appendix A) far more attention is given to the testing of language, especially matters of usage, than to literature. After an evaluation of some 85 departmental tests, observers felt that perhaps teachers were attempting to measure too much.

English as language involves almost every aspect defined in Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives on both the cognitive and the effective level, and few of the traditional multiple choice questions are designed carefully enough to test more than one of the several different levels cognitive and effective, at a time. (Squire and Applebee, 1968, p. 163)

Most of the final examinations are objective in character, with the great majority of the questions involving no more than rote memory. The most successful examinations force the student to use and apply knowledge and skills which he has developed rather than asking for rote responses that really require attendance at a particular class lecture during the year. Of the various formats used, fill-in type seems to be the least successful, requiring only a rote response. Multiple choice can measure growth if plausible incorrect answers are included to force the student to discriminate on the basis of knowledge gained during the course.

Essay questions, although still in the minority on most tests given, are most successful when they provide explicit instructions along with most of the materials necessary to answer the question; the students' ideas and critical abilities should be all that is lacking. Tests usually reflect the teacher's general conception of the program as a whole.
Where the honors student is expected to analyze specific literary works without needing a vast background of chronological or biographical facts, the general student is asked to regurgitate a compilation of facts and theory which are related more to lectures his teacher has presented than to any first-hand acquaintance with works of literature. James Moffett in his introduction to A Student Centered Language Arts Curriculum, Grade K - 13, feels there is a better way than giving an examination.

Since my focus ... has been entirely on learning and not on testing-deliberately so, for the two are often in conflict, I suggest a particular way of arriving at marks, a folder of each students' papers is kept and passed on yearly from teacher to teacher. Instead of deciding upon marks by making up tests, putting grades on papers, and doing a lot of bookkeeping, the teacher looks over the folder at the end of the marking period, makes a general assessment of the students' papers, adds in his observations of the students' oral and dramatic work, and either translates this into a letter grade, if the administration insists, or, writes a two-or three-sentence assessment. (Moffett, 1968a, p. 7)

He asserts the advantages of this process are evident: "The teacher gets a better picture of trends; the time he spends on marks is less but more meaningful; and the student becomes oriented toward intrinsic learning issues instead of toward grades." (Moffett, 1968a, p. 7)

In his book Teaching the Universe of Discourse, 1968, Moffett discusses the process of trial and error both as a teaching device and as an evaluation instrument to the criticism that the trial and error method sounds to many people like a haphazard, time consuming business, a random behavior of children, animals, and others who do not know any better; he comments:

Trial and error is by definition never aimless, but without help the individual alone may not think of all the kinds of trials that are possible, or may not always see how to learn the most from his errors. And if it is a social activity he is learning, like writing, then human interaction is in any case indispensable. So we have teachers to propose meaningful trials (assignments) in a
meaningful order, and to arrange for a feedback that insures the maximum exploitation of error. (Moffett, 1968, p. 199)

Although there are many standardized tests on the market today, they should reflect what has been taught and what the student has gained from the instruction. Moffett states in his introduction to a student Centered Language Arts Curriculum,

... the Administrative need for tests and marks has tampered with educational processes especially in English, even more than most of its critics have ever asserted. A learning program should be assessed on its own terms, not shrunk to the narrow limits of conventional, easily quantifiable tests. (Moffett, 1968a, p. 7-8)
School climate

The quality of instructional and administrative leadership demonstrated by the building principal and the tradition of learning and education within the school and the community are considered as two of the determining characteristics, possibly the two most important characteristics of any quality program. The quality of the school administrator and the way he uses his authority is the one single factor that contributes to the success or failure of successful English programs.

To understand the school climate and the community's attitude toward education, one needs to know something of the history of the terrace where the school is located. The school itself was constructed in 1960 to accommodate the children of the community of Washington Terrace, a community of civilian and army personnel who moved to Ogden to work at Hill Airforce Base during World War II. The homes were poorly built, small, with a low-income group in mind by contractors cashing in on the building boom during the Forty's. Included in the boundaries of the school were two other small communities, South Ogden and Riverdale.

The studentbody of Bonneville is about average with 45 percent of the students scoring from 92 to 108 on the I. Q. tests (S.R.A.) administered in September of 1972. A questionnaire filled out by the students in January of 1974 indicated that 13 percent of the students live with someone other than their natural parents. For the first time, during the school year of 1973-74, students taking the IOWA Test for Educational Development (Appendix E) show significant measurable changes from
one level to another. The intellectual climate seems to be changing, due partly to the new housing developments which upgrade the socio-economic level of the community. Each year Bonneville students return from festivals, fairs, competition, and etc. with more academic honors than the year before.

With new success in the academic areas, more and more support is being offered by the community. Still, students and parents voice disapproval of the many publicized innovative and experimental programs for which the Weber District is notorious. There seems to be a sense of urgency to establish articulated programs with sequential materials from level to level and to upgrade the existing programs. Bonneville will graduate its 14th senior class this year of 1974.

During the 14 years as an accredited school, there have been four principals: the first administrator was principal for seven years; the second for two years; the third, for two years; and the fourth has been here three years. Just as there must be stability of staff to build good programs, it would follow that there must be tenure in the area of administration.

The present administration at Bonneville is very competitive in its attitude with other schools and has adopted a program designed to change attitudes within the community and school toward education.

The Study indicates the necessity of principal's having an almost absolute authority in making the final decisions concerning his school. The principal may hire only after prospects have made application to and have been interviewed by the central office. New programs are encouraged by the school district as long as they have educational objectives and will enhance the school's program. The principal has the final say
on all programs, texts and curriculum which, when evaluated, must meet state requirements.

**Teacher preparation**

Consistent with the premise of the Study that English teachers will be well prepared in English (see page 8 of this report), of the 17 teachers in the Bonneville English department, seven have Master's Degrees and nine have Bachelor's Degrees. Five indicated from 12 to 23 semester hours of preparation, nine reported 24-48 hours of preparation, and two reported more than 48 hours. Although 12 teachers reported zero to two years since their last formal study in English and four teachers reported from four to seven years, at present all teachers in the department are involved in a ten week program at Weber State College. Regarding experience, three teachers have taught more than 15 years, three have taught from six to fifteen years, three have taught from three to five years, and seven have taught two or less. The Study showed that nationally 43 percent of the teachers of English had earned a degree since beginning their career, with 36 percent having acquired at least a Master's Degree since beginning full time teaching. In the Bonneville team, all teachers began full time teaching with a Bachelor's Degree; and seven, or 41 percent have earned a Master's Degree since that time, but not all in the field of English.

The survey of Bonneville indicates that 13 of the 17 teachers have taken further course work in English and are better prepared in literature than in other areas. Teachers admitted most post graduate work has been in classes dealing with literature.

At the present time there is no incentive program for teachers other than salary increases. Teachers are encouraged to enroll in
extension classes and on occasion the school district will pay for in-service instruction. Unfortunately, with only two sabbatical opportunities for the entire district in any given year, this limitation hardly qualifies as an incentive. Teachers are encouraged to join professional organizations and to attend workshops. Depending upon the whim or policy of the building principal, teachers may be given the opportunity to visit other schools and other districts to observe publicized programs.

Bonneville's greatest problem in the English department has been and still is the turn-over of teachers within the department. Stability of a good articulated program can only be maintained by a highly stable teaching staff building and rebuilding a curriculum to meet the needs of the students.

The English department at Bonneville

The English department has been organized at Bonneville for several years, but effective changes and measurable achievements in test scores were not apparent until after the department organized a scope and sequence workshop with the participation of all English teachers in the Bonneville Cone. The cone is made up of teachers from Bonneville, South Junior and T. H. Bell Junior High. Under the direction of Dr. Farr of Utah State University and subsequently Dr. Varnel A. Bench of the Weber County School District, a Scope and Sequence Language Arts' Program was written for grades seven through twelve. (See Bonneville Manual, 1973)

According to the study of the SNTE (Squire and Applebee, 1968) the department chairman should be given responsibility in four major areas: the appointment, supervision and evaluation, the development of curriculum, and public relations for the department. At Bonneville the department head is given the opportunity to talk to prospective teachers after
the principal has already given approval, i.e., the hiring of a secretary to teach remedial reading and the hiring of a debate teacher instructed by the principal to take some classes in English because part of his assignment would be to teach English.

The department chairman at Bonneville has authority to supervise the English department after the principal has determined what should be offered in the curriculum. He is encouraged to evaluate the teachers of the department and report to the principal.

The head of the department teaches five classes a day leaving precious little time for carrying out the responsibilities of his position. Funds for teacher helps, texts and innovations encouraged by the universities are very limited . . . along with the chairman's authority. At present, department heads receive no compensation for extra responsibility and effort. The National Study reports, "If chairmen are to be effective, they must be given substantial time, money and authority to carry out their duties." (Squire and Applebee, 1968, p. 250)

To his credit the department head has been instrumental in improving instruction and arranging for in-service workshops. Although funds have been limited, he has been able to acquire many new books for the students to read in the literature programs. Because of the turnover of teachers in the department, almost a third, the chairman's assignment to improve instruction is at best difficult. However, test scores (See Appendix E.) indicate increased success from one year to the next.

The Study suggests that schools with good programs have an area, or a department center, where all the teachers on the staff might gather to relax, work, and discuss mutual problems. Bonneville does have a designated area with an efficient secretary, however, because of the location
and size of the area is not used by all of the English department.

The greatest handicap of the Bonneville English department is the physical plant designed for a social studies team-teaching situation. When the social studies department failed miserably in their new environment, dividers were installed in the open pods and the English department was moved in and commanded to succeed. Currently, the department is beginning to show success. This articulated program has provided some direction, this being the first year that significant, measurable results have been shown by test scores. Nothing helps public relations more than success; moreover, the 1973 test scores provide concrete evidence of the beginning of a successful program.

Subject Areas

Literature

Literature is the strongest area of all English studies with more time being given to classroom study of literature than to all the other areas combined. In the Study teachers reported an average of 52.2 percent devoted to concepts important to literature, while Bonneville teachers reported only 3.12 percent. (See Appendix A) As shown by the Study, it is more often the individual teacher than the department that can be singled out for distinction in this field.

While emphasis in the Study seems to have been on ideas, at Bonneville the emphasis is on the elements, figures of speech, motivational appeal and techniques. Each genre (a) short story, (b) novel, (c) drama, and (d) poetry is in turn broken down into its separate elements. (Appendix B, C, and D under Reading: tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades)
The most common pattern followed by the Study schools is: variations of World literature, or a thematic or typological study in grade 10; American literature in grade 11; and English or world literature in grade 12. Bonneville's program calls for World literature in grade 10, American literature and mass media analysis in grade 11, and the study of English literature in grade 12.

With new trends in experimentation, more elective classes are being offered: English literature, modern literature, humanities, Shakespeare, the drama, the novel, great books, and vocational and professional writing classes. At Bonneville students may choose the study of literature in reading improvement, Shakespeare, and the great books. The creative writing classes use selected readings to initiate writing assignments. Units on vocational English are to be incorporated into the already existing English programs for the coming year. This program is in the planning stage and was recommended by the North West Accrediting teams to be incorporated in existing programs, not to be offered as a separate class.

The availability of many texts is clearly a distinguishing characteristic of outstanding programs. Unfortunately, Bonneville does not have either a central or a departmental library with extensive selections. Each year the department chairman adds a few selections to the existing list, only to have the number dwindle from the loss of books by students. The availability of an excellent bookstore is impossible with the school district's present policy.

The Study programs have guided reading programs with immediate access to books found on the recommended lists. At Bonneville there are outside reading lists, however, there are not enough books in the
library readily available to all students. Bonneville will begin a guided reading program during the summer vacation of 1974 and has plans to allocate more funds for more texts. This move will allow the establishment of a guided three year reading program as suggested by the Study.

Composition

In the Study schools 15.7 percent of classroom time is spent in the study of composition compared to 30.8 percent at Bonneville. (See Appendix A) As students at Bonneville have been shown to be weak in this area, more emphasis in the last three years has been given to instruction in composition especially in grades 11 and 12.

According to the Study there seem to be arguments for and against the "trial and error" method of teaching composition. Most of the teachers in the Bonneville English department follow this procedure: the student is given a writing assignment, after which the teacher makes corrections and annotations. The paper is then returned to the student to be revised and re-submitted to the teacher. All teachers teach five classes instead of the Study's recommended four, which adds another 30 students to the total teaching load and therefore takes away one precious hour needed to correct and annotate papers. Teachers admit to not having enough time to adhere strictly to the procedure.

It is not the policy of the Weber District to budget funds for readers in the English departments, although aides are hired in other curriculum areas to do clerical work, prepare teaching materials, and in some instances correct tests.

Bonneville teachers are in agreement with the concensus of the teachers in the Study that text books have a common fault: they assume that all students are at the same level of achievement and that all
students have the same problems. Thus they are approaching all students with the same level of instruction and sophistication. Most of the assignments are created by the teacher and grow out of the literature and other activities. The variety is based on concepts shown on the foldouts for each level. (See Appendix B, C, and D, creative writing assignments and practical vocational writing.) Twice as many assignments are based on literature, personal experience, social science, and imaginative creative writing. A study of the Bonneville classes indicated a trend toward more creative writing demanded by the student interest. During the school year of 1973-74, three creative writing classes were offered; for the coming year, 1974-75, to meet the growing demand, five sections will be offered. The students feel they have a need to better express themselves in the written word.

Writing incrementally at all levels, students are required to write narration, description, exposition and argumentation in the better programs of the Study. At Bonneville, by comparing the flow charts on all three levels of instruction, (Appendix B, C, and D), it is obvious that an incremental program has been planned for and is being used by most of the instructors.

Many of the programs studied advocate the use of a folder for each student for articulation purposes, the folder to be a depository for the completed writings of the student. This practice was started by the sophomore English team, but has not been continued by the 11th grade English team. (See use of folders in evaluation section.)

Although 71 percent of all English programs in the Study require a term paper, the practice is questioned by both high school and college instructors. At Bonneville, every student in the English department,
at each level, is required to produce a paper. The teachers find their problems are those of the Study schools; library facilities are too scanty for in-depth research, and still too much emphasis is placed on mechanics rather than the thought processes and logical development. The teachers of the department are divided as to how rewarding or unrewarding and unsound the practice may be, especially for the terminal student.

With only 52 percent of the students indicating a desire for post high school training at a college or university, the long paper might be better substituted for resumes and letters of application, especially for the terminal students.

**Teaching of language**

The English teachers in both the feeder schools and the high school of the Bonneville Cone decided, in their in-service 7-12 Sequential Seminar held during the school year of 1973, to adhere basically to traditional terminology in their teaching of grammar, punctuation, and usage rather than transformational grammar or structural grammar. In the Study schools, 13.5 percent of instructional time is devoted to the study of grammar and usage. At Bonneville the teachers indicated that 22.5 percent of classtime is devoted to this area. (See Appendix A) A break-down of the individual concepts can be found on the fold out in Appendix B, C, and D for tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades, under the heading of Grammar.

Unlike the Study recommendations, little or no formal attention is given to dialect study, lexicography, semantics, the history of the language or phonology. Moreover, even though research indicates that oral drills and pattern practices are highly effective in the instruction of
usage, the teachers in the Bonneville Cone have not incorporated this technique into their teaching or instruction.

The teachers in the cone have, however, recognized the need for scope and sequence, 7-12, and have at least attempted to provide unified terminology and sequential development of the 17-18th Century rules in grammar, usage, and punctuation.

**Teaching of reading**

When the scope and sequence manual for the department of English was formulated, reading and literature were included on the same line on the flow chart. (See Reading on fold out, Appendix B, C, and D.) Emphasis is given to reading only 4.5 percent of the time in the Study schools and only 3 percent in the Bonneville classrooms. (See Appendix A) As with the Study, many of the teachers in the department feel they are teaching reading along with the literature. In reality, there is very little developmental reading instruction in the total program. Out of a student body of over 1600, approximately 150 students have some kind of instruction. The department has one teacher who teaches five sections a day. Students use the SRA Reading Laboratory and the Reader's Digest Skill Builders, then select their own reading materials for the balance of the time.

Teachers were asked to submit the names of students in their classes whom they felt had reading difficulties. From these lists 150 students were tested to find their level of reading ability. Although every student tested was below his grade level, some as low as the third grade, Bonneville has only two generalists who work with no more than 20 students. In our present program, if a student has not learned to read
before he comes to high school, he may never have that opportunity. One teacher in the department expressed herself concerning reading by stating the following:

It really takes a specialist, like McGregor, with training, and money to buy books specifically adjusted to certain reading difficulties. It would be totally unrealistic for regular English teachers to be expected to have this expertise (and time) when you consider all the other areas we are expected to cover in a years time. For the student's benefit, however, we should have a person we could either send these students to or a person who could help us with these problems.

Although the results of IOWA tests (see Appendix E), indicate that the students at Bonneville are "holding their own," investigation bears out the need for much greater emphasis in this area of instruction.

**Evaluation procedures**

Departmental testing is possible and is often used at Bonneville in levels ten and eleven, as much of the instruction is on a team teaching basis. In level twelve two factors make the use of department tests more difficult to administer, the separation of physical facilities and the number of electives available to seniors.

When department examinations are to be used, teachers and department chairmen usually sit down together to decide what should be included; however, teachers may choose to delete or add to the examination when administering the test to their own classes.

Content varies according to what is being tested, but because some students do poorly on some types of examination questions and much better on others, several types of questions are included: objective, multiple choice, comparisons, and essay. No final examination is given, except for the Advance Placement classes. The IOWA Test of Educational Development
is administered by the district each fall to all students at all levels of the high school. (See results, Appendix E.)

The use of accumulative folders suggested in the Study for evaluation of composition and writing is used by teachers of grade ten and by some of the teachers of grade eleven. Teachers of creative writing find this one of the more practical ways of evaluating a students' work.

The Study recommends a final examination upon completion of the course; however, at Bonneville most testing follows the unit of work. This practice evaluates neither the program nor the teacher, and does not provide information for purposes of articulation between levels. Certainly, this is one aspect of the Bonneville program where some changes need to be made. The IOWA test does not give enough information to really evaluate both the English teacher and the English program.
A final evaluation of the English program at Bonneville High School can not be conclusive because of the ever changing nature of the faculty, students, community, and trends in education. The following is a summary of the strengths and weaknesses in the Bonneville program based on the findings and conclusions of the Study.

1. Teachers are prepared to teach at Bonneville and have an opportunity for in-service classes. Opportunities for stipends and sabbatical leaves are nonextant.

2. Students are interested in reading for both study and personal satisfaction. Several good anthologies are available to the student but not nearly enough books. Less emphasis on literature in classroom study at Bonneville may indicate a better balanced program. (See Appendix A.) The most striking weakness in this area is lack of library facilities.

3. Two of the most important considerations, the intellectual climate and the principal's attitude toward education, are difficult to assess. Yet there seems to be a changing attitude among the students, a more positive feeling toward academic success. This attitude coupled with the principal's deep competitive spirit is having a positive effect on the intellectual climate of the school.

4. Students have varied and frequent writing opportunities but need more instruction in rhetoric and the processes of writing.

5. A variety of materials and methods are used in the classrooms, in the Honors program, advanced placement classes, and college prep
classes. Although teachers are not restricted, little innovation or experimentation take place.

6. There seems to be no concensus in the Study as to how much emphasis should be placed on literature, language, or composition. (See Appendix A.) The observer will note that Bonneville's program distributes time spent in all three areas more equitable than does the Study. Again, as with the Study, an outstanding teacher seems to make the difference between a good or poor program. The scope and sequence program of the Bonneville Cone is explicit and well written, and teachers are expected to follow the program as outlined.

7. The reading program (instruction in the skills of reading) is the weakest area in the department. Although some effort is made to provide instruction, too much effort, time, and money are spent on the more able student. Only 20 students, on a limited basis, are receiving professional instruction in reading.

8. Teachers have a favorable teaching climate and each teaching team has a common preparation period. On the negative side, the school plant is extremely poor, student-teacher ratio is high, teachers meet five classes each day instead of the recommended four, and although there is a departmental center, it is not adequate for the entire department.

9. The English department is led by a capable and resourceful chairman who was instrumental in the preparation of the scope and sequence materials used in the Bonneville Cone. With five classes to teach each day, the chairman does not have time to properly supervise and coordinate the activities of the department. He is consulted when new teachers are hired but does not have responsibility in the final decisions.
10. "Outstanding English programs are characterized by the presence of outstanding teachers." Although all teachers in the English department are not of a uniformly excellent quality, there are a small number of creative teachers who do much to motivate students and fellow teachers. One of the staff, Mrs. Elaine Bird, just won the Meritorious Teaching Award given by the Academy of Science, Arts, and Letters.

11. The greatest weakness of English programs which consistently produce contest winners in the NCTE contests is the same weakness found in the Bonneville English program and most of the other programs reviewed. Although these schools, Bonneville included, have outstanding programs for college bound students, there is a noticeable lack of planned programs for the terminal student. Perhaps the needs of half of the student body are being ignored.

At a time when state and federal governments are willing to allocate extra funds for vocational instruction, curriculum designers should be cognizant of the other 50 to 60 percent of the students, those who do not plan to attend college. They should be ready to use these extra funds to design a curriculum to fit the needs of all the students while such funds are available.

12. The philosophy of the Bonneville English department reflects the changing social and educational patterns of our times. Even though the teacher turnover at Bonneville was alluded to earlier in this report as a weakness, the new teachers bring new ideas, creativity, and new methods of approaching the teaching of the skills of English.
Summary

The Bonneville English program incorporates most of the recommended elements considered by the Study to be necessary in an outstanding English program: effective leadership, well prepared and dedicated teachers, reasonable working conditions and resources, in-service programs for teachers, a variety of teaching methods, planned sequential and structured programs, elective classes to give students more choice in what they study, and a philosophy reflecting the changing social and educational patterns of our times.

While the statistical evidence provided by the Iowa Test of Educational Development is not sufficient to determine the success of the present English program, a year to year comparison (see Appendix E) indicates a significant measurable increase in every area tested but one. The eleventh grade results in the test given in November of 1973 are the highest scores ever recorded by Bonneville students. Hopefully, these results are a trend and indicative of the quality and strength of the present articulated English program at Bonneville High School.
LITERATURE CITED


Hillocks, George, Jr., 1972. Alternatives in English.


Appendix A

Comparative Charts
CONTENT EMPHASIS

Other: Speech 4.9  Bonneville 0.7
Reading 4.5  3.0
Mass Media 1.3  0.7
Other 9.9  15.2

NCTE STUDY

BONNEVILLE H.S.

METHODS EMPHASIZED IN CLASSROOM TEACHING

Other: Socratic Questioning
Group Work
Audio Visual
Other

Recitation 22.2 13 21.1
Discussion 19.5 14.3 17.3
Student Presentation 37 15.2 12.5
Silent Study 37 15 10.4
Other 15 2 1
Lecture

Recitation 22.2 13 21.1
Discussion 19.5 14.3 17.3
Student Presentation 37 15.2 12.5
Silent Study 37 15 10.4
Other 15 2 1
Lecture
Appendix B

Flow Chart of Tenth Grade English Program at

Bonneville High School
Appendix C

Flow Chart of Eleventh Grade English Program at
Bonneville High School
Appendix D

Flow Chart of Twelfth Grade English Program at

Bonneville High School
INDEX:
M: Maintenance of Skill
*: Optional
**: Double Optional
+: Individual Study initiated by either Student or Teacher

12th Grade

Speaking
- Advanced Poetry
- Advanced Drama
- Small Group Discussion
- Panel Discussion

Reading
- Review elements of Short Story thru Eng. Lit.
- Review elements of Novel thru Eng. Lit.
- Review elements of Poetry thru Eng. Lit.
- Review elements of Drama thru Eng. Lit.
- Reading Cards

Grammar
- Review Grammar and Usage
- Review of Subjects and Predicates
- Review of Pronoun and Antecedent
- Review of Punctuation
- Review Capitalization
- Diction

Writing
- Review Point of View, pronouns, shifting subjects, tense
- Review Paragraph Structure
- Review Composition Form, sentence paragraph, essay
- Review Use of Thesaurus
- Spelling
- Vocabulary Building

- Introduce Paradox
- Introduce Stream of Consciousness
- Introduce Critical Analysis
Appendix E

Comparative Chart of IOWA Test of Educational Development

Given at Bonneville High School 1972 and 1973
<table>
<thead>
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<th>Total of Math Eng. &amp; Reading</th>
<th>Reading Comp.</th>
<th>Vocab.</th>
<th>English Usage</th>
<th>Spelling</th>
<th>Math</th>
<th>Social Studies</th>
<th>Science</th>
<th>Use of Sources</th>
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<td>OUR GOAL</td>
<td>This is the highest total score any class has ever had at Bonneville!</td>
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- **LAST YEARS SCORES** (As of 9-13-72)
- **THIS YEARS SCORES** (As of 11-07-73)
Appendix F

Supplementary Data - Bonneville High School
### Appendix F. Supplementary Data - Bonneville High School

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title of Course</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Enrollment</th>
<th>Number of Sections</th>
<th>Required or Elective</th>
<th>Range of Class Size</th>
<th>Number of Periods</th>
<th>Per Week</th>
<th>Total Minutes</th>
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Appendix G

Selective Curriculum Guides
SELECTIVE CURRICULUM GUIDES

A SEQUENTIAL ENGLISH-LANGUAGE-ARTS CURRICULUM IN LINGUISTICS, LOGIC, SEMANTICS, Rhetoric, Composition, and Literary Analysis and Criticism FOR GRADES KINDERGARTEN THROUGH TWELVE. 1968. Wisconsin English Language Arts Curriculum Project, Madison, Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction, Madison.

THEMATIC APPROACH TO LITERATURE, LANGUAGE, AND COMPOSITION, GRADES 10, 11, 12: SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL COURSE GUIDE. Cleveland Heights, Ohio. Available from Leonard Freyman, Director of Education, Cleveland Heights, University Heights, 2155 Miramar Blvd., Cleveland Heights, Ohio. 44118.


MEANING AND FUNCTION OF LANGUAGE, ENGLISH 9-12. Acalanes Union High School District, Lafayette, California. 1965. This guide is still considered one of the best by the NCTE Committee to review Curriculum guides.


Appendix H

NCTE Study Explanation
STUDY EXPLANATION

On the basis of a survey taken by J. N. Hook in January, 1961, of some 6000 or 7000 high schools to identify the characteristics of high schools which produced students cited in the Achievement Awards program of the NCTE, the council decided to try to find out how these English programs in the schools producing winners and runners-up in the annual program differed in certain respects from conventional programs. Assuming that superior English departments are those that constantly produce students who are superior in English, the investigators determined to examine in depth programs of those schools which year after year graduate students receiving Achievement Award Citations. (Squire, 1968)

Not wanting to base a national study solely on the NCTE Achievement Awards program, which seemed unduly restrictive, the project staff attempted to match the schools selected with an equal number of schools whose English programs were highly regarded. To secure these names, advice was sought from professors of English and Education in state universities, including directors of freshmen composition and supervisors of student teachers who visit schools, from the officers of regional and local English organizations affiliated with NCTE, and from consultants in state departments of education.

One hundred sixteen high schools with reputations for achieving outstanding results were selected. Added during the second and third year of study were 42 additional schools: 19 schools engaged in experimental programs, seven Catholic schools, nine independent schools, and seven comprehensive high schools in large cities for a total of 158.
VITA

Wilford M. Hale

Candidate for the Degree of

Specialist in Educational Administration

Seminar Report: A Comparison of Extant Articulated English Programs with Current Articulated English Program at Bonneville High School, Ogden, Utah

Major Field: Secondary Administration

Biographical Information:

Personal Data: Born at Blackfoot, Idaho, November 4, 1929, son of Horace and Delta Ivy Mangum Hale; married Genine Stander July 30, 1952; five children—Kimbal, Spencer, Barton, Loria and Amy.

Education: Attended elementary school in Groveland, Idaho; graduated from Blackfoot High School in 1947; received the Bachelor of Science degree from Utah State University with a major in business administration and a minor in foreign languages, in 1954; recommended for Utah General Secondary Teaching Certificate, June 1957; did graduate work in foreign language at the University of Colorado, 1959; University of Ecuador, 1963; Central Washington State University, 1966; University of Arizona, 1967-68; completed the requirements for Specialist Degree in Educational Administration at Utah State University in 1974.