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ABSTRACT

A modified language arts curriculum has resulted from the contributions of linguists. Language arts teachers need to be thoroughly versed in content and methodology recommendations made by linguists. It is important for pupils to understand patterns of sentences in the English language. Pupils should also attach meaning to the concept of expanding sentences. It is important for learners to attach meaning to concepts such as stress, pitch, and juncture. Pupils, with teacher guidance, need to understand the concept of usage as it relates to standard and nonstandard English in oral and written communication of content. (RS)

Marlow Ediger

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GRAMMAR, USAGE, AND THE LANGUAGE ARTS

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The contributions of linguists in the language arts curriculum have been numerous. Through these contributions, a modified curriculum has resulted. Teachers of language arts need to be thoroughly versed in content and methodology recommendations made by linguists. The language arts has changed much due to input from linguists in the curriculum. Petty, Petty, amd Becking[1] wrote the following pertaining to structural grammar, a linguistic means of studying language:

> Structural grammar is the product of linguists' scientific study of the way we speak. Structural grammar does not prescribe what is "correct" but simply reports the language as it exists, including its growth and changes. In structural grammar the ways words are put together into utterances have been categorized, and from this categorization certain principles and patterns of the language system have emerged. One difficulty with this grammar is the problem of determining how people actually do speak, a matter that is basic to the categorization that produces the patterns. Not everyone speaks the same way; that is, there are social and regional differences in usage and pronunciation. Then there is the problem of completeness. How large a sample of language must be examined to determine whether or not all possible patterns and principles of the system have been discovered? Of course, both these weaknesses are of no greater importance to structural grammar than to any other, except that since the basis of this grammar is its scientific determination, they introduce some limitations to generalizing about the completeness of its patterns as a description of the language system.

Structural Grammar

Selected pupils enter the school setting speaking the English language rather proficiently. They generally have little or no knowledge of sentence patterns and yet effective communication on their developmental level is definitely in evidence. A rich learning

environment must continually be provided so that learners may enrich their speaking and listening vocabularies to develop further skills in the oral use of language.

Pupils in the school setting need to understand and appreciate how the English language operates. As learners progress through sequential school years, they should experience continuous success in achieving relevant objectives in the language arts curriculum.

The teacher on the present achievement level of each pupil must provide stimulating learning activites to motivate learners in understanding structure and patterns in the English language. The easiest sentence pattern for most learners to understand generally is the noun-verb or subject-predicate pattern. The teacher can select a subject-predicate sentence pattern from an experience chart developed by pupils with teacher guidance. The teacher may also ask pupils to give a sentence of two words pertaining to a picture on the bulletin board or objects at a learning center. Contributions made by pupils must be respected. As an individual approach to use in having pupils understand sentence patterns, the teacher could write two words on the chalkboard resulting in a subject-predicate sentence.

Tiedt and Tiedt[2] wrote the following involving pupils studying sentence patterns:

> The sentence merits considerable attention in the study of language and in developing composition skills It is through study of the sentence that students can be made aware of grammar, for there is little justification in teaching grammar as an isloated subject. Grammar is not just a set of terms and rules to be learned; it is a study of the relationships of words and groups of words in the context of a sentence. These ideas should be taught, therefore, as students learn to write, to manipulate words and phrases, to create interesting, varied sentences. Structural linguistics introduced the concept of sentence pattern, of which there are many. In the elementary school, however, we might concentrate on working with five

basic patterns. After introducing one pattern-for example, the simplest of all, Noun-Verb let the students play with the basic patterns. Challenge class members to create a long sentence beginning with only two words, perhaps: Horses run. Compare the results.

The following illustrates the noun-verb or subject-predicate sentence pattern.

1. Lions roar.
2. Birds fly.
3. Boys walk.
4. Girls swim.
5. Babies cry.

In each of these sentences, pupils may provide words which replace the verb or predicate. Learners need to be actively involved in presenting these words. Thus, the teacher might ask, "What else do lions do?" Pupils may respond with the following: "walk," "run," "eat" amd "sleep." Pupils may then be guided to notice that the sentence pattern stays the same; however, other words have been utilized in place of the original verb or predicate.

Jody and Carpenter[3] wrote:

> ...syntax helps a reader decode a linear string of words into a more complex, interrelated structure. The syntactic organization helps to hold the words of a sentence together in working memory in their appropriate groupings while the meaning of the sentence is being processed.
>
> Syntactic analysis uses several classes of cues in determining the interrelation, including word order, affixes, punctuation, word class, and word meanings. Often, any single cue is insufficient to determine a syntactic interpretation, but several cues together provide multiple constraints that aid in determining how various parts of the sentence are syntactically interrelated.
>
> Like other levels of comprehension, syntactic analysis uses the strategy of immediate interpretation. For example, in processing words or phrases that are syntactically ambiguous, readers appear to choose a syntactic interpretation immediately, eliminating the need to store two developing representations simultaneously.

In sequence, the teacher could have pupils think of words to replace the noun or subject of the sentence. In the sentence "Lions

roar," what other animals might take the place of the word "lions"? Pupils may respond with words such as "tigers," giraffes," "dogs," and "wildcats". Pupils must have ample concrete and semi-concrete experiences when participating in ongoing learning activities, such as in viewing models and pictures of animals.

A second sentence pattern, not necessarily in sequence taught to pupils, might pertain to pupils developing understandings of the noun-verb-noun or subject-predicate-direct object pattern.

1. John threw the baseball.
2. Ralph held the bat.
3. Sally met her friends.
4. Nancy bought a doll.

In each of these sentences, pupils may present a word which takes the place of the subject, the predicate, or the direct object. The concepts of "subject," "predicate," and "direct object" may be used by the teacher when referring to specific words in a sentence; however, pupils definitely should not be forced to use these terms when oral or written communication is being utilized. Generally, pupils will attach meaning to and use these concepts in speaking and writing at the appropriate developmental level.

A third sentence pattern to be studied by pupils would pertain to the noun--linking verb--adjective or subject--linking verb--predicate adjective pattern.

1. The house looked beautiful.
2. The vase was decorative.
3. The owl was brown.
4. The candy was delicious.

Each of these sentences has a subject, such as the word "house" in sentence one and "vase" in sentence two. The words "house" and "vase" in sentences one and two are nouns. Why are these words nouns? They

can be changed from singular to plural or plural to singular in context. "House" is singular, while "houses" is plural. "Vase" is singular, while "vases" is plural. The word "looked" in sentence one and the word "was" in sentence two are linking verbs. Why are these words verbs? Verbs are words which can be changed from past tense to present tense and present to past tense, in context. Thus, the word "looked" pertains to a completed action and indicates past tense; however, the word "look" indicates present tense. The word "was" is in past tense; however, the word "is" is in present tense.

Interesting learning experiences can be provided whereby understandings may be developed by pupils in a meaningful way pertaining to the following concepts: "singular" and "plural", "present tense" and past tense.' For example, the teacher might have one boy walk across the front of the room. Other pupils could give a sentence such as the following pertaining to the dramatization: The boy walks. Next, the teacher may call for a second boy to come to the front of the room and join in the same act. The resulting sentence to describe the dramatization reads as follows: The boys walk. In learning experiences such as these, pupils may realize in a concrete, meaningful way the concepts of "singular" and "plural".

Again, the boy (or boys) could walk across the room and viewers give the following sentence: The boy walks (present tense). Once the act has been completed, the resulting sentence might be the following: The boy walked (past tense). Thus, with a variety of concrete learning experiences, pupils may develop understandings pertaining to "present tense" and "past tense." The sentence patterns used in illustrating

concepts pertaining to nouns and verbs involve the subject-predicate or noun-verb pattern.

A fourth sentence pattern for pupils to attach meaning is the noun-linking verb--noun or subject- predicate--predicate nominative pattern.

1. John was a coach.
2. Bill is an umpire.
3. The man is a grocer.
4. Sally is a singer.

In each of these sentences, the predicate nominative equals the subject of the sentence joined by a linking verb. In sentence one, John equals coach. In sentence two, Bill equals umpire while man equals grocer in sentence three. Sally equals singer in sentence four. Notice that a linking verb joins the predicate nominative to the subject of the sentence.

A fifth pattern of sentence involves pupils inductively developing understandings of the subject--predicate-indirect object-direct object or noun-verb-noun pattern. The following would be examples of this sentence pattern:

1. John gave Jerry a gift.
2. George presented Alice a present.
3. Mark wrote Jim a note.

Pupils at Christmas time and at the time birthdays are celebrated frequently use the subject-predicate--indirect object--direct object sentence pattern. For example, at Christams time, a child may say the following: "Daddy gave me a bicycle." Or, when a child's birthday is being celebrated, the involved pupils may say, "Mother gave me a basketball."

Sentence patterns that pupils acquire should meet to following criteria.

1. Responses should come from pupils.

2 Learning by discovery is to be encouraged.
3. pupils need to relate sentence patterns to their own unique background of experiences.
4. Learners must attach meaning to sentence patterns.
5. A variety of methods should be utilized in helping learners attach meaning to diverse patterns of sentences.
6. Learning activities should be interesting to pupils.
7. Provision must be made for individual differences; not all learners in a class attain at the same level of achievement. In which facets of instruction might a teacher provide for individual differences?

Disick[4] wrote:

> Briefly, individualized instruction is an approach to teaching and learning, rate of learning, method (or style) of learning, and content of learning. The extent to which choices are offered determines the degree on individualization of a particular program. If a wide variety of choices exists in all four dimensions, then the program may be called uni- or multidimensional. Within this broad category, the type of individualization carried on may be further specified. Programs featuring selection of course objectives are known as "independent study"; those emphasizing variations in learning rates are known as "continuous progress" or "flexibly paced"; those stressing a variety of learning methods or styles are considered "multimedia"; and those offering mainly a choice of content are labeled "mini-courses." Naturally, two or more dimensions may be combined in one program of instruction. One such combination would be continuous progress-multimedia, for example.

Expanding Sentences

Harp and Brewer[5] emphasized that writing is a process rather than a product. They list the following differences between the two concepts:

When we write for a product	When we write as a process
The writing is teacher centered.	The writing is student centered.
The teacher's role is to assign and grade.	The teacher's role is to model and coach.
The teacher is the primary audience.	We write for many audiences.
The product is graded.	The process is evaluated.
The teacher is the primary responder.	The editing group or editing committee is the primary responder.
We write one linear draft.	We write many ever-

A draft is done in class.	improving drafts. The entire process of thinking, writing, revising, editing, and publishing is done in class.

Sentences are short, choppy, and lack thorough description if the concept of expansion is not utilized in writing situations. The following structural patterns lack expansion.

1. Boys run. (Subject-predicate or noun-verb pattern.)
2. Abe caught the ball. (Subject-predicate-direct object or noun-verb-noun pattern)
3. The orange was delicious. (Subject- linking verb- predicate adjective or noun-linking verb-predicate adjective pattern)
4. Curt is an auctioneer. (Subject- linking verb- predicate nominative or noun-linking verb-noun pattern.)
5. Bill gave John a top. (Subject-predicate-indirect object-direct object or noun-verb-noun-noun pattern.)

Each of the above sentences is complete and recommendable in speaking and writing. However, clarity in writing in many situations indicates the need for expanding of the sentences. In the first sentence above (Boys run), pupils might be asked to tell more about the boys. For example, what kind of boys were these? The following examples are given as possible learner responses:

1. Tall boys run.
2. Small boys run.
3. Tall boys with blue coats run.
4. Small boys in the yard run.

Next, pupils may expand the predicate part of the senten . For example, how did the boys run?

1. Boys run slowly.
2. Boys run very rapidly.
3. Boys run with great speed.

A further question can be asked of pupils pertaining to where boys run. Pupils may give responses such as the following:

1. Boys run in the yard.
2. Boys run here.

3. Boys run around the building.

In the sentences above, pupils might think of their own personal experiences in terms of where they have run. Learners may also think of "when" boys run. Examples include the following:

1. Boys run today.
2. Boys run in the morning.
3. Boys run at noon.

Pupils with teacher guidance have numerous opportunities to expand sentences using modifiers for the subject and/or predicate parts of sentences:

Learners inductively may also expand sentences through the use of appositives. Compare the first sentence with the second sentence.

1. Mr. Jones lives on Line Street.
2. Mr. Jones, our teacher, lives on Line Street.

In the first sentence, the subject-predicate pattern is in evidence. "Mr. Jones" is the subject while "lives" is the predicate. The words "on Line Street" involve the use of a prepositional phrase used as an adverb. These words tell where Mr. Jones lives. In the second sentence, the words, "our teacher," are another name for Mr. Jones. Thus an appositive has been added.

Dependent clauses may also be utilized to expand sentences. Notice the following two sentences:

1. John likes to swim.
2. John sleeps much.

These two sentences may be written as one sentence, thus eliminating short, choppy statements in writing:

Although John sleeps much, he likes to swim.

In this sentence the dependent clause is "Although John sleeps much." "John" is the subject and "sleeps" is the predicate. The

dependent clauses does not stand by itself but makes sense when it is related to the independent clause. The independent clause is "he likes to swim". The word "he" is the subject and "likes" is the predicate. Thus, sentences can be expanded through the use of dependent clauses. The dependent clauses are underlined in the following sentences.

1. If Jim can earn enough money, he will buy a new basketball.
2. The boy who works in the grocery store is our neighbor.
3. The dog that wore a new collar is my pet.

Pupils will realize that dependent clauses add meaning to an independent clause. Pupils should have ample experience in expanding any sentence pattern through the use of dependent clauses.

Pupils also need to have ample experience when readiness is in evidence to expanding sentences through compounding. Notice the following sentences.

1. Sally sings.
2. Sally dances.

These sentences follow the subject-predicate pattern. Monotonous writing is in evidence if all written work consisted of short sentences. The two sentences may be rewritten by compounding the predicate, such as, Sally sings and dances. Consider the following sentences:

1. Jim played baseball.
2. Owen played baseball.
3. Jim and Owen played baseball.

Sentence numbers one and two above pertain to the subject-predicate-direct object pattern. Sentence number three compounds the subjects of sentences one and two.

Hennings[6] wrote the following involving structural linguistics:

> The historical and comparative linguists by relying on ananlytical techniques were paving the way for the structural linguists of the twentieth century. Using systematic analysis, these linguists have been able to explain structures through

which speakers communicate meaning in English. They have described how meaning is communicated through:

1. intonation-pitch, stress, juncture, or pause.
2. sentence patterns-the order of words in a sentence.
3. function words-words like noun markers, verb markers, clause markers, question markers that communicate relationships among the four major word classes, the nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.
4. inflectional endings like the "s" through which we form a plural noun and affixes through which we change words from one class to another. For example, govern, a verb, becomes government, a noun, with the addition of the affix -ment while courage, a noun, becomes courageous, an adjective, with the addition of the affix -ous.

Stress, Pitch, and Juncture

Pupils need to become thoroughly familiar with meanings and applications of the concepts stress, pitch and juncture.

When words are pronounced within a sentence, differences in stress occur. Study the following sentences; "Hand me the toys."

If the word "hand" is stressed more than the other words in the sentence, this means that the toys should be handed rather than thrown or tossed. Stressing the word, "me" more than the other words in the same sentence indicates that the toys should go to the person who is speaking rather than to any other individual. If the word "toys" is stressed more than any other word in the sentence, the emphasis is upon "toys" rather than a book, pamphlet, or other object.

Pupils should practice speaking using the same sentence in meaningful ways and stress a different selected word each time more than any other word in the same sentence. A tape recorder might be utilized in this learning activity. Pupils may also perceive how a specific sentence changes in meaning when a selected word is stressed more than other words in a sentence. Linguists recognize four degrees of stress.

Pupils with teacher guidance should practice using different degrees of stress when communicating ideas orally in speaking experiences.

Pupils should also have ample opportunities to practice using pitch in oral communication of ideas. Linguists recognize four degrees of pitch. Selected words in a sentence may be pitched higher or lower and thus change the meaning of a sentence. In some cases, words will be pitched higher at the end of a sentence when questions are asked. However, not all words are pitched higher at the end of a sentence when questions are asked. Consider the following sentences:

1. Did you do any reading today?
2. Bill has moved?

In the second sentence, the ending word is pitched higher as compared to the ending word of the first sentence. Pupils with the use of a cassette recorder should practice oral communication involving interrogative sentences. Learners may notice the degree of pitch of ending words in a sentence. Pupils may also notice how other words are pitched within these sentences as well as in imperative, declarative, and exclamatory types of sentences. Attempts should be made in identifying different degrees of pitch of words within sentences.

Much misinterpretation of sentence meaning occurs when juncture is not utilized properly in speaking and writing. Consider the following incorrectly punctuated sentence: At the picnic jello salad ham sandwiches and milk were served. It is difficult to determine how many kinds of food were served.

The following might be possibilities upon pauses in oral communication or commas in written communication within each sentence.

1. At the picnic jello, salad, ham, sandwiches, and milk were served.

2. At the picnic jello salad, ham, sandwiches, and milk were served.
3. At the picnic jello salad, ham sandwiches, and milk were served.

Pupils should practice reading and speaking different sentences where proper placement of commas (or pausing adequately between words) is important. The meaning of a sentence can certainly change depending upon emphasized pauses within a specific sentence. As a further example, pertaining to juncture, consider the following sentences:

1. Leon, my cousin, works in a factory.
2. Leon, my cousin works in a factory.

In the first sentence, the speaker is stating a fact about Leon. In the second sentence, the speaker is speaking directly to Leon. Using the same words in a sentence, meanings can change depending upon printed commas or orally emphasized pauses within a sentence.

Ragan and Shepherd[7] wrote the following involving language development:

> Just as the language of a child is developed through experiencing, so is the language arts program. The symbols and patterns of language are abstractions applied to the realities of the objects, events, and values experienced by a culture and an individual. Without these applications, the mastery of the skills and tools of language is somewhat like practicing a violin in a vacuum: even if a skill is mastered in abstract, it is inert and valueless until it is activated in a social experience. For example, the skill of diagramming a sentence (for the elementary child) does not conduct into significant changes in the oral or even written langauge patterns of the child. On the other hand, learning to perceive differences in sounds and patterns does seem to significantly influence the child's oral and written langauge. Listening and voicing imitations are concrete experiences; diagramming is an abstract experience.
>
> Instruction in language arts must therefore begin with the social maturation and experiences which are already encoded by the learner. From this beginning, additional social maturation and experiencing must be provided as the foundation for the new symbols and patterns to be learned.

Generating New Sentences

Pupils should have meaningful experiences pertaining to how a declarative sentence, for example, can be changed to other kinds of sentences such as an interrogative sentence. First of all, pupils on the appropriate developmental level need to understand and attach meaning to a kernal sentence. A kernal sentence is simple and declarative. A declarative sentence states a fact or opinion. The subject of a kernal sentence is the actor, not the receiver of the action. The following are examples of kernal sentences:

1. John plays baseball.
2. Paul works in a store.
3. Josephine eats in the cafeteria.

In each of the above sentences, a fact is stated. Thus, a declarative sentence is in evidence. Also, in each of the sentences, the subject performs the action. That is, in sentence number one, John does the playing. In sentence two, Paul does the working, while in sentence three Josephine does the eating. Each of these sentences may be transformed or changed to a different kind of sentence other than the declarative sentence. In sentence number one which reads, "John plays baseball," the pitch of the ending word may be raised resulting in an interrogative sentence: "John plays baseball?" A few changes may also be made to the original sentence and result in a question: "Does John play baseball?" To change the original declarative sentence to a negative, the following sentence can result: " John does not play baseball." The original declarative statement might also be rewritten to state a request: "John, please play baseball." A command may result when making the following selected changes: "John, play baseball." Imperative sentences result when requests or commands are in evidence.

Very few changes need to be made when changing declarative sentences to the following:

1. Sentences which ask questions.
2. Sentences which issue commands or requests.
3. Sentences which show strong feeling.

In the declarative sentence reading, "John plays baseball," the statement can be transformed to read, "John plays baseball!" The latter sentence reveals strong feeling and states an exclamatory sentence. The same words were used for the declarative and exclamatory sentences. The only difference was in the end punctuation marks. Declarative sentences end with periods while exclamatory sentences with exclamation marks.

Usage and Communication of Ideas

The words a speaker uses when communicating ideas orally or in writing are a matter of choice. Middle class individuals in society, in most cases, demand that standard English be spoken. However, effective communication also takes place with the use of nonstandard English. Contrast the following pairs of sentences.

1. They have completed their work.
   They done their work.
2. I haven't any money.
   I ain't got no money.
3. I ran in a race.
   I ranned in a race.
4. He is going to town.
   He goin to town.

No doubt, effective communication can take place when using either standard or nonstandard English. In selected environments, nonstandard English is accepted as good and sounds right to its users. In other environments, standard English only, is acceptable. An important item to remember is that the teacher accept all pupils as having much worth if standard or nonstandard English is spoken. Each person is important

in a democracy. Respect for others is the heart of democratic thinking. Each pupil must be guided in achieving optimum development.

Teachers in the past felt that pupils using nonstandard English should be corrected on the scene so that standard English alone might be an important end result. Linguists have stated the following for not using this approach:

1. The pupil may come to feel that his/her home environment is inferior since nonstandard English is unacceptable in school.
2. Pupils cannot make rapid changes when switching from nonstandard to standard English in the school and class setting.
3. Negative attitudes are developed toward speaking and writing when teachers critize the speaking efforts of those who speak nonstandard English.
4. Basically, it does not help most pupils in making desired forced changes to speaking standard English.

Beach and Marshall[18] wrote the following on usage in the language arts:

> At the most general level, of course, language, in both its oral and written forms, is the most powerful tool we have for representing our experience. In the words of James Britton, "Events take place and are gone: it is the representation that lasts and accumulates and undergoes successive modifications." (18) As a mode of representation, language enables us to name our experiences, to organize and share them, and to return to them for further reflection. We thus come to "know" events through the filter of language; it is the map a culture provides for helping individuals determine where they are, where they've been, and where they might be going. But it is a way that we collaborate in making, for as users of the language we are constantly adding to and elaborating upon the accumulated experience that has been represented in words.
>
> To recognize the representative powers of language is to recognize at once the importance of language to children's developing understanding of their world. Language is a tool for thought, and, as Bruner has suggested, "Once the child has succeeded in internalizing language as a cognitive instrument, it becomes possible for him to represent and systematically transform the regularities of experience with far greater flexibility and power than before..." (4). When children learn language they learn a meaning system--a web of verbal symbols and rules of signification that knit individuals into communities with many shared values and assumptions. It is in becoming proficient users of that system that children become fully enfranchised members of the communities that surround

them.

Pupils who speak nonstandard English can learn to speak standard English in the following ways:

1. by listening to the teacher who may serve as a model in speaking standard English.
2. by reading library books which utilize standard English in their content.
3. by listening to pupils speak where standard English is used.
4. by listening to tapes and records pertaining to content in relevant units of study where meaningful standard English is used by the speaker.
5. by viewing and listening to content in slides, films, and filmstrips where standard English is used.
6. by listening to presentations by resource personnel who utilize standard English in communicating ideas.

Pupils can learn to speak standard English in school and yet respect, as well as use, nonstandard English in the home environment. Thus, usage in speaking and writing pertains to choice of words and word order that are made in communicating ideas.

Anderson and Lapp[9] wrote about the following forms that teachers might provide needed assistance to learners involving standard English:

1. A transition from all "baby talk" and "cute" expressions.
2. The acceptable uses in speech and writing of I, me, him, her, she, they, and them. (Accepted: It's me.")
3. The appropriate uses of is, are, was, were with respect to number and tense.
4. Standard past tenses of common irregular verbs, such as saw, gave, took, brought, stuck.
5. Elimination of the double negative: "We don't have no apples."
6. Elimination of analogical forms: ain't, hisn, hern, ourn, hisself, theirselves, and so on.
7. Appropriate use of possessive pronouns; my, mine, his, hers, theirs, ours.
8. Mastery of the distinction between its (possessive pronoun) and it's (it is, the contraction). (This applies only to written English).
9. Elimination of this here and that there.
10. Approved use of personal pronouns in compund constructions; as subject (Mary and I), as object (Mary and me), as object of preposition (to Mary and me).
11. Attention to number agreement with the phrases there is, there are, there was, there were.
12. Elimination of he don't, she don't, it don't.
13. Elimination of learn for teach, leave for let.

14. Avoidance of pleonastic subjects: my brother he; my mother she; that fellow he.
15. Sensing the distinction between good as adjective and well as an adverb (for example, "He spoke well").

In Summary

It is important for pupils to ultimatley understand patterns of sentences in the English language. These sentence patterns include subject-predicate; subject--predicate-direct object; subject-linking verb-predicate adjective; subject-linking verb-predicate nominative; and subject-predicate-indirect object-direct object pattern. Pupils should also attach meaning to the concept of expanding sentences. Sentences may be expanded through the use of modifiers, appositives, dependent clauses, and compounding. It is important for learners to attach meaning to concepts such as stress, pitch, and juncture. Meanings of sentences change when utilizing these concepts.

Learners should be able to change sentences in functional writing and speaking situations from kernal sentences to those involving the asking of questions, the stating of negatives, and the issuing of commands or requests. Pupils with teacher guidance need to understand the concept of usage as it relates to standard and nonstandard English in oral and written communication of content. Thompkins and Hoskisson10 wrote:

> Grammar is probably the most controversial area of language arts. Suhor (1987) calls it one of the "orthodoxies" that divides language arts educators. Teachers, parents, and the community disagree about the content of grammar instruction, how to teach it, and when to begin teaching it. Some people believe that formal instruction in grammar is unnecessary--if not harmful--during the elementary grades; others believe that grammar instruction should be the central emphasis of language arts instruction. Before getting into the controversy, let's clarify terms. Grammar is the description of the structure of a language. It involves principles of word and sentence

formation. In contrast, usage is "correctness," or using the appropriate word in a sentence--the socially preferred way of using language within dialect. My friend, she; the man brung; or hisself are examples of standard English usage errors that elementary students sometimes make. Faser and Hodson (1978) explain the distinction between grammar and usage this way: "Grammar is the rationale of a language; usage is its etiquette" (p.52).

Footnotes

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