AN ANALYSIS OF PROOFREADING METHODS USED

BY SOPHOMORE LANGUAGE ARTS STUDENTS

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A SEMINAR PAPER

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by

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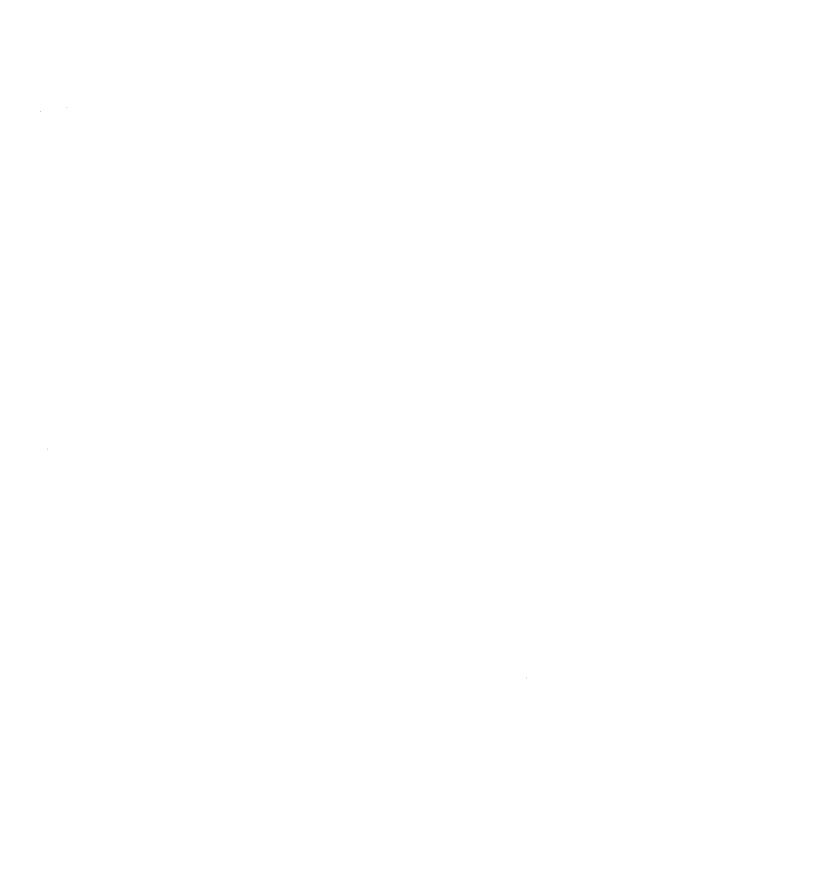Date   Dean, College of Education

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ABSTRACT

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Methods Used by Sophomore Language Arts Students.
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The problem in this study involved a comparison of papers
written by sophomore students in a Language Arts class, using
the ANØVA statistical analysis. Papers were compared after
proofreading--one group proofread their own papers and another
had a classmate proofread for them. The purpose of the study
was to determine whether one method of proofreading would pro-
duce a paper of fewer errors than the other method.

The method in which students had a classmate proofread
for them was proven to be the most effective. All groups, in-
cluding the control group were similar in number of errors per
paper: 1) the control group, 8.8; 2) the self-proofreading
group, 7.7; 3) the outside proofreading group, 8.4. After
treatment, the self-proofreading group had 4.8 errors per paper,
and the outside proofreading group had 2.1 errors per paper,
a significant difference.

Although self-proofreading did decrease the number of
errors by 2.9 per paper, the difference in the outside proof-
reading group produced a more significant decrease of 6.3
errors per paper.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

Background

In recent years, educators across the nation have become increasingly critical about students' ability to write. More specifically, Language Arts teachers have been hearing that the problem is their own because they don't teach writing. No doubt, some of the blame is correctly placed. However, there is another side to the writing crisis that most educators agree does exist. Language Arts teachers teach writing, and for the most part, students write acceptable papers in their Language Arts classes; at least after some instruction. What happens then, when students write for other classes? As long as good writing is not required by teachers of all subject areas, the students will not bother to take the extra time required to proofread, revise, and rewrite their papers. Neither will they take the time and initiative to have someone else proof-read for them. When students know that good writing or poor writing will have no effect on their grade, they simply won't write well. Therefore, students continue to turn in poorly written papers.

Statement of the Problem

The problem is that students do not take the time neces-sary to write well on papers when there is no motivation to do

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so. Further, many students do not know how to proofread. They may have never been taught and then required to carefully and critically reread their work with the purpose in mind of correcting and improving it. It is important for teachers to teach proofreading and then require students to proofread and revise their work in all of their classes, not just Language Arts. One method of proofreading is to have students proofread for each other. Writers often overlook their own errors. Once proofreading is learned, class time should be allowed for students to proofread and revise. They most likely will not do it on their own.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to see which of the following methods of writing produced the fewest errors by sophomore students: 1) no proofreading at all, 2) proofreading one's own work followed by revision, correction, and rewriting, 3) proofreading by someone else who is unfamiliar with the paper and thus more objective, followed by rewriting.

One group wrote the paper and handed it in; another group wrote the paper, proofread their own work, revised and rewrote; and a third group wrote the paper, had a classmate proofread the paper, then revised and rewrote.

Hypothesis

The researcher hypothesized that an analysis of data would show that method three, having a classmate proofread, would produce a paper with fewer errors. The reasons for this were that: a) when a student proofreads his own work, he knows what

he meant to say, and in proofreading, he often reads what he
meant rather than what he actually wrote, b) he is tired of the
paper and proofreads carelessly and rapidly, often resulting
in missed errors of all kinds, and c) the other proofreader
can be more objective, resulting in a better job. This person
is unfamiliar with the work and thus has to rely only on what
was written, not what was intended.

Assumptions

It was decided that this study would be based on writing
done by sophomores on a World History essay exam. The topic
was identical for all students involved, and the length of the
papers was similar. It was also felt that by having the ori-
ginal writing done in a class not taught by this researcher, a
better indication of the students' writing would result.

The proofreading and rewriting of groups two and three
took place in this researcher's Language Arts classes.

The results of this study would be significant only for
sophomore students of Webb High School in Reedsburg, Wisconsin,
as intact groups were used.

Limitations and Delimitations

Three types of papers (proofreading) were investigated.
The research design used was the Campbell and Stanley Design
Number Ten, the Non-equivalent Control Group Design.

This study was done using three intact Language Arts 110
classes of 20-25 students each. Since the original writing
was done in World History classes, and the proofreading and
rewriting in Language Arts classes, this study was influenced

by these conditions. Students were unaware at the time of the writing that they would be participating in this study. They were simply told in their Language Arts classes what was desired from them. The study was also influenced by the rural nature of the Reedsburg School District.

There was no problem of additions or deletions of students participating, since the time involved was just three days. The topic of the writing was: "You have just become the leader of a typical Latin American country. How would you go about solving the problems of your country?" The answers were to be of the students' own thinking; therefore, there were no positively right or wrong answers. Thus, test anxiety was minimal in regard to affecting results.

Any conclusions reached must be only generalizations relative to these conditions.

Definition of Terms

> Language Arts 110--a required course at Webb High
>> School, Reedsburg, Wisconsin for sophomore students. In addition to the writing and proofreading taught in the course, it is also a course of various genres of both English and American Literature and grammar.

> Proofreading--the method of rereading written work
>> for the purposes of: a) finding and correcting errors in spelling, punctuation, capitalization, usage, complete sentences and organization, b) revising and improving, and c) rewriting.

<u>Proofreading Checklist</u>--a checklist used by students to check off each area as it is covered in the proofreading process. It serves the purposes of: a) giving the students a list of specific items for which they should be proofreading, and b) making students responsible for finding errors and then correcting them. The checklist holds the students accountable for checking their work and that of others carefully and conscientiously.

Chapter II

REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

A review of the research has focused on four major areas:
1) Is there a writing crisis in the United States?, 2) What
is being done about it?, 3) What can be done at the secondary
level?, and 4) Who is responsible for teaching good writing?

Is There a Writing Crisis in the United States?

"The art of writing is especially important in a demo-
cracy, for democracies rely on persuasion rather than on vio-
lence to reach tentative communications." (Zagano, 1977).

Why, then, in a society where the art of writing is so
important, do we constantly hear about our students' inability
to write? Why do we even have a writing crisis? Zagano (1977)
suggests six possible answers to these questions:

1. It is a fault of society. Our society has become
    rather simplistic in its communication. Adver-
    tising, which our students see frequently is
    oversimplified. We are not required to think,
    thus it is becoming unnecessary to put our
    thoughts on paper clearly.

2. Television and other technologies are ruining
    good writing. People watch television and movies
    at the expense of reading and thus writing.

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Instead of writing letters, we use the telephone. In short, everything is done for us.

3. Parents are refusing to be adults. Failure to read bedtime stories to children, failure to have children write thank you notes and letters to relatives and friends, failure to correct poor speech, and failure to stress the importance of good writing and reading skills all contribute to the crisis. If children are taught the value of reading well, and then do a great deal of reading, they will very likely be good writers. These are the responsibilities of parents to their children from a young age onward. It is very difficult for the schools to teach these skills when the child's background is lacking.

4. Poor schools and teachers can contribute. Less writing is being taught. A need for basics of grammar is evident.

5. The colleges contribute to the problem. They are teaching literature at the expense of writing without making the connection between the two. Many professors in fields other than Language Arts do not care about the quality of their students' writing as long as it is factually correct.

6. Tests have become less challenging in the area of writing. Exams are designed for computer

scoring. Another factor is that large class
loads make it difficult to give essay exams.
Few tests challenge the student to think and
create his answers. More often, all he need do
is remember the information and repeat it on an
objective exam.

All of these factors can certainly be seen as contributors
to the writing crisis in America today. However, these answers
deal with the student. What about the teachers who go into the
field with little knowledge of how to teach writing? Anyone
can have students write and hand back papers full of mechanical
corrections with little thought to creativity. Mechanics are
important, and teachers of writing are prepared for this.
Teachers are often unprepared, however, for teaching logic,
organization or creativity in student writing. These concepts
make good writing, and teachers must be prepared to handle
them. Teachers who are prepared, are often stymied by heavy
class loads that make reading numerous themes every week almost
impossible. Just like every other skill, writing must be prac-
ticed in order to become effective.

Madden (1978) states that the National Assessment of Edu-
cational Progress revealed that many students are leaving
school without learning to communicate adequately by writing.

As early as 1968, Daniel N. Fader noted that students
entering college were not prepared for the writing they would
face in their college classes. The result is the appearance
on campuses across the nation of remedial writing classes.

These classes are being implemented with success. The major
reason these classes are successful is that the students learn
to write by practicing writing.

What Is Being Done

As stated previously, remedial classes are being put into
curriculums on campuses across the nation. The need for these
courses is often based on test results of the incoming freshmen.

At Michigan State University, in the fall of 1975, eleven
percent of the 7,700 freshmen were required to take remedial
English. Cornell, Stanford and Wisconsin have established
special writing improvement centers which students can volun-
tarily attend. At Yale, "Bonehead English" has been reinstated
for the first time since the late 1950's. (Time, N. 8, 1976).

In London, (Applebee, 1977) the London Projects deal with
an across the curriculum approach to teaching writing. This
project deals with the creation of an understanding of writing
in learning and instruction throughout the school curriculum.
The project cited the need to change the emphasis of writing
in all subject areas from informational to understanding.
Writing reports does not improve writing. It simply teaches
students to paraphrase what they have read. However, writing
from knowledge gained for the purpose of probing and under-
standing leads to more creative writing. The key here is that
this new emphasis is important in all classes, not just writ-
ing classes.

In San Francisco, (Neill, 1977) the Bay Area Writing
Project (BAWP) has dealt with improvement of writing. Neill

states that almost half the incoming 1975-76 freshmen were re-
quired to take a remedial language course. On an essay exam
that emphasized writing, these freshmen were unable to achieve
the minimum required score. These freshmen were drawn from
the top twelve percent of California's high school seniors.
The remedial classes require students to do a large amount of
writing. The emphasis here is obviously the practice of writ-
ing.

The Bay Area Writing Project set up summer institutes for
teachers. Its purpose is to get teachers to write themselves.
Experiencing writing, these teachers are better prepared to
teach it to their students. Teachers not only write at the
institutes, but, hopefully, continue to do so when back in the
classroom. When students see that their teachers are working
on the same paper they are, they may well be more motivated to
get involved in their writing.

The Bay Area Writing Project, in its third year reported
that fewer new college freshmen are having to take the remedial
courses. The statistics show that in 1977-78, the percentage
of freshmen enrolled in remedial courses was down to thirty-
four percent, a sixteen percent decrease over two years (Neill,
1977).

These are typical examples of what is being done at the
university level to improve writing skills in students. There
is no doubt that these courses of action at the higher level
of education are successful. However, there is still much that
must be done.

What Can Be Done at the Secondary Level

Henry David Thoreau recognized many years ago that one of the most important aspects of writing was practice. Just like everything else, he stated that a good writer must work devotedly on writing for long periods of time. He further recognized that a beginning writer must learn to criticize his own work. (Hughes, May, 1978).

There are numerous methods of teaching writing that will help students become better writers. However, all methods are similar in various aspects. One area that frequently appears in the literature is proofreading and revision.

Chantland (1978) suggests that proofreading can be taught and that it will result in better writing. She also states:

> There is, of course, no guarantee that students will proofread their papers in all of their subjects just because they do it in their English class, but if math, science, social studies, and business teachers used specific proofreading for the particular needs of their classes, students would start realizing that it works in other subjects as well. (p. 57).

One method of helping students proofread is providing a proofreading checklist (see Appendix D) developed for that particular class. The checklist will give the student a guide to follow. It tells him what to look for. In addition, a checklist will put the responsibility of revision and correction where it belongs, on the student.

One way to assure that proofreading takes place, is to allow class time for students to proofread papers for each other before they hand them in; give them a checklist and have it signed by all who proofread the paper; have the students

proofread the papers several times, checking for one kind of mistake at a time. For example, read once for capitalization, once for punctuation, and once for each of the other items on the checklist. Then, allow class time for correction of errors. The purpose is to get the paper in the best shape before it is submitted.

The concept of having someone else proofread is an important one. When a student writes a paper, he knows what he meant to say, but frequently his thoughts get ahead of his pen and mistakes result. What happens then is that when one proofreads his own paper, he is tired of it and therefore reads it quickly thinking he wrote what he meant, but in reality not doing so. The other proofreader has not seen the paper. He doesn't know what was meant, so he must rely upon what he reads. Therefore, he will be able to find errors the writer overlooked.

Murray (1978) states that revision should be an opportunity for improvement rather than punishment for making errors the first time. Rarely does a writer, whether he be a beginner or a professional, get it right the first time.

If the student realizes that proofreading and revision time is going to be given to him regardless of any deadlines, he will learn to treat it as an opportunity to improve and may even learn to appreciate what is being done for him. Furthermore, when students get in the habit of revision they will often think of new ideas that will improve their papers. Who knows how much of students' creativity has been stymied by writing a paper once to meet a deadline, then getting back a

paper with less than favorable results? This doesn't improve writing, it hinders creativity and discourages the writing students.

Murray (1978) suggests two types of revision: internal-- trying to find out what to say; and external--know what you have to say and revise or edit so the paper can be understood by another reader.

Weigel (1971) suggests that once an original idea is put on paper, or the first draft of a paper is completed, the writer should then be able to later return to the paper and be creative in improving it. The hard part, coming up with an idea and putting it on paper for the first time is over. Now he can only improve it. The writer must feel that he can re- vise and change any part of the original paper. To be locked in on the original idea is absurd. It is a good idea though to put the original copy aside for a period of time before proofreading for revision and corrections. Returning later with a fresh mind can lead to creativity.

There are other areas of teaching writing that must be addressed. One starting point, although obvious, is very im- portant; a knowledge of basic grammar. The process of writing should be arranged as a set of skills in graduated order from simple tasks to the more complex ones. Roeche and Snow (1978) suggest beginning with phrases, then moving on to sentences, paragraphs, and themes. This is assuming that the student al- ready has knowledge of the parts of speech and the parts of a sentence.

Because practice is important in writing, students should be given ample opportunities to write. This is not only true of the English class, but in all classes where writing is a part of the work. With practice, writing becomes more natural to the student.

When students do write they sometimes feel that if they use long, multi-syllable words, they will sound more intelligent. Though there is nothing wrong with using a variety of words, which will also increase their vocabulary, it is important that students be taught to convey their thoughts as simply and clearly as possible. Students often are prone to use long, run-on sentences, thinking they will impress the reader. In reality, the opposite more often occurs.

Another aspect to teaching students to write well is teacher cooperation. This is very effective in schools where class sizes are large. For example, history and English teachers can get together on one writing assignment. It might be a research paper on an historical topic or an assignment having to do with a piece of literature read in English class that relates to a period being studied in history class. In either case, the history teacher would grade the paper for content, and the English teacher would grade it for writing. This allows the student to decrease his workload, which could result in better work overall. This type of situation can also be worked out between other classes.

Lawrence Behrens (1978) and Peter Clark Madden (1978) in different articles suggested writing programs that will improve

writing. Some of the items listed in both programs were identical, so to avoid repetition the following is a combination of these two programs.

1. Assign some writing every day. This may seem a bit harsh, but it could be revised to fit each situation.

2. Never try to read all the papers. Have the students read each others work. Correct one paper per week from each student--maybe the one he feels was his best.

3. Set minimum targets or goals on quantity. Begin with a paper of fifty words and gradually increase.

4. Vary the writing topics. This helps both the writer and the teacher. "Paper starters" help. For example, "What if . . . .", or "I'm feeling a little guilty", or "Tell of a time when you were . . . ." These help get the students thinking and often they can't get it down fast enough.

5. Reinforce quantity first, then build up to quality through the introduction of proofreading and revision.

6. Require at least a first and final draft of the paper. Writing it once is not enough.

7. Once the student is used to the idea of writing, revising and improving, don't accept any unsatisfactory paper. Don't let the student get by with errors, sloppy penmanship or not proofreading.

Any or all of these methods can be used effectively. There are many things that can be done to teach and improve writing. There are, however, two other concepts that are very important. One, do not, under any circumstances use writing as a punishment for misbehavior. Students have for years had to write such things as, "I will not . . . ." many times so that they would not continue to misbehave. The result of such methods is more often than not an understandable dislike for writing. Instead of being taught that writing is an important and necessary means of communication, students are taught that it is a punishment. In many cases it is no wonder that students detest writing.

The other important concept to mention here is the concept of faculty consistency. First, teachers of writing must be consistent in their methods of teaching and grading of writing. But, more importantly, it is necessary that all faculty members in a school take on the responsibility of developing good writing in their students.

Who Is Responsible for Teaching Good Writing

Every teacher, no matter what the subject area, should be responsible for teaching students good writing. The English teacher attempts to teach the writing process. Students in English class learn to write, and can usually at the end of any writing unit write for that class. He knows that in English class he must write correctly because his grade depends on it. Therefore, he does it fairly well. Why, then do teachers of other subjects constantly complain of students' poor writing

in their classes? One answer is that they allow their students
to get away with poor writing. If there is no importance
placed on writing, why bother? If teachers allow students to
write poorly, use poor penmanship and improper manuscript form,
that is exactly what they will do. Writing needs to be rein-
forced in all of the student's classes. If not, the only as-
pect of the paper with which the student is concerned is content.

This researcher allows the students only five mechanical
errors on a theme. More than five results in a failing grade
for the writing portion of the paper. (Content, form and crea-
tivity make up a second grade.) Students often complain when
they are informed of this; however, when they realize the con-
sequences, they do in fact proofread more carefully so that
the end result is usually a paper of fewer than five errors.
There is one qualification to this. Time is given in class
for proofreading and revision, and a checklist is required.
Students must also write at least two drafts of the paper.

In Reedsburg last year, World History teachers required
a research paper from their top students. The students were
told that their writing would make up a major portion of their
grade. When the papers were returned with very poor results
on the writing portion of the paper, students and their parents
became irate. Students and parents have learned that only in
English class is the student required to write well. Thus,
when the history teachers applied this requirement to their
students, neither the students nor their parents were prepared
for it. This feeling among students and parents must be re-
versed. Writing is important in all classes.

Fader (1976) states:

> The average public school student has always
> identified writing as a part of English class and
> therefore easily avoidable because the English
> class was the only one in which writing played any
> noticeable role. Changing this attitude is cru-
> cial to increasing the students' ability to write.

.In the London Projects previously mentioned, it was sug-
gested that teachers of all content areas get together and pool
their knowledge about writing. People involved in the London
Projects feel it is a must that teachers of all subjects be
concerned about students' writing.

It is therefore, most important that all faculty members
take part in reinforcing good writing. The Language Arts
teachers cannot do it alone. Progress made by the Language
Arts teacher must be reinforced by the rest of the faculty or
be lost.

Chapter III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Instrument

The instrument used for this study was a World History essay exam, consisting of one question. The question was: "You have just become the leader of a typical Latin American country. How would you go about solving the problems of your country?"

The researcher had the identical students who were in the history classes, though not in the same combinations. It was felt that this method would provide a more accurate picture of the students' typical writing. For example, since this was done late in the school year when students knew what was expected of them in their Language Arts classes, they would have taken extra care in writing the paper in that class. In their history classes this was not a factor. Test anxiety was minimal, as the question was an open-ended one. The average length of the papers was about 150 words. When the test was completed, the history teachers corrected the papers for content and then turned them over to the researcher. The subjects had no knowledge that their papers would be used for this study until after they experienced the treatment.

The researcher read the papers, keeping a count of the number of errors per paper. The errors were not circled on

the paper. The types of errors noted appear on the proofreading checklist in Appendix D.

Subjects

Subjects for this study were sophomore World History and Language Arts students at Webb High School in Reedsburg, Wisconsin. The makeup of the history and Language Arts classes was not identical in terms of the same students in the same classes. The classes involved were heterogeneous in regard to the level of ability.

The control and treatment groups, however, were intact groups. This was the most logical way for the researcher to carry out the treatment. This researcher had five classes of Language Arts 110 from which to choose. The classes chosen for this study were drawn from a hat. The first class drawn became the control group, the second became the self-proofreading group, and the third became the outside-proofreading group. Therefore, the treatment each group received was randomly assigned.

Experimental Design

The research design used for this study was the Campbell and Stanley Design Number 10, Non-equivalent Control Group Design. This design was best suited for use with intact groups.

Treatment

The control group wrote the paper and handed it in. The paper was graded and the number of errors per paper was recorded. The second and third groups wrote the paper and handed

it in. The researcher read the papers keeping a count of the number of errors per paper (see Appendixes A, B and C). Errors were not circled on the papers. Treatment was then given to the experimental groups. Group two proofread their own papers, corrected errors, rewrote and handed them in. Group three proofread for each other, rewrote their own papers and handed them in. The researcher read the papers again. The number of errors per paper was recorded (see Appendixes A, B and C).

Chapter IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

To determine if having students proofread for each other produces papers of fewer errors, scores for each of the three groups were analyzed by use of the computer at the University of Wisconsin--La Crosse. Subject scores were based on the number of writing errors per paper. Scores for group two were the scores recorded after the students proofread their own papers and then rewrote them. Scores for group three were the scores recorded after the students proofread for each other and then rewrote their own papers. The groups were similar in size, and the numbers did not change throughout the course of study. There was a total of 65 papers (see Table I) with a total of 332 errors. The mean number of errors was 5.10769. (Mean scores for each group are shown in Appendixes A, B and C.)

The ANØVA, one way analysis of variance, test was used. The results presented in Table II reveal an F ratio of 13.5563, indicating there was less than a 5 per cent probability that the difference in the scores of the three groups could have occurred by chance. Thus, the null hypothesis, that there would be no difference in the number of errors on student papers among the three groups, was rejected. The research hypotheses, that having students proofread for each other produces papers of fewer errors, was accepted.

TABLE I

Number of Subjects in Each
Group and Mean Number of Errors

Group	Number of Students	Mean Number of Errors
No proofreading	20	8.8
Self-proofreading	23	4.8
Other proofreaders	22	2.1

TABLE II

Summary of ANØVA Results

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F Ratio
Treatments	475.32	2	237.657	13.5563*
Error	1086.93	62	17.5311	
Total	1562.25	64		

*Significant at the .05 level

Chapter V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, and RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This study was done in response to what is called "the writing crisis in America." Its purpose was to determine whether or not there was a difference in results of compositions based on different proofreading methods: 1) no proofreading, 2) self-proofreading, and 3) having a classmate proofread.

The research hypothesis was that having students proofread for each other would produce papers of fewer errors.

Sophomore Language Arts students at Webb High School, Reedsburg, Wisconsin were the subjects for the study. The groups were intact ones.

The original writing was done by the students in their World History classes. The instrument used was a history essay exam. The proofreading and rewriting were done in the researcher's Language Arts classes. The analysis of data indicates papers proofread by someone other than the writer had fewer errors than those papers that were not proofread or papers proofread by their writer.

Conclusions

This study indicates that for sophomore students in Reedsburg, proofreading for each other produces papers with

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fewer errors than no proofreading or self-proofreading. This researcher feels that this would prove to be the case for other students as well. When the reader has to rely only on what is written and not on what was intended, a better job of proofreading will result. The research hypothesis, that having students proofread for each other produces papers with fewer errors is correct.

Based on the results of this study, this researcher concludes that proofreading all work is important in order to get students to be better writers. The study shows that the best way to accomplish this is to have students proofread for each other.

Recommendations

The researcher recommends the following be carried out in all classes:

1. Allow class time for proofreading.

2. Provide a proofreading checklist adopted to individual class needs. (see Appendix D.)

3. Have students proofread for each other and allow them to discuss the papers. Have several classmates proofread each paper.

4. Allow class time for each student to go over his own paper and make corrections before handing it in.

If all teachers accept this responsibility, more students will be leaving school with an increased ability to not only write correctly, but the ability to revise and improve their writing. It must be a consistent effort on the part of educators, but it really isn't a difficult one, requiring only a small amount of class time.

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    Education Digest, 43:56-59 (October, 1977).

APPENDIX A

No Proofreading Group

Student Number	Number of Errors Per Student
1	17
2	9
3	4
4	1
5	4
6	11
7	6
8	5
9	18
10	3
11	12
12	7
13	6
14	9
15	5
16	11
17	12
18	4
19	3
20	29

total 176

```
           8.8
   20 ) 176.0
       160
       160
       160
         0
```

8.8 mean errors
    per student

APPENDIX B

Self-Proofreading Group

Student Number	Number of Errors Per Student Before Proofreading	Number of Errors Per Student After Proofreading
1	9	5
2	4	1
3	7	2
4	4	2
5	3	2
6	8	6
7	10	5
8	8	6
9	4	8
10	8	4
11	8	5
12	11	5
13	7	8
14	10	12
15	1	1
16	10	7
17	15	6
18	2	1
19	15	4
20	10	6
21	12	8
22	6	1
23	6	5
	total 178	total 110

$$\begin{array}{r} 7.7 \\ 23 \overline{)\,178.0} \\ \underline{161} \\ 170 \\ \underline{161} \\ 9 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 4.8 \\ 23 \overline{)\,110.0} \\ \underline{92} \\ 180 \\ \underline{184} \\ -4 \end{array}$$

7.7 mean errors per student

4.8 mean errors per student

A decrease of 2.9 mean errors per student.

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APPENDIX C

Outside-Proofreading Group

Student Number	Number of Errors Per Student Before Proofreading	Number of Errors Per Student After Proofreading
1	6	0
2	1	0
3	8	2
4	2	3
5	10	2
6	4	1
7	8	4
8	6	4
9	20	8
10	6	0
11	3	0
12	6	2
13	11	0
14	16	2
15	19	4
16	6	2
17	7	2
18	14	2
19	5	1
20	9	1
21	7	2
22	10	4
total	184	46

$$
\begin{array}{r}
8.4 \\
22 \overline{\smash{)}184.0} \\
176 \\
\hline
80 \\
88 \\
\hline
-8
\end{array}
\qquad
\begin{array}{r}
2.1 \\
22 \overline{\smash{)}46.0} \\
44 \\
\hline
20 \\
22 \\
\hline
-2
\end{array}
$$

8.4 mean errors   2.1 mean errors
  per student   per student

A decrease of 6.3 mean errors per student.

APPENDIX D

Sample Proofreading Checklist

PROOFREADING CHECKLIST   NAME _____

Proofread your paper once for each of the items listed below. When you have completed reading for each item, check it off. Then have someone in the class proofread your paper for the same items and check them off in the second column. This is to be handed in with your final paper.

You		Another Proofreader
_____	SPELLING	_____
_____	PUNCTUATION	_____
_____	CAPITALIZATION	_____
_____	COMPLETE SENTENCES (each sentence must have a subject and a verb and make sense.)	_____
_____	CONCISENESS (did you say what you meant?)	_____
_____	SUBJECT--VERB, PRONOUN-- ANTECEDENT AGREEMENT	_____
_____	ORGANIZATION	_____
_____	PROPER MANUSCRIPT FORM	_____

Proofreader's Signature

_____

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