Turning Back the Clock: The Trivium’s Rhetorical Advantages in Secondary Education

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TURNING BACK THE CLOCK: THE TRIVIUM'S RHETORICAL ADVANTAGES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

By

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ABSTRACT

Classical education—a language-based education that is taught through the trivium (grammar, logic, and rhetoric)—has been a sound educational structure for thousands of years and continues to be in many private and a select few public schools. Students, educators, and parents find themselves referring back to classical education for answers because of policymakers’ inability to find a remedy to the United States’ educational issues such as illiteracy. Classical education could provide the antidote as it employs a natural scaffolding approach that builds upon students’ application of content. Additionally, classical education has created many influential leaders in fields ranging from philosophy to literature to science, thus illustrating its impact across disciplines. This educational philosophy, though, focuses on the development of language skills first, which leads students to further studies in the quadrivium.

To illustrate the positive effects of a classical education, a study was conducted in a rural, public high school in Northwest Ohio on a group of thirty-four sophomore Advanced English students. The goal of this study, therefore, was to solidify that a classical education through the trivium can be implemented and successful in a rural, public high school. All state standards (i.e. Ohio’s New Learning Standards) were used to ensure all students were meeting the requirements set forth by the state of Ohio. This study dedicated twelve consecutive weeks to each stage of the trivium with small weekly assignments and a major project for each stage. Students participated in pre and post trivium surveys to determine the students’ views of classical education. Also, students completed a pretest and posttest covering all stages of the trivium to show their growth. An analysis of the results was completed for the grammar and logic stages to show why a classical education approach is best for students’ skill development.

Keywords: Classical Education, Trivium, Grammar, Logic, Rhetoric
DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my parents and grandmother, who have encouraged me to always work hard in life and pursue my passion of learning with fervor.
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I would like to thank my Advanced English students for being enthusiastic about this study and encouraging me to finish it. Without these students, this thesis would not have been possible. Although there may have been many moans and groans, I am thankful for all of their hard work and dedication to improving as students.

I would like to thank my school district for allowing me to complete this study to improve the educational experiences of students. I would also like to thank my school district for allowing me to teach both high school English and College Writing II as a teaching assistant. This encouragement has given me keen insight on the skills needed for students to succeed in college and what I can do as a high school English teacher to prepare my students for future success.

Last, but certainly not least, I would like to thank all of my professors at The University of Findlay for encouraging me to research and combine my two passions: education and rhetoric. I would especially like to thank my thesis committee—Dr. Christine Denecker, Dr. Christine Tulley, and Dr. Laverick—for their guidance on this project.
# Table of Contents

ABSTRACT ....................................................................................................................... iv

DEDICATION .................................................................................................................... v

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT .................................................................................................... vi

LIST OF FIGURES ........................................................................................................... x

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION ............................................................................................. 1

  State of Education ........................................................................................................ 1
  Classical Education ....................................................................................................... 5
  Dissecting the Trivium .................................................................................................. 12

CHAPTER 2: GRAMMAR .................................................................................................... 13

  History of Grammar ..................................................................................................... 13
  Grammar Instruction ..................................................................................................... 27
    Reading Instruction in the Grammar Stage ................................................................ 32
    Writing Instruction in the Grammar Stage .................................................................. 37

CHAPTER 3: LOGIC ............................................................................................................. 39

  History of Logic ........................................................................................................... 39
  Logic Instruction .......................................................................................................... 50
  Language Instruction in the Logic Stage ...................................................................... 51
    Reading and Listening Instruction in the Logic Stage .............................................. 54
    Writing Instruction in the Logic Stage ....................................................................... 59

CHAPTER 4: RHETORIC ...................................................................................................... 64

  History of Rhetoric ....................................................................................................... 64
  Rhetoric Instruction ...................................................................................................... 79
    Reading Instruction in the Rhetoric Stage .................................................................. 81
    Writing Instruction in the Rhetoric Stage .................................................................. 83
    Speech Instruction in the Rhetoric Stage ................................................................... 87

CHAPTER 5: PEDAGOGY SUMMATION ............................................................................ 93

CHAPTER 6: METHODOLOGY .......................................................................................... 98

  Student Surveys: Before and After a Classical Education ........................................... 99
  Pretest and Posttest ...................................................................................................... 100
### LIST OF FIGURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Figure 1</td>
<td>Lockman's Grammar Stage Pedagogical Practices</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2</td>
<td>Lockman's Logic Stage Pedagogical Practices</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 3</td>
<td>Lockman's Rhetoric Stage Pedagogical Practices</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4</td>
<td>Toulmin's Model of Argumentation</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 5</td>
<td>Progymnasmata Genres</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 6</td>
<td>The Rhetorical Triangle</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7</td>
<td>Learning Methods for a Classical Education</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8</td>
<td>Teaching Styles</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 9</td>
<td>Assessment Strategies</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 10</td>
<td>Students' Beliefs on Classical Education</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 11</td>
<td>Students' Beliefs on Classical Education (31 responses)</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 12</td>
<td>Students' Beliefs on Classical Education (31 responses)</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 13</td>
<td>Themes Developing Out of Pre-Questionnaire (31 responses)</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 14</td>
<td>Students' Individual Pretest Grades</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 15</td>
<td>Drill and Kill vs. Literacy Instruction (30 responses)</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 16</td>
<td>Elementary vs. High School vs. Both for Grammar Instruction (30 responses)</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 17</td>
<td>Drill and Kill vs. Literacy vs. Both Take After Instruction (29 responses)</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 18</td>
<td>Students' conjunction metaphor to peanut butter and jelly.</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 19</td>
<td>Students' acronym of FANBOYS for conjunctions</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 20</td>
<td>Group Grades on Teaching Grammar</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 21</td>
<td>Presentation and Essay Grades</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 22</td>
<td>Student example of how grammar is used on social media websites</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 23</td>
<td>Student Grades for AoW I</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 24</td>
<td>Student Scores for AoW II</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 25</td>
<td>Logic Project Scores</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 26</td>
<td>Posttest Scores</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 27</td>
<td>Pretest and Posttest Student Growth</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 28</td>
<td>Graphic illustrating commas and their importance for conveying meaning.</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 29</td>
<td>Graphic illuminating the social aspects of language and the prescriptive rules.</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 30</td>
<td>Timetable for Grammar Instruction</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 31</td>
<td>Public school student's Article of the Week</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 32</td>
<td>Private school student's Article of the Week</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

State of Education

In a time when American education finds itself amidst change in educational policy, many state legislatures find themselves looking to standardized testing, upping standards, critiquing teachers’ pedagogy, and changing procedures to increase rigor. The focus of these American policymakers is on an all-or-nothing mantra that addresses all subjects together rather than the one subject that creates the foundation for the rest: language education. Many policymakers are finding it necessary to change curriculum and standards because 36 million U.S. adults cannot read at a third grade level, according to results from the National Assessment of Adult Literacy (ProLiteracy, 2014). In addition, 14.5% of Americans who have low literacy rates are unemployed, which causes further issues with accessing Internet resources, reading financial documents, and an inability to understand healthcare documents (ProLiteracy, 2014).

Further studies, such as the National Endowment for the Arts’ (2007) To Read or Not to Read: A Question of National Consequence, demonstrate that Americans are spending less time reading and comprehension skills are eroding. These declines have civic, social, cultural, and economic implications (p. 7). The percentage of young adults who read for pleasure dropped from 59% to 52% from 1992 to 2002, and 15-to-24 year olds spend approximately only 7-10 minutes per day voluntarily reading (p. 7, 9).\footnote{National Center for Education Statistics’ Adult Literacy in America provides further data on reading levels on prose literacy, document literacy, and quantitative literacy (National Center for Education Statistics, 2002).} Additionally, the Huffington Post (2014) published an article, “The U.S. Illiteracy Rate Hasn’t Changed in 10 Years,” showing that progress in combating the illiteracy problem has stalled, especially when 19% of high school graduates cannot read (Huff Post Books, 2014). Writing scores, similarly, are not any more enlightening according to a 2011 study by the National Assessment of Educational Progress on
writing abilities on computer-based programs. According to the results, only 24% of eighth graders and 24% of twelfth graders are proficient in writing (NAEP, 2011, p. 1). On the other hand, 54% of eighth graders and 52% of twelfth graders are basic writers, with 20% (eighth) and 21% (twelfth) below basic (p.1). When it comes to literacy and applying these literacy skills via writing, the United States’ constant curriculum change and results have remained stagnant.

The policymakers’ adaptations to new curriculums and procedures are causing many educators to leave the profession and seek employment elsewhere because American education has lost its true roots: educating students to be productive and civically responsible citizens who can communicate effectively through language.² Teachers, therefore, feel that if state legislatures are going to change and criticize their pedagogies, even when states are not entirely sure how to criticize or teach, there is no reason to be in such a rocky, ambiguous profession. On the other hand, there are individuals who do not blame the education system itself. For example, Gene Edward Weith, Jr. and Andrew Kern’s (2001) Classical Education: The Movement Sweeping America places blame on a multitude of issues: “Those who don’t think the school system should bear the full burden of fault identify other suspects: parents for not disciplining children, teachers for not inspiring them, television for eroding their attention spans and reading ability, modern culture for making childhood unstable and anxiety-ridden” (p. 1). With a myriad of issues, American education is in a state of imploding. If modern education has not yet solved the woes of how to properly educate a child, can there be no answer to this issue?

² In “The Goal of Education is Becoming,” Prensky (2014) argues that education today focuses too much on test taking when he says, “We spend so much time and effort looking at test scores, averages, and other petty measurements of ‘learning’ that we have little time or energy left to focus on who our students are (or are not) as individuals, what they love or hate, or what drives them. We shouldn't be surprised, then, if they become people we do not like or respect, or if we have concerns about their potential contributions to society.” Instead, Prensky argues that the goal of education should include teaching “children [to] become the very best people they can be, capable of effective thinking, acting, relating, and accomplishing whatever field they enjoy and have a passion for” (Prensky, 2014). Prensky even mentions in passing the classical education movement and how their goal is to create these civically responsible students who can communicate effectively, think critically, and are character driven.
The aforementioned list of modern America’s education issues is not exhaustive. To continue with Veith and Kern’s beliefs, Oliver Van DeMille (2006) enumerates these issues that teachers and parents find problematic in his book, *A Thomas Jefferson Education:*

Almost everyone agrees that modern American education needs to be improved, but almost nobody agrees on what the “fixes” should be or how they should be implemented. The problems are many and diverse: low test scores, illiteracy in the inner city, violence and crime within the school buildings and grounds, racial tension, moral ambiguity, sexual promiscuity, children raising children, parental non-involvement and neglect…

(Demille, 2006, p. 11)

Jane Healy’s study (1990), *Endangered Minds: Why Children Don’t Think and What We Can Do About It,* further illustrates the issue of modern America’s educational issues, but focuses on the students themselves, not the system. Healy mentions, “Today’s students looked and acted differently [from students she had taught in the past], of course, and they talked about different things, but I became increasingly convinced that the changes went deeper than that—to the very ways in which they were absorbing and processing information” (Healy, 1990, p. 13). Healy’s previous experience in the classroom divulges that students are developing a different thought process than previous generations’ students. Exploring this issue further, Healy argues, “Likable, fun to be with, intuitive, and often amazingly self-aware, they seemed, nonetheless, harder to teach, less attuned to verbal material, both spoken and written. Many admitted they didn’t read very much—sometimes even the required homework” (p. 13). Educators, such as Healy, are seeing a change in how students are learning and retaining material, which shows that something within the students’ environment is different. The lack of reading on the part of the students fortifies the statistics and results in the National Endowment for the Arts study (pleasure reading
rates down 7 points from 59% to 52%) and the 14% illiteracy rate of Americans as a whole (National Endowment for the Arts, 2007, p. 7, 9; ProLiteracy, 2014).

Simply put, the issue of education is a combination of education’s dominant discourse community of policymakers and the changing times. The lack of reading, changing times, and illiteracy rates are only a few consequences impacting the student population, which shows students are a product of their time. Many contemporary rhetorical theorists support such a statement. For example, the idea of truth or universal Truth cannot be attained in a modern rhetorical philosophy because each social group devises their own truth. Rhetoricians such as Bakhtin, Fish, Foucault, and Burke, to name a few, believe that language is socially constructed by specific social groups. Bakhtin (1929) exemplifies this belief when he argues the following in *Marxism and the Philosophy of Language*: “Consciousness takes shape and being in the material of signs created by an organized group in the process of its social intercourse…The logic of consciousness is the logic of ideological communication of a social group” (p. 1213). As a result, modern education was created by modern consciousness and those individuals in charge of educational policy, or the dominant discourse community, when interpreting Bakhtin’s philosophy. Subsequently, Veith and Kern (2001) place blame for the state of American education solely on modern and postmodern education thought (p. 1). Modernists “tended to scorn the achievements of the past as outdated and irrelevant and they rejected the idea of tradition. Future-oriented, they preferred to judge current actions by their agreements with the standards of scientific rationalism and certain ideas of progressive social change” (p. 2). Since modern thought is socially constructed, contemporary theorists differentiate from the ancients

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because modern society is supposed to be more advanced, hypothetically. As a result, current educational philosophy is trying to set itself apart from the past, even though it constantly teeters between success and failure in terms of achieving quality education.

**Classical Education**

No matter the answer, it is not the goal of this study to dissect, interpret, and analyze the current woes of modern education, but provide an alternative structure: classical education. The classical education curriculum proposed in the following pages is not new, but one that has been implemented in the past and has been proven to work. With the likes of Galileo, Copernicus, Einstein, Karl Marx, Christopher Columbus, William Shakespeare, Charles Darwin, Martin Luther, Isaac Newton, and Johann Gutenberg being classically educated, classical education has provided the world with many scientists, philosophers, inventors, and writers who have impacted the world (Kopff, 2008). Classical education has also provided society with many productive and civically responsible citizens, who tackle the injustices in the world. For example, Elizabeth Barrett Browning and Margaret Fuller exploited their classical education, especially classical literature, to answer “The woman problem” in the 19th century (Hurst, 2011, p. 451). Not only has classical education worked, but many schools, mostly private and charter, continue to apply this approach. Nova Classical Academy, for example, located in St. Paul, Minnesota, uses this approach, specifically the trivium, and happens to be a free public charter school. In fact, Nova’s mission statement reads: “In a supportive community and through a systematic, accelerated college-preparatory education in the classical tradition, Nova Classical Academy challenges its students to develop intellect, to attain the habits of learning and mastery, and to live a virtuous

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4 Leithart (2008) mentions that the Logos School in Moscow, Idaho had an average SAT score in the 96th percentile, and four of the twenty-six graduates in the 2005 class were National Merit Scholars. In the Regents School in Austin, Texas, one eighth-grade class had an SAT score of 950, which bested the national average for high-school seniors by fifty points (p. 7).
life of duty and ideals” (“Mission,” n.d.). The goal then of a classical education, yesterday and today, is to develop a student’s ability to communicate effectively through spoken and written means and to employ critical thinking skills as a dutiful and productive citizen.

To get a more precise understanding of the classical tradition and what that means for Nova, the Nova Classical Academy has provided their classical approach in the following summary:

Nova offers a rigorous academic and virtue education program in the classical tradition. Our curriculum is strongly language-centered, with students receiving daily instruction in history, grammar, math, science, and language. Student schedules also include regular instruction in art, music, physical education, Latin (grades 3-8+), Logic (grades 6-8), and Rhetoric (grades 9-12). (“About Nova,” n.d.)

The aforementioned curriculum is an oddity in modern education, because many students do not have options to take Latin, logic, or rhetoric, and previous state standards have been subpar (Bauer and Wise, 2009; Bauerlein, 2008; Bortins, 2010; Caine and Caine, 1997; Demille, 2006; Gatto, 2005; Hanson and Heath, 2001; Lockman, 2009; Prensky, 2014; Wilson, 1991). Leithart (2008) suggests that the cause of this change in options is due to progressive education’s need to substitute classical education’s values with a “scientific, professional, standardized, bureaucratized system” (p. 9). With this change, Latin and other courses became irrelevant to modern, progressive education.

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5 Moore (n.d.) illustrates four main goals of classical education in the Hillsdale College Barney Charter School: “1) values knowledge for its own sake; 2) upholds the standards of correctness, logic, beauty, weightiness, and truth intrinsic to the liberal arts; 3) demands moral virtue of its adherents; and 4) prepares human beings to assume their places as responsible citizens in the political order” (p. 1-2).

6 W.G. Wraga (2009) mentions that Abraham Flexner may be one cause for the diminishment of Latin when he wrote “A Modern School,” which was published in The American Review of Reviews. Wraga argues, “Flexner proposed the removal from the school curriculum of Latin, Greek and formal grammar. He dismissed training for ‘mental discipline’ as a rationale for including in the curriculum Latin and Greek or any subject, and claimed no evidence existed to support the notion that facility with Latin or Greek enhances facility with English” (p. 84).
Classical education was not uncommon, however, in American educational systems in the past. For instance, many of the United States’ Founding Fathers were educated in a classical manner including Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, Alexander Hamilton, and George Rogers Clark (Cothran, n.d.). To illustrate the classical education of these Founding Fathers, “The Classical Education of the Founding Fathers” by Martin Cothran suggests,

The typical education of the time began in what we would call the 3rd Grade—at about age eight. Students who actually went to school were required to learn Latin and Greek grammar and, later, to read the Latin historians Tacitus and Livy, the Greek historians Herodotus and Thucydides, and to translate the Latin poetry of Virgil and Horace. They were expected to know the language well enough to translate from the original into English and back again to the original in another grammatical tense. (Cothran, n.d.)

The education that the Founding Fathers had was arguably more intense than modern America’s education system. For example, the learning of a foreign language such as Latin or Greek and the translating of it into English and then back into Latin or Greek in another grammatical tense is a daunting task, which shows the linguistic prowess of classically educated students. Farell (2011) further illustrates that classical rhetorical theory and pedagogy was important for colonial America in “‘Above all Greek, above all Roman fame’: Classical Rhetoric in America during the Colonial and Early National Periods.” According to Farell, there are four influences of classical rhetoric in early American culture: “[1] rhetorical curriculums in colleges were strictly classical; [2] modern treatises on rhetoric relied heavily on classical rhetorical theory and classical oratorical examples; [3] most writers treating rhetoric and oratory in the literary periodicals of the colonial and early national periods viewed subjects as rooted in the classical tradition; and [4] American orators and writers viewed themselves and their rhetorical situations in classical
terms” (p. 416). Classical rhetorical theory and pedagogy, therefore, played a major role in education in our past and helped forge this nation.7

As time progressed, Victor Davis Hanson and John Heath’s (2001) Who Killed Homer? argues that classical education became unimportant because it was not relevant to modern society (p. 82). Hanson and Heath suggest, “University administrators caved in to the complaints of the young and often self-righteous students. Curricular ‘reform’ followed, resulting in the virtual abandonment of core courses—important, basic classes which required students to gain at least some familiarity with the literature, grammar, philosophy, history, and languages of Classical antiquity” (2001, p. 82). Prior to this belief system, Fairbanks (1897), through a study of secondary administrators and teachers, illustrated that Latin and classical education were important to a student’s development, and that Latin was the most valuable course of study (p. 351).8 Essentially, classical education became too bothersome for administrators, students, and teachers; therefore, contemporary educational theory diminished the role of the classics in the new curriculum (Wraga, 2009, p. 84).

The evolution from the classical curriculum to the modern curriculum was an unavoidable change from what education used to be in ancient times. In “Defence of Classical Education,” Livingstone (1917) saw this curriculum change come when he declares, “The

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7 Howe (2011) implies, “This state of affairs [modern education] would come as a shock to the Founders. They believed that if a modern citizenry were to benefit from the lesson of history, its members had to know the history of Greece and Rome. And they viewed the young republic they were nurturing as in some ways a rebirth of principles first implemented in the Roman Republic” (p. 31). Kopff (1998) further implies, “It is hard for Americans today to accept the idea that having a creative and progressive culture means participating in demanding traditions thousands of years old” (p. 53). Consequently, modern society must see that our foundation rests on the classics; therefore, implementing them within the classroom is a necessity for student understanding.

8 Stachniw (1970) further argues the case for Latin when quoting Marc-Antoine Muret’s lecture delivered in Rome on the value of classical education. Muret argues, “I thoroughly disagree with the educational theory of counseling young people away from the study of Latin and Greek. In my opinion the very foundation of education is thereby razed and destroyed. Indeed, I believe that we must surely and effectively weaken and undermine the entire study of the liberal arts if we neglect these languages, their own sacred repository” (p. 258).
advocates of a ‘practical’ or ‘scientific’ education are anxious to transform the vague and general uneasiness which the public feels about our educational system into a definite demand for its radical reconstruction” (p. 132). To some individuals, such as John Taylor Gatto and his treatise *Dumbing Us Down: The Hidden Curriculum of Compulsory Schooling*, modern education—in Livingstone’s case a scientific education—is the government’s doing and it is their goal to lower students’ intelligence (p. 11). According to Gatto (2005), there are seven key lessons the current curriculum gives students: confusion, class position, indifference, emotional dependency, intellectual dependency, provisional self-esteem, and one can’t hide (p. 2-11). Together these lessons create a system that stifles student creativity and is “prime training for permanent underclasses, people deprived forever of finding the center of their own special genus” (p. 16). Essentially, Gatto argues that this is a purposeful dumbing down of students to create a more dystopian society where students are put in their place. Even though hyperbolic, Gato’s sentiment that education is in crisis resonates when looking at the low testing scores, lack of literacy and analytical skills, and student apathy. It can be concluded, consequently, education is in need of an alternative curriculum to help it get back to its true roots of educating, not corralling, students.

The answer is not as simple as getting rid of standardized testing, eliminating the unmotivated and subpar teachers, or developing an entirely new form of education altogether, which are often disseminated answers. Instead, turning back the clock to a model of education that has worked for centuries is essential. To be specific, there needs to be a return to classical education’s structure of the trivium (grammar, logic, and rhetoric). The trivium was an educational model that prevailed in ancient Greece and was developed from the workings of the Sophists to Aristotle. The trivium fell out of favor, but saw a resurgence in the Middle Ages and
it continues to be used today in many private and a select few public schools (Moore, n.d. p. 1). Not only has this educational approach been proven successful for thousands of years, but it is also a natural scaffolding approach. The trivium starts with building the foundations of a language (grammar) and then moves the student into understanding how the foundations work (logic), which then progresses into the students applying these skills and creating their own voice (rhetoric).9

Once a student has established this foundation, they can move onto higher levels of thinking which are required in classical education’s quadrivium.10 Leon Conrad’s (2014) “Integration and the liberal arts: a historical overview” emphasizes how the trivium is engrained into students’ natural abilities: “It is hard-wired within us, and its structure is based on how we instinctively view the world. Engaging with it helps us exercise and develop our innate faculties and thereby ourselves at the same time” (p. 51). Conrad adds, “One can only use words [grammar] well if one has integrated them internally with the abstract or concrete terms they signify [logic]” (p. 51). When students are able to use words or language correctly, they are able to participate in the final stage of the trivium, which is rhetoric. Rhetoric allows students to explore “patterns in sounds, words, phrases, sentences, and ideas that underpin rhetorical forms creatively [to] help…develop eloquence” (p. 51-52). Therefore, students are able to creatively construct language by employing the rules of language [grammar], making sense of the language [logic], and applying various devices to inform, entertain, or persuade using language

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9 Bluedorn (2000) decrees, “The Trivium also serves as a model for how children develop. Children go through several stages of learning, and what we teach them and how we teach them should correspond to their stage of development.” Additionally, Bluedorn illustrates the scaffolding approach and how each stage corresponds to the student’s development.

10 The quadrivium completes the seven liberal arts, which contain the trivium and the following: arithmetic, geometry, music, and astronomy (“The Quadrivium,” n.d.).
[rhetoric]. Consequently, the trivium serves as humanity’s base in developing an educated individual and it creates civically minded students who can effectively communicate and critically think.

This call to the classical education model is not a new phenomenon. Dorothy Sayers delivered a speech in 1947 at Oxford University titled “The Lost Tools of Learning.” Within this speech, Sayers gave a statement about modern education that sums up all of the previous inclinations and reiterates that classical education provides the answer to education’s troubles:

For they [education’s troubles] amount to this: that if we are to produce a society of educated people, fitted to preserve their intellectual freedom amid the complex pressures of our modern society, we must turn back the wheel of progress some four or five hundred years, to the point at which education began to lose sight of its true object, towards the end of the Middle Ages. (Sayers, 1947)

Not only does Sayers believe classical education is our answer, she also realizes that society has changed. Since this oration, the times have changed even more and there is no time like the present to “preserve their [students] intellectual freedom amid the complex pressures of our modern society” (Sayers, 1947). Students need to be able to use both print and multimodal media, and classical education has its basis on developing students’ critical thinking skills.

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11 Using Nova Classical Academy’s statement, the trivium takes into account student differentiation by stating, “Nova understands that the further one progresses in the stages of the trivium, the more flexible and, to some degree, the more individualized the methodology becomes. Pedagogical tools in the classroom can and will be tailored accordingly” (“Principles of Classical Education,” 2005, p. 4).

12 Noam Chomsky’s theory of universal grammar also illustrates that the study of grammar is hard-wired into our brains: “Chomsky’s theory proposes that the human brain contains a predefined mechanism (universal grammar) that is the basis for the acquisition of all language. In analogy, the brain can be thought of as a kind of partially programmed machine ready to be configured. The configuration comes from encounters with the perceived world through the senses, and thus the corresponding language pattern forms” (Tronolone, n.d.).

13 Nelms and Goggin (1994) illustrate that shortly after Sayers’ 1947 speech, classical rhetoric started to make its way back into composition studies: “Classical rhetoric became an important theoretical perspective for composition studies in the 1950s and the early 60s” (p. 11). Additionally, “Classical rhetoric provided a practical system, informed by an appropriate theory, that was immediately applicable to the teaching of writing” (p. 18).
Dissecting the Trivium

In the three chapters that follow, a discussion of each stage of the trivium occurs. Within this discussion, a brief history of each term of the trivium is provided as well as how instructors should cater their pedagogies to the grammar, logic, and rhetoric stages of the trivium, regardless of whether or not instructors finds themselves in a classical district. Since this study focuses on rhetorical pedagogy and the implementation of strategies in the English classroom, classical and contemporary rhetorical theorists are consulted in determining the instructional strategies of each stage of the trivium. It is the goal of the following chapters to provide an instructor with a replicable curriculum that could be implemented within a secondary English-language arts classroom.\(^{14}\)

\(^{14}\) Crowley and Hawhee (1999) in *Ancient Rhetoric for Contemporary Students* argue that the ancients situate their philosophy in regards to time and place, or *Kairos*. They argue, “ancient rhetoricians always situated their teaching in place and time. Their insistence that local and temporal conditions influenced the act of composition marks a fairly distinct contrast with modern rhetoric’s conventional treatment of rhetorical occasions as if they were all alike” (p. 5). With this in mind, classical rhetoric is not anachronistic because it depends on the time and place in which it is situated; therefore, saying technology and advancements in society make classical education unnecessary is illogical.
CHAPTER 2: GRAMMAR

History of Grammar

_The Teacher’s Grammar Book_ by James Williams (2005) illustrates that “the formal study of grammar began in ancient Greece, probably in the late 6th century BC, when a number of factors combined to motivate the Greeks to examine the structure of their language” (p. 2). Since rhetoric became an important skill for ancient Greeks, the study of language became as important; therefore, grammar came into existence. Unlike today’s understanding of language being socially constructed, the Greeks believed in a prescriptivist approach. William’s illustrates this belief by stating, “Thus, Greek education developed a prescriptive stance with respect to language and grammar, defining notions of correct and incorrect language use in terms of adherence to literary norms that characterized Greek hundreds of years in the past” (p. 3). Thus, correct grammar usage was cemented into ancient Greek students’ heads.

Even though there was this prescriptive stance, David Mulroy’s _The War Against Grammar_ recounts that Greek literature or use of language exploded during the time grammar became an official subject in Greek schools: “The most remarkable thing about Greek literature in Homer’s wake is its rapid evolution. Each successive generation mastered new genres. First came personal lyric poems by Sappho and others and choral songs best represented by Pindar. In

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15 A belief system where individuals think a language should be used in a particular way. Additionally, it is described as “a set of rules and examples dealing with the syntax and word structures of a language, usually intended as an aid to the learning of that language” (Nordquist, n.d.).

16 For the purposes of this study, the term prescriptive grammar refers to the use of prescriptive rules of language and pedagogic grammar. Ideally, students in this study should have had the prescriptive rules of grammar; therefore, this study teaches those prescriptive rules but also uses a pedagogic grammar perspective. According to the British Council, pedagogical grammar can be defined as follows: “A pedagogic grammar is a description of how to use the grammar of a language to communicate, for people wanting to learn the target language. It can be compared with a reference grammar, which just describes the grammar of the language. Pedagogic grammars contain assumptions about how learners learn, follow certain linguistic theories in their descriptions, and are written for a specific target audience” (n.d.). Because these students are, technically in the rhetoric stage, bogging them down with the sole teaching of grammatical rules is unnecessary; therefore, the pedagogic grammar is used to make sure students know how to communicate using Standard Academic English.
less than a century, the choral songs evolved into Greek tragedy and comedy. Prose literature emerged in the histories of Herodotus and Thucydides and the philosophical works of Plato and Aristotle” (p. 30). Grammar thus found itself as a subject of study during a time when literature was produced rapidly, which meant that grammar was changing as rapidly.

Classical rhetoricians, specifically, helped define grammar in ancient Greece. For example, Cheryl Glenn’s (1995) chapter “When Grammar Was a Language Art” in The Place of Grammar in Writing Instruction establishes ancient Greek rhetoricians and their contributions. Plato devised the nominal (onoma) and verbal (rheme) components of sentence division, while in Rhetoric Aristotle created function words (conjunctions, articles, and pronouns) as grammatical categories (p. 14). Isocrates and his students helped to popularize the periodic sentence (p. 14). Grammatical categories and functions were created by the field of rhetoric showing the influence rhetoric has within education. With grammar creating precision in language, two pedagogical techniques emerged in ancient Greece, according to Edward P. J. Corbett’s English 897 (Linguistics) course: “students would first develop a ‘variety of techniques of (1) analyzing the style of prose passages’ before they began ‘(2) practicing various exercises designed to improve [their] own style or to help improve their style’” (cited in Glenn, 1995). Essentially, Corbett further divides this study of grammar into three separate forms: ars, a study of precepts or principles; exercitatio, practice in writing; and imitatio, imitation of the practice of others (cited in Glenn, 1995). With language developing rapidly in ancient Greece, Corbett’s strategies imply grammar changed consistently depending on the text being imitated. Grammar was a necessary tool for instruction in language arts because it helped students develop their minds and tongues (Glenn, 1995).
Because grammar was rapidly developing in conjunction with literature, grammar equated itself to the rhetorical cannon of style. Fahnestock’s (2011) *Rhetorical Style: The Uses of Language in Persuasion* suggests that students in antiquity were taught that language competence was a must for future success, which came under the guidance of the Grammaticus (p. 6-7). Students were also introduced “to the parts of speech, to declensions and inflections, to constitutive and preferential rules of sentence formation, and to a ‘starter set’ of the figures of speech” (p. 7). With the rapid evolution of language and grammar as an extension, students were introduced to multiple grammars because of the various styles implemented by authors. By having multiple grammars in their repertoire, students are well prepared to address a multitude of rhetorical situations. These styles were developed by rhetoricians such as Homer, the sophists such as Gorgias, Isocrates, and even women such as Sappho. Homer was the most influential of these rhetoricians though because his texts were the most famous and represented the epitome of style: “The medium for this instruction was the close reading of the great epics, the *Iliad*, *Odyssey*, and *Aeneid*. Young boys pored over these texts. They parsed every word by its part of speech and grammatical role” (p. 7). In addition to this intense study, students also “learned etymologies and the histories of words, which were coined or archaic, and what each offered compared to possible synonyms. They identified the meter required by the line as well as every figural device” (p. 7). The study of Homer, consequently, made language an essential lesson in a student’s education. Without this variety of language instruction, students would not be prepared to address the political or social environments that ancient Greece provided.

In addition to Homer, various rhetoricians provided exemplary texts to mimic. For example, Gorgias played an important role in disseminating the power that speech, especially style, has in persuasion in *The Encomium of Helen*. In *The Encomium of Helen*, Gorgias
compares the words, or grammar, one uses to that of a drug that can either heal or kill (p. 46). How a speaker chooses his or her words gives grammar, or style, a positive or negative outcome, according to Gorgias. As a result, a speaker has to be careful in the words chosen. Similar to the sophists, Isocrates professed that grammar, or style, has to change depending on the kairotic situation. In Against the Sophists, Isocrates argues, “For what has been said by one speaker is not equally useful for the speaker who comes after him” (p. 73). Adding on to the discussion, Isocrates argues, “But the greatest proof of the difference between these two arts is that oratory is good only if it has the qualities of fitness for the occasion, propriety of style, and originality of treatment” (p. 73). Ancient Greek rhetoricians found it necessary to cater one’s grammar, or style, to the occasion through an understanding of the rules that govern certain situations. Although there may have been style, the ancients did not solely teach students that one could choose any grammar for a specific occasion (see progymnasmata in the logic section). Therefore, the rules of diverse situations were taught to develop students’ linguistic competence.

Gorgias and Isocrates were speaking, or philosophizing, about the grammars one chooses, but Sappho, one of a few women in antiquity, was practicing grammar through her poetry. In Rhetoric Retold, Glenn (1997) contends Sappho created a female language, or grammar, separate from the dominate male discourse (p. 23). Glenn adds, Sappho’s writing “allowed her to assume her extraordinary literary gift, demonstrating female language use and consciousness in ways evinced neither by her predecessor Homer nor by her contemporary Alcaeus” (p. 23). No matter the influence Sappho had in antiquity, her writings illustrate that her grammar was situated within the kairotic situation she found herself. To illustrate her style, her poem “To Aphrodite” demonstrates her kairotic situation: “Come to me now, the harsh worry / Let loose, what my heart wants to be / Done, do it! And you yourself be / My battle-ally” (Sappho, 2009, p. 49).
Given her position in Greek society, Sappho exploited this position to create her own grammar: “released from a male-dominated society, Sappho exercised her verbal prowess, using her poetry to celebrate women’s education, women’s alliance, and, especially, women’s public use of persuasive language” (Glenn, 1995, p. 25). Style, therefore, is directly related to the situation a speaker may find himself or herself, and the grammar the speaker uses depends on this situation and the outcome desired.

Fast-forwarding to the Romans, they modeled their educational system on the Greeks. Similar to the Greeks, the Romans based their grammar study on literary texts and the modeling of these texts (Williams, 2005, p. 6). Roman grammarians, Donatus and Priscian, wrote the grammar handbooks of Ars grammatica and Institutiones grammaticae, respectively; therefore, the Romans took the Greek study of grammar one step further and wrote down the rules of grammar instruction (p. 6). The methodology the Romans implemented was later named the trivium, which includes a scaffolding approach to education where students study grammar, logic, and rhetoric respectively. Quintilian developed the trivium curriculum in his book The Education of the Orator (Institutio de oratoria). In conjunction with the study of grammar, logic, and rhetoric, students were also expected to be bilingual (Williams, 2005, p. 6). Students in a Roman society needed to become fluent and understand the grammar of Latin and Greek.

When looking at grammar in the Roman system, grammar was an important element of a student’s education. In fact, it was the most important element within instruction and was the means through which students make meaning in all other subject areas. To further illuminate the Roman grammar system, Glenn (1995) demonstrates the role of the Grammaticus using Quintilian’s De Institutione Oratore, or Education of the Orator: “The grammaticus worked with his students on reading, writing, speaking, spelling, parts of speech (noun, verbs, conjunctions,
articles, prepositions, adjectives, pronouns, participles, interjections), conjugations, vocabulary, drilling them in ‘the special rules which must be observed both by speaker and writers’” (cited in Glenn, 1995). Quintilian adds, “so intimately and inseparably connected, that if one of them be neglected, we shall but waste the labour which we have devoted to the others” (cited in Glenn, 1995). The trivium was the essential educational curriculum for the Romans. Grammar does not disappear from a student’s understanding of language, but it only grows in complexity in the Roman model.

Although the collapse of the Roman Empire occurred in 475 AD, their educational influence continued through the Middle Ages. In the Middle Ages, grammar was still thought of as the foundational element to all learning. Hunt and Bursill-Hall (1980) exploit the importance of grammar in The History of Grammar in the Middle Ages: Collected Papers, arguing, “At that time [11th and 12th centuries] everyone had to study grammar, and it was regarded as the ‘foundation and root’ of all teaching. Its influence is as pervasive as that of logic, and may be seen in unexpected places, in theology and even more in logic itself” (p. 1). As a result, grammar slowly started to meld itself with logic in the Middle Ages.17 In ancient Greece and Rome, grammar was a separate subject and aligned itself with style, but logic’s practitioners changed this belief. Essentially, scientific knowledge started to blend with language; therefore, “Scholars began comparing the natural language of speech to the artificial language of math and logic and asserted that natural language should conform accordingly” (p. 9). Even though there was this contention with grammar, the two beliefs of grammar as style and grammar as logic prevailed.

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17 The Middle Ages model fits well with the Common Core State Standards as logic is integrated consistently with the study of grammar. See Common Core State Standards for an in-depth look at how logic is melded with grammar study.
For example, Erasmus (1512), similar to the ancient Greeks and Romans, employs grammar as style in *Copia: Foundations of the Abundant Style*: “this whole idea of being able to express one’s meaning in a variety of ways is in a number of places touched on by that learned and thorough writer Quintilian, further, that a number of famous sophists blazed a trail, showing how to compress and abridge what was being said, and this they could not have done without at the same time demonstrating how to expand it” (p. 597). Therefore, language and grammar could be developed into a distinct style as long as it followed and applied grammatical concepts. Other individuals who put grammar into contention with logic include Margaret Fell (1666) and Sor Juana Inez de la Cruz (1691) because they utilized grammar, or style, to speak out against prohibiting women from speaking in the church.18

On the other hand, rhetoricians in the Renaissance such as Ramus and Bacon started fusing grammar with logic. Mulroy’s (2003) *The War Against Grammar* demonstrate how grammar’s sudden switch to logic, as purported by these theorists, started the demise of grammar: “Students were encouraged to engage in dialectics, or what we would call ‘critical thinking,’ without necessarily having any other subject or discipline…Since grammar’s traditional role was to enable students to understand the now-neglected classics its prestige also declined sharply” (p. 46). Nevertheless, individuals such as Ramus (1549) did not specifically discuss grammar, but his heated discussion about the inconsistencies of classical authors illustrates how grammar should be infused with logic.19 Since language is no longer relying on style, Ramus employs the syllogism and logic to conclude that dialectic (or logic) and rhetoric

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18 For further reading, see Fell’s (1666) *Women’s Speaking Justified, Proved, and Allowed by the Scriptures* and Cruz’s (1691) *The Poet’s Answer to the Most Illustrious Sister Filotea de la Cruz.*

19 Ramus’s (1549) work, *Arguments in Rhetoric against Quintilian*, laments, “We shall distinguish the art of rhetoric from the other arts, and make it a single one of the liberal arts, not a confused mixture of all arts; we shall separate its true properties, remove weak and useless subtleties, and point out the things that are missing” (p. 681). Grammar, therefore, is no longer an element of rhetoric and since rhetoric is style and delivery, grammar can no longer be associated with style.
are two separate disciplines. Rhetoric is only associated with style and delivery; therefore, since grammar was a separate liberal art, grammar had to become logical to separate itself from rhetoric: “To grammar for the purposes of speaking and writing well belong etymology in interpretation, syntax in connection, prosody in the pronunciation of short and long syllables, and orthography in the correct rules” (Ramus, 1549, p. 687). Bacon’s *The Advancement of Learning* (1605) declares that grammar belongs with logic too,

Neither is the nature of man so unfortunately built, as that those powers and arts should have force to disturb reason, and not to establish and advance it: for the end of Logic is to teach a form of argument to secure reason, and not to entrap it…the end of Rhetoric is to fill the imagination to second reason, and not to oppress it: for these abuses of arts come in but *ex oblique*, for caution. (p. 743)

Per this argument, grammar has to be relegated to an aspect of reason or logic because language is meant to convey reason—more specifically, scientific reason. Grammar serves a dual purpose of being related to style and logic, depending on the rhetorician or source of information.

Similar to the Middle Ages and the Renaissance, logic predominated grammar instruction in the Enlightenment because of the necessity to equate language with scientific discovery. John Locke’s (1693) *Some Thoughts Concerning Education* illustrates this shift, “the goal of education was to prepare the child to achieve future independence in the world. This preparation required the development of a logical mind, but it also entailed controlling the child’s true, unruly nature through moral instruction” (Williams, 2005, p. 11). Therefore, there is a

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20 Concerning grammar specifically, Locke (1693) in *Some Thoughts Concerning Education* implies, “Men learn languages for the ordinary intercourse of society and communication of thoughts in common life, without any farther design in the use of them. And for this purpose, the original way of learning a language by conversation not only serves well enough, but is to be preferred as the most expedite, proper and natural. Therefore, to this use of language one may answer, that grammar is not necessary” (p.83). Consequently, language has to produce a preciseness in language, but this is developed through social intercourse; essentially, this is the beginnings of the social development of language theories, which would further purported in modern and postmodern theories.
necessity for precision in language, which Locke illustrates in *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding*: “To make words serviceable to the end of communication, it is necessary, as has been said, that they excite in the hearer exactly the same idea they stand for in the mind of the speaker” (p. 818). With grammar instruction, there needs to be an exact understanding of words and how they make sense logically. Likewise, George Campbell (1776) makes a distinction between grammar and style within *The Philosophy of Rhetoric* when he states, “the grammarian, with respect to what the two arts have in common, the structure of sentences, requires only purity; that is, that the words employed belong to the language, and that they be construed in the manner, and used in the signification, which custom hath rendered necessary for conveying the sense” (p. 907). As a result, grammar is a means of achieving preciseness in language according to Ramus, Bacon, Locke, and Campbell.

Even though there was this preciseness in language usage, the 18th century showed that society’s understanding of grammar began to change because of industrialization: “During the 18th century, the spread of education and industrialization created greater socioeconomic mobility, which in turn led to a mingling of people from different backgrounds that had not been possible for more than 1,000 years” (Williams, 2005, p. 11). Grammar thus evolved because of the intermingling of various discourse communities. Additionally, the 19th century also saw the effects of industrialization on education and the study of grammar. During the 19th century many individuals migrated from an agrarian lifestyle to an urban, industrial lifestyle (p. 12). The number of poor citizens increased because of a population boom and industrialization. As a result, the middle and upper-classes were now needing to educate poorer citizens (p. 12). Rhetoricians within the Age of Reason who spoke out for equal education included Maria

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Stewart, Sarah Grimké, Frederick Douglass, Margaret Fuller, and Sojourner Truth. For example, Maria Stewart (1832) spoke out against the travesty of the education she received in Why Sit Ye Here and Die when she says, “O, had I received the advantages of an early education, my ideas would, ere now, have expanded far and wide; but, alas! I possess nothing but moral capability—no teaching but the teachings of the Holy Spirit” (p. 1037). Stewart received the moral education Locke advocated for in Some Thoughts Concerning Education, but she did not receive academic knowledge. On the other hand, other minorities and lower class citizens stole their education. Frederick Douglass, for instance, stole his education from young boys who taught him because it was not being provided in one-on-one instruction, which he vividly described in Narrative of the Life of Frederick Douglass (Douglass, 1881, 1072).21

Due to individuals speaking out for equal rights of women and African Americans, education became more inclusive. The education these individuals spoke for and received was a downgraded education because they could not pay for private schools, so communities had to resort to mass schooling in Sunday schools (Williams, 2005, p. 13). Instead of being a means of knowledge, education was meant as a way for professors to feel superior to their students: “Indeed, most professors saw their students as intellectual midgets with little knowledge of and even less appreciation for the liberal arts, so there was no expectation that they could actually produce anything worth reading” (Williams, 2005, p. 15). Thus, the influence of the liberal arts, especially grammar, diminished. Grammar, as a result, was relegated to elementary schools and it showed a close connection between reading and writing instruction, which had a moral bent; Stewart, specifically, spoke about having morals, but no true education. With this decline of

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21 In Narrative of the Life of Frederick Douglass, Douglass (1881) illuminates his fight for education, “The plan which I adopted, and the one by which I was most successful, was that of making friends of all the little white boys whom I met in the street. As many of these as I could, I converted into teachers. With their kindly aid, obtained at different times and in different places, I finally succeeded in learning to read” (p. 1072).
grammar, the following methodology for grammar instruction became standard: “Reading literature would edify the spirit, making students better persons, and studying grammar would improve student writing, making it clear, concise, and error free. It is this legacy that teachers bring into today’s classrooms whenever they teach writing” (p. 15). Therefore, the current state of grammar, or the sociocultural approach22, is directly related to the Age of Reason.

Modern thinkers thus have created a dichotomous approach to grammar instruction: the prescriptive approach and the sociocultural approach. The 19th century led to two important factors in grammar instruction. “(a) the fossilization of the ideas that grammar is a prescriptive set of rules for producing correct English, and (b) the establishment of the foundation for modern grammars, which are descriptive rather than prescriptive” (p. 15). Grammar moved from a set of prescriptive rules of how language should be used to an understanding of how language is used by its speakers and writers (Nordquist, n.d.). Modern thinkers believe they have the best form of education because they have learned from the past; however, that is not the case because of the continuous influence of educational policy and their inconsistencies. Teachers and other professionals should also place grammar instruction into the arena of inconsistent philosophy because of the change from a prescriptive approach to the sociocultural approach.

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22 For the purposes of this study, sociocultural grammar is synonymous to the social learning perspectives of reading. Tracey and Morrow (2012) elucidate, “When applied to the field of reading, the social learning perspectives emphasize the importance of social influence and social interaction on literacy learning” (p. 116). Therefore, sociocultural grammar takes this concept of literacy being developed through social environments and applies it to using grammar in the ways society functions or uses grammar. For example, students oftentimes use social media grammar to converse with one another when texting, tweeting, etc. As a result, the study of sociocultural grammar looks at how grammar functions in different social contexts, including dialects. Since students read different grammars in different contexts, the study of grammar should allow students to explore the various uses of sociocultural grammar. However, as is explained in the discussion section, sociocultural grammar should not be given a place of instruction until the students have reached high school. High school is the only time when sociocultural grammar should be introduced because students have the foundations of the prescriptive rules of grammar, or the foundational rules that guide the English language.
John Edlund, for example, illustrates in “The Rainbow and the Stream” the prescriptivist approach in modern instruction, “The prescriptive type of grammar found in standard college handbooks, commonly called a ‘school’ grammar, is designed to define the standard of what is ‘correct’ and what is not, and to teach those principles” (p. 91). Therefore, the prescriptivist belief falls under the Roman and Greek structure of the trivium; essentially, asserting that students must know the correct and incorrect uses to language. Additionally, the trivium has made its way back into curriculums around the nation through homeschooling, private school, charter schools, and a select number of public schools such as Nova Classical Academy and Walnut Hills High School in Cincinnati, Ohio. These select schools show that the ancient methodologies of teaching grammar have not gone away. In Ancient Rhetorics for Contemporary Students, Sharon Crowley and Debra Hawhee (1999) elucidate the continuous influence the ancients still have in our instruction in grammar: “ancient rhetoricians always situated their teaching in place and time. Their insistence that local and temporal conditions influenced the act of composition marks a fairly distinct contrast with modern rhetoric’s conventional treatment of rhetorical occasions as if they were all alike” (p. 5). Classical rhetoricians, therefore, knew a student’s understanding of grammar would differentiate from the time and contexts in which students found themselves. However, the ancients would argue for a prescriptive approach to grammar instruction as was demonstrated in the Greek and Roman traditions of grammar, but that does not mean they would overrule a sociocultural approach.

Directly contradicting the prescriptive approach, many contemporary rhetoricians argue students develop their understanding of language through social contexts and envelopment in language. For example, several contemporary rhetoricians illustrate language is developed through context and immersion: Mikhail Bakhtin, I. A. Richards, Burke, Foucault, Anzaldua, and
Stanley Fish. All of these rhetoricians to some degree argue that grammar is situated within the social contexts in which one is raised. For example, William Rutherford (2014) in Second Language Grammar: Learning and Teaching illustrates, “rather as a network of systems in which the learner is already enmeshed, the full grammatical implications of which he alone has to work out on the basis of what he comes in contact with in interaction with what he himself contributes as an already accomplished language acquirer” (p. 153). Using the sociocultural approach to language learning, Rutherford believes that language, grammar included, serves the needs of the speaker or writer using the language, not how the language should be used by the speaker. Therefore, an individual learns grammar through their interactions with a community, and the grammar is thus shaped by this interaction.

Furthering illustrating this sociocultural approach, Kenneth Burke’s (1945) Grammar of Motives serves as a starting point for how society constructs language and the individuals within that society. In this text, Burke argues for a dramatistic system, “In a rounded statement about motives, you must have some word that names the act (names what took place, in thought or deed), and another that names the scene (the background of the act, the situation in which it occurred); also, you must indicate what person or kind of person (agent) performed the act, what means or instruments he used (agency), and the purpose” (p. 1298). Through this system, language becomes the central concern for analysis and allows a user to comprehend the sociological experience(s) and the motives behind it (Bizzell and Herzberg, 2001, p. 1296).

Setting the groundwork for his theory in Grammar of Motives, Burke elaborates further in his later works, A Rhetoric of Motives and Languages as Symbolic Action.

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Burke’s (1950) work, *A Rhetoric of Motives*, demonstrates comprehension of language by showing how individuals “are at odds with one another, or become identified with groups more or less at odds with one another” (p. 1326). Through the interactions that one has with a community or odds with another community, this interaction shapes the language user and his/her grammar. Understanding the sociological nature of language and the creation of an individual in different circumstances, Burke argues, “If men were wholly and truly of one substance, absolute communication would be of man’s very essence” (p. 1326). This is not the case, however, which is why it is essential for an individual to understand how grammar, rhetoric, and symbolic nature creates the language and individual in that society. In a later work, *Language as Symbolic Action*, Burke (1966) demonstrates that “The human animal, as we know it, emerges in personality by first mastering whatever tribal speech happens to be its particular symbolic environment” (p. 1346). Simply put, language and experience are dependent on each other in constructing an individual, which purports the belief that language is created by the society a speaker or writer is immersed (Bizzell and Herzberg, 2001, p. 1296). Not surprising, these social contexts have created a plethora of new grammars including social media lingo, fandoms, and Urban Dictionary. In regards to the trivium, these social contexts illustrate that a sociocultural approach is beneficial, but should be saved for the latter stages of the trivium when the student is ready to study language through a cultural lens. There is no argument against language being culturally or socially constructed within this study. Instead, the argument here is that a student should understand the prescriptive rules to grammar before moving on to a sociocultural lens of grammar instruction. Therefore, to set the foundation, a prescriptivist stance is needed in the elementary and middle school years, which should be followed by instruction through a sociocultural and rhetorical approach in high school. As a result, the
scaffolding approach to grammar instruction starts with the basics and then moves onto how these conventions are broken by sociocultural and rhetorical grammars. A more in-depth understanding of grammar instruction throughout a student’s entire academic career is provided in the Discussion chapter.

**Grammar Instruction**

When asked to consider grammar study, individuals may picture their time in middle or high school learning the parts of speech or determining whether the sentence “Jenny jumped the fence” contains a transitive or intransitive verb. On the other hand, younger students may not remember the likes of diagramming a sentence or memorizing and reciting grammatical rules. Though these are images that may come to one’s mind when discussing grammar, a classical education approach to grammar is much more than just the learning of language rules. Instead grammar requires the student to understand how to communicate correctly, how to learn, and how to transfer this knowledge to other disciplines.

The aforementioned understanding of grammar is, usually, only pictured by those involved in classical curriculums; sadly, a majority of this classical curriculum takes place within the homeschool environment, not in public schools. Susan Wise Bauer and Jessie Wise’s (2009) tome on classical education, *The Well-Trained Mind: A Guide to Classical Education at Home*, illustrates what the grammar stage entails in a classical approach:

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24 Hartwell’s (1985) *Grammar, Grammars, and the Teaching of Grammars* describes the five definitions of grammar: 1) the formal patterns in which words of a language are arranged to convey meaning; 2) concerns itself with the description, analysis and formulation of formal language patterns through the branch of linguistics; 3) linguistic etiquette; 4) school grammar; and 5) stylistic grammar (p.110-111). Essentially, these are all the types of grammar that would be utilized in a classical education curriculum.

25 Classical education is used most often in homeschooling environments because of the religious denomination. Sherfinski’s (2014) “Contextualizing the Tools of a Classical and Christian Homeschooling Mother-Teacher” demonstrates classical education’s influence on homeschooling by implying, “Fourteen of the top 20 Amazon.com ‘homeschooling’ best sellers are linked with classical and Christian education” (p. 171). Therefore, it can only be implied by Internet marketing companies that classical education is influential in homeschooling environments.
So the key to the first stage of the trivium [grammar] is content, content, content. In history, science, literature, and, to a lesser extent, art and music, the child should be accumulating masses of information: stories of people and wars; names of rivers, cities, mountains, and oceans; scientific names, properties of matter, classifications; plots, characters, and descriptions. The young writer should be memorizing the nuts and bolts of language—parts of speech, parts of a sentence, vocabulary roots. (p. 23)

The main goal of the grammar stage, therefore, is to get students accustomed to the facts of a plethora of subject areas. It should be noted that students are not being asked to interpret these facts, evaluate these facts, or even analyze these facts for their effectiveness. The later stages of the trivium (logic and rhetoric) are when students start applying these higher order thinking skills, or the skills in Bloom’s Taxonomy.26

According to Bauer and Wise (2009), the grammar stage is an important stage because this is where the foundation of the child’s learning takes place. If looking at this from a public school perspective, the grammar stage takes place from kindergarten to fourth grade and is the time when students should be reading and writing about the facts, not interpreting the facts. In fact, the authors state, “If you skimp on reading or writing, though, you’re likely to hamper the child’s educational progress” (p. 25). To further demonstrate the damage to a student’s progress when the grammar stage is skipped and students are forced to use higher-order-thinking skills too early, Sister Miriam Joseph’s (2002) classical treatise, *The Trivium: The Liberal Arts of Logic, Grammar, and Rhetoric*, reasons, “For example, a child of three may use correct grammar even though the child knows nothing of formal grammar. Similarly, logic and rhetoric may be

26 The six level of Bloom’s Taxonomy include remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating, and creating. For the trivium’s sake, students use the higher-order skills of analyzing, evaluating, and creating (“Bloom’s Taxonomy,” n.d.).
effectively used by those who do not know the precepts of these arts” (p. 6). Joseph places the final emphasis on the importance of grammar and the usage of the trivium in general stating, “It is, however, desirable and satisfying to acquire a clear knowledge of the precepts and to know why certain forms or expression or thought are right and wrong” (p. 6). Therefore, the goal of the grammar stage is to give students the foundational rules of language, so they can adequately apply it to future work in logic and rhetoric.27

While the natural scaffolding is illustrated by Joseph (2002) and Bauer and Wise (2009), a more in-depth understanding of how the grammar stage works in an English classroom needs to be unfolded. Because four years of English is required for graduation from a public high school, the overarching goal for any high school English teacher should be to guide students on their college or career path with the linguistic capabilities to read, write, and decipher language. Not only should students be reading and writing at an analytical level, they should also be able to create and modify language to suit their needs for any kairotic situation; simply, students should be able to get out of high school with the ability to communicate clearly. For example, Glenn’s (1995) chapter, “When Grammar Was a Language Art,” in The Place of Grammar in Writing Instruction: Past, Present, and Future, argues for linguistic competence in English and composition classrooms (p. 10). Glenn debates, “When grammar was a language art, it was more than punctuation and usage, more than rules of linguistic etiquette, more than isolated drills and exercises. It was a language art that enhanced—rather than displaced instruction and practice in composition” (p. 10). Essentially, Glenn argues that grammar, in its truest form, enhances a student’s linguistic competence and repertoire.

27 Leithart (2008) demonstrates this goal by stating, “Grammar makes use of the faculties of observation and memory and involves the mastery of foundational facts.” (p. 3).
In order to get to this understanding of style in the high school level, instruction in grammar needs to occur after students complete phonics instruction. Phonics, according to “Understanding Phonics” by Wiley Blevins (n.d.), teaches “students the most common sound-spelling relationships so that they can decode, or sound out, words” (Blevins, n.d.). The instruction for phonics, according to Blevins, needs to be explicit, which means that lessons illustrate “explicit explanation of the sound-spelling being taught along with guided opportunities for students to blend, or sound out, words using the new sound-spelling” (Blevins, n.d.). Once phonics instruction is complete, students should begin using a prescriptivist approach to grammar for understanding language. Diane B. Lockman’s (2009) *Trivium Mastery: The Intersection of Three Roads* illuminates what foundational pedagogical tools are needed and should be replicated. Lockman illustrates, “the six specific language abilities that every literate child needs to master: (1) how to read, (2) how to spell, (3) how to write, (4) how to punctuate and capitalize, (5) how to use proper grammar, and (6) how to decipher unfamiliar vocabulary” (p. 25). For specific pedagogical practices in the grammar stage, Lockman lays out how to address the six language abilities she advocates for in Figure 1 (p. 31).

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28 According to the Literacy Information and Communication System (n.d.), phonics provides the following benefits for students: systematic instruction in phonics is more effective than non-systematic or no phonics instruction; systematic and explicit phonics instruction significantly improve kindergarten and first grade children’s word recognition and spelling; phonics improves children’s reading comprehension; phonics is effective for students from various socioeconomic statuses; phonics is beneficial for students who have trouble reading; phonics is most effective when introduced early; and two years of phonics instruction is sufficient (Literacy Information and Communication System, n.d.).

29 According to the National Reading Panel (2000), “The primary focus of phonics instruction is to help beginning readers understand how letters are linked to sounds (phonemes) to form letter-sound correspondences and spelling patterns and to help them learn how to apply this knowledge in their reading.”
Although Lockman argues the aforementioned six categories are fundamental in developing students’ skills in Figure 1, Bauer and Wise (2009) have compacted these six elements into four separate disciplines: spelling, English grammar, reading, and writing (p. 51).

No matter how one may categorize grammar instruction, the takeaway message should be as follows: “In a way, the grammar of language is the foundation on which all other subjects rest. Until a student reads without difficulty, he can’t absorb the grammar of history, literature, or science; until a student writes with each, he can’t express his growing mastery of the material” (p. 50-51). Therefore, the grammar stage is pivotal in students’ understanding of all subjects because if they cannot master the basic building blocks of language, they are not able to communicate or understand the thoughts of others. The grammar stage of a trivium education, consequently, requires that students employ the phonics approach, prescriptivist grammar, orthography, and vocabulary instruction. Before a child can truly learn, he/she needs to have this foundation of knowledge, or the grammar of learning.
Reading Instruction in the Grammar Stage

Reading is the core to classical education because it allows the student to learn a variety of concepts and it is also one of their first introductions to language. Reading, however, is not magically developed by students. Students must find themselves in a literacy-rich environment, which is advocated by Holdaway’s (1975) Theory of Literacy Development (Tracey and Morrow, 2012, p. 95). According to Holdaway’s theory, which is discussed in Tracey and Morrow’s (2012) Lenses on Reading: An Introduction to Theories and Models, students gradually develop their ability to read through seeing and mimicking their parents or other adults around them. Students may try to read themselves, but that act equates to what Holdaway calls “gross approximations” because they are not able to make meaning out of the text on the page (qtd. in Tracey and Morrow, 2012, p. 95). These approximations are developed until the student reaches the process of being able to read on their own, so “the development of reading is natural and very much mimics children’s natural development of oral language skills” (p. 95). Direct phonics instructions further helps students develop the skillset necessary to increase reading ability. Consequently, students must be surrounded by an environment that allows them to see reading taking place and for the opportunity to read themselves; with no encouragement or a stimulating environment, students most likely struggle with reading in the future.30 Since reading takes a forefront in the classical education curriculum, students are immersed in a literacy-rich environment that supports their development of reading through a variety of texts including classical literature. Aristotle best summarizes the use of reading in The Poetics when

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30 Kelly Gallagher’s (2009) book, Readicide: How Schools are Killing Reading and What you Can Do About It, believes that schools are forced to teach students to the test, which kills the love of reading. Essentially, “…the overemphasis of teaching reading through the lens of preparing students for state-mandated reading tests has become so completely unbalanced that it is drowning any chance our adolescents have of developing into lifelong leaders. We are developing test-takers at the expense of readers” (p. 7).
he states, “It is, moreover, evident from what has been said, that it is not the function of the poet to relate what has happened, but what may happen—what is possible according to the low of probability or necessity” (p. 16). Through reading, students not only get the issue at hand, but the bigger picture of what could possibly happen; therefore, the student develops critical thinking and creativity skills to be used in the latter stages of the trivium.

Not only do children go through phases of learning to read, but there are four Stage Models to reading development, which were disseminated by educators in the 1980s (Tracey and Morrow, 2012, p. 98). The four Stage Models of reading development include the following: the Pre-alphabetic Stage, the Partial Alphabetical Stage, Full Alphabetic Stage, and the Consolidated Alphabetic Stage. The Pre-alphabetic Stage occurs when “children use visual cues as their primary method of word recognition and memorize words by their shape” (p. 97). Children are not reading alphabetic text, but are using the visual cues in their development of alphabetic knowledge. Continuing to the Partial Alphabetical Stage, children start to use alphabetic text sounds to help them identify various words even if it is only a reliance on one or two letters (p. 97). After children have developed and passed through the Partial Alphabetic Stage, they move on to the Full Alphabetic Stage. In this stage, children use all letters of words to come to meaning. The Consolidated Alphabetic Stage is where “…readers use their automatic knowledge of sound-letter relationships to help them read using letter patterns within words. These letter patterns…help readers process text more quickly” (p. 97). With direct instruction in phonics, students’ natural learning is further fortified. According to the Stage Models, this development occurs when students are in the grammar stage of a classical education curriculum. The progression from phonics to grammar study occurs within the grammar stage of the student’s
study, especially since it covers kindergarten through fourth grade.\textsuperscript{31} A classically educated
student, though, is not solely educated at school; therefore, students need to be immersed in a
rich, educationally focused home environment. Therefore, a classical education’s purpose is to
help students develop their natural abilities by following ancient and modern theorists.\textsuperscript{32}

Leigh A. Bortins’ (2010) \textit{The Core: Teaching Your Child the Foundations of Classical
Education} illuminates three key strategies for the implementation of reading within the classical
education curriculum: read books above a student’s reading level to increase speaking
vocabulary, read easy books below level in order to master common words, and read books at a
comfortable level to gently increase reading skills (p. 90). When allowing a student to read and
comprehend a variety of texts at varying levels, their vocabulary increases along with their
understanding of the language as a whole. Even though students should be reading below, at,
and above reading level, Bauer and Wise (2009) advocate for students to read full-length texts
because “reading texts”—texts that only contain parts of stories and poems and are accompanied
by comprehension exercises—turn reading into a chore (p. 57). They continue, “‘Reading texts’
mutilate real books by pulling sections out of context and presenting them as ‘assignments’” (p. 57).
Kelly Gallagher (2009) in \textit{Readicide} also supports the use of full-texts because the smaller
texts are accompanied by multiple choice comprehension questions, which only mimic the

\textsuperscript{31} Although this study focuses on high school students who should already have this foundation of knowledge, the
goal of this study is to provide an understanding of how a full-classical education would be implemented. Additionally, it is meant to provide a replicable model for teachers (K-12) to model if they choose. Therefore, setting the foundations of knowledge of all stages (K-12) is necessary.

\textsuperscript{32} Martha Nussbaum’s (1997) \textit{Cultivating Humanity: A Classical Defense for Reform in Liberal Education}
demonstrates the imagination that is created through reading in a liberal art’s fashion, “When a child and parent
begin to tell stories together, the child is acquiring essential moral capacities…They learn to attribute life, emotion,
and thought to a form whose insides are hidden. As time goes on, they do this in a increasingly sophisticated way,
learning to hear and tell stories about animals and humans” (p. 89). In a classical environment, students are
encompassed in this environment daily.
standardized testing within schools (p. 8). With that in mind, Bauer and Wise advocate for the following reading schedule for students: first grade, Ancients (5000 B.C.—A.D. 400); second grade, Medieval—early Renaissance (400-1600); third grade, Late Renaissance—early modern (1600-1850); and fourth grade, modern (1850-present) (Bauer and Wise, 2009, p. 57). Students read these stories, but they are simplified versions because the goal of reading in this stage is to get students “to read quickly, well, and habitually; and to fill his mind with stories of every kind—myths, legends, classic tales, biographies, great stories from history” (p. 56). As a result, students may not get, for example, all the plot ideas of The Odyssey mastered in this stage, but the material comes easier in the logic and rhetoric stage when this model is repeated.

The material of study is taught in a manner that allows teachers to move from the ancients to the moderns smoothly. Oftentimes, there is no cohesion in modern education with the teaching of history and novel/genre study; therefore, one of the trivium’s goals is to teach students from this model so that they can see how the world has been shaped. For example, students should see how the Greek gods and goddesses are influential to ancient times, but they would then infer the allusions that refer back to ancient symbols and beliefs.

In order for students to first start developing an understanding of reading, they need to first listen to the language and how it is being used. One of the best methods of instruction for students learning the English language is to use strategies promoted by English Language Learner (ELL) instructors. These strategies are illuminated in Peggy Hickman and Sharolyn D. Pollard-Durodola’s (2009) Dynamic Read-Aloud Strategies for English Learners: Building

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33 Gallagher (2009) gives two specific reasons why authentic reading is needed: “1) A curriculum steeped in multiple-choice test preparation drives shallow teaching and learning; and 2) Rather than lift up struggling readers, an emphasis on multiple choice test preparation ensures that struggling readers continue to struggle. Test preparation reading plays a large part in maintaining ‘apartheid schools’” (p. 8).

34 Students also completed a compare and contrast essay utilizing Mythology Theory by Roland Barthes (Danesi, 2012, p. 54-55). Students were required to compare and contrast The Odyssey and O Brother, Where Art Thou?
Language and Literacy in the Primary Grades. Since reading aloud is a key instructional strategy to classical education, which was supported by Lockman (2009), the strategies within Hickman and Pollard-Durodola’s guide fit perfectly with how the grammar stage of a classical curriculum helps develop reading skills. When selecting texts to read aloud to students, it is important to pick out texts that are relevant to Vygotsky’s (1978) beliefs of cultural awareness, which allows students to read texts from their culture and then gradually move to texts in an alternative culture (Hickman and Pollard-Durodola, 2009, p. 2-3). Even though these two authors are focusing on ELL students, the focus on a native English speaker’s culture, especially in the primary years, is essential for students to create meaning between their culture and other cultures, which sets the foundation for future higher level thinking skills such as synthesis.

Pedagogically, Hickman and Pollard-Durodola believe that “effective reading comprehension instruction might focus initially on helping students understand text about familiar concepts…in the long term, instruction might focus on teaching students to generalize from that kind of familiar context to multiple contexts” (p. 3). Therefore, students start with familiar aspects but after more reading has been completed, the student branches out.

The remaining stages in reading instruction include the following strategies illuminated by Lockman: read as often as possible, use real books, be patient as a student is learning to listen, don’t read books that are uninteresting, vary length and subject matter, plan time for student questions, express oneself when reading (student and teacher), and be a good role model (2009, p. 31-32). Through these strategies, students start to learn the structure of texts and how they work to create meaning (p. 34). Throughout reading instruction, as mentioned previously, students should also partake in phonics instruction instead of a whole language approach. Specific pedagogical strategies for improving reading skills through a phonics approach include
hearing the language through audiotapes, parents and teachers reading to students with
expression, and including the students in conversation (p. 27-28). Bauer and Wise (2009) also
suggest that students practice recitation and narration and memorization (p. 58). Once the
student has completed a phonics program, students should start practicing oral readings with a
parent, teacher, or audiotape (p. 62-63).

**Writing Instruction in the Grammar Stage**

When it comes to writing instruction in the grammar stage, students should simply be
practicing penmanship in the beginning (Bauer and Wise, 2009, p. 64). After students have
practiced and mastered penmanship, students start to copy remote exercises from various pieces
of classical literature, which allows the student to practice “spelling, mechanics (punctuation and
so forth), basic grammar (subject-verb agreement, adjective use), and vocabulary from a master
of...prose” (p. 64). Once mastery of copying classical pieces of literature has been attained,
students practice the skill of dictation as a teacher or parent reads aloud sentences.

Fundamentally, students should start out with short sentences and then move on to bigger
sentences (p. 64). Additionally, Bauer and Wise add the following about the key skills learned
through dictation: “Dictation is a tool that develops a number of language skills: phonics,
spelling, handwriting, grammar, and punctuation. By writing sentences from high-quality
writers, the child learns—almost subconsciously—the rules of good style and expression” (p.
66). As the students progress through their schooling, the dictations and copying exercises

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35 The Emergent Literacy Theory first employed by Marie Clay (1966) declares that listening, speaking, reading, and
writing skills are all interrelated (qtd. in Tracey and Morrow, 2012, p. 99). Therefore, providing a student with
literacy-rich environments that include speaking, listening, and writing skills is a necessity, which is provided by a
classical education’s pedagogical techniques. Consequently, children who are provided with experiences to develop
all four skillsets excel at reading earlier on, but students who are not provided with these experiences early on most
likely struggle with their development in literacy (Tracey and Morrow, 2012, p. 99-100). Tracey and Morrow’s
work, *Lenses on Reading: An Introduction to Theories and Models*, provides classroom application models for
should get longer and more complex. Students should also start placing punctuation marks within their writings, which is accompanied by student created summaries in other subject areas (p. 67). Therefore, teaching students through the phonics approach first is pivotal in getting students to understand proper grammatical concepts and punctuation placement as instruction progresses. Even at this young age, students in the trivium are being exposed to quality pieces of literature and, therefore, students learn what it takes to use language appropriately.

Although writing may seem basic because students are doing minimal writing, it sets up the foundational skills necessary for success in the future. One key component of writing students should be practicing is the development and understanding of vocabulary. For successful vocabulary development, students need to develop their skills through reading and Latin and Greek roots (Bauer and Wise, 2009, p. 23). Understanding Latin and Greek roots allows students to understand how words are formed, but it also gives the students the knowledge of deciphering words they may not know. Overall, students develop their reading and writing skills through a myriad of pedagogical strategies.
CHAPTER 3: LOGIC

Logic is the second stage in the trivium and its purpose is to complement a student’s study of grammar. The logic stage is often referred to as the dialectic stage, too; nevertheless, these two terms are synonymous for the purposes of this trivium study. Although, when looking at them individually, these terms have different purposes. Martin Robinson (2013) explains this difference in *Trivium 21c: Preparing Young People for the Future with Lessons from the Past* by stating, “Logic includes mathematical and scientific thinking, these are not the same but they can be considered complementary” (p. 117). Continuing with this differentiation of terms, Robinson suggests, “Dialectic is understood as argument, debate, and dialogues, and also of mashing, mixing, and joining up ideas” (p. 117). Even though there may be different definitions, the consensus is that the goal of the logic stage is to get students to think critically and reasonably in all subject areas.

**History of Logic**

Logic situates itself with how facts work in making meaning. To further explicate the goal of logic, Martin explicates, “Logic is the art of reasoning. It is associated with a system of thinking that can lead to valid conclusions derived from a set of premises. This separates it from emotional responses and irrational feelings” (p. 121). As a result, the goal of logic is to come to reason, but it took five periods of development according to Joseph Bochenski’s (1956) *History of Formal Logic*. These five periods include the ancient period (beginning to 6th century A.D.), the high Middle Age (7th to 11th centuries), the Scholastic period (11th to 15th centuries), the older period of modern ‘classical’ logic (16th to 19th centuries), and mathematical logic (from the middle of the nineteenth century) (p. 11). Starting with the ancient period, logic became an official field of study with Aristotle; however, the origins date further back than Aristotle. The
creation of grammar in ancient Greek society contributed to the development of logic. Plato, Isocrates, and Aristotle, for example, helped to established grammatical principles, which were mentioned in Grammar chapter. To understand logic’s development, rhetoricians and their contributions to grammar has to be deciphered.

For example, Protagoras created grammar by distinguishing different types of sentences: questions, answers, prayers, and injunctions (“History of Logic,” 2015, p. 1). Development of syntax and semantics later changed these categories, but these sentence types started the development of grammar and logic. Plato, though, seemed to be a major contributor to the development of syntax and semantics in ancient Greece. For example, Susanne Bobzien’s (2006) history of logic, “Ancient Logic,” appears on the Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy’s website and says, “Something is a statement if it both succeeds in specifying a subject and says something about this subject. Plato thus determines subject and predicate as relational elements in a statement and excludes as statements subject-predicate combinations containing empty subject expressions” (p. 3). Not only did Plato’s development of syntax and semantics develop grammar, but it also contributed to the development of logic.

The sophists—Gorgias, Hippias, Prodicus, and Protagoras—required that arguments be supported by reasoning, specifically moral reasoning (“History of Logic,” 2015, p. 1). Shenefelt and White (2013) in If A then B: How the World Discovered Logic suggest the sophists believed in rational reasoning, but it was based on what man had approved at the time (p. 44). Additionally, they add, “Nevertheless, what distinguished many of the Sophists was the sheer crudity of their appeal. They often aimed bluntly at popularity alone, and their effort on rhetoric was to stress whatever techniques proved persuasive, whether rational or not” (p. 44). Even though a myriad of sophistic work is not available, the general consensus is the sophists relied on
bombastic rhetoric to persuade their audience. Conversely, Duke’s (n.d.) “The Sophists” demonstrates that this bombastic rhetoric is an oversimplification and is in part courtesy of Plato and Aristotle: “Due in large part to the influence of Plato and Aristotle, the term sophistry has come to signify the deliberate use of fallacious reasoning, intellectual charlatanism and moral unscrupulousness” (Duke, n.d.). The deliberate use of fallacious reasoning, though, does require logic to be used. On the other hand, Socrates and Plato did develop a more precise use of logic through the development of dialectic, which happens to be an alternative name to logic in the trivium. Socrates, for example, created ways to effectively refute an opponent’s argument and this “Socratic refutation was an exchange of questions and answers in which the opponents would be led, on the basis of their answers, to a conclusion incompatible with their original claim” (Bobzien, 2006, p. 3). Plato later named this strategy dialectical arguments and he devised them to be structured, rule-governed contests (p. 3). Furthermore, logical fallacies and paradoxes in language were developed by Plato (p. 3).

Plato’s contribution to logic was important, but logic became an official subject of study only during the reign of Aristotle. Logic, therefore, could now be divided into three categories: deductive\(^{36}\), inductive\(^{37}\), and abductive\(^{38}\). Aristotle, for example, introduced deductive logic through the use of the syllogism, which has become an iconic logic principle:

The syllogism is the act of reasoning by which the mind perceives that from the relation of two propositions (called premises) having one term in common there necessarily

\(^{36}\) Deductive reasoning: “an argument where (roughly) the truth of the premises would guarantee the truth of the conclusion” (“An overview”).

\(^{37}\) Inductive reasoning: “an argument where the premises register the known cases of a certain phenomenon, and the conclusion suggests that unknown cases will be like the known cases” (“An overview”).

\(^{38}\) Abductive reasoning: “an argument that is neither deductive nor inductive, where the conclusion stands as an explanation of facts given in the premises” (“An overview”).
emerges a new, third proposition (called the conclusion) in which the common term, called the middle term (M), does not appear. (Joseph, 2002, p. 130)

To further explicate this procedure, the saying “Socrates is a man. All men are mortal. Therefore, Socrates is mortal” explains how the syllogism goes from two premises (Socrates and mortal), which have the common term of (men/man), equate to the conclusion that Socrates is mortal. Additionally, Hurley (2008) says, “But Aristotle also deserve credit for originating modal logic, a kind of logic that involves such concepts as possibility, necessity, belief, and doubt” (p. 5). The use of modal logic becomes complicated quickly, but the general understanding is to consider the consequence(s) of adding a modal qualification—necessary, possible, or assetorics (non-modal)—to one or two premises (Smith, 2011, p. 10). Overall, the goal of modal logic is to see what forms of the conclusion one can draw out from the premises (p. 10).

Aristotle’s *The Organon* is his most famous work on logic because it outlines six works of logic: *The Categories, On Interpretation, Prior Analytics, Posterior Analytics, Topics,* and *Sophistic Refutations.* Throughout these works, Aristotle works on defining and systematizing logic. For example, in the *Topics* book, chapter 1, “What reasoning is,” explains “Now reasoning is an argument in which, certain things being laid down, something other than theses necessarily comes about through them” (Aristotle, 2013, p. 217). Aristotle goes on to further define reasoning by listing four claims about reasoning: 1) reasoning is a demonstration, which comes through premises that are true and primary; 2) reasoning is dialectical if it considers opinions that are acceptable; 3) reasoning is contentious if it starts from generally accepted premises, but these premises may not always be generally accepted; and 4) there are mis-reasonings that evolve from premises that belong to specific sciences such as geometry (p. 217-218). Throughout the six works, Aristotle systematized logic through defining and elaborating
on a myriad of concepts. Therefore, the end goal, according to Zegarelli’s (2007) *Logic for Dummies*, for Aristotle is as follows: “Aristotle considered the goal of philosophy to be scientific knowledge, and saw the structure of scientific knowledge as logical. Using geometry as his model, he saw that science consisted of proofs, proofs of syllogisms, syllogisms of statements, and statements of terms” (p. 20). When looking at the bigger picture, Aristotle started the world’s infatuation with logic and how a student needed an education in logic to be considered a productive and moral citizen.

Ancient Greek logic did not solely rest with Aristotle, but it also originated from the Megarians and the Stoics. Eubulides, a Megarian, helped contribute to logic because he created logical paradoxes, with the liar as his infamous paradox (“Eubulides of Miletus”). The hooded man, the bald man, and the horned man are all additional paradoxes that Eubulides developed (Kneale and Kneale, 1962, p. 114). In addition to logical paradoxes, the Megarians also defined a plethora of modal notions and debated interpretations of conditional propositions because they were interested in logical puzzles (“History of Logic,” 2015, p. 7). For example, an important Megarian was Diodorus Cronus (4th century BCE) because he created what is called the Master Argument, which relies on three propositions: 1) everything about the past is now necessary; 2) the impossible does not follow from the possible; and 3) there is something that is possible, and yet neither is nor will be true (p. 7). The last proposition, though, was revised to say, “Whatever is possible either is or will be true. In short, there are no possibilities that are not realized now or in the future” (p. 7). In summation, the three major contributions the Megarians made to logic include the following according to Kneale and Kneale’s (1962) *The Development of Logic*: the invention of a number of interesting paradoxes, the re-examination of the modal notions, and the initiation of an important debate on the nature of conditional statements (p. 114). The Megarians,
consequently, were an important but often underrated influence on the development of logic studies.

The Megarians’ contribution led to one highly rated school of thought, the Stoics. Stoic philosophy relied on finding the good life for human beings (Shenefelt and White, 2013, p. 74). Philosophically, the Stoics “…believed the universe was governed by a law of reason, emanating from God, and that the good life consisted in following this law” (p. 74). In addition to belief, morality became a key concern and applied to the Stoic philosophy of “…do right without excuses and without fear of death” (p. 74). Morality became an essential principle in Stoic philosophy. The most infamous Stoic was Chrysippus and he contributed whole propositions to the study of logic: “Chrysippus treated every proposition as either true or false and developed rules for determining the truth or falsity of compound propositions from the truth or falsity of their components” (Hurley, 2008, p. 5). Not only was Chrysippus relevant as being a leader in the Stoic school, but he was also a prolific writer and contributed over a hundred works to the field of logic studies (King and Shapiro, 1995, p. 497). Logic, though, after the Megarian and the Stoic school of thought became dormant for over a thousand years until it picked up strength in the twelfth century (Hurley, 2008, p. 5; King and Shapiro, 1995, p. 497; Zegarelli, 2007, p. 25).

Logic was not, however, the king of understanding in ancient Greece or Rome because style, or rhetoric as some call it, took precedence—probably because little in the wake of logic philosophy was developed after the Stoic school of thought. Rhetoricians, though, concerned their work with the development of rhetoric, or logic as style; for example, Gorgias, Isocrates, Cicero, and Quintilian. Rhetoric and logic, though, did make a distinct separation in philosophy.

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39 Chrysippus’ work was so relevant to logic study that computer processing would be impossible without his works. Additionally, he contributed the follow six new forms of syllogisms: the method of affirming, the method of denying, the hypothetical syllogism, the conjunctive syllogism, the dilemma, and the disjunctive syllogism (Shenefelt and White, 2013, p. 80-83)
during the ancient times because “Logic concerned rationality, but rhetoric concerned persuasion” (Shenefelt and White, 2013, p. 45). Therefore, rhetoric and logic separated themselves from each other because of their content and because of the works of Plato and Aristotle. However, Sheneflet and White (2013) state that rhetoric and logic may be separate disciplines, but they rely on each other to create an effective speech or writing (p. 45). In fact, Pericles’ last speech proves such a belief, “A man who has the knowledge but lacks the power to express it clearly is no better off than if he never had any ideas at all” (Thucydides, n.d.). Ancient Greek society may have separated the two disciplines, but they knew they cannot work solely on their own because of their influence on one another. In fact, their educational curriculum of the trivium included these two disciplines together with grammar; therefore, showing that one cannot use rhetoric without logic or logic without grammar.

Logic started to make its comeback because of works by Peter Abelard (1079-1142) in the high Middle Age (7th to 11th centuries) and the Scholastic period (11th to 15th centuries), according to Bochenski (p. 11). Contributing to the definition of logic, Abelard added, “…the role of the copula in categorical propositions, the effects of different positions of the negation sign in categorical propositions, modal notion such as ‘possibility,’ future contingents, and conditional propositions or ‘consequences’” (“History of logic,” n.d.). Although Abelard added information to the logic cannon, Aristotle’s works were still pivotal in the understanding of logic, especially Sophistical Refutations (“History of logic,” n.d.; Zegarelli, 2007, p. 25). Other logicians that attributed to logic include William of Sherwood (1200-1271), Peter of Spain (1205-1277), and William of Ockham (1285-1347) who contributed a logical treatise, a standard logic textbook (used for three hundred years), and extended the theory of modal logic respectively (Hurley, 2008, p. 7).
After the Middle Ages and the Medieval time period, logic declined in study and was replaced by the study of rhetoric (p. 7). However, in the Renaissance, logic was still relevant to the education and treatises of rhetoricians because logic was a necessity. One of the first individuals to denounce rhetoric or style for logic was Peter Ramus in *Arguments in Rhetoric against Quintilian* where he adamantly denounces the classical understanding of rhetoric:

“Therefore dialectic comprises, as proper to it, the arts of invention, arrangement and memory…From the development of language and speech only two proper parts will be left for rhetoric, style and delivery; rhetoric will possess nothing proper and of its own beyond these” (p. 687). With Ramus’s belief disseminated, rhetoric started to see its decline. Additionally, logic started to appear within the Renaissance’s understanding of language because “mathematics led to more formal logical structures that increasingly became the norm by which to measure language” (Williams, 2005, p. 9). Additionally, “Scholars began comparing the natural language of speech to the artificial languages of math and logic and asserted that natural language should conform accordingly” (p.9). At this point, logic started to rise to its current status.

Rhetoricians such as Bacon, Locke, Campbell, and Blair further helped illuminate the belief that language, which concerns itself with the teaching and learning of English, started to solidify itself with logic; therefore, style was a nuisance and hindered society’s ability to reach an understanding of truth, if it can be reached at all. All of this development in logic occurred during the older period of modern ‘classical’ logic (16th to 19th centuries) according to Bochenski (p. 11). Bacon, for example, distrusted language and the variety of forms that one can use to make meaning, which is in direct contrast to Erasmus’ *Copia*. Bacon believed that words

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40 “Early modern texts devoted to style, and especially to the figures of speech, are also important source for the rhetorical study of style, including Erasmus’s *De Copia* (1512-1530), Susenbrotus’s *Epitome Troporum ac Schematum* (1541), Melanchthon’s *Elementorum Rhetorices* (1542), and…Peacham’s *The Garden of Eloquence* (1593) and Hoskins’ *Direction for Speech and Style* (ca. 1600)” (Fahnestock, 2011, p. 8).
distort an individual’s understanding of the speaker’s message (Bacon, 1605, p. 747). Locke continues Bacon’s mistrust in words into the Enlightenment period in *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding*. Within this essay, Locke believes that language/words can distort one’s understanding of the message unless they bring to the hearer’s mind the exact image in the speaker’s mind (p. 818). Locke further illustrates this belief when he discusses how a hearer feels if they did not attain the same image as the speaker,

> Without this [identical image], men fill one another’s heads with noise and sounds; but convey not thereby their thoughts and lay not before one another their ideas, which is the end of discourse and language. But when a word stands for a very complex idea that is compounded and decompounded, it is not easy for men to form and retain that idea so exactly, as to make the name in common use stand for the same precise idea, without any the least variation. (p. 818)

Therefore, language, and the instruction of language, needs to be precise and logical, which is why Locke advocated for the simplification of language and to rid the language of unnecessary style.

> Simplifying language through the use of logic can only occur through the education of an individual, which is why Campbell and Blair advocated for education. This education in the Enlightenment focused itself on making instruction useful and logical. Campbell did not actively dismiss style, but believed that logic must drive a student’s understanding of style. For example, Campbell’s *The Philosophy of Rhetoric* best illustrates this belief when he mentions, “As logic therefore forges the arms which eloquence teacheth us to wield… [we may know] when and how each is to be used” (p. 906). As a result of this education, the student should be able to “be master of the language he speaks or writes, and must be capable of adding to grammatic purity
those higher qualities of elocution which will render his discourse graceful and energetic. So much for the connexion [sic] that subsists between rhetoric and these parent arts, logic and grammar” (p. 907). Education started to fuse itself with the study of logic more forcefully within the Medieval/Renaissance and Enlightenment era. Whereas in the past, many educators focused on sophistic rhetoric, or teaching pupils to utilize style to persuade an audience. To finalize the thoughts on logic and its importance within the Enlightenment era, Hugh Blair (1783) in *Lectures on Rhetoric and Belles Lettres* illustrates that a student or “orator ought to be an accomplished scholar, and conversant in every part of learning” (p. 950). Therefore, a student educated through this system of logic and rhetoric can, as Blair further illustrates, cultivate reason: “All that regards the study of eloquence and composition merits the higher attention upon this account, that it is intimately connected with the improvement of our intellectual powers” (p. 952). Therefore, through rhetorical education one can develop their intellectual powers and thus be a productive and sound denizen.

From its rise in ancient Greece through the works of Aristotle, logic seems to be the king of education because all individuals need to be educated properly and with reason. The Age of Reason—mathematical logic (from the middle of the nineteenth century) according to Bochenski (p. 11)—also saw a rise in the need to educate citizens other than those who could afford private education. The goal of this mass education was simply to give students the basics of morality and civic virtue, or logical reasoning (Williams, 2005, p. 13). Therefore, it was concluded that the purpose of education was simply to create logical individuals that knew how to speak and write correctly. Williams illuminates this belief when he implies, “Soon, failure to follow the prescriptions for correct speaking was deemed not only an error in logic but also a sign of moral inferiority” (p. 13). Style, which was part of the classical education curriculum, was no longer
seen as important within the education of students. It is this logical thinking that has allowed modern education to take shape where students are only taught to be logical within the workforce. Even though this may sound workable in theory, the current state of education, which was mentioned within the introduction, exemplifies that this thinking has led to a plethora of issues in education.

One of the most important factors of logical thinking within modern and postmodern theory is the belief that individuals come to an understanding of logic through the social interactions to which they are exposed. Today’s logic is dependent on one’s trade or career, which may or may not need an understanding of the classics. Logic, therefore, is developed and strengthened through a variety of discourse communities. For example, I. A. Richards (1936) explains in *The Philosophy of Rhetoric* that knowledge, and in this case logic, is developed through the various contexts in which it used: “When the passions—the combative passion and others—intervene, either in the formation of an utterance or in its interpretation, we have examples of context actions just as much when the word ‘paper,’ says, takes its meaning from its contexts” (p. 1287). Even though Richards may not be discussing logic in general, it can be inferred that the logic one sees fit depends on the context, or the situation in which it is found—i.e. a mechanic will have a different set of logical tools than a mathematician or linguist. Miller (1987) further illuminates this issue by stating, “In brief, we find in our environment an indeterminate number and variety of recurrent rhetorical affairs, but also in business, industry, government and the mass media” (p. 67). Because of these rhetorical affairs, logic had to change its definition; therefore, the logic of language for classical education cannot compete. Howe (2011) argues, “Latin and Greek can’t compete with vocational disciplines such as engineering, business, and medicine” (p. 31). Because of this thought, it is often thought that the study of the
classics “would not ensure you a job or even provide a useful skill; it was a sign of elitism, pedantry, or agnosticism” (Hanson and Heath, 2001, p. 12). The modern and post-modern thoughts on logic are based on the context in which the logic is used. The classical view of logic through language has become irrelevant according to modern and post-modern thought.

**Logic Instruction**

Educating students with a sense of logic includes a variety of pedagogical techniques; however, the driving force behind logic study in a classroom is to get students to develop their critical thinking skills. The logic stage would, normally, take place during the student’s middle school years (fifth through eighth grade). Bauer and Wise (2009) in *The Well-Trained Mind: A Guide to Classical Education at Home* say that the purpose of the logic stage is “…to connect all the facts she has learned and to discover the relationships among them” (p. 229). The skills needed in the logic stage according to Lockman’s (2009) *Trivium Mastery: The Intersection of Three Roads* includes the following seven categories: (1) how to arrange data according to systems, (2) how to solve problems, (3) how to structure and analyze arguments, (4) how to use the scientific method, (5) how to analyze literature, (6) how to research a topic, and (7) how to listen (p. 45). Through the development of these seven skills enumerated by Lockman, students build upon the language foundation created in the grammar stage. Lockman’s pedagogical strategies can be found within Figure 2 (p. 51). With all of the strategies mentioned by Lockman, the most important strategy is to let the students discover and think for themselves, which Bauer and Wise illustrate as follows: “Now, you won’t be feeding the child with a spoon. You’ll be asking her to dig a little deeper, to do more discovering on her own” (2009, p. 234). This digging takes place through independent study as well as through dialectic (i.e. discussion), which transfers to additional subjects. Classical education helps a student
transfer their knowledge from one subject to another; therefore, stopping what Dorothy Sayers (1947) mentioned in “The Lost Tools of Learning,” “Do you ever find that young people, when they have left school, not only forget most of what they have learnt (that is only to be expected), but forget also, or betray that they have never really known, how to tackle a new subject for themselves?”

Figure 2: Lockman's Logic Stage Pedagogical Practices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(1) Arranging Data</th>
<th>(2) Solving Problems</th>
<th>(3) Structure/Analyze Arguments</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Classify into categories</td>
<td>Identify and complete sequences</td>
<td>Identify claims and determine validity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Describe attributes</td>
<td>Explain steps to creation or solution</td>
<td>Distinguish between fact and opinion</td>
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<td>Recognize similarities and differences</td>
<td>Associate and interpret analogies</td>
<td>Build affirmative and negative positions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Recall and relate patterns</td>
<td>Answer puzzles, riddles, and mysteries</td>
<td>Learn the deductive syllogism (if a &amp; b,</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reorder elements in a set</td>
<td></td>
<td>then c)</td>
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<tr>
<th>(4) Scientific Method</th>
<th>(5) Analyzing Literature</th>
<th>(6) Researching a Topic</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achieve familiarity with the general laws of science</td>
<td>Discover literary elements in whole works</td>
<td>Select a debatable idea</td>
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<tr>
<td>Understand difference between theory and fact</td>
<td>Identify literary techniques in portions of the whole work</td>
<td>Learn to use the internet and other hard reference works</td>
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<tr>
<td>Perform and document experiments</td>
<td>Diagram a narrative story chart from exposition to disposition</td>
<td>Determine credibility of experts</td>
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<tr>
<td>Verbalize steps to observe, predict, and conclude</td>
<td>Compare and contrast characters</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Identify and interpret themes</td>
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<tr>
<th>(7) Listening</th>
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<tr>
<td>Focus on the live or recorded speaker with full attention</td>
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<td>Organize thoughts via outline or mental map</td>
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<tr>
<td>Narrate understanding by asking questions or repetition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpret meaning</td>
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<tr>
<td>Answer questions precisely (p. 45-46)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Language Instruction in the Logic Stage

There are four skills students develop in the logic stage, and these skills focus on language, listening, reading, and writing development, which require a myriad of pedagogical techniques. For language study, the student studies the relationships among various grammatical principles and how they construct a sentence, which should include diagramming sentences
(Bauer and Wise, 2009, p. 233). Additionally, the student looks at the written and spoken language to conclude what information is provided and how it is constructed through language. For example, a student may look at the information a writer or speaker provides and then the student determines whether or not any rhetorical devices or logical fallacies are used (p. 233). Rhetorical devices and fallacies require the student to know grammar inside and out to determine the author’s intent. Ideally, the student uses Aristotle’s syllogism template when analyzing written and spoken arguments, which should be accompanied by the knowledge the Megarians, Stoics, and Plato and Aristotle provided on logical fallacies. Fundamentally, the student needs to look at the premises of the information, the middle term, and the conclusion. In the end, the student has to determine the logic of this written or spoken language and identify the writer or speaker’s credibility (p. 244).

Students also study the art form of argumentation within the logic stage, which helps with analyzing speakers and writers in the reading section of the logic stage. For example, Morrow and Weston’s (2011) *A Workbook for Arguments: A Complete Course in Critical Thinking* provides the rules for short arguments, generalizations, arguments by analogy, sources, arguments about cause, deductive arguments, extended argument, argumentative essays, and oral arguments. Illustrating the rules of the sources chapter, Morrow and Weston, for example, state the rules include the following: cite your sources, seek informed sources, seek impartial sources, cross-check sources, and use the web with care (p. vi). Therefore, students need to know how to logically organize their language skills so that they are better able to persuade in the rhetoric stage. Although the creation of a student’s own argument does not occur until the rhetoric stage, understanding the rules allows students to understand how other authors use or do not use these set rules for logic—this study in logical rules meets the structure/analyzing arguments strand set
forth by Lockman (2009). In order to get a student to this current level of thought for arguments in language, students need to be informed of logical and rhetorical principles and how they work to create language or thought.

The best method of looking at the development of logical and rhetorical principles is to decipher the curriculum set forth within an AP Literature and Composition course. AP courses in English provide the best format of what students need in order to become critical and logical thinkers in a public school. A sample list of the terms students need to comprehend can be found in the “AP Rhetorical Devices List” (see appendix). For example, words that students need to know include the following, according to Hartzell’s (2013) *Cracking the AP English Language & Composition Exam*: rhetoric, ethos, logos, pathos, figurative language, imagery, hyperbole, denotation, connotation, aphorism, malapropism, circumlocution, etc. (p. 91-98). Additionally, students also have to become familiar with logical fallacies, which a list can be found on the University of Texas at El Paso’s website (see Williamson, n.d.). For instance, some logical fallacies that students need to familiarize themselves with include *ad hominem*, argument from authority, appeal to ignorance, begging the question, hasty generalization, *non sequitur*, slippery slope, etc. (Hartzell, 2013, p. 134-139). Once a student understands how these logical fallacies work, they should exploit the syllogism to conclude whether or not a writer or speaker’s premises lead properly to their conclusion. Not only does the understanding of rhetorical terminology, figurative language, as well as logical fallacies prove important, but the study of syntax, diction, and tone are too. Studying language for all aspects becomes essential for a student in the logic stage because of writers and speakers’ ability to manipulate language for

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41 AP courses in English Language and Composition and English Literature and Composition cost anywhere from $1,900-$3,200 (“Estimated Costs,” n.d.). Due to the cost, the district within this study cannot afford AP courses; therefore, it is the teachers’ responsibility to teach to the rigor of AP courses.
personal needs, which again meets the structure and analyzing strand in Lockman’s (2009) strategies. As of now, logic includes the use of the syllogism, the understanding of grammatical, rhetorical, and logical devices, and the study of syntax, diction, and tone. After combining the grammar stage and the logic stage, a critical and logical thinker develops ten key critical thinking traits, which are listed by Lockman (2009) in *Trivium Mastery: The Intersection of Three Roads*: open-minded, knowledgeable, mentally active, curious, independent, conversationalists, insightful, self-aware, creative, and passionate (p. 52). Now that an understanding of the material covered in the logic stage has been enumerated, an analysis of how reading and writing play a part in the logic stage occurs below.

**Reading and Listening Instruction in the Logic Stage**

Reading is a skill that develops through all stages of the trivium, but in the logic stage it finds itself paired with listening skills, or dialectic. Dialectic was brought to life by the Greek word of *dialektos*, which means conversation or discourse (Robinson, 2013, p. 37). As a result of logic/dialectic, the goal of reading is to help students come to an understanding of classical texts through the use of conversation. Therefore, students are able to critically think and verbalize their beliefs while being informed by additional students, teachers, or parents.42 Within the logic/dialectic stage, teachers should focus on giving students the opportunities to discuss classical texts and allow students to develop their own critical thinking skills: “During the logic stage, you’re preparing the child to think critically about literature by *conversing* with her about it—carrying on a dialogue about what is or isn’t important in plots, about whether characters are heroes or villains, about the effects that books have on readers” (Bauer and Wise, 2009, p. 344).

42 One strategy that meets dialect standards is the Socratic Seminar, which can be implemented through the use of an anticipation guide. Students in the anticipation guide are able to question acts of morality, but also debate positions and evaluate others’ arguments.
As students get further on in their trivium studies, the questions and dialogues between students and teachers should get more complex. One classical method that allows students to make meaning is the Socratic Seminar, which was created by Socrates. In fact, Martin Robinson (2013) in *Trivium 21c: Preparing Young People for the Future with Lessons from the Past* shares a humorous story concerning Socrates and his use of dialectic. Although used for humor, this anecdote does describe the importance of the logic/dialectic stage:

I bet as a young kid Socrates was a nightmare at bedtime. Perhaps it was a childlike quality that made him approach the art of dialectic from the standpoint of one who knew nothing, and to question people who profess to ‘know everything’, thereby exposing the contradictions and gaps in their knowledge. (p. 35)

Once a student takes on this responsibility of knowing nothing, yet questioning those who assume to know everything, he/she is fully enveloped in the logic stage. Fundamentally, the logic stage helps students develop independent thought and practices. This dialectical study allows students to meet the listening strand in Lockman’s (2009) strategies and the analyzing literature strand because students discuss, analyze, and provide argumentative support for their positions.

Within a trivium education, students need to follow a similar route of education with the novels that they read in the grammar stage: Ancients (5000 B.C.—A.D. 400), Medieval—Early Renaissance (400-1600), Late Renaissance—Early Modern (1600-1850), and Modern (1850-Present) (Bauer and Wise, 2009, p. 346-358). Mentioned previously, students must partake in

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43 Denny Taylor (1983) coined the theory of family literacy where students need to be encompassed with literacy-rich home environments, which homeschooling schools utilize consistently (Tracey and Morrow, 2012, p. 102-103). School districts, though, can discuss these literacy-rich home environments with parents and students, but ultimately the school needs to make sure they, too, are providing literacy-rich classrooms. The discussion in the logic stage will help educators meet these standards of providing literacy-rich environments.
dialectic when discussing these time periods of classical literature, which should occur in the form of dialogue with students and teachers. The postmodern Social Constructivism reading theory applies best to the realm of reading in the logic stage of the trivium. The most prevalent theorist for the Social Constructivism reading theory is Lev Vygotsky (1978). Students are, according to the Social Constructivism theory, products of their social interactions; therefore, a student’s interaction with fellow students and teachers in dialectic over classical pieces of literature is going to help shape a student’s view and critical thinking skills.

According to Diane Tracey and Lesley Morrow’s (2012) *Lenses on Reading: An Introduction to Theories and Models*, “Vygotsky argued that children’s learning is most affected by their mastery of language, as evidenced by their mastery of sign systems such as the alphabet, words, listening, speaking, and writing. Vygotsky postulated that it is through the use and manipulation of these signs that children have the tools to think about and respond to the world” (p. 127-128). Since students are essentially products of their social environments, exposing them to classical literature allows them to come into contact with various ethical and moral dilemmas as well as logic. Cowan and Guinness’ (1998) edited edition of *Invitation to the Classics*, illuminates the importance of the classics in their introductory piece “The Importance of the Classics”:

> Over the centuries, the books known as the classics have formed intricate bonds among men and women who have grown up within the radius of a civilization that began to flower nearly three thousand years ago. Young people have understood the ideals of their society through the classics and have to love something intangible: the quest for wisdom and insight, generated in ancient Greece and Rome. (p. 20)
The classics, therefore, instill in students the need to attain wisdom and insight into the world around them. This wisdom and insight comes from the classic works and their themes, characters, plots, settings, and literary and rhetorical devices, as well as a grammatical purity. For example, one classic epic poem that teaches students the theme of loyalty is Homer’s *The Odyssey*, especially Penelope. Odysseus is less loyal in the end because he sleeps with Circe and commits other unspeakable acts; however, his consistent willingness to get home shows his loyalty to his kingdom, wife, and son. *The Odyssey* is only one classic that illustrates these iconic moral and ethical themes.44

Not only are classical stories such as *The Odyssey* important for the student’s understanding of the classics, but the reading of nonfiction by authors such as Plato, Aristotle, Cicero and others become as important. These nonfiction pieces help students see rhetorical devices and logical fallacies, which are key to developing the student’s logic skills. Additionally, this nonfiction allows students to demonstrate their ability to notice and name these rhetorical practices as well as discuss them. Edward Corbett and Robert Connor’s (1999) *Classical Rhetoric for the Modern Student* is a pivotal text that can help students through the logic stage because it winds students through the dense nonfiction pieces of classical rhetoric. Corbett and Connors also take students through the five cannons of rhetoric and how students can make the most of these cannons to create an effective and persuasive message. Although the texts of the original authors may be difficult, students should still be exposed to these classical pieces—i.e. Aristotle’s *The Rhetoric* and *The Poetics*, Cicero’s *Oratoria*, and others—because of their richness in language. If students are exposed to and discuss these various uses of rhetoric,

44 *The Odyssey* was a text studied in the students’ grammar stage in this study. The text also provides rich dialogue because discussion can center on Odysseus’ actions and whether or not he is the epitome of the Greek hero. Because students have previous knowledge of classical texts, a comparison and contrast between Odysseus and other heroes is easily accomplished.
students become a product of the environment that the teacher has created for them. Therefore, students with a classical trivium background can become students who know grammar, are able to read and write effectively, and are able to transfer these critical thinking skills outside of the classroom and to other subjects. Within the “Preface” to the *Classical Rhetoric for the Modern Student* text, Corbett and Connors write, “One of the most salutary lessons to come down to us from the Greek and Latin rhetoricians and philosophers is that unless we regard human beings as complexes of intellect, will, passions, and physicality, we will not produce well-integrated citizens for any society” (p. XI). Understanding these classical works of nonfiction is essential because rhetorical logic is still used in a twenty-first century society, so classical rhetoric is not simply ancient: it’s modern, too.

With Vygotsky’s (1978) belief in Social Constructivism and with the classics’ ability to teach moral themes, the logic/dialectic stage instills in students the ability to see how grammar is used and how the logic of these texts create critical thinking skills. Albert Bandura’s Social Learning Theory—or otherwise known as the Social Cognitive Theory—also backs up the use of logic/dialectic in reading the classics because students “…learn by observing others—their successes, failures, efforts, and styles. In Social Cognitive Theory the people from whom we learn are called ‘models.’ Similarly, ‘modeling’ is the action performed by the model” (Tracey and Morrow, 2012, p. 130). Again, the characters within the classics model the behaviors that students should and should not practice daily; therefore, with these consistent themes present within the classics, students are exposed to them within an English classroom. The dialectic aspect of the logic stage also allows students to discuss the behaviors of characters with one another and come to what classical rhetoricians call truth, and even Truth. Cowan and Guinness (1998) further illustrate this point when they mention, “Even so, for all their [the classics]
cultural value, the classics function not simply as great books but as something closer to spiritual exercises.” They continue by reiterating, “It is not enough for them to be known about; they need to be truly known in the fullness of their intimacy. Taken in and savored in relation to larger powers of the human soul” (p. 21). With their soul-informing power and their ability to create critical thinkers, reading the classics in the logic/dialectic stage gives students the ability to model the virtues present within the classics and discuss these issues to come to an even deeper understanding of the world at large.45

**Writing Instruction in the Logic Stage**

Reading the classics is important for the dialectic/logic stage, but writing is as important within this stage. During the writing aspect of the logic/dialectic stage, students practice spelling, vocabulary, and grammar simultaneously; therefore, showing the importance of the writing stage and how the student has advanced from the grammar stage. Lockman (2009) illustrates the importance of writing in the logic stage in chapter 19, “Why Writing Is a Catalyst to Intellectual Development,” by stating the following purposes of writing: “writing stimulates the mind, improves memory, shapes critical thinking, enlarges understanding, and provides a permanent record” (p. 63). The types of writing students should be partaking in include story analysis, reaction papers, term papers, evaluations, and summaries (Bauer and Wise, 2009, p. 359-360). In order to get students writing purposefully and with ease, classical education requires two pivotal pedagogical techniques: modeling after successful writers and writing through the progymnasmata.

Modeling, which is important according to Albert Bandura’s Social Cognitive Theory, is a classical education technique that has been practiced since ancient Greece. Students must be

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45 Classical education not only gives students knowledge to build upon naturally, but it also gives students moral instruction, which was the goal of education during Industrialization according to Williams (2005).
given models that are of utmost quality and style in order to create a well-rounded writer and speaker, which is demonstrated in Isocrates’ *Against the Sophists*:

and the teacher, for his part, must so expound the principles of the art with the utmost possible exactness as to leave out nothing that can be taught, and for the rest, he must in himself set such an example of oratory that the students who have taken form under his instruction are able to pattern after him will, from the outset, show in their speaking [and/or writing] a degree of grace and charm which is not found in others. (p. 74)

Socrates, centuries before Bandura, illustrated that modeling is a necessary pedagogical technique in creating productive students. Additionally, more specifically for writing and the rote copy of influential text, Cicero’s *De Oratore* demonstrates that students need to write and write often. Cicero, speaking through Crassus, argues, “it is still more serviceable to take time for consideration, and to speak better prepared and more carefully. But the chief thing is what, to tell the truth, we do least (for it needs great pains which most of us shirk)—to write as much as possible. The pen is the best and most eminent author and teacher of eloquence, and rightly so” (p. 309). Cicero, similar to Isocrates, knows that modeling and writing are important skills and skills that need to be practiced more often than they are now. Glenn’s (1995) chapter “When Grammar Was a Language Art” in *The Place of Grammar in Writing Instruction* illustrates through Cicero, or Antonius’ words, the importance of modeling: “we show the student whom to copy, and to copy in such a way as to strive with all possible care to attain the most excellent qualities of his model. Next let practice be added, whereby in copying he may reproduce the pattern of choice” (qtd. in Glenn, 1995, p. 19). Antonius then goes on with his decree by issuing a warning by saying, “But he who is to proceed aright must first be watchful in making his choice, and afterwards extremely careful in striving to attain the most excellent qualities of the
model he has approved” (qtd. in Glenn, 1995, p. 19). Therefore, a teacher must choose the best models for students, and the classics provide this literary-rich model.

Accompanying modeling as an important factor in writing instruction is the use of the *progymnasmata*, which is a set of rhetorical writing strategies that allow students to develop key writing skills. The *progymnasmata* assigns students a genre and the student then has to construct a piece of writing following the rules of said genre. A chart of the *progymnasmata* can be found in Figure 3 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Progymnasmata</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tr>
<td>Fable</td>
<td>Retell a fable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td>Retell a short story</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maxim</td>
<td>Amplify a saying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chreia</td>
<td>Amplify an anecdote about a wise person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refutation</td>
<td>Argue against a particular version of a narrative story</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confirmation</td>
<td>Argue for a particular version of a story</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commonplace</td>
<td>Elaborate on, praise, or blame a certain type of person, or a certain virtue or vice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encomium</td>
<td>Praise a person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Invective</td>
<td>Blame a person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparison</td>
<td>Compare a given subject with another subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Describe an event or place vividly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Characterization</td>
<td>Invent a monologue which a person might have made on a specific occasion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thesis</td>
<td>Inquire into a debatable question that argues a general point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>Argue for or against a legislative proposal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For example, in James Williams’ (2009) edited work *An Introduction to Classical Rhetoric: Essential Readings*, he cites in the “Roman Rhetoric and Oratory” chapter how a student goes about writing in the encomium genre: “In the case of encomia, for example the outline included: (1) reference to family background; (2) description of upbringing and education; (3) narration of worthy deeds attributed to the person’s excellent qualities; (4) a comparison to some other worthy person or legendary hero; and (5) an epilogue that encouraged the audience to emulate the person being praised” (p. 288). Through all of the genres, students write in a variety of contexts and are expanding their logical thinking skills, which allows them to cater their message
to a specific situation or audience. Janet Emig’s (1977) infamous study “Writing as a Mode of Learning” best illustrates the goal of writing within the trivium, especially the logic stage, because “writing serves learning uniquely because writing as process-and-product possesses a cluster of attributes that correspond uniquely to certain powerful learning strategies” (p. 7). These skills include the development of analysis and synthesis skills as well as other critical thinking skills, and these strategies meet the structure and analyzing arguments strand in Lockman’s (2009) pedagogical strategies.

When looking at the grading standpoint for writing in a logical sense, teachers need to rely on the principles set forth by the Neo-Aristotelians. James Berlin’s (1982) Contemporary Composition: The Major Pedagogical Strategies illuminates this belief by simply stating that the material world is independent of the observer, or writer/speaker in this instance, and students can only know this world through sense impressions (p. 237). Therefore, the mind can only know truth, and in a slight sense Truth, through the logical principles in the mind and the universe as a whole (p. 237). As a result of this belief system, Aristotle came up with three appeals that are important and utilized today to help students grasp the realm of composition studies: ethos, logos, and pathos. These appeals are used to teach students how to properly persuade an audience and when it is proper to use each appeal, which are taught through the progymnasmata. Not only do classical education teachers rely on Aristotelian rhetoric and beliefs, but they also fall under a Current-Traditionalist bent.

The Current-Traditionalists’ mantra is simply described by James Berlin, “To communicate, the speaker or writer—both now included—need only provide the language which corresponds either to the objects in the external world or to the ideas in his or her own mind—both are essentially the same—in such a way that it reproduces the objects and the experience of
them in the minds of the hearers” (qtd. in Berlin, 1982, p. 240). What this means is students provide the language in the correct manner in order to display the vision that is experienced in the minds of the speaker or writer into the minds of the audience. The progymnasmata helps students with understanding the logical rules that follow different genres of writing and speaking and it is “organized according to the faculties to which it appeals” (p. 240). Because classical education relies on logic and the correct use of grammar and language structure, the Neo-Aristotelian and Current-Traditionalist theories are the only means to create a well-rounded speaker, writer, student, and citizen according to classical education trivium’s standards. Hugh Blair (1783) best illustrates the goal of composition/writing studies in the following quote from Lectures on Rhetoric and Belles Lettres, “For I must be allowed to say, that when we are employed, after a proper manner, in the study of composition, we are cultivating reason itself. True rhetoric and sound logic are very nearly aligned” (p. 952). Once a student has developed a grasp of language and how to logically use language, the student is then ready for the third stage of the trivium: rhetoric.
CHAPTER 4: RHETORIC

Rhetoric is the last stage within the trivium and allows the student to express all of their knowledge attained in the previous two stages. The term rhetoric is often overlooked by society because many claim that rhetoric is a negative term and does not deserve to be studied. However, if given the opportunity to separate rhetoric from the negative propaganda that is spread in the media and in political arenas, rhetoric provides a useful subject of study for all students, high school and college. Once students attain the ability to understand rhetoric and how it works within society, students become more prepared for their future and are able to analyze multifarious situations. Similar to the previous two areas of study, a brief history of rhetoric occurs, which is followed by the pedagogical strategies that should be used within the rhetoric stage.

History of Rhetoric

Rhetoric has been a long debated as to its purpose in a student’s education. In the beginning, rhetoric was first developed in ancient Greece by Corax and Tisias, or at least they are the “first practitioners of a schematized rhetoric” (Bizzell and Herzberg, 2001, p. 21). Since rhetoric is a convoluted term, Bizzell and Herzberg illuminate some of the plentiful definitions of rhetoric:

Rhetoric has a number of overlapping meanings: the practice of oratory; the study of the strategies of effective oratory; the use of language, written or spoken, to inform or

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46 Individuals such as Rachel Knudsen (2014) believe that rhetoric could have started as discipline with Homer. In her controversial work, Homeric Speech and the Origins of Rhetoric, Knudsen argues, “I contend that the Homeric narrator presents speaking as a technical skill, one that must be taught and learned, and one that varies according to speaker, situation, and audience” (p. 4). Essentially, this equates to rhetoric starting a discipline in the Homeric works of The Iliad and The Odyssey. Richard Enos (2012) further adds in Greek Rhetoric Before Aristotle that ancient rhetoricians did not believe in user Homer as a model because it was “intuitive genius” rather than “a systematic study of the composition of discourse” (p. 21). Nevertheless, Homer should be studied as being one of the origins of rhetoric.
persuade; the study of the persuasive effects of language; the study of the relation between language and knowledge; the classification and use of tropes and figures; and, of course, the use of empty promises and half-truths as a form of propaganda. (p. 1)

All of these terms, even the last definition, all deal with the effective use of language and how a student can use language to create knowledge. Per the trivium, rhetoric is the final element of a student’s education in language and determines whether or not the student can effectively use it. Additionally, the rhetoric stage also develops the students’ abilities to logically break apart a text and determine whether or not the author is sincere or disingenuous. Before a student gets to the rhetoric stage, they have gone through a natural scaffolding approach to education; therefore, a student has built their knowledge at appropriate rates.

Scaffolding, according to modern educational philosophy, is a necessity for students who struggle with their education. However, modern education consistently downplays the role of classical education stating that it is irrelevant to a student’s education because they do not have to know the classics or the logic behind language; instead, a modern student only needs to know the logic behind their trade or profession. According to Lev Vygotsky’s Social Constructivism theory, “Scaffolding refers to the assistance that adults and more competent peers provide during learning episodes…This support can take the form of ‘clues, reminders, encouragement, breaking down the problem into steps, providing an example, or anything else that allows the student to grow in independence as a learner’” (qtd. in Tracey and Morrow, 2012, p. 128). Even though modern education prides itself on scaffolding, scaffolding becomes a difficult policy to enact when educational reform cannot figure itself out and politicians are consistently putting teachers, administrators, and other school officials into an enigma. Uniquely, though, classical education takes this scaffolding approach in its initial setup, which is why rhetoric serves as the
last tier in the trivium. Essentially, classicists realize that students cannot be expected to use language creatively (rhetoric) without knowing the basics of language (grammar) or how language works (logic). Therefore, classical education has utilized a modern educational pedagogy since its inception. As a result of this scaffolding approach, Veith and Kern (2001) illuminate this approach in *Classical Education: The Movement Sweeping America*: “Each element in the trivium is essential to education. Factual knowledge (grammar) is useless without understanding (logic). Knowledge and understanding mean little unless they can be expressed and applied (rhetoric)” (p. 13). Scaffolding is naturally engrained into the trivium, which modern education tends to advocate for but falls short: “Many current educational reforms grasp at one or another part of the trivium, at the expense of the others” (p. 13). A rhetorical education is a method that utilizes modern educational pedagogy to its advantage, yet it is downplayed as something of antiquity and not relevant to today’s student. Looking at the history of rhetoric, modern educational reformists must realize the trivium is the best method to teach students because it builds a student’s language knowledge through natural scaffolding.

Similar to grammar and logic, rhetoric has had an unfathomable history because of the various theorists and their take on rhetoric’s purpose in education. When rhetoric first entered the picture in ancient Greece, it was viewed as a spoken art and one that required style and *kairos* (a specific situation). The group of rhetoricians who are often dismissed are those of the sophists, which included individuals such as Gorgias, Protagoras, Prodicus, Hippias, Antiphon, Critias, and Thrasymachus (Bizzell and Herzberg, 2001, p. 23). Unfortunately, only few fragments of the sophists’ texts remain, which makes it difficult to determine their impact on rhetorical history. However, it is known that practicing sophists traveled around Greece teaching their beliefs about the world and oratory, which included the belief in truth, not Truth,
extemporaneous speaking, and the use of style to spread their message (p. 23-24). Essentially, 
the sophists believed “that humanity could express itself in many ways and was not subject to an 
absolute standard that could mark some ways of annihilation” (p. 25). The sophists, therefore, 
set the groundwork for bombastic rhetoric. For example, Gorgias in *Encomium of Helen* 
demonstrates the belief in rhetoric as style and speaking to a crowd on the controversial 
leaving/abducting of Helen of Troy: “For my part, by introducing some reasoning into my 
speech, I wish to free the accused of blame, and, having reproved her detractors as prevaricators 
and proved the truth, to free her from their ignorance” (p. 44). Gorgias is trying to free Helen 
from blame when it has been thought that Helen was to blame for the Trojan War. Through this 
stylistic effort, Gorgias shows that the sophists often concerned themselves with style, yet 
additional ancient Greek rhetoricians thought that rhetoric’s proper place was not in style but in 
moral instruction, dialectic, and logic.

Isocrates was one Greek rhetorician that spoke out against the beliefs of the sophists in *Against the Sophists*, even though he aligned with the sophistic belief in education. What 
separated Isocrates from the sophists is the fact he wanted students to become civically 
responsible citizens and this could only be accomplished through the emulation of other 
important political leaders (Bizzell and Herzberg, 2001, p. 26). Students were instructed through 
moral instruction, the emulation of successful political leaders, speakers, and philosophers, and 
through continuous practice of these learned skills. For example, Isocrates in *Antidosis* explains 
his educational belief in a few sentences, “the power to speak well is taken as the surest index of

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47 According to E. Armstrong’s (2006) *A Ciceronian Sunburn: A Tudor Dialogue on Humanistic Rhetoric and Civic Poetics*, virtue is best learned in youth, “These noncognitive moral virtues are acquired and learn most efficiently by youth, who because they have yet to develop fully their rational faculties are particularly susceptible to heed and act on the vegetative’s profit seeking or, more especially, the sensitive soul’s desire for please” (p. 29). Consequently, Isocrates in *Against the Sophists* believes “…the study of political discourse can help more than any other thing to stimulate and form such qualities of character” (p. 75).
a sound understanding, and discourse which is true and lawful and just is the outward image of a
good and faithful soul” (p. 75). Isocrates easily aligns himself with moral instruction and
speaking the truth—not with the style that the sophists taught. Benoit (1990) describes that
Isocrates’ goal is to create a rhetoric that is a practical art used to guide one’s action and to reach
some element of truth, not Truth (p. 256, 258). If thought of in a modern sense, Isocrates could
be associated with the social epistemic writing theory, which aligns itself with society and
becoming a virtuous citizen and adding some new knowledge to the discourse community.48
Therefore, it appears that a majority of the writing pedagogy that is present within writing
instruction was already present with classical rhetoric; therefore, showing classical education is
more advanced than that of a modern education.

Rhetoric in the classical era thus far has been considered a learned skill, but with two
differing means of education: style and extemporaneous effort (sophists) and moral and political
instruction and emulation (Isocrates). However, Plato did not see rhetoric in as positive of a light
as that of the sophists or Isocrates because the sophists and Isocrates did not believe in an
absolute truth; instead, Plato believed that rhetoric (false rhetoric) was inferior to that of dialectic
(true rhetoric) and an absolute Truth can be attained through the usage of dialectic, which he
displays throughout his works of Gorgias and Phaedrus. In Plato’s Gorgias, he says, “So in just
the same way, if an orator uses his rhetoric unfairly, we should not complain against his teacher
or banish him from our city, but the man who does the wrong and misuses his rhetoric” (p. 95).
To Plato, rhetoric, or false rhetoric in the case of the sophists, is simply a means of expressing

48 James Berlin’s (1982) “Contemporary Composition: The Major Pedagogical Theories” illustrates the social-
epistemic theory best. For Berlin, it is synonymous to New Rhetoric, “The New Rhetoric sees the writer as a creator
of meaning, a shaper of reality, rather than a passive receptor of the immutably given” (p. 247). One key
pedagogical technique of the social-epistemic theory is it “…treats in depth all the offices of classical rhetoric that
apply to written language—invention, arrangement, and style—and does so by calling upon the best that has been
thought and said about them by contemporary observers” (p. 247). Therefore, classical rhetoric ideology is being
used within this belief.
opinion and it cannot be considered truthful because it is based on style and persuasion, which is illustrated in the *Gorgias* of bad rhetoric. On the other hand, dialectic, or true rhetoric, is the superior form and can help society reach this belief in an absolute Truth. Plato illustrates this belief in absolute Truth, or dialectic, in *Phaedrus* where he participates in dialectic between Socrates and Phaedrus. Therefore, true rhetoric, or dialectic, is the true purpose of rhetoric, and the rhetoric of the sophists is simply bombastic and false (Bizzell and Herzberg, 2001, p. 28-29).

In its entirety thus far, rhetoric is now classified as style and extemporaneous speaking (sophists), a skill that is meant to be virtuous and can be taught (Isocrates)—however, it is not a means to absolute Truth—and there is a dichotomy between false and true rhetoric, which true rhetoric can help individuals get to absolute Truth (Plato).

Rhetoric was convoluted even in ancient Greece; however, Aristotle’s beliefs break down rhetoric and aligns rhetoric with logic. Aristotle is infamous for breaking down rhetoric into its three forms: deliberative (political), forensic (legal), and epideictic (ceremonial) (Bizzell and Herzberg, 2001, p 30). Not only did Aristotle add the three forms of oratory, but he also added three different forms of appeal: ethos, logos, and pathos. Therefore, Aristotle started to classify the elements of rhetoric and how they are to be used. Aristotle and his contribution to rhetoric—especially to that of the trivium—did not end with the three forms of rhetoric or the three forms of appeal, but he also contributed the syllogism. Overall, Aristotle best represents his role in the world of rhetoric in *Rhetoric* when he mentions, “the subject can be plainly handled systematically, for it is possible to inquire the reason why some speakers succeed through practice and other spontaneously; and every one will at once agree that such an inquiry is the function of an art” (p.179). Essentially, Aristotle is viewed as one of the first rhetoricians to start placing rules and systematizing rhetoric. However, as Haskins (2006) illustrates in “Choosing
between Isocrates and Aristotle: Disciplinary Assumptions and Pedagogical Implications,” understanding the “muted” voices of rhetoric (i.e. women and other minorities) is pivotal in deciphering the various schools of thought in rhetoric, which helps students see the bigger picture of rhetoric (p. 193).

Roman rhetoric was heavily influenced by the Greek rhetoricians, so several of the same philosophies of rhetoric transferred from Greece to Rome. There were two crucial rhetoricians within Roman rhetoric that are key for the discussion of classical education: Cicero and Quintilian. Cicero was an influential orator that actively produced orations, so his credibility as an author and/or speaker on rhetorical education is vital. Similar to Isocrates, Cicero believed in the imitation of successful rhetoricians and continuous practice of these rhetoricians’ skills (Atwill, 1998, p. 36). Additionally, Cicero was not interested in the learning of rhetoric solely. Instead, he was interested in what he called *enkuklios paideia*, or general learning (p. 36). Cicero eloquently explicates this belief in *De Oratore* when he declares, “But in an orator we must demand the subtlety of the logician, the thoughts of the philosopher, a diction almost poetic, a lawyer’s memory, a tragedian’s voice, and the bearing almost of the consummate actor” (2001, p. 306). With the previous information in mind, students can only be effective if they are trained in multiple arts; therefore, Cicero argues for a trivium, or liberal arts, education because it is essential for a student to be effective. Although Cicero’s philosophies on rhetoric are pivotal for a trivium education, the fact that Cicero was a practicing orator makes his philosophies even more important for the development of a rhetorical education. Richard Enos’ (2008) *Roman Rhetoric: Revolution and the Greek Influence* illustrates, succinctly, Cicero’s beliefs: “For a young Cicero, rhetoric was the key ingredient for the operation of a successful Rome, the basis from which civic operations could serve as a normative and regulatory function” (p. 43).
Overall, Cicero’s career and treatises on rhetoric illuminate that a rhetorical education is a necessity in order for a student to be successful in ancient Rome and even today as he was.

The subsequent educator that had a major influence on rhetoric’s development was Quintilian. Similar to Cicero, Quintilian was not only an educator of his philosophies, but he was also a practitioner of rhetoric (Kennedy, 2013, p. 10). Quintilian’s philosophy on education and rhetoric can be summed up in his iconic saying, “The good man speaking well.” According to George Kennedy (2013), Quintilian believed in the general education system of Rome (grammar school and then rhetoric), but he wanted to add an additional element, morals: “His [Quintilian] influence was on the side of making it more humane, more moral, more practical, somewhat more profound, slightly broader” (p. 40). Like Cicero, Quintilian argued that a rhetorician needed a broad range of knowledge in order to speak well; however, the orator needed to have a moral side to him or else he wouldn’t be that “good man speaking well.” The educational system that Quintilian established can be found in Book Two of his treatise *On Education*:

we learn that a special brief course of lectures in rhetorical theory was given to beginning students of rhetoric; subsequently the same ground was covered again in greater detail. The novice needs special assistance in composition (2.6.5); he should memorise passages from great speeches or histories and only rarely his own compositions (2.7); the teacher must carefully study his abilities to see what kind of treatment he needs (2.8). But finally the time comes when the pupil is ready for declamation of deliberative and judicial themes (2.10.1). From here on the curriculum will consist of two things, systematic lectures on rhetorical theory and the composition and delivery of declamations. (p.52)
Consequently, Quintilian through this educational system created effective, moral students who met the standards of the “good man speaking well.” Although the creation of a morally sound character is beneficial to Quintilian’s rhetorical beliefs, one of his most important contributions to rhetorical studies is the development of the five cannons of rhetoric: invention, arrangement, expression, memory, and delivery. The five cannons of rhetoric are explicitly illustrated by Quintilian in Book III of *Institutes of Oratory*. It is these five cannons and their influence in classical rhetoric that allows the cannons to be used to this day in rhetorical and composition classrooms. When summarizing the classical tradition of rhetoric, it can be viewed that rhetoric was associated with style (sophists), moral instruction (Isocrates and Quintilian), true and false uses (Plato), systematic categories (Aristotle), and with a broad education in a variety of subjects (Cicero and Quintilian). This development of rhetoric, however, would not end with the classical period; instead, it only served to further define and change the term of rhetoric in the medieval and Renaissance time period.

In the medieval and Renaissance time period, rhetoric’s power dwindled because many philosophers narrowed rhetoric’s definition to style. Miller (1987) illustrates that the 11th and 12th centuries saw a decline in rhetoric’s influence, especially the trivium education (p. 66). Specifically, Miller demonstrates that rhetoric “lost its empirical connection with rhetorical practice,” which means that rhetoric was solely the work of the academy and had no relevance to previous social situations as it did for the Greeks and Romans (p. 66). Furthering his belief, Miller decrees, “My guess is that the special topics—the points of connection between reasoning and the particularities and practical situation—are the victims of the academicizing of rhetoric” (p. 66). Ramus is one individual that advocates for this degradation of rhetoric in *Arguments in Rhetoric against Quintilian*. Within this piece, Ramus argues that rhetoric should only be given
two cannons of the five cannons of rhetoric: style and delivery (p. 687). Throughout his argument, Ramus utilizes the Aristotelian syllogism to disprove the belief that rhetoric is only a means of style and delivery because the remaining cannons (invention, arrangement, and memory) belong to dialectic (p. 687).

Exacerbating this issue of rhetoric’s narrowed status is Francis Bacon’s *The Advancement of Learning* where he decides that there are Four Intellectual Arts: Art of Inquiry or Invention; Art of Examination or Judgment; Art of Custody or Memory; and Art of Elocution or Tradition (p. 740). Through these four intellectual arts, Bacon deduces, “Logic handleth reason exact and in truth, and Rhetoric handleth it as it is planted in popular opinions and manners” (p. 744). Rhetoric, therefore, was downgraded because it no longer concerned itself with the seeking of Truth; instead, it only concerns itself with the public opinion, which may or may not contain elements of truth or Truth. As a result, rhetoric has gone from morally instructing students in elements of truth to only being concerned with style and public opinion in theory.

The transition for rhetoric in the Enlightenment period continued with the same belief that logic is better than rhetoric because it privileges reason over style. John Locke continued this reservation of rhetoric’s power in *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding* when he mentions, “Where shall one find any, either controversial debate, or familiar discourse, concerning honour, faith, grace, religion, church, &c., wherein it is not easy to observe the different notions men have of them” (p. 819). Locke, consequently, is wary of rhetoric’s use because it can be used in multiple manners, which causes reason, or logic, to be skewed. Language needed to be precise and display the same image in the mind of the audience as it does in the reader or speaker, according to Locke (p. 820). Because of the various circumstances of language and its use, rhetoric cannot be a safeguard for reasoning; therefore, Locke would argue
humanity should strive for a universal language to eliminate some or all misinterpretations of the speaker or writer’s message. Additional individuals such as George Campbell purported this belief in reasoning over mere rhetoric, especially in his *The Philosophy of Rhetoric*. Within Campbell’s essay, he mentions the purpose of speaking, “All the ends of speaking are reducible to four; every speech being intended to enlighten the understanding, to please the imagination, to move the passions, or to influence the will” (p. 902). Accordingly, with Campbell making the first end of speaking as enlightening understanding, it could be deduced that Campbell believes in advocating for reason over mere rhetoric, or style, again. To sum up the development of rhetoric in the Enlightenment, William Keith and Christian Lundberg’s (2008) *The Essential Guide to Rhetoric* discusses this development of rhetoric succinctly: “Thinkers such as Thomas Hobbes, John Locke, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Giambattista Vico, and Hugh Blair became increasingly interested in the relationship among rhetoric, politics, human knowledge, and human nature” (p. 8). In theory, the Enlightenment period illustrated that rhetoric is not as powerful of a force as it once was because logic is more necessary than rhetoric, especially with philosophy’s interest in human knowledge and nature.

Rhetoric, though, started to show a resurgence in its power when the Age of Reason, or the 19th century, entered the philosophical debate of rhetoric’s purpose. In the beginning, rhetoric was often saved for the elite in ancient Greece and Rome, or those who could afford to pay for it. However, in the Age of Reason many started to demand a rhetorical education because they believed that they deserved the same rights as those privileged in previous generations. Women, African American men and women, and those of a lower socioeconomic status started to demand an education that was equal to that of the elite. For example, Maria Stewart’s *Why Sit Ye Here and Die* eloquently demonstrates that she only had a moral education,
not a proper education. If Stewart, though, had a proper education she believes that her “ideas would, ere now, have expanded far and wide” (p. 1037). By using the power of rhetoric, individuals like Stewart started speaking out about how they had to attain an education and what they could do with this education. To show how logic had infected rhetoric during the Age of Reason, rhetoricians started to question the basis of society and how it was not following the rules of logic.

For example, Sara Grimké (1837) within “Letter to Theodore Weld” started to question the belief that women should not be allowed to speak on Christian doctrine (p.115-118). Although Grimké was the not first female to speak on this topic—Margaret Fell (1666) and Sor Juana Inés de la Cruz (1691) also spoke on the subject—she was speaking during a time when reason was a necessity. In the letter Grimké reveals, “According to the principle which I have laid down, that man and woman were created equal, and endowed by their beneficent Creator with the same intellectual power and the same moral responsibilities…that if it is the duty of man to preach the unsearchable riches of Christ, it is the duty also of woman” (p. 1054). Grimké used the rhetoric of reason to illuminate the illogical principles that the Age of Reason was fighting. The Age of Reason showed that individuals were not necessarily philosophizing rhetoric, but practicing the principles created in the Enlightenment.

Logic and reason still hold precedence in modern and post-modern thought and theory. Rhetoricians such as Chaïm Perelman and Lucie Olbrechts-Tyteca (1958) and Stephen Toulmin (1958) illustrated through their works the differences between logic and argumentation; therefore, dividing the overarching term of rhetoric into even more categories. In Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca’s *The New Rhetoric*, these two rhetoricians illustrate the purpose of logic and argumentation:
The theory and practice of argumentation are, in our view, correlative with a critical rationalism that transcends the duality ‘judgments of reality [versus] value judgments,’ and makes both judgments of reality and value judgments dependent on the personality of the scientist or philosopher, who is responsible for his decisions in the field of knowledge as well as in the field of action. (p. 1378)

Consequently, society needs both “judgments of reality” and “value judgments” in order to start the conversation on any subject area; however, the sincerity and truth of the conversation depends on the speaker, which refers back to Aristotle’s development of ethos, or the character of the speaker or writer. Therefore, the term rhetoric and how it is being used is dependent both on the logical facts, which produce a clear and provable conclusion, and on value judgments, which are often inconclusive but are related to the individual speaker or writer (Foss, Foss, and Trapp, 2014, p. 90). Toulmin, on the other hand, discussed how individuals can implement Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca’s beliefs through a model of argumentation, which is utilized in many composition classrooms and textbooks to this day. The model has become almost standard when it comes to developing argumentative essays within a composition classroom. Essentially, Toulmin’s argumentation model (Figure 4 on p. 77) starts with a claim and data/evidence, which leads to warrants, qualifiers, rebuttals, and backing. As a result of this breaking down of argumentation, rhetoric is again relying on the development of logic and how one should properly develop a sound argument. However, rhetoric now also depends on what Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca refer to as value judgments, so rhetoric has now become even more convoluted based on the modern and post-modern theoretical lens.

Rhetoric can be further divided in the modern and post-modern era according to the works of other rhetoricians. Modern and post-modern thought delegates rhetoric to the practices
of individualized social discourse communities. In essence, every social group has a different use of rhetoric and rhetoric, therefore, can be a means of truth for that specific group; however, there can be no gaining of Truth through these individualized communities. For example, Michel Foucault illuminates how rhetoric is often controlled by the dominant discourse communities that has control of the word, *The Order of Discourse*. Foucault (1971) illustrates through his hypothesis the belief that rhetoric starts with the dominant social organization: “in every society the production of discourse is at once controlled, selected, organized, and redistributed by a certain number of procedures whose role is to ward off its powers and dangers, to gain mastery over its chance events, to evade it ponderous, formidable materiality” (p. 1461). Foucault, therefore, believes that certain discourse communities have taken charge of the various beliefs in discourse and it is their duty to disseminate these beliefs. To further illustrate this belief, Foucault’s (1969) *The Archaeology of Knowledge* shows the relationship between madness and the discourse surrounding the field. Additionally, he mentions that discourse is based upon a set of relations and “These relations are established between institution, economic and social processes, behavioral patterns, systems of norms, techniques, types of classification, modes of characterization…[and] in short, to be placed in a field of exteriority” (p. 1439). Essentially, the discourse and control of certain beliefs are shaped by several different factors and the dominant discourse community; therefore, rhetoric can now concern itself with the time period and place

**Figure 4:** Toulmin’s Model of Argumentation

![Toulmin's Model of Argumentation](image)
in which it is used, which is not a new theory because ancient rhetoricians based their theoretical
approaches off of Kairos.

Additional rhetoricians illustrated this belief in various social discourse communities and
their ability to shape discourse to their own desires. For example, Mikhail Bakhtin illustrates, in
simple terms, how society comes to understand the world around them in Marxism and the
Philosophy of Language when he mentions, “Consciousness takes shape and being in the
material of signs created by an organized group in the process of its social intercourse” (p. 1213).
Individuals come to an understanding of truth, or consciousness, through their interactions with
various discourse communities. Stanley Fish further purports this belief when he discusses how
society develops various theories to come to an understanding of the world at large. In Doing
What Comes Naturally: Change, Rhetoric, and the Practice of Theory in Literary and Legal
Studies, Fish (1989) mentions, “Theories, in short, are themselves rhetoric whose usefulness is a
function of contingent circumstances. It is ends—specific goals in local context—that rule the
 invocation of theories, not theories that determine goals and the means by which they can be reached” (p. 486). As a result, theories are only means by which social discourse communities
make sense of the rhetoric they are enveloped in and this theory helps them situate themselves
with the world at large. Overall, modern and post-modern theory add the belief that there are
dominant discourse communities in charge, yet individual discourse communities make their
own meaning through the daily discourse. Therefore, rhetoric is no longer seen as a universal
concept, but as an individual concept.

With all of these modern philosophies, a new rhetoric was created; therefore, situating
itself from antiquity, which is the goal of postmodern thought according to Kopff’s (1998) The
Devil Knows Latin: Why America Need Needs the Classical Tradition (p. 53). Because of this
need to separate from the ancient theories and methodology, modern rhetoricians have created what is being coined as the New Rhetoric. Rutten Soetaert (2012) demonstrate the “New rhetoric’s focus on the role that rhetoric plays in socialization and the creation of cultural or social rules and behavioral patterns also has consequences for how we think about literacy and literacy application” (p. 734). Therefore, the socialization of rhetoric in new rhetoric creates numerous social rules and behaviors that society must now seek to understand. In the long run, the new rhetoric serves “As a system for analyzing language (in its myriad forms)...[and] offers a method for analyzing our interpretations of reality (and this way, it offers meta-perspective about language and culture)” (p. 740). Rhetoric morphed as a term quite rapidly and will continue to develop.

**Rhetoric Instruction**

Rhetoric is the stage that unites all previous understanding in the trivium and completes the foundation of knowledge for the student. Students complete the rhetoric stage in grades 9-12. The purpose of the rhetoric stage is to give students the tools to communicate “with fluency, grace, elegance, and persuasiveness” (Bauer and Wise, 2009, p. 465). Since students have the understanding of language (grammar) and how language works in sundry situations (logic), students begin to create their own uses of language. This culmination of study allows students to become productive and responsible citizens and gives them an opportunity to continue their study in the quadrivium. In the following paragraphs, an outline of the pedagogical strategies needed to teach rhetoric is included; however, there is a focus on the skills of reading, writing, and speaking in the English classroom.

Teaching the rhetoric stage of the trivium can be one of the most difficult because it is where the students express themselves creatively and should be making logical rhetorical choices
in regards to their speaking and writing skills. Bauer and Wise exemplify this self-expression goal of the rhetoric stage by elaborating, “Since self-expression is one of the greatest desires of adolescence, high school students should have training in the skills of rhetoric so that they can say, clearly and convincingly, what’s on their minds. Without these skills, the desire for self-expression is frustrated” (2009, p. 465). In the beginning, student expression was withheld from a student’s knowledge because they needed to know the basics of how language is harnessed and how it is structured in order to use it creatively. Since the trivium is a natural scaffolding approach, starting self-expression before the rhetoric stage is damaging to a student’s potential. Bauer and Wise believe that self-expression is damaging because a student does not have the knowledge to creatively express him or herself:

Young children are described as sponges because they soak up knowledge. But there’s another side to this metaphor. Squeeze a dry sponge, and nothing comes out. First the sponge has to be filled. Language teacher Ruth Beechick writes, ‘Our society is so obsessed with creativity that people want children to be creative before they have any knowledge or skill to be creative with.’ (qtd. in Bauer and Wise, 2009, p. 21-22)

Therefore, the rhetoric stage is rightly placed within a student’s education. When it comes to the educational curriculum of the rhetoric stage, Lockman (2009) illuminates five communication practices students must pursue: (1) how to maintain a conversation, (2) how to write a paragraph, (3) how to take notes, (4) how to write advanced compositions, and (5) how to give a speech (p. 71). Figure 5 illustrates more specific pedagogical practices to follow (p. 81). The following paragraphs give a more precise look at a student’s path through reading, writing, and speaking skills.
Reading Instruction in the Rhetoric Stage

Reading, as with the other areas of the trivium, should focus on classical literature. Because rhetoric is the last stage in the trivium, the time periods reset themselves as they did in the previous stages. The focus on literature starts with the Ancient Texts (9th grade), moves to the Middle Ages and Early Renaissance (10th grade), then progresses to the Late Renaissance and Early Modern (11th), and ends with Modern texts (12th grade) (Bauer and Wise, 2009, p. 490-491). After reading and discussing, students complete various assignments concerning the book including researching a book’s contexts, completing book notes, and writing compositions.
When looking at a book’s contexts in a trivium education, students are conducting a historical literary criticism analysis. Students research the author’s biographical information, historical events fifty years before and after the author’s birth and death, and write a one-page summary on this historical information gathered through research (p. 492). Completing the book notes requires the student to understand the genre of the novel and the student should be annotating and interpreting the diverse literary elements the author uses within the work by creating a notes binder. Upon completion of the notes, students should keep this information so that that they can refer back to the works for future reference. Kearney (2012) illustrates that John Churton Collins, an advocate for classical texts and increasing literary criticism knowledge in universities, utilized classical rhetorician Longinus and his treatises to criticize literature in the 1880s and the 1890s (p. 195). Deploying the points of criticism set forth by classical rhetoricians is an adequate exercise in understanding literature because it proved beneficial for Collins when he created a course juxtaposing English authors with classical authors (p. 195-197). Therefore, the student’s previous study in the logic stage and the development of rhetorical and literary terms and logical fallacies can only help a student comprehend and criticize literature.

When composing a piece on the reading, students should discuss the text’s strengths, weaknesses, and author’s purpose for writing the text (Bauer and Wise, 2009, p. 493). Students also write a variety of compositions on the focal text, which include the following according to Bauer and Wise: a book report, an evaluation, an argumentative essay proving some element of the book, or an analysis of an idea in the focal text (p. 493). Additionally, students employ the art of dialectic because they are writing and discussing various pieces of literature. Feedback on student compositions needs to be given at all stages of the writing process since students are still forming their ideas when it comes to comprehending various literary devices themselves. When
a student is exploiting a Socratic seminar to discuss and analyze a text, the student is being exposed to how ideas are worked out in the real world: discussion. Lockman (2009) expresses, “Socratic Dialogue is an effective communication tools because the child learns to break the concept or idea up into components, organize the thoughts, and relate them to the [teacher]” (p.85). It is through this discussion that allows students to develop their critical thinking skills as well as their ability to reason with what they have been taught. Therefore, students are seeing and mimicking the rhetorical strategies other writers have used, which come in the form of a rhetorical analysis.49

**Writing Instruction in the Rhetoric Stage**

In addition to general writing study, students should practice spelling and word study, grammar, and incorporating elements of style in their writing. In the rhetoric stage, students continue their study of vocabulary instruction, especially in Greek and Latin roots. The study of roots in Latin becomes essential for students of the English language because Latin influenced English, especially since the Romans invaded England during the reign of Caesar. Although vocabulary instruction is not new in the rhetoric stage, the level of difficulty of the words and roots. Bauer and Wise (2009) advocate for the use of vocabulary books to complete this instruction; however, teachers in a public school can create their own word study program to help students understand the Greek and Latin roots and their influence on the English language. When students do encounter words that they are unfamiliar with, they should copy the “pronunciation, origin, definition, and the sentence in which they [unfamiliar words] are used” (Bauer and Wise, 2009, p. 481). Through writing unfamiliar words, students increase their reading fluency and comprehension skills because they are familiarizing themselves with

49 Students will utilize the SOAPSTone method of rhetorical analysis in this study, which focuses on speaker, occasion, audience, purpose, subject, and tone (Morse, n.d.).
vocabulary. An additional added benefit of unfamiliar vocabulary exercises, students develop a more distinct style because they are able to utilize words in various situations. For rhetoricians—especially Erasmus in *De Copia*—the use of a variety of words becomes crucial in becoming an effective speaker and writer. To further solidify a student’s style, teachers should continue to incorporate grammar throughout the high school years because continuous exposure to grammar will allow for the rules to be understood and utilized properly. Various grammatical strategies teachers could use include grammar workbooks, quizzes, or the archaic strategy of diagramming sentences (see Discussion chapter for further information).

Students practice these vocabulary and grammar skills through writing exercises, which allows students to develop style. According to Bauer and Wise (2009), students should utilize Strunk and White’s (1999) *Elements of Style* to develop and master their own writing style. Through the student’s writing on the great books, the exercises in *Elements of Style* can be implemented so students can see how their own style needs to be improved. Once students reach the rhetoric stage, they should also be practicing fully the canon of arrangement within their writing and speaking assignments. Lockman (2009) adds this emphasis on the importance of arrangement in a student’s writing by suggesting, arrangement “divides the speech or essay into the following parts: an introduction, a statement of facts, an outline, the proof, the refutation, and the conclusion” (93). Therefore, students increase their understanding of how to arrange their writing so that they can provide their audience with an effective essay, which further supports the use of the *progymnasmata*. After students have an understanding of the overall arrangement, Lockman believes that the student needs to answer the following questions:

Have you chosen the most appropriate words? Should they be pure and simple or ornate?

Is specialized vocabulary needed? Does the grammar appear proper? Are the tenses
consistent? Should you use the standard syntax for arranging the words or break a rule to produce an unexpected surprise? Would repetition of words or phrases be effective? Are your points concise? Have you chosen words that emotionally move the audience? Did you consider the sound and rhythm of the word and phrases? Would figures of speech like metaphor, personification, or simile aid in communicating your message? (p. 95)

Students can only answer these questions after they have gone through the grammar and logic stages because they can only make the choice to “break the rules” after they know the rules of grammar and logic. Classical education allows students to break these rules because they know the rules and can break them consciously. To discuss the impact of this stylistic choice of words and style, Arthur Berger’s (2008) *The Academic Writer’s Toolkit: A User’s Manual* illustrates, “Every word we use conveys a particular meaning and has certain connotations. We must be extremely careful, then, about our language. Just changing one word or substituting one word for another can impact the way readers interpret what is written” (p.44). Elements of style can be furthered developed with a classical education because of the scaffolding approach. Ideally, it teaches students the basis of language (grammar), how to use it appropriately (logic), and how to create effective means to break these rules (rhetoric). As a result, students slowly build their writing knowledge in stages and in the three genres: narrative, expository, and argumentative.

The compositions for each genre should be academic oriented, no matter the students’ future. Since a classical rhetoric education prides itself on the five cannons of rhetoric, students practice their skills within these cannons repeatedly. With this consistent repetition, students within a classical education oftentimes are more willing to discover the joys of writing whereas students that are part of a modern education are more likely to become writers that fall under the following category set forth by Donald Murray (1972) in *Teach Writing as a Process Not*
Product: “When you give him an assignment you tell him what to say and how to say it, and thereby cheat your student of the opportunity to learn the process of discovery we call writing” (p. 5). Classical education avoids this pitfall because the students have already been through the consistent rules of what it takes to make an effective essay through correct grammar and logic; therefore, it is now the student’s turn to make the rhetorical choices themselves to create an effective piece that takes the previous conventions he/she learned into mind. Janet Emig’s (1977) *Writing as a Mode of Learning* further illustrates the power and control a student has in their writing in the classical education model when she mentions, “Writing is originating and creating a unique verbal construct that is graphically recorded” (p. 8). Therefore, students in a rhetorical education are able to create “a unique verbal construct” and avoid the pitfall of being told “what to say and how to say it” because the student is given control in the rhetoric stage in a classical education model (Emig, 1977; Murray, 1972).

Nancy Sommers (1980) also illustrates how classical education allows students to be more experienced writers in *Revision Strategies of Student Writers and Experienced Adult Writers*:

But student writers constantly struggle to bring their essays into congruence with a predefined meaning. The experienced writers do the opposite: they seek to discover (to create) meaning in the engagement with their writing, in revision. They seek to emphasize and exploit the lack of clarity, the differences of meaning, the dissonance, that writing as opposed to speech allows in the possibility of revision. (p. 52)

Since classical education students are taught to be aware of their organization and the five cannons of rhetoric, they are more likely to show characteristics of the experience writers
because they have been taught the grammar, logic, and have been given freedom to utilize these rules on their own through rhetoric.

**Speech Instruction in the Rhetoric Stage**

Speech, in conjunction with writing, is important for a classical student’s education because oratory is a necessary skill for college or the workforce. In public high schools, speeches and their importance are often overlooked because there is no time to fit it into the curriculum with the standardized testing of students, and students are usually only required to take one speech class for one semester. However, a classical education will not advocate for more standardized testing of students over the learning of oratory because oratory is a necessity in growing a student’s intellectual abilities. In a classical education, students use the five cannons of rhetoric in order to come to an understanding of how a speech is concocted. The five cannons of rhetoric include invention (*inventio*), arrangement (*dispositio*), style/elocution (*elocutio*), memorization (*memoria*), and delivery (*pronuntiatio*) (Bauer and Wise, 2009, p. 467-468).  

50 One of the most important cannons is that of memorization, especially for speech in a time when students tend to rely on the information that is projected on presentation slides. However, students do have more presentation software available to them, which should only serve as a visual aid and not as a repository for information. Presentation software examples include Prezi, PowerPoint, Emaze, Google Drive, and many others. According to Lockman, though, orators were expected to know their material from memory but “memory had to do with the structuring [of] the speech [too] so that the audience would retain the content…through the use of  

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50Invention requires students to create an argument and gather supporting evidence (Bauer and Wise, 2009, p. 467). Arrangement requires students to put all of the information into a logical order (p. 467). Style requires students to evaluate the words and techniques used within a presentation (p. 467). Memorization requires students to memorize all or parts of the speech (p. 467). Delivery requires the students to create effective presentation methods for delivering the speech (p. 467).
enumeration and vivid descriptions” (2009, p. 97). Consequently, knowing the organization of
the speech cues the student in on key words, phrases, or actions that need to be enacted at
appropriate times. Although this only illustrates one cannon, all five cannons are fundamental to
a student’s education in speech because a student has to know how to effectively persuade,
inform, or entertain.

Because modern education often forgets the importance of public speaking, there are
seven important characteristics a student of oratory must take into consideration: pitch, volume,
pause, emphasis, rhythm, pace, tone, and gestures (Lockman, 2009, p. 100-101). Within a
student’s oration, it is expected that the student bring their own specific style, which means that
continuous practice is needed. When students compose speeches for modern education, they are
simple presentations with PowerPoint slides and oftentimes students tend to forget the most
important element of the presentation: themselves. Teachers then need to make sure that
students are putting most of their effort into mastering the elements of pitch, volume, pause,
emphasis, rhythm, pace, tone, and gestures instead of focusing on the PowerPoint slides
(Lockman, 2009, p. 100-101). In addition to the five cannons of rhetoric and the elements of a
presentation, students should also be made aware of Aristotle’s three types of speeches illustrated
within Rhetoric: deliberative, forensic, and epideictic oratory (2001, p. 185). Each type of
speech should be practiced, similar to how each genre of the progymnasmata should be practiced
in the writing section of the logic stage. Because students have been made familiar with
rhetorical techniques in their logic study, students should incorporate those rhetorical techniques
into their own speeches and writing.

Additionally, students need to use the three persuasive appeals enumerated by Aristotle:
ethos (character), pathos (emotion), and logos (logic). In regards to ethos, students will have
developed their character their previous schooling in grammar and logic, which helped to create a moral student; therefore, allowing the student to have a good character. Pathos should be exploited in moderation because too much emotion may drive an audience away from the message. Logos is one skill that students practice continually in a trivium education, especially since the logic stage is devoted to developing reason. Students will know what it takes to create an effective speech or writing through their study of great writers and speakers and through the guidance and feedback from teachers. When students are made aware of the necessities and rules of speech, they become logical, creative speakers and writers. Although students may be made aware of the techniques needed to create effectives writings and speeches, they need to be aware of one key element: the audience.

A classical rhetoric education teaches students to always be aware of audience. Several writing theories illustrate the importance of audience in a student’s written composition, but they also apply to spoken compositions. For example, Walter Ong believes that the student’s audience is always fictionalized. By fictionalized, Ong (1975) argues, “For the speaker, the audience is in front of him. For the writer, the audience is simply further away, in time or space or both” (p. 57). Ong continues iterating, “Among these [implications between written and spoken discourse] latter is the relationship, of the so-called ‘audience’ to writing as such, to the situation that inscribed communication establishes and to the roles that readers as readers are consequently called on to play” (p. 55). Ong may be focusing on the written audience and how it is more difficult to imagine, but this philosophy also applies to the spoken audience because the student has to prepare his composition with an audience in mind; therefore, fictionalizing the audience of the spoken composition is necessary.
Students may go as far as Peter Elbow’s (1987) philosophy of ignoring the audience. Elbow argues, “An audience is a field of force. The closer we come—the more we think about these readers—the stronger the pull they exert on the contents of our minds. The practical question, then, is always whether a particular audience functions as a helpful field of force or one that confuses or inhibits us” (p. 51). As a result, classically educated students have an arsenal of audiences to pick from since they have been trained to understand audience in written and spoken forms (i.e. *progymnasmata* in writing and Aristotle’s three types of speeches). A modern education student, on the other hand, may not have the toolset necessary to address a myriad of audiences, especially since there may only be a one semester focus on audience. Therefore, fictionalizing or ignoring the audience altogether may be beneficial, but the audience also serves as its own entity.

Ede and Lunsford (1984) add further issues of audience with a classical student who studies both the written and spoken form of language in “Audience Addressed/Audience Invoked: The Role of Audience in Composition Theory and Pedagogy.” In this article, Ede and Lunsford illustrate the complications that the written audience has for the writer, “It is the writer who, as writer and reader of his or her own text, one guided by a sense of purpose and by the particularities of a specific rhetorical situation, establishes the range of potential roles an audience may play” (p. 89). Ede and Lunsford conclude that it is the student’s goal to fictionalize and place the audience into specific roles, which is exactly what an orator has to do too. However, just like a writer, an orator also has to be willing to change his or her discourse for the situation because the audience may not accept the role that the speaker has placed the audience, but the same can also be said for the writer: “Readers may, of course, accept or reject the role or roles the writer wishes them to adopt in responding to a text” (Ede and Lunsford,
1984, p. 89). With the illustration set forth for audience by Ong and Ede and Lunsford, Lockman (2009) adds, “Savvy public speakers and writers adjust the theme (invention), structure (arrangement), style, vocabulary, length, and delivery to each audience” (p. 103). Through the educational curriculum of the trivium, a student is made aware of the issues with audiences, the five canons of rhetoric, and the effort it takes to create an effective piece of writing or speech.

The idea of audience is important for a student of a classical education because they need to know the difference between presenting in front of a formal audience and in addressing the audience through writing. Consequently, students need to understand all of the presentation advice given by Lockman, the three types of speeches according to Aristotle, the use of persuasive appeals, and how an audience may react. Therefore, the rhetorical triangle becomes an essential tool or graphic organizer for a classically educated student. The rhetorical triangle (Figure 6) illustrates all of the necessary components of composing a written or a verbal composition. As a result, the classical student becomes more aware of audience and the possible benefits and downfalls of addressing a certain audience in a specific way in their written and spoken composition.

To sum up the rhetoric section and how each stage builds a student’s knowledge, Veith and Kern (2001) believe that “Each stage of the trivium is essential to education. Factual knowledge (grammar) is useless without understanding (logic). Knowledge and understanding mean little unless they

Figure 6: The Rhetorical Triangle
can be expressed and applied” (p. 13). The rhetoric stage is the cap where students fully employ language and all that they have learned in the previous stages. Essentially, a student would be unable to address various audiences if they had not been trained to understand the knowledge of language (grammar), how language works in various situations (logic)—i.e. Aristotle’s belief in epideictic, deliberative, and forensic and the progymnasmata for writing—and how to compose this language in creative ways to persuade, inform, or entertain audiences (rhetoric).
CHAPTER 5: PEDAGOGY SUMMATION

Mark Bauerlein’s (2008) controversial tome, *The Dumbest Generation: How the Digital Age Stupefies Young Americans and Jeopardizes our Future*, illustrates the concerns shouted by academicians:

> in sum, while the world has provided them [young adults] extraordinary chances to gain knowledge and improve their reading/writing skills, not to mention offering financial incentives to do so, young Americans today are no more learned or skillful than their predecessors, no more knowledgeable, fluent, up-to-date, or inquisitive, except in the materials of youth culture. They don’t know any more history or civics, economics or science, literature or current events. They read less on their own, both books and newspapers, and you would have to canvass a lot of college English instructors and employers before you found one who said that they compose better paragraphs. (p. 8-9)

As an individual that has grown up in this generation, my sentiments are, unfortunately, representative of Bauerlin’s. In fact, having taught two years of English at a public high school and two years of undergraduate writing, students’ writing skills are what I would call mediocre when entering freshmen composition. My college professors probably thought the same of me as I entered post-secondary instruction, because I went through a public high school with little to no focus on grammar, logic, or rhetoric. Although I do have this sentiment and have lived through it, I can see why students have these writing skills and the fault lies in our public schools and the consistent changing of academic standards and continuous standardized testing. Instead of being able to teach students to become respectable, well-versed students and citizens, teachers are forced to teach towards the test to keep their jobs and in some cases, pay.
Therefore, it is through this study that I wish to show that this consistent headache among public school students, teachers, and administrators can be transformed by including the scaffolding structure of a classical education. In fact, this classical education structure has worked for public schools. For example, Walnut Hills High School in Cincinnati, Ohio utilizes this classical education structure and has continually scored well on standardized tests, preparing students for college, and is recognized as one of the best high schools in the nation by the U.S. News (“Walnut Hills History,” n.d.). As a result, public schools have shown that they can compete with private schools as long as they implement a structure that has been proven to work. This curriculum should come in the form of the trivium and should consist of the following learning methods according to Robinson’s (2013) *Trivium 21c* (Figure 7).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammar</th>
<th>Logic/Dialectic</th>
<th>Rhetoric</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Memorizing</td>
<td>Application of knowledge</td>
<td>Presentations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Build knowledge</td>
<td>Exploring context</td>
<td>Performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>systematically</td>
<td>Guided practice</td>
<td>Show off skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td>Critical thinking</td>
<td>Express opinions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note taking</td>
<td>Analysis</td>
<td>Appreciate beauty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>Discovering</td>
<td>Understand complexity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viewing</td>
<td>Connecting</td>
<td>Express simply</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Get facts</td>
<td>Asking questions</td>
<td>Elegant argument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access information</td>
<td>Testing out</td>
<td>Judgments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connect Knowledge</td>
<td>Making sense</td>
<td>Positing questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delay gratification</td>
<td>Justify thoughts</td>
<td>Listening to opinions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn to deal with not understanding</td>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>Appreciate elegance and beauty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expect frustration</td>
<td>Ask questions</td>
<td>Leading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn to delay criticism</td>
<td>Practice skills</td>
<td>Leading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acquire skills</td>
<td>Train</td>
<td>Lecturing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Play</td>
<td>Generating questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-discipline</td>
<td>Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Work hard</td>
<td>Connect with other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Compete/support</td>
<td>institutions and expertise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Arguing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enjoy elusive nature of learning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enthusiasm</td>
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</table>

(Robinson, 2013, p. 237)
Figure 7 illustrated the learning methods that students go through when learning to work their way through the trivium. Therefore, understanding these learning methods allows teachers to see how students should be progressing through a trivium education. As has been reiterated throughout this historical perspective of the trivium, students slowly build their higher-level thinking skills which are required of all students, no matter one’s distinction as a private, public, or charter school. For example, one can see that students start with memorization skills, which then transfer into application skills. After the application skills are attained, students then move into the creative and presentation stage of their skills.

Robinson’s work also includes the teaching styles for students in a separate table (Figure 8). Within this table, teachers are able to see how they are to treat the student’s education and the methodology they should be implementing. Once a student progresses through the trivium, the teacher starts to destabilize their role as the sage on the stage. Instead, the teacher becomes the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammar</th>
<th>Logic/Dialectic</th>
<th>Rhetoric</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>Guided discovery</td>
<td>Coaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building blocks</td>
<td>Logic</td>
<td>Lecturing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Piecing</td>
<td>Questioning</td>
<td>Challenging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incremental steps</td>
<td>Seminar</td>
<td>Seminary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reveal process</td>
<td>Debate</td>
<td>Tutorials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share concepts,</td>
<td>Argue</td>
<td>Demand eloquence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rules, facts,</td>
<td>Progression</td>
<td>Self-reflection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fundamentals</td>
<td>Analysis/synthesis</td>
<td>Open up new questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standing on the</td>
<td>Talk</td>
<td>Express and listen to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shoulders of giants</td>
<td></td>
<td>opinions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide resources</td>
<td>Building</td>
<td>Let go</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teach note taking</td>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>Set open-ended problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simplicity</td>
<td>Play</td>
<td>and tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td>Introduce and increase</td>
<td>Give space</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ritual</td>
<td>complexity</td>
<td>(Robinson, 2013, p. 236).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase capacity incrementally</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
guider and demander of excellence, which can be illustrated when one looks at the pedagogy in the grammar section and how it diminishes in the logic stage, and then becomes secondary to the student’s actual work in the rhetoric stage.

As with all forms of education, knowing the teaching styles and the learning methods is not enough, especially when it comes to standardized testing. Robinson has concocted a graphic for teachers and students to understand assessment in Figure 9:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammar</th>
<th>Logic/Dialectic</th>
<th>Rhetoric</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Show-me boards</td>
<td>• Dialogue: teacher-student</td>
<td>• Essays</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• No hands up</td>
<td>• Pair and share</td>
<td>• Projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Memory tests</td>
<td>• Argument</td>
<td>• Performance</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Multiple choice</td>
<td>• Essays that show argument between two or more viewpoints</td>
<td>• Mastery tutorials</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Short answer</td>
<td>• Self-assessment</td>
<td>• Student-led seminars with peer and teacher critiques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Precis</td>
<td>• Questioning for depth of understanding</td>
<td>• Dissertations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Repetition</td>
<td>• Dialogue: peer-to-peer to teacher</td>
<td>• Pieces of art</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Recall</td>
<td>• Peer assessment</td>
<td>• Assess use of skills in context of the domain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Viva voce</td>
<td>• Assess originality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Essays that start to bring in the students’ own opinions, back up with evidence</td>
<td>(Robinson, 2013, p. 238)</td>
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</table>

Assessment is important for all forms of education because teachers, government officials, and parents have to know that their students are gaining the necessary skills to succeed in life. The assessment strategies illustrated by Robinson grow in complexity similar to the learning methods and pedagogy section. Students, therefore, are expected to become independent, productive citizens once that have completed their trivium education. After the trivium education is complete, students move onto more specialized fields of study in the quadrivium.

In the chapters that follow this literature review, a study was conducted to determine the effectiveness of a trivium-type education in a public, rural high school. Utilizing the theories and pedagogical strategies set forth by this literature review, students were subjected to twelve-week sections of grammar, logic, and rhetoric respectively. Each section of the trivium
employed the pedagogical strategies and assessments set forth by Robinson’s (2013) _Trivium 21c_ to determine the effectiveness of a classical education on modern public school students. Since this study was conducted in a public, rural high school, the Common Core State Standards were met to make sure that students were receiving the same education required by the state of Ohio, which many classical schools denounce.\footnote{51} Walnut Hills High School in Cincinnati, Ohio, though, is a public school that uses the Common Core State Standards and they have had success in being rated by U.S. News as one of America’s best public high schools (“Walnut Hills History,” n.d.). Additionally, these public school students, who are trained through a classical education, have a 100% passing rating on Ohio’s Proficiency Tests, and 87% of their graduates enter college with advanced standing (“Walnut Hills History,” n.d.). Therefore, Walnut Hills proves a classical education can be implemented within a public school.

\footnote{51} Most classical schools do not adhere to the Common Core State Standards for several reasons. For example, the Loveland Classical School in Loveland, Colorado argues that the Colorado State Standards of 1993 are more rigorous than the CCSS, PARCC assessments do not measure the standard of excellence expected, and the CCSS does not encourage “students to recognize and value scholarship and character through a sound curriculum based on the great ideas and values of Core Knowledge and Classical education” (“Board Resolution,” 2014).

Additionally, the Ridgeview Classical School in Fort Collins, Colorado argues against the Common Core in their Board of Education approved resolution by stating, “THEREFORE BE IT RESOLVED that Ridgeview Classical Schools board of directors hereby express their general opposition to the imposition of the Common Core State Standards for two reasons: (1) because charter schools should retain greater autonomy that would be provided for under Common Core; and, (2) because Ridgeview is able to pursue a better education for its students that is more rigorous, less costly, less intrusive, and more accountable. Ridgeview remains, as it always has, committed first and foremost to its students, and to fully living up to its mission and philosophy” (Board of Directors, 2013).

Terence O. Moore’s (2013) _The Story-Killers: A Common-Sense Case Against the Common Core_ wholeheartedly believes that “The authors of the Common Core must believe either that the young men and women of today are not capable of understanding and enjoying the stories that constitute their cultural and moral inheritance or that our children should not be reading them—at least not in their entirety—in the first place. The first motive is a case of inexcusably diminished expectation. The second is a case of deliberate sabotage” (p. 15). Consequently, Moore also disagrees with the Common Core from a classical education standpoint.
CHAPTER 6: METHODOLOGY

This study’s focus was on implementing a trivium-type education in a rural, public high school in Northwest Ohio that aligned itself to the Common Core State Standards. Because it is impossible to fully study a trivium education in the time allotted for this study, the trivium education implemented gave each stage of the trivium (grammar, logic, and rhetoric) twelve weeks in a thirty-six week school schedule. Garnering student opinion before and after the implementation of the trivium is needed, too. Students’ opinions became central to this study because they have been trained through a modern educational curriculum, with nine of the thirty-four students classically trained in the grammar stage; therefore, establishing their initial opinions on a classical education gave this study a better understanding of how students view their own education in comparison to a classical education. Even though student opinion is beneficial to this study, student growth was as impactful to the validity of this study.

Measuring student growth is important within education because every teacher wants to know that his/her students are succeeding and whether or not his/her pedagogy is working. In order to measure student growth, students were given a pretest before their introduction to any classroom materials. Unfortunately, the size of the classes and the district did not permit a control group for this study, which would have occurred if this were a larger district. After the students completed three-fourths of their classical education, they were given a posttest to measure their growth. The posttest gave the study a quantitative component because the students’ pretest and posttest scores were compared and contrasted to determine how much growth had been accumulated through a classical education curriculum (the trivium).

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52 There are only two classes of sophomore Advanced English students (21 and 15) in this district, with thirty-four of the students participating in this study. Using both classes as the focus is more beneficial than using one as a control group because more students will give their input into classical education. Additionally, the male to female ratio would have been greater if a control group was used.
Additionally, each stage of the trivium had weekly assignments and a major project associated with it, which encompasses students’ critical thinking skills and knowledge attained through the twelve weeks. A quantitative study in conjunction with a qualitative analysis of students’ artifacts showed a variety of data; therefore, this data variety eliminates as much ambiguity as possible. In the following paragraphs, each quantitative and qualitative piece of data is explored.

**Student Surveys: Before and After a Classical Education**

To gain student insight on a classical education, a survey was administered before and after the students completed a classical education. For the survey before, students were asked five questions to understand their likes and dislikes with the current educational system (see appendix). It was the goal of this pre-survey to assess students’ understanding of a classical education, but also to gain their insight on their current education. Also, this survey was giving students a sounding board to display their issues and students responded in a positive, yet critical manner. The results from this survey was utilized to determine students’ overall opinions on a classical versus modern education.

However, student opinion might change after they have completed a classical education, and these results will not be analyzed in this thesis. Therefore, students will be given a post-survey that will ask for their input on a classical education and how they feel after completing it. The post-survey will ask students six questions, which will hopefully elicit positive responses (see appendix). After students have completed the post-survey, a better understanding of student opinion concerning their education will be attained. Student opinion is important because it is their education that is at stake. Therefore, the goal of this study is to attain student growth through their artifacts and pretest and posttest scores, but also to understand students’ opinion on
education. Hopefully, students will see the benefits of the scaffolding approach that a classical education provides in comparison to the modern education that they have received thus far.

**Pretest and Posttest**

The pretest and the posttest measured students’ knowledge in each stage of the trivium. In the following paragraphs, each section of the pretest and posttest is explicated with some sample questions. The setup of the pretest and posttest occurred in two separate stages. On the first day, students received the grammar and the logic portion of the test. Students had the entire period to complete the test. On day two, students received the rhetoric portion and was given the entire period to read Maria Stewart’s speech, *Why Sit Ye Here and Die*, and rhetorically analyze the piece. Students were provided with a rubric on how they were graded on the essay, so students knew what pieces of the essay were worth the most and which were not. Once both tests days were completed, tests were collected and graded (see appendix for pretest and posttest). When students completed the posttest, they were given more time to complete the essay portion because they knew how to properly write a rhetorical analysis by this point. Additional time was also given because students knew how to analyze a nonfiction work for rhetorical, literary, and poetic devices as well as the three persuasive appeals of ethos, logos, and pathos. Student knowledge, therefore, grew and more time for the essay was necessary. The posttest essay was combined with the logic stage major project to save classroom instruction time, especially since students were only in the English classroom for 45-minutes a day. After the posttest, student growth was analyzed to determine whether or not a classical education was successful within a rural public high school.
Grammar

For the grammar stage, the focus on this class was on the knowledge and ability to use language effectively. The grammar section of the pretest and posttest covered students’ knowledge of grammatical terms, their functions, and how to properly utilize punctuation. Such questions that were found on the grammar section of the pretest and posttest included the following: what function does a preposition, adverb, and adjective serve; what is the definition of a pronoun; and a pronoun has to follow what. Also, there were thirteen matching questions and ten fix the punctuation questions.

Logic

The logic portion of the pretest and posttest tried students’ knowledge of logic, specifically rhetorical, literary, and poetic devices. Short response questions asked of students included the following: define deductive reasoning and give an example, and list and define the five stages of the writing process. These questions assessed students’ knowledge of deductive reasoning and what it takes to write an effective essay. In conjunction with the short response questions, students completed four sections of matching terms with their definition. Each section contained approximately twenty words which tested students’ knowledge of rhetorical, literary, and poetic devices.

Rhetoric

The rhetoric section of the pretest and posttest took place on its own separate day because students needed enough time to read and concoct an essay (45-minute period). Nevertheless, there were two questions on the rhetoric section and they included the filling in of the rhetorical triangle with the following terms: audience, message, author, context, and purpose. Students did not have a word bank. Subsequently, it depended on students’ previous knowledge for the
pretest, but students completed the rhetorical triangle easily on the posttest. The second portion of the rhetoric section required students to rhetorically analyze Maria Stewart’s speech, *Why Sit Ye Here and Die*. Since the completing of an essay takes time, students were given more time to complete this portion on the posttest since they knew how to rhetorically analyze at that point. This last section of the test was the culmination of all of the students’ knowledge of grammar, logic, and rhetoric.

**Weekly Assignments**

The accumulation of knowledge cannot be studied through one major project per stage, so students completed weekly assignments that assessed their knowledge of the principles associated with each stage. Only two of these weekly assignments in each section were analyzed—one from the beginning and one from the end—to assess students’ growth in their knowledge of grammar, logic, and rhetorical principles. The overarching goal of these weekly assignments was to give students continual practice in developing skills to be effective writers, speakers, and communicators. Each weekly assignment was worth twenty points, which allowed for continuity in assessment purposes.

**Grammar**

For the grammar stage, students completed weekly grammar assignments that assessed their knowledge of grammatical principles. These assignments differed per week and included grammar worksheets, writings and responses, and diagramming sentences. Students were assessed on their knowledge of grammar principles such as subject, direct object, indirect object, forms of punctuation, and the eight parts of speech. Analyzing these grammar worksheets would not be as informative as gauging students’ opinion, because students know how they learn best. Therefore, students wrote two journal responses that reflected on their preferred method of
instruction (sociocultural vs. prescriptive approach) for grammar (see appendix for assignment sheet). Student opinion was pivotal to this study and the students’ education because their preferred method of instruction has to be known. More specifically, in the first journal students were asked to determine what their preferred method of instruction was and when grammar instruction should take place: elementary, high school, or both. After students completed their twelve weeks of grammar instruction, they completed journal response two. In the second response, students reflected on what method they learned the most from during the grammar stage. The sociocultural and prescriptive approach were both used to teach students, so they could adequately gauge which method was best. Through the analysis of these two journal responses, students’ preferred method of instruction and when the instruction should take place was attained.

Logic

In the logic stage of the trivium, students completed weekly logic assignments named “Articles of the Week.” These weekly logic assignments required students to analyze an article from Kelly Gallagher’s Article of the Week database\(^{53}\) and write a 7-10 sentence summary and a 7-10 sentence analysis of the article (“Articles of the Week,” n.d.). The goal of this assignment was to get students thinking critically about the structure, author, language, and rhetorical devices used in the article. Students were taught these rhetorical devices during the logic stage; therefore, students’ knowledge grew as the twelve weeks of the logic stage progressed. Progressively, their knowledge of rhetorical devices grew and their analyses became longer because students had more tools at their disposal (see appendix for rubric and assignment sheet). Students, accordingly, had to apply their knowledge of grammar to their logic assignments.

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53 A database that Kelly Gallagher and his colleagues maintain that contains nonfiction articles on current events. The articles range from informational to argumentative and are on a plethora of topics.
because knowledge of language was needed for a student to effectively critique an author. After students completed all the weekly assignments in the grammar and logic stages, students were then required to write and utilize rhetorical, literary, and poetic devices in their own writing.

**Rhetoric**

For the last twelve weeks of the trivium, which are not analyzed in this study, students will complete weekly rhetoric assignments. The weekly rhetoric assignments ask students to pick a rhetorical, literary, or poetic device and put it into practice by creating their own original argument, which should be at least 7-sentences in length. Once students have completed their own original argument and their use of the rhetorical device, they are to reflect on their use of the rhetorical device and whether or not they thought it was an effective device (see appendix for assignment sheet and rubric). As an added caveat to the assignment, students are not allowed to use the same principle more than once. Essentially, this allows students to develop an arsenal of rhetorical devices for their future writings or techniques that they will be able to dissect within an author, speaker, or poet’s writing. These weekly rhetoric assignments are meant as a way to build students’ knowledge on the assortment of principles needed to become an effective writer, reader, speaker, and communicator within the complex, modern society. If it were not for these smaller assignments, student knowledge could only be measured in the major projects. Therefore, in order to make this study as strong as it can be, the use of these weekly assignments has been concocted to give a comparison and contrast between students’ first introduction and growth attained of the material.

**Major Projects**

At the end of each stage, a major project was the culmination of all the students’ knowledge. Unlike the weekly assignments, students were expected to demonstrate all of their
abilities attained in the stage and to implement their knowledge into a finalized project. Since the classical education curriculum allows for a scaffolding approach, these major projects increased in intensity and the points associated with each project increased as well. It is expected that students utilize the information they attained in the previous stage(s) and apply it to the stage they are currently learning. Although these major projects do not show a student’s full growth, they enlighten the benefits of a classical education, especially since students’ opinion were measured in addition to the quantitative data.

Grammar

In the grammar stage, students became accustomed to knowing and implementing their knowledge of the English language—including the origins of the English language—and grammatical principles into a finalized project (see appendix for assignment sheet and rubric). The project contained four parts that students completed collaboratively in groups of three: one, students presented their beliefs on why grammar is important within society; two, students taught a grammar lesson based on a grammatical concept—no two groups will have the same concept; three, students created a group essay that discussed the issue of rampant grammar misuse in society and what society can do to remedy this situation; and four, students wrote an individual essay that outlined the roles each person played within the group, which allowed for accountability by all group members. Since this is the culmination of the twelve weeks, students were expected to utilize proper grammar, spelling, punctuation, and MLA format. Throughout the teaching portion of the twelve weeks, students were accustomed to utilizing proper grammar and linguistics terms, as well as the origins of the English language and the impact the German, Celtic, Latin, and French languages had on English. This knowledge combined allowed students to develop a meta-language for future discussions with classmates and teachers. To help guide
students through an understanding of grammar instruction, a class lesson was provided on the sociocultural approach to grammar instruction versus the prescriptivist method of grammar instruction. Overall, the students’ goal was to create an awareness of grammar misuse in society and become accustomed to writing and speaking with correct grammar.

Logic

The logic stage built upon the items learned in the grammar stage and asked students to write an analysis of a famous speech (see appendix for assignment sheet and rubric). The assignment required students to write a rhetorical analysis, which exemplified the accumulation of knowledge students attained. As with the grammar essay, students had to apply proper grammar, spelling, punctuation, and proper MLA formatting. Adding to the complexity of the assignment, students were expected to analyze and comprehend a speaker’s use of Aristotle’s three persuasive appeals (ethos, logos, and pathos). An understanding of the rhetorical, literary, and poetic devices was expected, too; however, to guide students through the organizational structure of a rhetorical analysis, the SOAPSTone method was implemented. Students applied this method of rhetorical analysis in conjunction with their understanding of rhetorical, literary, and poetic appeals, Aristotle’s persuasive appeals, and knowledge of grammar. Overall, the students were well aware of how to critically analyze and write a rhetorical analysis at the end of the logic stage.

Rhetoric

Because rhetoric is the last stage of the trivium, students will be expected to implement their knowledge of grammar and logic to create their own argument. The results from this major project are not discussed in the Discussion chapter. The final project requires that students write an original argumentative essay about a piece of classical literature that operates literary
criticism and the principles learned throughout all three stages. Students are going to have to back up their opinion with at least four academic articles that can be found on library databases, and they are to write this essay through that literary criticism lens (see appendix for full assignment and rubric). Consequently, students will then have to employ correct grammar, spelling, punctuation, and MLA format within this assignment. In addition to the creation of an original argument essay that utilizes a piece of classical literature and literary criticism, students will have to create a presentation that will inform the rest of their classmates on their classical literature piece and their argument. Unfortunately, the rhetoric stage’s final project will not be analyzed in the results section because of time constraints. However, the logic stage does require the students to understand rhetorical principles and how they work to make an argument, and the student will have to make an argument about their selected speech and its effectiveness.

**Site of Study**

The site of this study is essential because it took place in a public rural high school in Northwest Ohio. A public rural high school was chosen as the site of the study because many classical education schools are found within urban areas and are oftentimes charter or private schools, which paints these schools in a positive light. Therefore, one goal of this study was to prove that a classical education curriculum through the trivium can be implemented in a public, rural high school and that students can succeed and show growth. With little to no literature on classical education and its impact on rural, public school students, this study placed rural public schools in the spotlight and showed that these students are as bright as students who pay for a private classical education. Additionally, this study showed that a classical education can be implemented in a public rural high school and that it can be more effective than a modern education curriculum, which seems to have no scaffolding structure like that of classical
education. However, it should be noted that even though this study focused on implementing a classical education to students in this rural public high school in Northwest Ohio, all current Ohio State Standards were met (i.e. Common Core State Standards or Ohio’s New Learning Standards). Even though some classical education schools denounce the CCSS, this study showed CCSS can be implemented with a trivium education.

Study Sample

This study is based off of a convenience sample and measured the student growth in two separate Advanced English sophomore classes. The students in the Advanced English classes were chosen to be in advanced English because they showed academic promise in English/language arts. In order to stay in advanced English, students must maintain a B average for both semesters. Students may move from standard to advanced English if they maintained an A average in their Standard English class the previous year. If students do not meet this criteria, they are moved down to Standard English. Additionally, most students in this advanced English class will receive an honors diploma upon graduation and will most likely be en-route for postsecondary education. The Advanced English class was specifically chosen because it provided the best division between males and females, and these students are more responsible and accepting to change because of the advanced course criteria. In total, the study had thirty-four participants with twelve of those participants being males and twenty-two of them being female. All the students’ ages ranged from fourteen to sixteen years of age. Surprisingly, this study sample also provided this study with the ability to analyze public school students in comparison to private school students because nine of the thirty-four participants attended a private Catholic school grades K-8. This private school had an intense curriculum in grammar, but not logic study. Therefore, this diverse population allowed for a comparison and contrast
between the two school types. As a result, this study sample provided the best sample possible in this rural public high school because there was a better distribution of males to females, the students were responsible, some students attended a public school and some attended a private school, and none of the students were exposed to a full classical education.
CHAPTER 7: RESULTS

The results of the grammar and logic stages for this study are explained in the following pages. Although the results of the actual assignments are most important, understanding students’ thoughts and beliefs is needed to demonstrate students’ knowledge of a classical education. Therefore, the pre-questionnaire addressed students’ beliefs of a classical education before taking part in the curriculum. The weekly assignment results from the grammar and logic stages are in the form of qualitative and quantitative evidence. Quantitative and qualitative data are provided for the major projects to determine whether or not students met the goals of the assignments. Students’ grades on the assignments are provided to illustrate success. The grammar major project, however, contains a group grade. Students’ work is also provided to illustrate how the students addressed the assignment’s needs and demonstrated the goals of the trivium. After all results have been revealed, a discussion occurs.

Student Surveys Before a Classical Education

The questionnaire asked students to answer five questions concerning their current knowledge of a classical education (see appendix for questions). With these five questions, a better understanding of students’ previous knowledge of a classical education can be ascertained. In question one, students illustrated that the common difference from a classical education and a modern education is structure. Many students felt that a classical education builds upon students’ knowledge, whereas a modern education seems to be scattered and requires students to use different skills. For example, one student writes, “A classical education goes step by step and builds on past knowledge; while modern education just mashes everything together and you learned it all at once.” To further this purpose, another student comments, “Classical education I think is better than modern education because we learn the basics before we learn the more
complicated stuff.” Students are able to decipher the scaffolding nature of classical education and are positive of the structure because it builds on their knowledge. One student acknowledged this fact by writing, “I think a classical education prepares students better for the future and gives them time to properly understand things.” One student, comparing education through the use of similes, mentioned, “Modern education is like my dad’s cooking; random and confusing. Classical education is like a fancy restaurant [sic] with 3 forks [to] eat; you got everything in order.” Simile or not, the student is pinpointing the key difference between a classical education and modern curriculum: structure. All in all, students have taken their previous educational experiences and compared and contrasted them to a brief introduction to classical education and its goals in student preparation.

Even though a majority of the students seemed to favor the classical curriculum, not all students were convinced of the curriculum differences. For example, one student mentions, “To myself, I don’t think there is much of a difference. Maybe being taught by steps to make it easier for students to learn would be a better learning experience.” A student further illustrates this point by stating, “To me, I do not think there is a difference because I feel that we keep learning just it gets harder.” Two more students added a similar comment with one stating, “There is no difference, learning is learning.” Throughout the first question of the pre-questionnaire, students demonstrated that a classical education is more structured than a modern education, which is often jam-packed with material. Students also feel modern education causes confusion, but there are those students who do not believe that there is a difference in structure.

Students also had the opportunity, given their brief background to classical education and experience in modern education, to determine which curriculum is harder to complete and which curriculum produces the smartest students. Students were told to base their opinions off the
information that they knew about classical education as well as the education that their 
grandparents may have gone through. Additionally, students were told to think about the 
Common Core State Standards and how these standards could mold their opinions (see Figure 
10). In regards to the most 
difficult curriculum, a 
majority (48%) felt that a 
classical education had the 
hardest curriculum, which 
could be due to the 
scaffolding approach 
students mentioned in their answers. On the other hand, 39% of the students agree that a 
classical education is more difficult. One student demonstrates in the following why they believe 
a classical education is easier, but also produces smarter students: “I believe classical education 
is easier to complete, than a modern education. I believe classical education students are 
smarter, because through the three stages, you become smarter.” Consequently, 48% of students 
felt that modern education is harder but 48% of these students felt that classical education 
produces smarter students.

Continuing with this belief of classical education and its students, another student 
illustrates, “Yes, I think a classical education is harder to complete than a modern education. I 
think classical education students were indeed smarter than modern education students because I 
feel they know more about our past, and their knowledge is more broad [sic] than ours.” With 
the previous statement in mind, a majority of students (48%) felt that classical education students 
are smarter than modern education students, but 20% of students sensed that modern students are
smarter. One student mentions, “I think that a classical education is harder to complete. I feel that modern students are smarter, due to technology of computers. We have more access to information as opposed to students from the 50’s.” Technology becomes an important element for modern education because it surrounds students at home and in school, but classical education also takes technology into consideration because of kairos. Interestingly, 32% of students did not provide an answer because they were neutral, failed to answer the question, or did not want to give an answer. Overall, students feel that a classical education is easier because it builds upon itself, but it also produces smarter students because of their broad knowledge.

Question three addressed students’ interest in classical literature including works like The Odyssey, The Iliad, The Crucible, and 1984. A majority (74%) of the students shared an interest in classical literature, while 23% did not express interest in classical literature. Additionally, one student was neutral because he/she was not aware of classical literature and what it entails (see Figure 10). Several answers that students provided in their response included a love for mythology and stories that challenge their thinking. For example, one student writes, “Yes, because I believe it would be something I’m interested in. I’ve only read a bit of mythology, and I found it pretty interesting.” One student went more in-depth with the answer by saying, “Yes, I think it’s interesting, and makes you more aware of things you may never think about and that is where a lot of our English, and history is based off of.” Overall, students expressed an interest in mythology and believed it to be something worth studying.
However, there are some students (23%) who did not find classical literature interesting or relevant to modern society. For example, one student comments, “No, I think it is too complex, boring. It doesn’t interest me. But it will become helpful especially when you get a career.” The ending statement by the student is interesting because the student may be acknowledging the critical thinking benefits that are aligned with classical literature. One additional student disliked classical literature by saying, “No, because I don’t think it has any relevance to learning anything important.” Consequently, students often feel that classical literature is anachronistic and should be left to the literature enthusiasts because of its complex nature. In its entirety, though, students expressed an interest in classical literature and the stories that it provides.

Classical literature is used to help students develop their critical thinking skills, which happens to be the focus of question four. Question four asked if students believe that learning how to think is taught in schools today (see Figure 12). A majority of the students (55%) felt that they were not taught how to critically think within a modern education. Some students (32%) believe that they are taught how to critically think within a modern education, while 13% are neutral on the topic. One student had the following to say about critical thinking skills, “No. We learn the same repetitive crap we’ve been learning since kindergarten, except harder.” Another student mentions, “No because it seems like everybody thinks for each other.” Several students brought in the theme of teachers expect students to know the material and one student went as far as to say, “No, I think that teachers just go over stuff like a robot.” What

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<th>Question 4: Do you think that learning to think is taught today?</th>
<th>31 responses</th>
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<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>32%</td>
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<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>55%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>13%</td>
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could cause this robotic-like pedagogy is mentioned by one student, “No, the teachers teach what’s [sic] on the test, not very in-depth.” Therefore, students do not believe that critical thinking skills are taught within the classroom because teachers expect students to critically think on their own, teachers teach like robots, and teachers only teach what is on the test.

Although some students do not believe they are taught to think critically, some students do believe that some classes challenge them to think critically. For example, math and science classes were key classes in students’ yes responses. One student illustrates, “I think that learning is taught in some subjects because different subjects require critical thinking and other classes don’t.” Getting to more specific answers, one student mentions, “Yes, because you have to think a lot to solve some of the homework problems you have in classes, like math.” Additionally, another student illuminates, “In math and science, you are taught how to think critically.” With a majority of the students feeling that they are not being taught critical thinking skills, students are left with a disadvantage when it comes to the rhetoric stage of the trivium because rhetoric requires students to apply the critical thinking skills themselves. However, some courses do require critical thinking—courses such as math and science—but it is interesting that students did not mention English as being a course where critical thinking skills are taught or utilized. A further analysis of students’ opinions on which courses teach critical thinking skills and which do not needs to be conducted.

The last question asked students to combine all of their knowledge in the previous questions to come to an understanding of the issues of modern education (see Figure 13 on p.116). Many students felt that there was a lack of care and/or uninformed teachers. For example, one student demonstrates this belief by saying, “Some teachers don’t know how to
Teach. People are way too stressed out because some things aren’t explained well enough.” To add to this discussion, one student adds the belief that “Teachers are getting worse.” Another student had a similar concern when stating, “Teachers seem to not care anymore and find easy ways out to teach. Also, rush through things too fast.” Overall, lack of care and ill-informed teachers became a prevalent concern listed by students. However, students pointed out other common issues with modern education: too much material being covered, standardized testing and rigid standards, lack of class diversity and use of technology, and boring and/or robotic nature of material and pedagogy.

Throughout the questionnaire, for example, students demonstrated that there was too much material being shoved at them at once. One student mentions, “Too many things are being taught at the same time in a disorganized manner.” Further purporting this point, one student demonstrates the downfall of not understanding the material, “We are taught too many things at once, and it is hard to understand, then we fall behind.” Students are seeing that the modern educational system pushes students to understand the material without giving them proper guidance to develop. Without that foundational knowledge, students start to feel like this student’s comment, “I think the teachers are sometimes too hard on us and then we get overwhelmed and things don’t make sense.” Overall, students are feeling the push of standards to get better and when all of that material is thrown at them, they become overwhelmed and frustrated because there is no foundational knowledge.
Additionally, one common theme that appeared on student responses was too much standardized testing, which also hinders teachers’ abilities to teach material. Demonstrating this belief, one student expresses, “Too many tests and we are sometimes learning stuff we will never use in life.” One student went as far as to say the modern educational system hinders more advanced students, “The educational system in America today tries to standardize everyone and everything. Not everyone is the same; so, you can’t teach everyone at the same pace. Some people are more advanced than others and they should be accommodated for in today’s American educational system.” One student furthers this point by saying, “Too much standardized testing. Teachers have too many rules and restrictions to follow.” One student made his/her point blunt by writing, “Too much testing. Back OFF!” Last, but certainly not least, one student shows the restrictions put on teachers by stating, “Teachers can’t be creative in teaching because of the standards and tests given out by the states.” In its entirety, student opinion shows, thus far, that there are some teachers who don’t care, there is too much material being taught at once, and there is too much standardization of students within the classroom.

As far as pedagogy, many students feel that it is robotic and not engaging, which could be the case because of the standardization of education and the material that is on the standardized tests. A student commented by revealing, “It’s boring. Everything’s on the same level. I often get bored and daydream. Sometimes I daydream in class, but I can tell you exactly where we are.” If it is the goal of school to challenge students to gain better thinking practices, modern education, according to this student, is not doing its job because all students are being taught the same material. Furthering this point, one student cites, “The one issue I see is that people are trying to mix kids who are advanced and kids who are slower together. Yes, you should push kids with education, but some people aren’t capable of doing that, and then they end up failing
their classes.” Students themselves are seeing that the standardization of education is not working because it is boring to some students and too hard for others. Without that foundation of knowledge, students fail classes because they are not at the same level. Essentially, this push and pull cycle creates student apathy; therefore, leading to teacher burnout. Summing up the overall student belief on this subject, one student writes, “I think the current education system doesn’t give students room to learn different things, or really express themselves.” With this information in mind, students’ attitudes to school are negative and they feel that they are not getting the best out of their education. There are several factors that go into students’ education, but the educational foundation has to start in the beginning so that students have knowledge to build upon. When students are forced into the same classroom with students who are below or above their own level and with an expectation of standardization, students feel bored, too challenged, or apathetic because they overshoot or cannot meet these standards. Therefore, student opinion of modern education should clue educators, politicians (local, state, and national), and parents in on how education should be changed, or reverted back, to a more constructive curriculum.

Pretest

In order to test students’ current knowledge of a variety of grammatical, logical, and rhetorical principles, a pretest was administered to the students. The pretest (see appendix) contained a variety of questions including matching, fill-in-the-blank, multiple choice, and an essay covering the three levels of the trivium. For the grammar stage, students were required to demonstrate their knowledge of grammatical principles including nouns, pronouns, etc. In the logic stage, students were required to illuminate deductive reasoning, the writing process, and match rhetorical and literary terms with their proper definition. Last, but not least, the students
were required to fill out the rhetorical triangle and write a rhetorical analysis essay analyzing Maria Stewart’s *Why Sit Ye Here and Die* speech. The pretest was out of 219 points, with the matching section worth 114 points, the rhetorical triangle worth 5 points, and the essay worth 100 points.

Upon analyzing the students’ data on the pretest, the students’ knowledge of these three stages and the content in them was below 50%. Figure 14 illuminates the students’ pretest scores. However, there was one outlying student who had a 51% on the pretest. Nevertheless, all other students were below the 50% mark, with one student scoring a 7% on the pretest. The average score on the pretest was a 36% and the mode of the students’ score was 34%. The range of the students’ scores was 44%. Therefore, the pretest data shows that students understand, with the exception of the outlier, less than half of the material placed on the pretest. In addition, students did not know how to approach the writing of a rhetorical analysis, which led most students to leaving the essay portion blank or writing only one to two paragraphs. For example, one student wrote,

*I think this work is very emotional and uses many rhetorical techniques to persuade, inform, or entertain the audience. It seems to me that she is speaking at somewhere*
where there are many white people and she is trying to make them think that blacks are equal. She uses rhetorical terms like words and letters that are very effective in influencing the audience. In conclusion, she did very well at writing this.

The content that students addressed in the essays were summary-based and did not contain any type of rhetorical analysis applying the terms mentioned in the logic section of the pretest. To illustrate one more example, the outlying student wrote the following:

Maria Stewart’s “Lecture Delivered at the Franklin Hall” expressed her disgust for African American slavery, especially that of women. She explains in detail how it is unjust to treat someone differently, just because they look different. In her lecture, she also stresses the importance of education of African American females. Maria Stewart has a very strong opinion and conveys that to her audience well. Her lecture is very influential and effective to her audience.

Even the outlying student did not know how to approach a rhetorical analysis or illuminate any rhetorical devices being used. Students, in the long run, did their best by using terms that the assignment sheet gave, but they did not go beyond that. Hence, students should expect growth throughout their studies utilizing the trivium curriculum.

Grammar

For the grammar stage, students completed two journal entries discussing their beliefs concerning grammar instruction. Students were to bring their past education of grammar into consideration when discussing the issues with grammar instruction in the classroom today. Mainly, students were asked to determine in journal entry one what they believed to be the most effective means of grammar instruction: drill and kill (prescriptive) or literacy (sociocultural). Students were also asked to determine the best place for grammar instruction: elementary, high
school, or both. After students completed the twelve weeks of grammar instruction, the major
project, and the weekly activities, students answered the overarching question of what method
helped them to learn best: drill and kill or literacy. In the following paragraphs, students’ beliefs
concerning grammar instruction are illustrated.

**Grammar—Journal One**

When it comes to grammar instruction, there are three methods that are utilized within
the instruction of grammar: a prescriptivist approach, grammar through the context of writing,
and sociocultural grammar. Because it is the goal of a classical education to instill into students
the rules of grammar instruction, students were taught using a prescriptivist approach by
completing grammar worksheets over the eight parts of speech, diagramming sentences, and
writing essays over the development of the English language. However, for the purposes of
analysis, it is best to get students’ opinions on what they felt was the best method of instruction:
a drill and kill (prescriptive) or literacy (sociocultural) approach. Figure 15 illustrates students’
beliefs on what they believed helped them the most to learn the material. Over half (53%) of the students
believed that the drill and kill method helped them best when it comes to grammar. However, 17% believed that learning through
literacy was best. Some students (10%) believed that both methods of instruction helped them
with grammar instruction, which tends to be the method that classical education uses—drill and
kill in elementary and literacy in high school. On the other hand, 20% cannot be accounted for
because students did not explicitly express which method they believed best helped them to
learn; therefore, the drill and kill and/or the literacy method could increase in percentage.

| Figure 15: Drill and Kill vs. Literacy Instruction  
(30 responses) |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Drill and Kill</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Literacy</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Both</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Not Specified</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Students wrote in their first reflection the reasons behind their choices, so consulting those results allows a deeper understanding. One student believed that the drill and kill method best suits him/her because “I think the [drill and kill] method helps kids remember the material. From using the [drill and kill] method, I have learned and remembered quite a lot of information.” Another student illustrates this same belief by mentioning, “Constantly having grammar drills drilled into your head helps grammar stick in your head and helps us remember the grammar.” Consequently, 53% of the students believed that this is the best method of learning, but 17% of students believed that the literacy method is best, but why? One student demonstrates by stating, “Grammar should be taught through feeling and literacy. If it sounds right, then it is. Teaching the right way for literacy to sound. As I was, grammar should be taught as a set of rules to a game people already know how to play. The mechanics of grammar should only accompany an oral understanding of the English language.” Additionally, one other student mentions, “I believe that grammar should be taught through literacy because it is better to hold the attention of the student.” As a result, a majority (53%) of students see that there are benefits in the drill and kill method, with 17% liking the literacy method and 10% seeing benefits in both methods.

Students were also asked when grammar should be taught: elementary, high school, or both. This question was posed to gain an understanding of how students felt being taught basic grammar concepts in the high school and whether or not they felt they should have already learned this material. From what can be ascertained from the results, a majority (53%) of the students believed that grammar should be taught in elementary and in high school; however, with differing levels of intensity (see Figure 16 on next page). One student’s opinion mentions, “I think that grammar should be taught mostly in elementary and junior high. In high school,
grammar should be as a review.” Consequently, this is the goal of the trivium curriculum if implemented throughout a student’s entire K-12 educational experience. Another student mentions the elements of grammar being taught at the elementary level, “Grammar is a very important lesson to teach in English. It helps us learn the very core of how to write and speak the language but I think that it should be taught more intensely in the lower grades than in high school. In elementary school our brains [are] still developing and we hold on to things that are taught to us.” One more student feels that teaching grammar in elementary is best by stating, “I think teaching grammar in high school is a waste of time because by this time in high school most of us know how to speak and form sentences correctly.” In its entirety, these students believed that grammar should be a review during high school and should be taught more intensely in elementary and junior high because of the students’ cognitive abilities.

Only 7% of students thought grammar should be taught in the high school environment. The reasoning behind this belief is illustrated by one student’s writing: “I think it [grammar] should be taught in high school because most elementary students are unable or incapable of understanding the complexity of grammar.” An additional student mentions, “I think being taught grammar in high school is a good thing. We are more aware in high school than in elementary.” However, this same student acknowledges the basis of the trivium subconsciously by stating, “I also think we should learn this [grammar] in elementary school. We should because it will be easier to understand in high school.” Students are, therefore, aware of learning
grammatical concepts earlier on because they can then build on this knowledge throughout their high school career, while some believed the grammar concepts should be saved for high school.

Interestingly, there is a dichotomy between the students within this study because nine of the thirty-four went to a private Catholic school for grades K-8, so they received a more intense instruction in grammar during their elementary and middle school years. On the other hand, the students who went to the public school during their K-8 years did not receive intense instruction in grammar. For example, one private school student says, “I feel that it is good to review grammar in high school. I have been taught grammar throughout my years in school and I do not need to be retaught the same things each year.” To show a contrast, one public school student states, “I think grammar should be taught in school, but not high school…I only know a few grammar rules though, because I’m not smart.” So even though these are two students out of the sample, the private school student is more confident in his/her abilities, while the public school student is not as confident because of previous schooling.

**Grammar—Journal Two**

After students completed the twelve weeks of the trivium, they were required to answer one question: What method was most effective for learning grammar? Figure 16 demonstrates the students’ responses by percentage. As Figure 16 demonstrates, a majority (73%) of the students believed that they learned best through the drill and kill method. From the weekly grammar journal one, students’ perception of the drill and kill method increased by 20%, which demonstrates that students believe that the drill and kill method is best after going through twelve-weeks of grammar
instruction. One student wrote, “I believe that drill and kill works to teach grammar better. My personal opinion is that I understand and learn how different parts of speech are used when they are explained. Reading parts of speech isn’t as effective as learning them through drill and kill.” Additionally, one student believes, “I think I learn more with the drill and kill method. I believe I learn it more because it’s repetitive. Also because I know what I’m learning not just reading over it and not paying attention.” Not all students, though, were convinced of the repetitive nature of the drill and kill method. Many students expressed their dislike of the drill and kill method because of its rapid nature. For example, one student mentions, “I don’t think the [drill and kill] worked because we went through it kind of fast, but it worked better than reading literacy.” Students, therefore, do share some disinterest in the drill and kill method, but the majority of the students favored it.

Some students (17%) feel that the literacy method is the best method for instruction in grammar. For example, one student writes, “The drill and kill exercises did not help me at all, I feel that it is too fast for me. I feel that by reading it throughout everyday activities help me better. Especially when we did the PowerPoints and explained it thoroughly.” Another student mentioned the benefits of learning by literacy by stating, “The technique that helped me learn grammar in the most effective manner was the ‘learning by literacy’ method. I enjoy learning by experience. This is why I’m able to practice by just reading books and such.” Consequently, some students like the hands-on experience of the literacy method and enjoy learning grammar through those manners. But, a majority of the students (73%) believe that the drill and kill method is the best means of instruction because of its repetitive nature. To illustrate the common belief, one student implies, “I feel that I learned more through the [drill and kill] exercise than through literacy. I learned the most from the [drill and kill] exercise because I knew hardly any
of material when I came in, which means I didn’t learn as much through literacy. After the [drill and kill] exercises, I had a better grasp of grammar concepts.” Nevertheless, grammar instruction in the trivium does start with phonics in elementary so that students are able to grasp the material fully. After the student reaches high school, the students learn grammar but with less intensity. Students then partake in the learning with literacy element of grammar instruction, or grammar in the context of writing and/or sociocultural grammar.

Teaching Grammar and Grammar’s Importance

For the major project, groups of three were asked to teach their classmates a grammatical principle of their choice. The project was divided into two sections: the teaching of grammar and a presentation on grammar’s importance (see appendix for assignment sheet and rubric). In regards to the teaching, most students covered basic concepts such as nouns, pronouns, verbs, types of sentences, etc. In this teaching segment, students were required to have an informational sheet and worksheet to hand out to students to complete. The handout and the worksheet helped the students reinforce their understanding of the concept, which should, ideally, be review for high school sophomores. To illustrate a student example, one group of students taught their classmates how to diagram sentences at its basic level: subject, verb, direct object, articles, and pronouns. This group of students did not go further than those grammatical principles listed previously. In teaching the lesson on diagramming, the students—two private school students and one public school student—made cutouts of the major principles and showed students how these grammatical terms were to be diagrammed. The students taught their peers how a sentence fits together. Additionally, this group handed the students a diagramming worksheet with sentences that needed to be diagrammed. The group then went over the answers with their classmates, which they completed with confidence. On their final grade, students
received the following comment: “This was an excellent presentation and the knowledge of the entire group was superb. However, share the stage a little bit more with each other. Also, having a handout on how to diagram a sentence rather than having the worksheet would have been nice, especially for those students who were completely new to diagramming. It is a tough concept to grasp. Overall, nicely done!” The sharing the stage comment was directed towards the two private school students because they knew what they were discussing; however, the public school student was not as confident in the grammar material. As can be illustrated, this group did an excellent job and effectively demonstrated their knowledge of grammar.

On the other hand, all other groups had trouble with grammatical principles and struggled explaining the basic uses of these concepts. The struggling groups relied too much on PowerPoint information and stumbled over the meanings of the terms. Therefore, students have not had a strong background in grammar, which caused the trouble in explaining these grammatical concepts. With mastery, students should explain grammatical concepts without relying on information from outside sources. For example, one group received the following comment on their final rubric: “Your presentation seemed a little shaky and you didn’t quite grasp the concepts because there were questions left unanswered. Additionally, the group seemed a little unorganized and not quite sure where to go next.” Therefore, not all students had a solid grounding in grammar as the previous group. One additional group that was not sure of their concept was the verb group, because they received the following comment: “This presentation was rather confusing and the group was not knowledgeable about the topic in general. There seemed to be a misunderstanding with what each group member was supposed to do and the knowledge presented was the opposite of its intended meaning. The activity was a little confusing and there needed to be more guidance on what we were supposed to do.”
Overall, more students struggled with learning the material and presenting it than students who knew the material and presented it well. To illustrate one semi-successful group, a group presented on conjunctions—this group contained all public school students. This group had trouble in the beginning but gained control and illustrated a metaphor for conjunctions (see Figure 18).

Consequently, the conjunction group demonstrated critical thinking skills. Not only were the students able to create a metaphor, but they also did not rely solely on the information in a worksheet or PowerPoint to teach students. Additionally, students demonstrated through an acronym (FANBOYS) another method for understanding conjunctions—one the students did not come up with, but effective nonetheless (see Figure 19).

This acronym, or mnemonic device, helps students memorize the types of conjunctions. Subsequently, this group gave their peers a metaphor for understanding the role of conjunctions, but it also illustrated what they are through the use of a mnemonic device. The final comments that the students received on this project included the following: “The handouts and all the accompanying materials were nicely created and colorful. I do like the metaphor to

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54 Alvin Brown’s (1996) article, “Correct Grammar So Essential to Effective Writing Can Be Taught—Really,” demonstrates that the use of mnemonic devices is pivotal, “I believe in using numerous and different memory aids in my classes although current English texts tend to have so few…mnemonic devices are very useful in not only enabling students to learn, but also—and just as important—helping them to remember” (p. 99).
peanut butter and jelly, so good comparison there. Additionally, there were times where you seemed to be confused, but you quickly got on track. Also, try to take more command of the floor when discussing because you can be kind of quiet when you do so. Overall, nicely done!”

Students, overall, created effective presentations, but not all students were confident of the material and many students relied on the material given on a worksheet or the PowerPoint presentation.

Student presentations were graded utilizing a rubric and students were graded less harshly\textsuperscript{55} than students who would have gone through a trivium education their entire schooling career. Therefore, the following grades are inflated because students should not be punished for not receiving a solid grammar foundation in the past (see Figure 20). The average grade for this set of data is an 89%, which equates to a “B” on the grade scale.\textsuperscript{56} Additionally, the highest grade earned was a 96% “A” (sentence diagramming group) and the lowest grade earned was 55

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure20.png}
\caption{Group Grades on Teaching Grammar}
\end{figure}

\textsuperscript{55} Students would not be docked points severely on the rubric for minor grammar errors and misspellings or lack of presentation skills, especially since a majority of the students did not receive an intense grammar education previously. Additionally, students’ speaking and presentation points were not deducted severely either because only some students would have received two months of speech instruction at this time or none at all; therefore, they cannot be expected to be well-rounded speakers and command the stage with an air of authority. However, if students were not comfortable with their material, mixed up concepts, or were unable to answers questions based on their concepts, points would be deducted. In fact, it is expected that students should have some knowledge of these concepts, even if they were not trained classically, because they are in the rhetoric stage as sophomores in high school. If all students would have received a classical education, all of the aforementioned would have been weighted equally and students would be expected to know the material and present it with authority.

\textsuperscript{56} The grade scale for this district is as follows: A= 92-100, B= 85-91, C= 77-84, D= 70-76, and F= 0-69

\[ \text{Group Percentage} \]
\[ \text{Group Number} \]
a 76% “D” (the verb group mentioned above), which equates to a range of 30%; therefore, the
groups illustrated a high familiarity with grammar, a moderate familiarity, and basic familiarity
with grammar based on the 30% range in grades.

In addition to teaching a grammar concept, students were also required to create a group
presentation on grammar’s importance in society and write a group essay illustrating why
knowledge of grammar is
important (see Figure 21).

Students maintained the same
groups they had in their
teaching session; therefore,
eliminating any discrepancy in
students’ grades and for the
sake of continuity within the
study. The average grade for
this project was an 88% B, with a range of 22 points. Additionally, the mode of the students’
grades was a 122 out 132, which equates to a 92% A. The students were graded utilizing a self-
created rubric, so students knew how and on what aspects they were graded. Throughout the
essays, students picked up on several pivotal themes for grammar’s importance within society,
which include the following: grammar is necessary for one’s career, education, and
communication with professionals; grammar changes via different contexts (e.g., texting and
social media lingo); and is necessary to communicate with a variety of individuals, including
English as a Second Language (ESL) students. For example, illustrating the theme of
grammar’s importance on education, one group said the following:
If teachers in elementary and middle school would have intense learning sessions of grammar in English class, it could make a huge impact on society. By giving children a good foundation of proper grammar, it would impact their entire future and have a positive effect on generations to come. Children are the future of society and it is the responsibility of adults to lead them in the right direction. If they receive inadequate guidance on how to speak correctly, their opportunities may be limited in life.

Consequently, the sophomore high school students in this study see the impact that poor grammar can have on one’s future life.

The two additional themes—1) grammar changes via different contexts and 2) grammar is necessary to communicate with a variety of individuals—are represented throughout students’ essays as well. In regards to the changing contexts, one group writes, “Some of the most prominent social media sites, including Facebook and Twitter, are a breeding ground for grammatical errors, hypothetically speaking.” Students, therefore, see that grammar changes depending on context and this group adds, “When someone uses improper grammar on a social media site, the public can make judgments about them, usually bad ones. Because of these, people appear to be uneducated or just plain stupid in the eyes of the public. Recent advances in social media technology have given people the opportunity to publicize and promote their grammatical flaws, thus making them look bad in the eyes of the general public.” As a result of the misuse of grammar, students see the countless contexts in which grammar is used and how this new grammar hinders the users’ ethos. Figure 22 (p. 132) illustrates a group’s issue with social media and grammar. Throughout their presentation, all the groups illustrated similar themes and issues with grammar as did the essays.
Not only does incorrect grammar hinder the users’ ethos, but it also hampers the learning capacity of individuals who see or witness this incorrect grammar usage on a daily basis. One group of students writes about the disadvantages ESL students face when they see these grammatical errors used daily in the English language: “People who speak a foreign language and want to learn English need to understand the grammar. Having bad grammar would be a huge disadvantage because it would be difficult to understand them. It gets harder and harder each day to learn and understand the English language, due to the slang and misuse of many words.” The use of incorrect grammar affects ESL students and their ability to understand English grammar, according to students. When considering the use of social media and terms such as LOL being accepted into the Oxford English Dictionary, learning English is a difficult task because an ESL student may not be able to tell the difference between a social context’s grammar and the grammar needed for formal academic work. On the other hand, many native speakers of English may also have this issue of creating formal academic work because of dialects, which is why the scaffolding approach to grammar instruction is needed (see the Discussion chapter for this scaffolding approach). Concluding the impact that grammar has on society, one group best illustrates the overarching reason why grammar is important in their thesis statement: “One grammar mistake on a job application, college application, letter to one’s boss, or letter to a friend could cost someone everything they ever wanted and dreamed of in their life. This may seem extreme, but it is entirely true. The most
important aspect of life that grammar influences, however, is career success.” Not only do
students realize that improper grammar affects an individual’s life, but they appreciated the
differences between the social aspects of grammar usage and when proper grammar is necessary:
career success.

Logic

In the logic section of the trivium, the students completed Article of the Week (AoW)
assignments, which asked students to summarize and analyze an article. The summary required
students to write seven sentences summing up the main ideas of the article, which all came from
Kelly Gallagher’s article of the week database. For the analysis section, students were required
to analyze the structure, author, and language used within the article. The analysis section of the
AoW assignment was expected to be the hardest section because students have not been asked to
analyze nonfiction texts as in-depth previously. Additionally, the students needed to bring in
textual evidence to prove their points for the analysis, so a reader could understand why the
student believes what they do. Last, but not least, the students had to complete a major project,
which consisted of an essay that required students to rhetorically analyze a speech according to
the rhetorical and literary devices that the speaker/author utilized. The goal of this major project
was to mirror the essay students completed in the pretest.

AoW Sample 1

Before students were required to summarize and analyze an article, students were
instructed in the requirements of a summary and an analysis. Students were taught to pinpoint
the main ideas, specific individuals, and any important quantitative or qualitative data that would
have added to a reader’s understanding of the article. Students were warned that an “I Know
Nothing” audience would be employed upon reading their summaries; therefore, they were
expected to inform someone who had not read the article. Additionally, students were required to write an analysis of the article that focused on the author(s) credibility, the article’s structure, and the language used within the article. As a class, the students took notes on these requirements and an article of the week was modeled for the students. The first AoW assignment required students to summarize and analyze the article “People are causing a mass extinction on Earth; some try to stop it” in *Scientific American* (“Article of the Week,” n.d.).

This article of the week was the second AoW the students completed; therefore, the students’ knowledge of literary and rhetorical terminology was not developed. One consistent issue with students and their summary writing included not mentioning the author, the title, or the source from which the article came. Students simply started off the summary by writing down the major details. For example, one student wrote, “Possibilities of a sixth mass extinction is very likely to happen because of the human population.” As can be ascertained, the student simply described the main idea without giving the reader any indication to the title, author, or source, which is necessary for nonfiction text.

Students also made many assumptions about the reader when writing, because they assumed the reader—or the teacher—would know the information. For example, one student writes, “There have been five destructive event throughout Earth’s history. These events have almost whipped out that era of animals or plants. Currently we could be comming up on another one [sic].” This student assumed the reader knew the five destructive events, which is not the case when a reader takes on a blank slate. An additional student was vague on the aspects of the article when writing, “What this article mainly talks about is destructive events happening and how we can help try and stop it. Animals are being threatened and endangered. Humans have helped to save some species. Also another thing is we can change the course of what is
happening.” In this case, the student gave no indication as to the major events, what animals are being threatened, how humans have helped to save animal species, and how humans can change the course. Therefore, the student is not specific in the summary information, which is a necessity.

When it comes to the analysis section of the AoW assignment, most students focused on analyzing the topic rather than analyzing the structure, author, and language. The topic is of no significance for this assignment because the purpose of the logic stage is to get students to see how the article is pieced together. For example, one student writes the following for the analysis section:

I agree with what this article is arguing. Humans may not even realize it, but we are causing a sixth mass extinction. Humans seem to care so little about the environment now a days. We are destroying homes for animals for resources to use for ourselves. This student illustrated what a majority of students thought analyzing included. However, the logic stage requires that students dissect the structure and discover how the author logically makes the article work. Not only were students focusing on the topic, but several students simply gave an additional summary and considered this an analysis. For example, one student writes, “The 5 mass extinctions killed 75 percent of the planet’s life. We may be the sixth.” Therefore, students simply rehashed a summary or focused on the article’s topic rather than structure, author, and language. Not all students, though, fell into the topic/summary trap. One student declares, “This article leaves out one huge factor towards extinction and that is poaching. According to a book I recently read, Leaving Time, that is a major threat to African elephants. This articles doesn’t mention poaching anywhere.” The student goes on to say, “It also contradicts itself in the 2nd to last paragraph. It goes on about bringing back extinct species is a
good thing, then it says ‘Bringing back extinct species could cause problems.’” As a result, some students saw that an analysis requires a more in-depth understanding of the article than a summary and topic analysis. Overall, students struggled with the analysis section because they have not had much exposure to working with nonfiction texts, but they also thought analyzing meant a focus on the topic when in fact it goes much deeper.

When it comes to understanding how students faired on this assignment, students’ grades were analyzed to determine the success of students in the beginning of the logic stage (see Figure 23). The highest grade earned on the second AoW completed was a 95% A, with the lowest grade of 65% being earned. Therefore, the range of the students’ grades was 30%.

Nevertheless, the average student grade was an 84% C, which can be considered average when the students have not completed summary and analysis for nonfiction texts before. The mode of the students’ grades was an 85%; therefore, most of the students earned a “B” on this assignment. Overall, the students showed average understanding of how summary and analysis work for nonfiction texts, especially since nonfiction texts make up a large quantity of the Common Core reading standards. This analysis illustrated that there is room for improvement in regards to the students’
understanding of summary and analysis. However, the average grade was expected since students have not had much practice with the material.

**AoW Sample 2**

Since students have completed several AoWs since the previous sample, the students now understand what a summary entails and what an analysis entails. Therefore, the students’ grades were not inflated in this instance because they have received the knowledge necessary to create an effective summary and analysis. Students completed their last AoW assignment on the topic of net neutrality, which contained two articles: “In a Nutshell: Net Neutrality” and “The FCC Approves Strong Net Neutrality Rules” ("Article of the Week," n.d.). These two articles were intense in nature because they required students to familiarize themselves with net neutrality as well as understand who stood on which side of the debate. Additionally, students had the opportunity to analyze the article by answering three essential questions: 1) What are the arguments for regulating the Internet; 2) Who are against these regulations, and what are their arguments; and 3) Do you think that the Internet providers should be treated as public utilities and regulated? Explain. These three questions may appear simple at first glance, but they required an analysis of the text to determine who, what, when, where, and why of the issue at hand.

Increasing the rigor from the first assignment, this article of the week assignment was more stringent because a deeper summary an in-depth analysis in the three questions was expected. Students increased their understanding of what it takes to write a fully developed summary when they wrote sentences such as the following: “Net Neutrality is the idea of companies or providers such as Verizon or At&T controlling how much Internet people like us get. Also, they control which websites come in faster & which ones come in slower. They could
make some websites easy to use & others you may have to login to or have certain signal strengths.” Students, therefore, made leaps in summary development because they gave more precise information that would inform an “I know nothing” audience. Additionally, students increased the rigor of their own summaries by mentioning specific individuals involved with legislation matters over Net Neutrality. For example, one student writes, “FCC Chairman, Tom Wheeler said, ‘The Internet is simply too important to allow broadband providers to be the ones making the rules.’ Lawsuits are then to be made by different companies, such as cable and telecommunications, as well as GOP lawmakers, claiming that the move is an overreach of government intervention into their business [sic].” Consequently, students knew they had to be more specific in their summary information for an audience who knows nothing about the topic.

Because this assignment was different in terms of analysis, the students still showed intellectual growth in their analysis because they brought in their own opinions about net neutrality. One student mentions, “I think if someone is to shut down a companies [sic] website, it should be themselves. A business should feel a little competition at times but someone else should not be able to shut off another website without permission.” An additional student takes this argument further by mentioning, “I think that the Internet providers should be treated as public utilities and therefore regulated. I believe this because every person should have the right to put things on the Internet and for them to load just as fast as information from a large rich, company. I don’t believe a company’s website or information should load faster just because they can afford to pay huge bribes to Internet providers.” Students have taken the language given to them in the articles and have now made their own interpretations and analyses of the topic. Although a typical analysis requires—for the sake of this class—an understanding of the language, author, and structure, the students have gone above this by including personal opinion
that takes the language provided for them and manipulates it for their purposes. For example, one student has taken this idea of manipulating language by adding in his/her own metaphor: “I think that the internet providers should be regulated as public utilities because I think there should not be a ‘fast lane’ or ‘slow lane’ on Internet traffic, there should be ‘a one speed lane.’” Students displayed key strategies of language understanding that are necessary for students in a classical education.

In regards to the grades attained within this section, Figure 24 illustrates the scores of the students. The data in Figure 24 shows a majority of students attained a 100% grade in their second AoW assignment. Two students, however, received a 75% passing rating, which could be due to numerous reasons (e.g., absences, field trips, funerals, etc.). Additionally, the average score for this assignment was a 94%, which is an “A” on the grade scale. The range of student scores was 25%, with the highest being a 100% and the lowest 75%. In regards to the mode of this assignment, the score was a 100%. When combining both of the articles of the week scores, students’ average score increased by 10% from 84% to 94%, the mode increased 15% from 85% to 100%, and the range shrunk from 30% to 25%. Overall, students showed an increase in knowledge and grades.
Major Logic Project:

The major logic project was embedded in the posttest to save time for instruction and to provide students with time to compose the essay in class. The logic project required students to analyze a speech of their choosing using the SOAPSTone method of rhetorical analysis, which includes the following elements: speaker, occasion, audience, purpose, subject, and tone. In order to gauge students’ understanding, there were four key assessment features for the essay: analysis (50%), structure (25%), style (10%), and mechanics (15%). The results for the students’ major logic projects, excluding the student who did not complete an essay, can be found in Figure 25 below:

![Figure 25: Logic Project Scores](image)

After instruction in logic, students created effective essays that analyzed a variety of speeches. The highest score on the logic project was a 98, which two students scored. On the other hand, the lowest score was a 75, which means that the range equated to 23%. Students averaged a score of 91% and a mode of 93%. The instruction through logic and the rhetorical devices showed that students are able to apply those skills, especially since 50% of the rubric required the students to analyze material in-depth, which also required for the students to bring in textual evidence to support themselves. From the pretest, where some students did not know what a
rhetorical analysis encompassed, the major logic project illustrated that students are now able to analyze a speaker’s rhetoric for its effectiveness and the end goal of the speaker.

For example, one student’s thesis illustrates how students analyzed their speeches. In the thesis, the student focuses on General Eisenhower’s “Order of the Day Speech”: “General Eisenhower’s speech was profoundly effective with the use of pathos, logos, ethos and other rhetorical devices, that encouraged the soldiers to win the battle that would be later called, D-Day.” This example thesis illustrated the types of devices that a majority of students focused on in their essays: ethos, logos, and pathos. The students applied their knowledge of these rhetorical devices into their essays when discussing the essay’s effectiveness. One student, for example, describes the importance of pathos and logos in John F. Kennedy’s “Ich bin ein Berliner” speech:

Kennedy appeals to the patriotism of the Berliners in the subject and occasion by using pathos and logos. Kennedy says[,] “I know of no town, no city, that has been besieged for eighteen years that still lives with the vitality and the force, and the hope and the determination of the city of West Berlin” (Kennedy). This is saying that despite the fact that Berlin is severed in half, the western part is still kicking and Kennedy does not know of any other city like West Berlin. This is appealing to the patriotism of the Berliners because Kennedy is basically saying they are the most determined people he knows, effectively filling them with pride of their city.

As is illustrated in the student example, students saw the purposes of ethos, logos, and pathos and how they can persuade a crowd to take action. Additionally, the students picked these rhetorical devices out of a text, which shows their ability to understand their usage.

Students were not only picking out and analyzing ethos, logos, and pathos, but they also identified other rhetorical devices such as parallelism, epimone, allusion, and many others. For
example, the following is a student’s interpretation of Oprah Winfrey’s eulogy to Rosa Parks:

“She [Oprah] reinforces her view by using the rhetorical device epimone in which she repeats the phrase “I know that” to reinforce that if it weren’t for Rosa Parks, she wouldn’t be where she is at today. She also uses allusion in which she refers to a relatively well known event. This event is when Rosa Parks refused to give up her bus seat to a white man.” Students not only were able to pick out Aristotle three persuasive appeals, but they applied AP terms at a sophomore level because they were instructed on the application of these devices through William Shakespeare’s *Julius Caesar*, specifically Brutus and Antony’s funeral speeches. If students are made aware of the rhetorical devices and their usage, they should identify the devices more frequently and with ease. However, the instruction through the trivium’s scaffolding approach helped the students in this understanding.

**Posttest**

After students completed three-fourths of their classical education, the students took the posttest. The posttest contained the same questions as the pretest, which was divided into the three sections of the trivium. Figure 26 (p. 144) gives the posttest scores for all participants. The range (82) was high because the lowest scoring student missed several days of instruction throughout the three stages and missed class time in composing the essay; therefore, this student did not turn in the major logic project, which caused the low posttest score. The range, unfortunately, increased 34% because of the student’s low test score from 44% to 82%. If the student would have turned in the essay, the posttest range would not have been as high. Nevertheless, the average score increased from 36% on the pretest to 62.75% on the posttest, which is an increase of 26.75% with only twenty-eight weeks of instruction. Additionally, the mode for the posttest was a 59, which was an increase of 25% from 34 on the pretest. Students
showed growth through the trivium curriculum implemented in one school year, which confirms the curriculum is providing positive benefits for this group of students. Ideally, a lengthier study implementing a trivium curriculum versus modern curriculum would need to take place before conclusions be drawn that a classical education produces brighter students. However, the results show that students did show an average 26.75% growth through the use of the trivium curriculum.

![Figure 26: Posttest Scores](image)

The class scores demonstrated that the trivium curriculum was successful for this set of students. Most, but not all, students showed individual growth from the pretest to the posttest, which is directly related to the instruction in grammar, logic, and rhetoric. Individual students’ growth can be found in Figure 26 (p. 145). All but three students showed at least 20% growth. The highest growth occurs in Student 33 with 55% growth from the pretest to the posttest. The lowest amount of growth occurs in Student 2 where there was only 17% growth, which is close to the 19% growth that Student 1 showed. The range of growth, therefore, was 38% and the average growth was 26.3%. Additionally, the mode of the growth was 26%, which demonstrates that students made adequate growth in their knowledge of the trivium in twenty-eight weeks of
instruction. With more instruction and lengthier timeframes given the instruction, students’ growth could have increased more. However, the growth is adequate given the timeframe of instruction. Overall, the students showed collective and individual growth in their understanding of grammar, logic, and rhetoric.

**Figure 27:** Pretest and Posttest Student Growth
CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION

In the following paragraphs, the results of the first two stages of the trivium are analyzed to determine its effectiveness for a public, rural high school. The pre-questionnaire and the pretest are discussed to determine what students thought of classical education and the material they knew before going through the trivium. As mentioned earlier, the third stage of the trivium—rhetoric—along with the post-questionnaire will not be analyzed because of time constraints. However, a hypothetical discussion of the benefits of the first and second stage and their relationship with the third stage is discussed. In essence, the trivium education showed that students do learn more material and retain that material through the scaffolding approach that a trivium curriculum supplies.

Pre-Questionnaire

In the pre-questionnaire, students discussed the benefits of partaking in a classical education and who would be, essentially, considered a smarter student in critical thinking and factoid knowledge. With the initial introduction to classical education, students believed that a classical education would be easier to complete. Students believed this because of the natural scaffolding approach discussed in the information session. Essentially, the students agreed the natural scaffolding of the trivium seemed reasonable and common sense. One student writes, “A classical education goes step by step and builds on past knowledge; while modern education just mashes everything together and you learned it all at once.” Students, being products of a modern education, see the difficulty in a modern education and a classical education appears to be common sense to the students. In fact, with the rapid implementation of the Common Core State Standards, students are expected to write, speak, and read at complex levels that a classical education student would have no trouble with going through a classical curriculum. For
example, the CCSS reading literature standards strand would be easier for students to complete if they were educated through a classical curriculum:

**RL. 9-10.2:** Determine a theme or central idea of a text and analyze in detail its development over the course of the text, including how it emerges and is shaped and refined by specific details; provide an objective summary of the text.

**RL. 9-10.3:** Analyze how complex characters (e.g., those with multiple or conflicting motivations) develop over the course of a text, interact with other characters, and advance the plot or develop the theme.

**RL. 9-10.9:** Analyze how an author draws on and transforms source material in a specific work (e.g., how Shakespeare treats a theme or topic from Ovid or the Bible or how a later author draws on a play by Shakespeare). (“Council of Chief,” 2010, p. 38)

Students in a classical education would be more prepared to address these standards because of the building of knowledge. These standards would be addressed during the rhetoric stage. As Susan Wise Bauer and Jessi Wise (2009) illustrate, “The goal of the rhetoric stage is a greater understanding of our civilization, country, and place in time, stemming from an understanding of what has come before us” (p. 489). Students get a broader picture of how literature has developed and changed throughout history with the classical approach; essentially, students employ literary criticism and their knowledge of past material to create understanding.

Through this understanding of the past there are three major projects that students of a classical education complete, which fit with the CCSS: book contexts (RL. 9-10.9), book notes (RL. 9-10.2), and compositions (W. 9-10.1-3) (p. 492). In the book contexts, students research the author(s) and the historical context before and after the publication of the book. For the book notes section, the student determines the genre of the novel/work and annotates the text for
specific literary devices including themes and character development (RL. 9-10.2 and 3).

Students of a classical education have a broader understanding of the contexts of books because of the period focus of the student’s education. As mentioned previously, students reset their novel study each stage of the trivium, but the format is always the same: Ancients (5000 B.C.—A.D. 400); Medieval—early Renaissance (400-1600); Late Renaissance—early modern (1600-1850); and modern (1850-present) (Bauer and Wise, 2009, p. 57). Consequently, students build their knowledge, and each stage builds upon this understanding of history and literature.

Students, for instance, within this study struggled with an understanding of The Odyssey as they were not able to draw upon classical mythology and how this is shaped and repackaged for modern audiences (e.g., films such O Brother, Where Art Thou? and advertisements). Students may not have struggled, hypothetically, with The Odyssey assignment if they had been educated through the novel study program created by classical education.

According to students, this inability to connect, or synthesize, could be a direct impact that a modern education is having on students because they are testing too much, not able to learn material that benefits them in future studies, and are expected to utilize skills that they have not developed. One student simply says concerning classical education, “Classical education is better because we don’t get overwhelmed by everything at once.” Teachers, students, and administrators have already begun to see the impact that a modern education has on students’ knowledge, growth, and understanding of the world at large, which is remedied by a more structured curriculum; hence, classical education. As mentioned earlier in this thesis, Veith and Kern (2001) illuminates this naturally scaffolding approach in Classical Education: The Movement Sweeping America when they say, “Each element in the trivium is essential to education. Factual knowledge (grammar) is useless without understanding (logic). Knowledge
and understanding mean little unless they can be expressed and applied (rhetoric)” (p. 13). Now, students are seeing the strain that a modern education has on their abilities and development of skills; therefore, they believe a return to a more natural scaffolding approach is necessary, which may help these students meet the Common Core State Standards movement.

With the information displayed previously, students felt that a classical education is easier, and it provides more soundly developed students with character because of the scaffolding approach. One student mentions this belief by stating, “I think that classical education students are smarter than modern students, because I think the classical way is easier to learn.” An additional student simply stated in the pre-questionnaire, “I think classical is better because you learn everything before you go on to the next.” Summing up the overall belief of modern students, one student mentions, “A classical education is not harder, it just requires a bit more effort. I believe classical education students are smarter than modern students because modern students are taught what’s on tests, where classical students are taught more in-depth.” Consequently, students see that a classical education provides them with a broader, more in-depth understanding of material whereas modern education is teaching to the test. Since today’s society bogs itself down with standardized assessments, Leigh Bortin (2010) illustrates the true purpose of education by mentioning the following:

The purpose of classical education is to equip students to discover the way our universe works. Understanding the physical universe requires a foundational knowledge of math and science. Understanding human nature requires a foundational knowledge of

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57 Referring to Prensky (2014) again, he states that the current focus of education “is the one in which young people ‘become’ a member of a particular college class…[and] Our tests—big and small—are an attempt to put numbers around that learning and to rank students in their acquisition of it. We ask, ad infinitum: How much are our kids learning? Are they learning enough? What is the best way to measure their learning? How do they learn best? What gets in the way of their learning? Are their schools making adequate yearly progress” (Prensky, 2014). With this focus on test scores, students are being educated soundly; instead, they are being prepared for test success.
language, history, economics, and literature. To learn foundational information from any field of knowledge, students need to be trained in reading, writing, communication, and analysis of qualitative information. At their highest level, the humanities are studied because they embody the ideas that make us human. (p. 13-14)

Therefore, if the goal of education is to prepare students for an understanding of the universe at large, why is standardized testing emphasized more than the education of the student? In fact, these standardized tests are only requiring teachers to teach to the test material and students are, therefore, worse off because they only know how to take tests.

Bauerlein’s (2008) *The Dumbest Generation* provides several examples of how today’s students are provided with a plethora of opportunities to advance their knowledge: “American youth in the twenty-first century have benefited from a show of money and goods, a bath of liberties and pleasing self-images, vibrant civic debates, political blogs, old books and masterpieces available online, traveling exhibitions, the History Channel, news feeds…and on and on” (p. 9-10). Even though these information assortments are available to students, Bauerlein claims that students don’t use them. Instead, “their talents and interests and money thrust them not into books and ideas and history and civics, but into a whole other realm and other consciousness. A different social life and a different mental life have formed among them” (p. 10). Therefore, a modern education created this belief system in students, but the educational values of a classical curriculum could potentially change this system. Christopher Perrin, a publisher with Classical Academic press and an author, speaker, and activist for classical education, demonstrates the purpose of a classical education in comparison to the Common Core State Standards:
Traditionally, education is the cultivation and nourishment of a human soul on truth, goodness and beauty by means of the seven liberal arts, such that students realize their \textit{humanitas} and acquire wisdom, virtue and eloquence. This is almost completely absent from the standards (and their associated goals) of the CC—and so what he have left is program for educational training. We have the parts, not the whole; we have pearls (yes some of the standards are good per se) without a string; we have analysis and numerical data and machine-readable assessments. (Perrin, n.d.)

As a result, the education now in place is as the history of logic section describes: career or trade logic. The students within this study comprehended the issues with the education they are receiving, but the students who took this pre-questionnaire are only a small sample of what students believe about modern education. However, their beliefs cannot be disregarded because they have been enveloped in a modern education.

\textbf{Grammar}

Although the twelve weeks of grammar proved beneficial for the students in learning the meta-language of grammar, more time developing their grammatical skills is needed. Twelve-weeks of grammar knowledge cannot account for five years of grammatical study in elementary, which is necessary because students retain more knowledge during this age. Nevertheless, through the weekly and major projects, students attained mastery of the following standards set forth by the CCSS, especially since these standards were taught to students in ninth grade too:

\textbf{L. 9-10.1:} Demonstrate command of the conventions of standard English grammar and usage when writing or speaking

\textbf{L. 9-10.2:} Demonstrate command of the conventions of standard English capitalization, punctuation, and spelling when writing
L. 9-10.3: Apply knowledge of language to understand how language functions in different contexts, to make effective choices for meaning or style, and to comprehend more fully when reading or listening. (Council of Chief, 2010, p. 52)

Additionally, because these students are sophomores in high school and should be writing in conjunction with the learning of grammar, students were required to meet the following standards: W. 9-10. 1-3 (the three types of writing: narrative, expository, and argumentative) and W. 9-10.4: Produce clear and coherent writing in which the development, organization, and style are appropriate to task, purpose, and audience (Council of Chief, 2010, p. 45-46). As a result of these standards and the need to meet them per state requirements, all weekly grammar assignments and the major project met these standards.

For the weekly assignments, the aforementioned standards were met through a variety of grammar activities including diagramming sentences, drill and kill, and learning grammar through the context of literacy. As mentioned in the results section, over half of the students (53%) preferred the drill and kill method before the introduction of classical education’s mantra of developing a meta-language. Once students completed the grammar section, the student percentage that favored the drill and kill method rose 20% because students felt more confident with the learning of material and being able to discuss this material with teachers and each other. For example, one student believed that learning through literacy was the best method in the beginning; however, after going through the grammar stage the student changed his/her opinion. The student says, “I believe that drill and kill works to teach grammar better. My personal opinion is that I understand and learn how different parts of speech are used when they are explained. Reading parts of speech isn’t as effective as learning them through drill and kill.” Consequently, the learning of grammar through drill and kill was more effective for these
students because of their development of a meta-language. One student further mentioned the benefits by stating, “The kill and drill exercises helped me more. I feel I learned more by doing worksheets because I actually had to try and do the worksheets. Also, I had to know how to do them. By reading, I feel like you don’t have to pay attention and it is boring to me. Doing the worksheets, I learned more because we kept doing them over and over again.” This constant repetition became an important quality of the drill and kill exercises and many students felt comfortable with this method.

Now that students developed this meta-language of grammar—essentially, the parts of speech because of the limited time-frame of instruction—the students understand what it takes to make a complete sentence, how various words work with each other, and the methods for dissecting sentences (diagramming sentences). In future essays, this meta-language should help students comprehend what a teacher means by comma splice, word choice, etc. Although the drill and kill method is not the most exciting for students, one student best sums it up by stating, “The kill and drill was kind of annoying but I learned more with it.” In a 1996 issue of the *English Journal*, “The Great Debate (Again): Teaching Grammar and Usage,” the issue of how students learn grammar best is analyzed in detail by a variety of high school teachers and college professors. Most of the articles within this 1996 issue argue for a whole-language approach\(^5\), which is understandable given the modernist bent of the journal. However, the journal attempts to illustrate the drill and kill method and how it is beneficial students. For example, Carol Rose’s (1996) article, “The Great Debate: Teaching Grammar and Usage,” argues that a prescriptivist approach (drill and kill) is needed so that students understand what is being

\(^5\) Whole-language is an approach that “is less focused on rules and repetition than is phonics. It stresses the flow and meaning of the text, emphasizing reading for meaning and using language in ways that relate to the students’ own lives and culture[...]. Whole language leaning is thought to provide a better understanding of the text, and more interesting and creative approach to reading” (“Cognitive Constructivism,” n.d.).
discussed. In the article, Rose contends, “It is my opinion that the rules should be taught. Just as we need to know the rules of the road so do we need to know the rules of our language” (p. 96). Rose argues that students believe in a “If it looks okay, that is good enough for them” attitude (p. 96). However, this is not a substitute for actually knowing and developing the logical rules of grammar. Therefore, students need to know the prescriptivist rules of grammar in order to understand how society constructs language.

For example, Alvin Brown’s (1996) article, “Correct Grammar So Essential to Effective Writing Can Be Taught—Really,” illustrates that a prescriptivist approach helps students appreciate how language operates, which is the goal of the sociocultural approach. In the article, Brown argues, as most of the students did in their essays and presentations, that an understanding of proper grammar is necessary for the workplace: “The best motivation comes as students begin to realize that in the world of work, as well as in social settings, correct grammar and speech are the standard and the necessities. These skills will often be the difference between getting or not getting a good job” (p. 99). Through this illustration by Brown, students should see that knowing how to speak and write properly is essential for the workplace; therefore, if they learn the rules of grammar best through drill and kill methods, the prescriptivist approach has to be implemented in order for students to see it in action. Because it is a classical education methodology, providing students with exemplar texts and seeing how grammar is used and discussing it using the meta-language is important for student understanding of language. Using a variety of methods—the drill and kill method through different pedagogical strategies—helps students to best learn the material. Therefore, prescriptivist approach has to be implemented meaningfully, as Brown illustrates, “Instructors should state concepts in ways that are meaningful to students…[which include] numerous and different memory aids” (p. 99). As
mentioned in the results section of the teaching grammar project, one group of students utilized the memory aide of FANBOYS for conjunctions; hence, these students were able to come up with a mnemonic device that was meaningful to them. Consequently, the prescriptivist approach is a necessity for students to understand how grammar and language work in society, especially the workplace.

The teaching of grammar illustrated that the private school students are much more confident in their language abilities than the public school students. For example, the group that had the best score was the diagramming sentences group, which consisted of two private school students and one public school. Their knowledge of grammar concepts was superb compared to other students because they were trained in language instruction via the prescriptivist approach, which meant diagramming sentences and learning concepts through drill and kill. The public school students did not have this type of instruction because they were taught through a whole-language approach. Once the students transitioned in high school, the private school students were able to create better compositions because of their grasp of the language. For example, one private school student mentions, “Grammar is a very important lesson to teach in English. It helps us learn the very core of how to write and speak the language.” Additionally, another private school student attests, “I have been taught grammar through my years in school and I do not need to be retaught the same things each year…I think that grammar should be taught through continuous practice with drills.” The private school students are confident in their writing and speaking and know grammar. On the other hand, the public school students do not feel as confident in their abilities. One public school student suggests, “I would like to learn EVERYTHING about grammar so I don’t feel stupid.” Another public school student detests grammar by stating, “I hate grammer and I hate learning it. Grammer rules are annoying and
difficult [sic].” Within these four samples, the private school students know grammar important, but the public school students are not confident in their abilities and feel that grammar is bothersome. The students within this study have shown that the private school students who went through an intense grammar instruction in elementary are confident and know their grammar rules. However, the public school students, who were taught through a whole-language approach, are not confident in their abilities and detest the rules.

The sociocultural approach should not be dismissed as irrelevant for any teacher, student, or scholar because it, too, has its benefits for a student’s understanding of how society’s grammar changes. Although a majority of the students in this study learned grammar best by the drill and kill method, they recognized that a drill and kill method should be used more in the elementary years because that is where students learn the most material (30% of students agreed). On the other hand, a majority of the students believed that grammar should be taught in both elementary and high school (53%), which is the case. However, high school is the point where grammar instruction should change from the drill and kill method to a sociocultural and rhetorical approach. Much work has been conducted to show that traditional grammar instruction does not work for improving students’ writing skills, according to Constance Weaver’s (1996) *Teaching Grammar in Context*. Weaver clarifies that traditional grammar instruction represents a transmission theory of knowledge and its ineffectiveness by stating, “We saw in Chapter 2 that empirical research does not support the widespread belief or hope that teaching formal grammar systematically in isolation improves students’ writing, or even their ability to edit their writing for conventions of grammar, punctuation, and usage” (1996, p. 102, 148). When improving students’ writing is the cause for instruction, traditional grammar does not work, which may seem contradictory to this study. However, since writing in the grammar
stage is basic for students in grades K-4, traditional grammar instruction is central in introducing students to the study of language. Once the students reach the latter parts of the logic and rhetoric stages, this transactional/constructivist model should be implemented, especially since studies have shown traditional grammar instruction does not improve writing skills (Weaver, 1996).

In her “Teaching Grammar in the Context of Writing” article in the *English Journal*, Constance Weaver (1996) elucidates the use of grammar in the context of writing through the following methodologies: teaching grammar in the context of writing requires that grammatical terms be used sparingly; students must notice grammatical patterns themselves after guidance from a teacher; grammatical points are to be taught in the process of a student’s writing; and students should be given mini and extended lessons where new information is presented and students then practice incorporating the concepts (p. 19). Students, therefore, are given the opportunity to incorporate grammatical concepts on their own, which is appropriate for the rhetoric stage student. Not only does this allow a student to practice his/her language, but it also gives them an opportunity to participate in the sociocultural context of grammar. The goal of grammar in the context of writing, according to Weaver’s (2007) *A Grammar Plan Book: A Guide to Smart Teaching*, includes four principles that teachers can employ to help students master grammar in the context of their own writing: “encouraging the addition of details (ideas) to make the writing more interesting; clarifying the relationships between and among ideas and enhancing organizational flow; helping create a particular style or voice; and promoting variety, fluency, and rhythm within sentences and paragraphs” (p. 5). The end goal for grammar in the context of writing is for teachers to focus on the following six concepts: ideas, organization, voice, word choice, sentence fluency, and conventions (p. 5). By studying grammar in the
context of writing, students see how language is constructed to create a unified whole in their own writing. As most teachers, especially students, know, grammar and language changes constantly with the introduction of new words into the English language by the Oxford Dictionary.\(^{59}\)

Therefore, the sociocultural approach does have a place within the curriculum; however, it should be saved for the rhetoric stage because that is the place where students are able to express their creativity in language. Understanding the social components of grammar can only be meaningful for students when they know the underlying basis for grammar (prescriptive rules). James Sledd’s (1996) article, “Grammar for Social Awareness in Time of Class Warfare,” illuminates how teachers can teach grammar through a social context:

Forced assimilation doesn’t work. It prompts resistance, and sentence analysis is far less important than the social analysis which may bring to ordered consciousness the student’s direct experience of language as the carrier of culture, the facilitator of humanity, and the most powerful of social control. Students should never be set to study usage and grammar without conscious understanding of the nature and social function of the dialect who structure and use they are invited to learn. (p. 62)

Sledd illustrates the importance of a social understanding of language; however, this understanding of the cultural elements of language cannot occur until the students have the basis of grammatical knowledge. For example, a student would not be able to see the benefits of using hyperbaton in their own writing or that of others because of their lack of prescriptive rules. As a

\(^{59}\) An additional method of instruction for students in the rhetoric stage is rhetorical grammar, which is illuminated in Martha Kolln’s (1996) “Rhetorical Grammar: A Modification Lesson.” In this method, Kolln describes it as follows: “This language ‘facility,’ this conscious ability ‘to select effective structure for a given rhetorical context’ is what I call ‘rhetorical grammar.’ I use the adjective *rhetorical* as a modifier to designate a method of teaching that is different from ‘formal grammar’” (p. 29). To further illustrate the difference, “I use *rhetorical* as a modifier to identify grammar in the service of rhetoric: grammar knowledge as a tool that enable the writer to make effective choices” (p. 29).
result, knowing the rules becomes beneficial for students in the logic and rhetoric stage of the trivium because they see how grammar works logically and rhetorically. Nevertheless, a sociocultural approach is beneficial and fits well with the rhetoric stage, especially when studying rhetorical terms and how they are used within the context of writing.

Accompanying the issue of grammar would be usage and mechanics, which many educators do not constitute as an element of grammar. However, personally, this cannot be the case because grammar, spelling, punctuation, and mechanics all work together to create a cohesive whole and the grammar of language. Since many like to throw mechanics to the side, an understanding of the definition of grammar needs to be reiterated. Hartwell (1985) devised separate definitions for the term grammar, which shows the convoluted nature of the term. These five definitions are as follows: 1) A set of formal patterns in which the words of a language are arranged to convey a larger meaning; 2) The branch of linguistics concerned with the description, analysis, and formulation of formal language patterns; 3) Linguistic etiquette; 4) School grammar, or the names of the parts of speech; and 5) Grammatical terms used in the interest of teaching writing (Hartwell, 1985, p. 109-110). The most pivotal definition is definition one. This definition illustrates that grammar is “formal patterns in which the words of a language are arranged to convey a larger meaning” (p. 109). Within this definition, it is important to note the key phrase in the sentence, “convey a larger meaning.” If analyzed carefully, mechanics plays an important role in conveying this meaning; therefore, learning the prescriptive rules of mechanics needs to be part of the definition of grammar. However, John Skretta’s (1996) article, “Why Debates about Teaching Grammar and Usage ‘Tweak’ Me Out,” illustrates the issue with believing in mechanics as an element of grammar: “The fact that the great grammar debate won’t go away suggest to me that many of my peers in this profession are
still obsessing about commas and capitalizing. I hate to say it, folks, but: give up the ghost and get on with your lives” (p. 65). Skretta is arguing that teaching mechanics is not a part of grammar, which essentially argues for a sociocultural approach to grammar instruction because mechanics develop over time. Throughout the Internet universe, though, there are several memes that illustrate the importance of punctuation in creating meaning. For example, Figure 28 illustrates a universal knowledge that commas matter. When educators insist that punctuation does not matter for grammar knowledge, it is a red herring fallacy. It should be common knowledge that grammar, punctuation, spelling, and mechanics all play essential roles in the development of language. Since this is the case, knowing the rules of grammar, punctuation, spelling, and mechanics is a necessity if the goal of educators is to create knowledgeable students, or the use of Standard Academic English.

Additionally, if one’s goal is to understand the social elements of language, knowing the rules is necessary when trying to comprehend meaning. Figure 29 (p. 152), again, illustrates that an understanding of the social aspects of language and the rules are necessary in order for a student, or adult, to make meaning. Teaching students the social aspects of language can be beneficial if students know how language works and they can employ Standard Academic English. Brown (1996) vehemently decrees through the use of a myth, “Proper grammar and speech aren’t the norm but a form of elitism. This burgeoning thought, which must be rapidly
dispelled, is that speaking and writing correct grammar somehow represent a form of aristocracy” (p. 98). Subsequently, speaking and writing in grammatically correct terms is a requirement for professional means; therefore, students need to be taught how to write and speak correctly. However, students can and should study the sociocultural contexts of language to further their knowledge of language and how it can change from the prescribed rules.

All five definitions illuminated by Hartwell are beneficial to society’s understanding of grammar. The prescriptivist rules and the sociocultural approach to writing instruction is needed for students to develop into well-rounded students. As students have illustrated, in elementary a more prescriptivist approach is necessary because of the students’ ability to grasp the material more easily. Once students have grasped this meta-language, students should continually study grammar throughout the logic and rhetoric stages; however, the methodology of grammar should change into a more sociocultural approach because students now have a meta-language they can use when discussing their studies with teachers. Utilizing this approach to language instruction allows educators to gradually build, or scaffold, students’ understanding of grammar. Therefore, when students enter the high school level, they are more likely to meet the standards that have been implemented by the Common Core initiative, especially when analyzing how language works in different contexts. The knowledge of grammar, accordingly, should not be implemented solely within the elementary or high school level; instead, the knowledge and
expectations of grammar knowledge should build upon each other by starting with prescriptive rules followed by the social contexts, or sociocultural approach.

The students’ knowledge in this study has increased immensely in two main aspects: knowledge of the parts of speech and when and how to use grammar in different contexts. Students learned the parts of speech, which fits Hartwell’s definition four listed above, through a variety of classical methods such as diagramming sentences and drill and kill worksheets. However, students were provided with opportunities to incorporate their grammatical skills and knowledge through essays, or grammar in the context of writing. Overall, the Standard Academic English approach to grammar instruction may be old school, but it was essential in getting this study’s students to understand how language works and why it works. Students do need, though, to understand how society approaches grammar and how it changes, especially since they are the consumers and creators of the current language. When it comes to modern instruction, eliminating the prescriptive rules of grammar is illogical because students need to know the basis of our language. Figure 30 illustrates the progression of a student’s instruction in grammar, which should start with a phonics approach to learning. After phonics has been mastered, students begin a prescriptivist approach to grammar study where all the rules to the language are discussed and studied. Once the prescriptivist stage is complete, students move into
the sociocultural and rhetorical approach to grammar instruction, which requires the student to study language through a cultural lens as well as incorporating grammatical concepts into their own writing. Therefore, the phonics and the prescriptive rules serve as the base of language and help students analyze language for its basic structures. The sociocultural and rhetorical approach gives students the ability to study language more thoroughly and a chance to incorporate it into their own writing, but it cannot occur until the basics of language are learned.

Logic

Logic is the second stage of the trivium and the last stage that this study is able to cover in the time allotted. For the logic section, students completed weekly writing assignments that focused on nonfiction articles coming from Kelly Gallagher’s Article of the Week database, which required the students to summarize and analyze the material within the article. Additionally, students were required to study the organizational structure of essays, rhetorical terms, and literature, which was then implemented into their major project for the logic stage. The major project was an Article of the Week but with a focus on a speech and a larger analysis. Students were required to utilize the SOAPSTone method of rhetorical analysis to analyze a speech of their choice, which was transformed into an essay. Since these students are, technically, in the rhetoric stage of the trivium, they were taught through the two forms of logic: informal and formal logic. Informal logic, according to Douglas Wilson’s (1996) *Repairing the Ruins*, is categorized as follows: common sense reasoning, defining terms, informal fallacies, analogies, and puzzle solving (p. 119). Formal logic, on the other hand, is a more rigorous analysis of structured arguments, which can be further divided into two categories: inductive and deductive reasoning. Consequently, the study of logic required that students be fully invested in formal (inductive and deductive) and informal logic throughout the twelve-week frame.
Because students should have been introduced to the ideas of logical reasoning through their previous studies, an intense study of rhetorical and literary devices was executed within this study. Understanding rhetorical devices is a necessity in a world that is filled with nonfiction new stories, political advertisements, speeches, and in times of inflated rhetoric; therefore, students had to be able to differentiate between biased and unbiased material, the author(s) ethos, how authors utilize these rhetorical devices (positively or negatively), and how the structure and language of the text is used to convey an overall meaning. Logic and its required skills are typically taught from 5th to 8th grade; however, students need to be trained how to utilize these skills before they begin noticing and using them in writing. The Common Core State Standards (CCSS) ask that students begin using analysis skills in the 7th grade. But, if students are not taught to use these skills, they go in blindly when analyzing either a piece of nonfiction or fiction. For example, the CCSS standards in 7th grade English-Language Arts are as follows:

**RL. 7.1:** Cite several pieces of textual evidence to support analysis of what the texts says explicitly as well as inference drawn from the text.

**RL. 7.2:** Determine a theme or central idea of a text and analyze its development over the course of the text; provide an objective summary of the text

**RL. 7.3:** Analyze how particular elements of a story or drama interact (e.g., how setting shapes the characters or plot).

**RL. 7.4:** Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text, including figurative and connotative meanings; analyze the impact of rhymes and other repetitions of sounds (e.g., alliteration) on a specific verse or stanza of a poem or section of a story or drama.
**RL. 7.5:** Analyze how a drama's or poem's form or structure (e.g., soliloquy, sonnet) contributes to its meaning

**RL.7.6:** Analyze how an author develops and contrasts the points of view of different characters or narrators in a text. (Council of Chief, 2010, p. 36)

These standards, at face value, are rigorous and meaningful when analyzing a text. However, under the surface these standards are near impossible to reach with students who have not been trained in the art of logic; therefore, these standards set students up for failure, especially when the students are expected to meet these standards halfway through their academic career. One student in their pre-questionnaire mentions, “The Common Core idea is not a good thing I don’t think. It’s not helping us at all. I do think that there is a little too much testing.” One student further mentions, “They teach too much at one time and expect us to know it all.” Students, if taught through a classical curriculum, would not feel overwhelmed because the gradual building of knowledge would diminish this feeling in students. Additionally, raising the standards of logic is an inevitability in today’s technologically driven world, but the foundation for the development of these skills has to be taught to students in order for them to utilize the skills properly.

In the beginning of the logic stage, students struggled with making meaning through the analysis. Students should not have struggled, though, because they would have gone through this stage if they were instructed via classical education; however, that is not the case. According to Bauer and Wise (2009), the logic stage is where “the middle-grade student will learn to analyze language. Now that she knows ‘the fundamental rules’ of language, as Douglas Wilson puts it, she’ll start to learn language’s ‘ordered relationships’—the way the language fits together” (p. 335). However, the modern educational system has failed students in thinking through language
properly, especially since students oftentimes do not receive that base of grammar instruction in their elementary years. Therefore, when students are asked to analyze language in the logic stage, they should start to see the relationships between words and how they fit together to create a cohesive whole. Students may not have an in-depth understanding of how language works, but the logic stage is meant to develop this knowledge by guiding students through effective means of persuasion. Wilson (1996) illustrates the purpose of logic within the following quotation:

When taught as an art, logic provides students with specific skills in arguing properly and analyzing arguments critically. Students learn the importance of defining terms in debate and specific techniques for doing so. They improve their ability to express ideas more clearly and concisely. They practice forming valid arguments and discovering and refuting invalid ones. They learn to distinguish between premises and conclusion, both expressed and assumed. They learn to think before they speak. (p. 123)

By giving students the ability to logically work through problems via informal and formal logic, students are given a highly desired tool that will be essential for the rest of their lifetime, regardless of future careers. However, logic cannot begin until students have that foundation of grammar study.

A majority of the students, unfortunately, did not receive that base of grammar instruction, which would have helped them in the logic stage. Ideally, these students should have already developed an understanding of how language works to create a cohesive whole. On the other hand, the dichotomy of the students is interesting because some received a classical education training through a private catholic school, so the analyzing of language comes much easier for these students. Not only does the analyzing of language come easier, but these students also have a better command of the English language through their spelling, punctuation,
grammar, and other mechanics. Therefore, a trivium-type education with a focus on grammar has proved useful for these students in not only their grades, but in their development of skills.

For example, Figures 31 and 32 show a side-by-side comparison of a public school student and a private school student (K-8) and their language and analysis abilities. Figure 31 illustrates the public school student’s writing and as can be viewed, the student has difficulty in spelling, bringing in specific details such as the article title, author, and source in the summary.

Additionally, this student also had issues in the analysis because he/she did not analyze the structure of the essay for coherence. At this point in the semester, students were not required to analyze rhetorical devices because they did not have the knowledge. On the other hand, Figure 32 illustrates the private school student’s writing abilities. This student, having gone through rigorous language instruction in elementary and middle school, shows that he/she commands the English language—with few errors—and is able to use a variety of sentence structures, punctuation, and correct grammar, spelling, and punctuation. Through these two examples, a
trivium-type education has served the private school student in developing his/her current grammatical knowledge, which demonstrates that instruction through the prescriptivist approach in elementary is beneficial. Additionally, this student, because he/she has the knowledge of grammar, is able to develop the skills of logic more fluently. Although this is only one example of the grammar knowledge that a private school, or trivium-type education, can provide, further private school students illustrated this knowledge similarly. However, not all public school students demonstrated a lack of spelling and writing conventions. When a majority of private school students are able to show this ability to utilize grammar effectively, a conclusion can be drawn that their previous education was beneficial for them and has served them well. The public school students, though, are not unintelligent because they have less of an understanding of grammar. Instead, the blame should be on the educational curriculum and what is favored in the educational policies at the time of instruction.

Through the previous example, students in a public high school are given a disservice when they are not instructed through a classical curriculum. The comparison of a private school student and the public school student illustrates how much further along classically educated students are in terms of grammar and logic. The private school student has a better grasp on the language and is able to analyze the article more fluently than the public school student. Even though there was this disparity within the first AoW assignment, the public school students slowly started to gain ground in understanding how to logically analyze an article for its effectiveness; therefore, illustrating that the trivium curriculum and its scaffolding approach works.

In terms of the second AoW assignment, students showed that they increased their understanding of what it takes to analyze, or use logic. Student summaries increased in length
because students picked out more precise details in regards to analysis skills. For example, “This law will stop TV providers like TWC and even Verizon from blocking or stopping web services such as Netflix, they can’t slow down content from particular web sites, and they can’t speed up a web site’s traffic, particularly for money.” For brevity sake, this student illuminated specific names in the summary and has, in a nutshell, combined the argument of both articles into a succinct sentence. Consequently, students took their previous studies in grammar and logic to create a unified whole that gives their audience/reader an understanding of the article. Similarly, another student illustrates the major elements of the articles in a list: “The ‘net neutrality’ rules ban Internet providers from several specific activities: They can’t block or stop web services such as Netflix. They can’t slow down or throttle content from particular web sites. And they can’t speed up a web site’s traffic, particularly in exchange for money.” Within these summary examples, students effectively pinpointed key pieces of summary information and relayed them to an audience who has not read the articles. Changing from the first sample, students brought in more specific pieces of evidence and communicated them effectively. Additionally, what makes these summary samples interesting is that one of the samples is coming from a public school student and one from a private school student; therefore, students are closing the gap in terms of knowledge in logic. The students’ scores also changed from an average of 84% “C” to a 94% “A.” The mode increased 15% from the first assessment to the second assessment from 85% to 100%. Last, but not least, the range of students’ scores decreased 5% from 30% to 25%. Continuous practice, consequently, illustrated that the trivium structure was beneficial as it allowed students to build their skills, even if it was only twelve weeks of logic study.
Major Logic Project

Engaging students in the analysis of language was successful in this study as was proven in the results section. The following are the standards met during the major logic project:

L. 9-10.4: Determine or clarify the meaning of unknown and multiple-meaning words and phrases

L. 9-10.4A Use context (e.g., the overall meaning of a sentence, paragraph, or text; a word’s position or function in a sentence) as a clue to the meaning of a word or phrase.

L. 9-10.4B Identify and correctly use patterns of word changes that indicate different meanings or part of speech

L. 9-10.4C Consult general and specialized reference materials (e.g., dictionaries, glossaries, thesauruses), both print and digital, to find the pronunciation of a word or determine or clarify its precise meaning, its part of speech, or its etymology.

L. 9-10.4D Verify the preliminary determination of the meaning of a word or phrase (e.g., by checking the inferred meaning in context or in a dictionary).

L. 9-10.5 Demonstrate understanding of figurative language, word relationships, and nuances in word meanings.

L. 9-10.5A Interpret figures of speech (e.g., euphemism, oxymoron) in context and analyze their role in the text.

L. 9-10.5B Analyze nuances in the meaning of words with similar denotations.

(Council of Chief, 2012, p. 55)

Students throughout the writing of the logic essay met these standards in their analysis of the speech of their choosing. Direct instruction in language previously helped students recognize the
grammatical structures and rhetorical devices used in their respective speech. Previously, students were instructed to look for specific rhetorical devices (i.e. epimone, metaphor, polysyndeton, asyndeton, etc.) in William Shakespeare’s *Julius Caesar*, specifically Brutus and Antony’s funeral speeches in Act III. Students, therefore, had the knowledge to analyze because the scaffolding approach of the trivium allowed for this understanding. With the Common Core’s rapid implementation, students who are not directly instructed in language may struggle with meeting the aforementioned strategies, especially current high school students. Therefore, the instruction of logic needs to occur in the students’ middle school years so that they are not bored working solely on prescriptive rules of grammar or expected to do too much research:

“Instead of focusing only on grammar or pushing them into extensive research, as they will be equipped to do in rhetoric school, we concentrate on improving dialectic skills through Socratic circles, formal logic, policy debate, mock trial, collaborative stories, and time line synthesis” (p. 71). As a result, the language instruction in the logic stage is pivotal in developing a student’s intellectual and analytical abilities. If skipped or treaded on lightly, the student may be at a disadvantage when they enter the rhetoric stage where they are expected to apply the rules of grammar and logic correctly, but creatively as well.

The direct instruction in language allowed students in this study to attain a range of 23%, an average score of 91%, and a mode of 93%, which fall under the “A” and “B” range with the grade scale. Students participated in dialectic before the writing of the essay, which is essential to the logic stage. The high average and mode could be directly related to the students’ opportunity to engage with discussion with one another and fortify their thoughts concerning the speech. Therefore, the students took these ideas discussed in their groups and created well-rounded rhetorical analyses. One outlying student, though, attained a 75, which equates to a “D”
on the grading scale. The student’s essay started with a semi-effective thesis, but he/she was unable to prove this thesis because there was a lack of support: “Eisenhower ‘Order of the Day’ was effective because he persuaded his audience by using many rhetorical devices and being a good speaker [sic].” The student started out with a thesis that demonstrated that Eisenhower was effective; however, the student did not mention specific rhetorical devices or how Eisenhower was effective. With the lack of support and specificity, the conclusion can be drawn that the student does not understand the material and/or has a weak understanding of the rhetorical devices. In comparison, an effective thesis that one student created is as follows: “And whether he realizes it or not, President Kennedy does a fairly good job of using different rhetorical devices, including ethos, pathos, and logos. Using those three rhetorical devices help make the speech effective by persuading people with ethnic [sic] appeal, emotion, and the use of reasoning.” This student’s thesis is more effective than the outlying student because it is more precise and informs the reader that the writer knows what rhetorical devices were used. The student, consequently, backed up this opinion through the use of textual support and discussion.

Educationally, the outlying student needs more one-on-one instruction with the analysis of language in order to stretch understanding. This one-on-one instruction needs to occur through the consistent analysis of rhetorical texts, which allows the student to see how authors are able to utilize language to their benefit. Instruction in rhetorical devices and the persuasive appeals has to be reinforced for this outlying student because he/she may not have grasped the concept earlier on, which could be a direct impact of effort, previous education (public school student), or misunderstanding. No matter the issue, more instruction has to occur with this student so that he/she is able to reach the average score set by the rest of the class. Additionally, Kopff (1998) argues, “Reading works like Plato’s dialogues is essential if we are to find our way
out of the current morass of disagreement; for in them we can gain an understanding of how to engage in discussions of great weight with aplomb” (p. 15). Engaging the lower achieving student in more practice with texts that exploit grammatical and rhetorical devices, he/she will develop a deeper understanding and appreciation for how the language works. The student, thus, would be able to “engage in discussions of great weight with aplomb” (p. 15).

For the majority of the students, the direct instruction in language was beneficial through the curriculum of the trivium. Students took their knowledge of grammar and the logic of creating an effective speech and analyzed it for the speaker’s effectiveness. Because this foundation was set, the students are now, ideally, ready for the rhetoric stage of the trivium where they apply these rules themselves. Not surprisingly, the gap between the public school students and the private school students disappeared when direct instruction in language for the logic stage was provided. The student essays blended with each other and one could not tell if a student were from the public or private school after analyzing these essays. Students effectively analyzed the speeches through the use of the SOAPSTone method of analysis as well as through Aristotle’s three persuasive appeals of ethos, logos, and pathos. For example, one student discusses the impact of President Kennedy’s ‘Ich bin ein Berliner’ speech in the following:

Two years after the Berlin Wall as build, the people of West Berlin were angry and sad about the hardships they had to go through. Kennedy’s goal was to pick up their spirits so they will help him fight the Communists. ‘I am Proud to come to this city as the guest of your distinguished Mayor, who has symbolized…the fighting spirit of West Berlin.’ These words seem like something small, but they brought pride to the Berliners.

In this example, the student isolated the emotions of the speaker with Kennedy’s use of words. Additionally, the student supported his/her beliefs with textual evidence from the speech, which
shows the reader where and how this belief was developed in the writer. All students, with the exception of the outlying student, supported their analyses with textual evidence to demonstrate their rationale to the audience. Students who received lower grades supported their beliefs, but were not able to explain in depth their rationale. One student demonstrates the lack of depth when stating, “Kennedy is basically stating that he is honored to come to Germany, and he has come with his general who helped in a time of crisis. that this general, and his commander, basically the united states, is willing to help again if it is ever needed [sic].” Consequently, the student was not able to explain Kennedy’s effectiveness on the audience whereas the first example was able to do so. Additionally, the mechanical errors also hindered this student’s grade.

Students through the major logic project created sound essays that demonstrated their ability to rhetorically analyze a text. The students applied AP rhetorical terms at a tenth grade level, which was accomplished through the natural scaffolding approach provided by the trivium curriculum. Direct instruction through language gave students the tools necessary to rhetorically analyze a text. Providing students with exemplary examples of nonfiction texts and guidance supplied them with the confidence to complete a rhetorical analysis without any guidance from me, except for the assignment sheet and previous instruction. On the other hand, further gains in the students’ analytical skills could have been attained if there were more time devoted to this study. The data from the results section demonstrated that students attained a 91% average and 93% mode, which is successful in terms of grade and knowledge gained. Overall, the logic stage and this project demonstrated that direct instruction through language (i.e. in the logic stage) is beneficial and provides students with that foundation of how grammar works to convey meaning. Lockman (2009) demonstrates the overall goal of a rhetorical analysis and the logic stage as
follows: “Critical thinking will skyrocket once your kids begin to understand traditional logic…
This is a critical thinking skill that is rare in our culture and certainly unusual among teenagers; you owe it to your kids to give them these tools so that they are ready to take what they’ve determined and communicate their position effectively” (p. 67). The benefits of the logic stage were proven in this study’s participants and this growth can be understood in the pretest and posttest data below.

**Pretest and Posttest**

The pretest and posttest data demonstrated the importance of implementing a trivium curriculum, which encompassed all the Common Core State Standards mentioned. From the data attained in the grammar and logic stages, the students illustrated a command of the material, with the exception of mastery of grammatical terms. However, the private school students commanded the English language with more ease because they were educated through a strict regimen of grammar instruction. The public school students, on the other hand, were not educated with strict grammar instruction. Entering the logic stage, the public school students demonstrated that they needed to catch up in terms of understanding language. However, after instruction in the logic stage the public school students displayed a similar understanding of language as that of the private school students. Therefore, the students have shown that they have attained a better understanding of language and have met the standards set forth by the state of Ohio.

Pretest and posttest data demonstrated that growth was attained overall. From the pretest to the posttest, students increased their knowledge an average of 26.3%, with a mode of 26% growth. The instructional strategies and methodologies implemented provide reasonable, although small, proof that a trivium curriculum is beneficial for student understanding. With an
average of 26.3% growth and only twenty-eight weeks of instruction, not counting student absences, field trips, cancellations, and other school functions, the students gained a breadth of knowledge in terms of language and how it used. Even more beneficial is the fact public school students made leaps in catching up with the private school students in their comprehension of language. If all students were instructed through the trivium, students may feel more comfortable with navigating the English language as well as how to analyze and manipulate it.

This curriculum could help education avoid the constant bickering of how to properly educate a student, especially since it addresses the Common Core State Standards at an even higher level. Policymakers, parents, and educators must realize that a student’s education begins with learning the basics of language, which moves onto learning and analyzing the language before manipulating the language for one’s benefit.

Although this study cannot definitively conclude that a classical education is the best method for a student’s education, the data proved that a reasonable amount of growth was attained in only twenty-eight weeks of instruction using a trivium curriculum. The information presented in the literature review demonstrated the overarching outcome of a classical education, the methodology of instruction, and the outcomes schools have attained in using this approach. If given more time for instruction with this select group of students, they could have reached the same goals as classical education schools; however, it has to occur throughout a student’s entire schooling. To get students where society wants them to be, implementing the trivium and turning back the clock on education has to occur. Sayers (1947) best elucidates this belief in “The Lost Tools of Learning” when she finalized her thoughts on modern education, “It is not the fault of the teacher—they work only too hard already. The combined folly of a civilization that has forgotten its own roots is forcing them to shore up the tottering weight of an educational
structure that is built upon sand. They are doing for their pupils the work which the pupils themselves out to do” (1947). Putting the icing on the cake, Sayers ends her argument when she forcefully implies, “For the sole true end of education is simply this: to teach men how to learn for themselves; and whatever instruction fails to this is effort spent in vain” (1947). The data provided by this study and the outcomes classically educated school receive, a trivium curriculum provides the best chance society has at educating its citizens. However, policymakers, educators, parents, and students must realize that some untested method is not the answer; instead, the trivium is the answer and all society has to do is rewind the educational theory clock.
CHAPTER 9: CONCLUSION

Back in ancient Greece an influential and innovative educational system known as the trivium was developed by rhetoricians, educators, and citizens. However, this education soon became antiquated to modern educational philosophy because modern thinkers believe that the future can do anything better than the past; in fact, it is expected that modernists can create and innovate more heavily than classical thinkers. Unfortunately, modern education has put society in a consistent battle between educational policy and philosophy, especially with the rapid changes in education day-in and day-out. Educators are consistently arguing back and forth with government officials about the best means of education for students. For example, the recent and rapid implementation of the Common Core State Standards and the PARCC tests show how rapidly education is changing, which becomes an immense burden for public educators especially. Constantly, public school educators are put in a bind between government officials, student expectations, parent expectations, and administrative expectations. Therefore, it is no wonder why many public school educators are leaving the profession at an increasingly rapid rate.

Through this study, though, classical education was put to the test to see if it could be successful in a rural public high school for a tenth grade advanced English class, and the results from this study showed that it was effective for this group of students. The study size was small and contained only thirty-four participants, so the results and discussion cannot be representative of all students. Nevertheless, classical education’s curriculum—the trivium (grammar, logic, and rhetoric)—was implemented within this rural, public high school to determine its effectiveness in preparing students for future academic endeavors. It should be noted that all state standards were met within this study according to current educational policy (i.e. Common Core State Standards
or Ohio’s New Learning Standards). Interestingly, a portion of the study sample went through a classical education curriculum in their private Catholic school (K-8), whereas the rest of the population sample received a public education. As the discussion section illustrated, the classically trained students fared much better in grammar and logic because their education employed scaffolding their understanding, which does not happen in the public school environment because of educational policy and other extenuating factors (e.g., parental involvement, teacher accountability, student accountability, etc.). Although students only were subjected to each stage of the trivium for twelve-weeks each, the students illuminated that they grew in their understanding of how skills build upon one other, which key in administering a classical education curriculum. Classical education leaves no room for students to forget the skills they learned previously nor does it require students to utilize skills that have not been properly developed from previous learning.

As a result of the trivium’s resounding relevance, the literature of classical education illustrated that a trivium approach to education allows students to develop skills that continuously build upon each other. This study demonstrated that learning grammar through the prescriptivist approach is the best means for enhancing student knowledge of language. Students had the opportunity to put learning in their own hands when given the assignment to teach their classmates about a particular grammatical concept, which ranged from nouns to direct and indirect objects. Nevertheless, the students took their knowledge and illustrated through their presentations why grammar is a necessity. As far as the larger context, students saw that grammar has a bigger purpose rather than being a boring school subject. Students realized that grammar is a necessity in attaining a job and in communicating with fellow human beings. Sister Miriam Joseph’s (2002) illustrious book, *The Trivium*, provides sound reasoning, which
students picked up on in their essays, about the necessity of grammar study: “Competence in the use of language and competence in handling abstractions, particularly mathematical quantities, are regarded as the most reliable indexes to a student’s intellectual caliber” (p. 8). Therefore, students must be taught to utilize the language they are employing to almost perfection because it is what communicates their abilities as a possible employee. Students within their essays picked up on this concept when one group implies, “If you use incorrect grammar, you will seem less appealing to a potential employer who is looking for the best choice available. You won’t sound like the best choice if you struggle with speaking your own language.” Consequently, students note the importance, similar to Sister Miriam Joseph, that grammar illustrates one’s mental capacity and what they are able to accomplish within the realms of a career.

Remaining consistent with education, especially in the instruction of grammar, becomes essential in a student’s education. When looking at the bigger picture, students who were taught grammar heavily in their elementary schooling (i.e. the private school students) have a greater grasp of grammar than those who were not taught through this structure. As mentioned in the student examples in the discussion, the private school students showed more developed thought, correct use of grammar, and the ability to analyze because they were given the proper tools. On the other hand, the public school students were not given these tools to succeed; therefore, they tended to struggle and were not as in command of the English language as those private school pupils. However, this study proved that improving student understanding of grammar can occur through the use of the trivium structure. Students believed they had a better grasp of the language after they had been taught these grammatical skills through drill and kill methods as well as through diagramming sentences. Although many educators, students, and parents of public school students would call these methods archaic, they cannot be disregarded and saved
only for private school students because they allow students to master the concepts of grammar. Studies like the Braddock report\(^{60}\) reported that the teaching of grammar formally (prescriptive approach) was harmful to students’ writing abilities because students were not able to fully develop thought. However, the teaching of formal grammar is never given a proper place within the classroom because many studies assume the studying of grammar in conjunction with composition is useless. Additional educators also have the thought that the teaching of grammar is too difficult because they, too, have to learn the material in order to teach students. For many current pre-service teachers, there are no formal classes required on the teaching of grammar; therefore, perpetuating the myth that grammar instruction is too hard to learn and it is not essential to a student’s education. Unfortunately, it is this myth and current system that has allowed society to reach a point where formal grammar is not heralded as it once was.

The teaching of grammar, though, does not have to continue this myth because it only takes a prescriptive approach to grammar instruction in the students’ earlier years (K-5) where material is more easily retained. After students have developed this knowledge of grammar, they will then move onto the logic stage of the trivium where they apply the knowledge of grammar to the bigger picture of sentence structure. Such pedagogical strategies that are implemented within this stage include diagramming sentences, learning rhetorical devices, and analyzing arguments for their effectiveness through informal and formal (deductive and inductive) logic, which can only be accomplished after students have been properly trained in the art of grammar. Bauer and Wise (2009), whose expertise in classical education has been used extensively

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\(^{60}\) The Braddock Report stated, “In the view of the widespread agreement of research studies based upon many types of students and teachers, the conclusion can be stated in strong and unqualified terms: the teaching of formal grammar has negligible or, because it usually displaces some instruction and practice in actual composition, even a harmful effect on the improvement of writing” (Braddock, Lloyd-Jones, and Schoer, 1963, p. 37). The report was also supported by the Cooperative Research Program of the Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and the National Council of Teachers of English.
throughout this study say, “By the end of fourth grade, the child should learn the proper names and usages of all the parts of speech, the rules of punctuation and capitalization, dictionary use, and the proper forms for letters, reports, and other common pieces of writing” (p. 55). They continue by adding, “Until these basic skills are mastered, he won’t be able to exercise language with the mastery that the logic stage demands” (p. 55). Consequently, since grammar and the learning of these essential tools are not heavily favored in public schools, public school students often lack the necessary language skills that are needed in middle and high school, which requires more in-depth thought. Private school students, on the other hand, have a better grasp of the material and are able to develop these new skills more rapidly because they have the basis of knowledge: grammar and language. Again, this could be due to the fact that prescriptive teaching methods of grammar and word work are not heavily favored in society because of the strenuous nature of the study.

In regards to the understanding of logic, logic is not formally taught as a subject in public schools; therefore, students are expected to utilize informal and formal logic on their own without any formal instruction in how to use these pieces of information. Modern education expects students to utilize analysis, synthesis, and other higher-level thinking skills without guiding the students in how to use these skills. Additionally, the previous private school students in this study did not have a formal class in logic, either. Therefore, this puts these students on equal grounds in terms of logic instruction. Although these students may be on equal grounds, the private school students showed that they were more likely to attain and use the skills of analysis because of their previous instruction in grammar. From the foundational information gained in learning the language, students are more likely to understand the rules and tools of analyzing a text for specific features. This study was, unfortunately, unable to determine the
long-term effectiveness of studying grammar and the transfer of these skills to the logic stage because of the length of time given. However, future research would need to study the transfer of skills from the grammar stage to the logic stage and how classically educated students may have an easier time grasping these skills because of their intense study in grammar. It should be noted that this new study should be a longitudinal study because the transfer of skills cannot be adequately ascertained in a short amount of time. Following the students through their instructional timeframe allows for a more in-depth understanding of the effects of grammar instruction on logic.

Since grammar is important for logic study, logic study, therefore, becomes important for the study of rhetoric. As mentioned previously, though, students are not instructed in formal or informal logic; instead, students are expected to utilize the skills of analysis without being instructed. Without expecting students to learn the skills of analysis, synthesis, and other higher-thinking skills, public school students should be taught how to formally and informally utilize these skills. Implementing the trivium scaffolding approach to education is a necessity if society expects to meet the Common Core State Standards and their rigorous nature of higher order thinking skills. However, this cannot be accomplished without first instructing students in the art of logic. For example, the Nova Classical Academy’s statement on logic illustrates the purpose of teaching logic formally and informally:

Logic-stage sources should emphasize analytical thought in the writer and/or in the instruction of it. It is critical that that the themes and ideas which are the focus of student study connect together between units and subjects. At each moment the School of Logic student should feel that his course of study is a tapestry of interwoven ideas and thoughts, and that he is working to discover and then connect ideas together. (“School of Logic”)
The metaphor of the “tapestry of interwoven ideas and thoughts” is crucial in getting students to the proper levels of education they need to meet the Common Core State Standards. Consequently, students need to be trained through the trivium because it allows them to develop their skills at appropriate times. If they do not have the necessary skills to understand language, they are not going to understand how to evaluate, analyze, or synthesize texts. Once the students reach the rhetoric stage, they cannot manipulate language without struggle because they do not understand how language is meant to be used nor do they understand how language is manipulated by others. The rhetoric stage, therefore, allows students to truly take free reigns of their education and make it their own.

Rhetoric, usually described as the art of persuasion, needs to be further defined in the case of the trivium as being the stage of autonomy. Within this stage, although students did not explicitly demonstrate their abilities in this study, students are meant to take control of their studies and create compositions that use both sound grammar and logic. Accordingly, the material of the previous two stages shows that rhetoric cannot occur unless students understand the previous two stages. In modern education, unfortunately, society expects students to exploit the tools of rhetoric before they are able to creatively express themselves because they do not have the tools that are taught in the grammar and logic stages. Autonomy, therefore, is expected of students before they are able to fully function within the realms of education and meeting the Common Core State Standards. Once again referring to the Nova Classical Academy, instruction in rhetoric should be as follows: “Central to the use of the seminar as a mode of instruction is the belief that an idea is not fully grasped until both a claim and its underpinnings can be expressed and defended by the student in his or her own words” (“School of Rhetoric”). The website continues by saying, “Seminars are an appropriate technique for the School of
Rhetoric in their multiple intertwined functions: they model clear thinking and they afford students rich opportunities to master the art of constructing and communicating their thinking to others” (“School of Rhetoric”). Therefore, rhetoric should rest upon the student’s ability to apply their skills from the grammar and logic stage. In its entirety, the trivium allows students to grasp material at developmentally appropriate times and slowly weans a student into being an effective, autonomous student.

Modern education demonstrates that students are expected to be creative and analytical thinkers at inappropriate times because of the necessity to improve student learning and society. Throwing the Common Core State Standards at students in the middle of their educational experience is doing more detriment to students’ education than it is good. Essentially, students are frustrated, struggling, and exhausted from the continuous testing and upping of standards in the middle of their education. As a result, students are not learning the material effectively and are expected to utilize these skills rigorously when they do not have the tools needed. Instead of constantly changing modern education with new and untested educational policies, going back to a tested philosophy of classical education’s trivium is what is needed to up student standards and accountability. Even though many modern thinkers believe that classical education is antiquated, the philosophy and this study have proven that classical education works in educating students. The scaffolding nature of the curriculum allows students to develop the tools necessary to succeed inside and outside of the classroom.

Although this study was only for a 36-week time period, with the rhetoric stage unanalyzed, the trivium was beneficial for the students within this English classroom. The students have benefitted from this curriculum structure because they progressively built their skills. Understanding grammar and its elements come much easier for the students because they
have had that foundation of knowledge. The analyzing of language became much easier after
learning the grammatical terms and how language can be manipulated through fallacies and other
forms of language manipulation. But, to better analyze and study the trivium a more in-depth
study of classically educated students and modern educated students has to be completed for
their entire K-12 timespan. Though this would be an expansive study, the benefits and outcomes
would be informative for educational purposes as society would be able to tell who was truly the
most educated. If this were too long and complicated of a study, a look at the transition stages
between grammar and logic, logic and rhetoric, and rhetoric and the end of the students’
secondary career would suffice. One key factor that does need to be implemented within these
new studies is the inclusion of the trivium in a public high school, not a private high school.
Public high schools are oftentimes overlooked because of the strict mandates set forth by
standards; however, guiding students through the trivium and meeting the standards set forth by
the states is possible, as was the case in this study. These studies would further prove,
hypothetically, a trivium curriculum is best for students, both public and private school students,
in getting them ready for post-secondary instruction.

The trivium in its entirety is a beneficial curriculum for all types of students, public
school students included. Since a majority of our youth are educated in public schools, society
needs to make sure they are receiving the best education possible, not one that changes midway
through a student’s career. A curriculum that is a naturally scaffolding approach is a necessity
for students in making the transferring and attaining of skills smoother and less stressful. When
students are not equipped with the right skillset, yet are expected to apply these skills, they
become frustrated, confused, and/or apathetic because they do not know where to go with their
education; therefore, leading to dropouts, schools receiving poor ratings, and the perpetual myth
that private schools are better than public schools. No matter what myth one may believe, the only roadblock to a student’s education is that of curriculum and educational policies. These issues, which have come in the form of the Common Core State Standards, illustrate that they are not working because they do not build a student’s skillset. Instead, they throw students into higher-level thinking without properly equipping them to do so. Overall, a simple change in curriculum is needed and that can be accomplished by looking to the past for the answers. The trivium has been a time-tested method that is still used today because it has provided society and its students with the tools necessary to thrive in a technologically-driven world (e.g., Nova Classical Academy and Walnut Hills High School). When trying to decipher educational policy, the best answer is to make it simple and build it off successive steps. There is no reason to convolute the educational process when it is as easy as turning back the clock and instructing students through grammar, logic, and rhetoric.
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APPENDIX A

Weekly Grammar Assignments

You will be given various grammar issues to correct and analyze. These assignments may come in the form of worksheets, handouts, and etc. Nevertheless, you will have one of these for the first part of the Trivium education. These grammar exercises are due every Friday and they cannot be made up or turned in late.

The topics for these grammar assignments include the following, but this is not a set list:

- Parts of Speech
- Types of Sentences
- Adverbs
- Punctuation
- Tenses
- Run-on Sentences
- Pronouns

Please note, some of these exercises could be online, so please make sure you get to the library during a study hall or the public library after school. Some of these will be online because I am trying to make an effort to utilize less paper this year.

All grammar assignments will be worth 20 points each week. Your first and last grammar assignments will be described below as these are the assignments that I will use for the study I am completing for my master’s degree.

**IRB Analysis for Study Example 1:** For your first grammar assignment, please tell me what you honestly think about grammar and being taught it in high school? Be specific with your thoughts and bring in specific examples that have shaped your current thoughts of grammar. Next, do you think high school is the place for grammar instruction? How do you think grammar should be taught (i.e. in conjunction with literacy or through continuous practice with drills)? Also, tell me the grammar rules you already know and the grammar principles you would like to know. For this first grammar assignment, please put your response into two paragraphs of 7-sentences each.

**IRB Analysis for Study Example 2:** Just so you know, your last grammar assignment will ask you to reflect on your grammar instruction for the past 12 weeks and whether or not you feel more confident when discussing grammar with friends, teachers, or parents. I will also ask you what you have learned through the 12 weeks that you didn’t know previously. Also, did the drill and kill exercises help you more or did the teaching through literacy help you more? Ideally, what method do you believe you learned the most through in your grammar instruction and how do you know? Additionally, I will ask you to take four grammar principles and write four original sentences utilizing and highlight these grammar principles. The first section of this final grammar assignment should be 7-sentences in length and contain complex sentences.
APPENDIX B

Articles of the Week

Each week you will have to look in a newspaper, magazine, or online for an article of your interest. No matter what article you choose, it must be of nonfiction status. After receiving your article, you’re to print off a copy of this article and read it along with annotating it (i.e. taking notes off to the side, highlighting important aspects, asking questions, and etcetera). I will give a presentation on how to annotate early in the logic stage of the Trivium, so don’t worry if you don’t quite know what annotating means. Once you have read and annotated the article, you will have to write me a 7-sentence summary of the article. These sentences have to be complex sentences and you must view the person reading this as having no knowledge of the article whatsoever. Therefore, your goal is to inform the reader as much as you can.

Additionally, you will need to write me a 7-sentence analysis of the article using complex sentences as well. Questions that you could/should answer within the analysis include the following:

1. Does the author setup the article in a well-thought out manner?
2. Does the author use any rhetorical devices to persuade/inform you? Was it well done?
3. Do specific words contain a “charged nature”?
4. Is the author’s point of view unbiased?
5. Does the author use enough supporting details to inform the audience?

Please note that the above are only some of the questions you can answer, so if you have other questions that you want to address that is fine with me. Also, bring in a quote from the article to prove your point(s). Remember you can pick articles that are of your interest, not what you think I will think is interesting. This assignment will help us meet our nonfiction standards for the year. ☺ Articles of the week cannot be made up and they are due every Friday.

Rubric

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment Area</th>
<th>Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Summary:</strong> The student has created a well thought out and illustrative summary of the article. The student has left no holes that would cause confusion for a reader who has not read the article. Also, the summary is 7 sentences in length.</td>
<td>10…9…8…7…6…5…4…3…2…1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Analysis:</strong> The analysis is 7 sentences in length and has answered some of the questions set forth in this assignment sheet. Additionally, the student has given thought to their analysis and how the article works rhetorically. Student has also brought in an example from the article to prove their point(s).</td>
<td>10…9…8…7…6…5…4…3…2…1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Also, two of your articles and your summary/analysis will be used for analysis within my study. Ideally, one will be from early on in the 12 weeks and one will be from later in the 12 weeks.*
APPENDIX C

Rhetorical Principles Usage
For the last stage of the Trivium, you’re going to complete a weekly assignment that asks you to write your own original argument that utilizes a rhetorical principle of your choice. This original writing can use rhetorical principles, logical fallacies, and etc. Some of the principles you may use include the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Anecdote</th>
<th>Perspective</th>
<th>Contradiction</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Apostrophe</td>
<td>Oxymoron</td>
<td>Allusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syllogism</td>
<td>Satire</td>
<td>Bildungsroman</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chiasmus</td>
<td>Litote</td>
<td>Allegory</td>
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<tr>
<td>Anadiplosis</td>
<td>Imagery</td>
<td>Alliteration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*You are not limited to using the terms listed above, so look to your notes for more terms to use.

Nevertheless, you are to write this original argument, which should be at least 7-sentences in length, and then you’re to write a 5-sentence explanation describing to me how you used this principle and whether or not you believe you used it effectively. You could also answer whether or not you believe it is an effective principle to use. Within your argument, please highlight or underline the rhetorical principle you used. As with the other weekly assignments, they are worth 20 points, cannot be made up, and they are due every Friday. **Also, do not use the same principle more than once.**

Rubric

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment Area</th>
<th>Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Argument</strong>: The student has created an original argument that illustrates the use of a rhetorical principle.</td>
<td>5…4…3…2…1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Correct Use</strong>: The student has used the rhetorical principle correctly and has underlined its usage.</td>
<td>5…4…3…2…1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reflection</strong>: Student has reflected on the usage of the principle within their example and has given an insight into whether or not it was effective.</td>
<td>5…4…3…2…1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Requirements</strong>: Student has met all requirements of the assignment including the use of correct grammar, punctuation, and spelling.</td>
<td>5…4…3…2…1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Standards Met: W.9-10.1 *(Text Types and Purposes), W. 9-10.4-5 (Production and Distribution of Writing), L.9-10.1-2 (Conventions of Standard English), L. 9-10.3 (Knowledge of Language), and L.9-10.5 (Vocabulary Acquisition and Use).*
APPENDIX D

Grammar’s Importance in Society

Ask yourself the following question: “Why is correct grammar important in today’s society?” The reasons are numerous because language is the method in which we understand each other; therefore, you and two to three of your classmates will create a project illuminating grammar’s importance to society. Essentially, you will want to find examples of how grammar has been misused within the public domain today and what this does to the person who is using incorrect grammar. You may choose an issue that an employer had with an employee’s grammar usage. Or, you may pick a personal example of where someone has misused grammar within a social media website (i.e. Twitter, Facebook, and etc.) and how it caused issues. Consequently, ask yourself, “How do people look at people who do not use correct grammar, spelling, punctuation, and etcetera?” Bring in specific examples if you want, but make sure you’re analyzing the importance of grammar.

Next, you will have to put together a presentation via PowerPoint, iMovie, Keynote, or some other presentation format to illustrate your example of grammar being misused and your analysis of grammar’s importance. Be creative with how you’re putting this presentation together. You could create a news show with breaking news. You could reenact an interview with a prospective employee and the employer. The methods are numerous. After putting it together and presenting it, you will then have to teach, yes teach, the class a grammatical principle that you find important within today’s society. You will have to teach us the concept and will then have to develop an activity that gets the class moving and engaged with the lesson. Ideally, there will be two presentations per day.

After working through your presentation and analysis of why grammar is important, you and your group are to create a three-page essay together on the importance of grammar. Make sure this essay illuminates specific issues with grammar usage, what it does to an individual’s character if they misuse grammatical principles, and how we, as a society, can try and tackle the rampant misuse of grammar. Essentially, show the issue with grammar misuse, bring in specific examples, illuminate how we can remedy the issue, and why it is important to remedy this issue. Last, but not least, each student is to create an individual one-page essay on what each group member did to contribute to the group. You can also use this as a springboard to show that some group members did not do their fair share. Overall, this is used to show me who did the work and who did not.

Consequently, there will be four sections to this project:

1. Presentation on why grammar is important
2. The actual teaching needs to be accompanied by an engaging activity
3. A group essay on why grammar is such an issue within society and what we need to do to correct this issue. You should be pulling information from the presentation and sources to prove your points
4. An individual essay outlining the roles each person played within the group, which should be one page, double-spaced in length

*All written products are required to be in MLA format, use proper grammar, spelling, and punctuation, and in 12-point Times New Roman Font*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CCSS</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L. 9-10.1-3, 6 SL. 9-10.4-6 (Conventions of Standard English, Knowledge of Language, Vocabulary Acquisition and Use) (Presentation of Knowledge and Ideas)</td>
<td>Presentation 1: Overall Presentation</td>
<td>A well-rehearsed presentation was given, and the audience’s attention was kept throughout.</td>
<td>The presentation was well done, but there were minor issues with stumbling, pauses, and unclear ideas.</td>
<td>The presentation was not well rehearsed. The audience’s attention was lost.</td>
<td>The presentation was not rehearsed and there were too many errors for the audience to follow. Students were not prepared.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. 9-10.1-3, 6 SL. 9-10.4-6 (Conventions of Standard English, Knowledge of Language, Vocabulary Acquisition and Use) (Presentation of Knowledge and Ideas)</td>
<td>Presentation 2: Content</td>
<td>Covers topic in-depth with details and examples. Subject knowledge is excellent.</td>
<td>Includes essential knowledge about the topic. Subject knowledge appears to be good.</td>
<td>Includes essential information about the topic but there are 1-2 factual errors.</td>
<td>Content is minimal OR there are several factual errors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. 9-10.1-3, 6 SL. 9-10.4-6 (Conventions of Standard English, Knowledge of Language, Vocabulary Acquisition and Use) (Presentation of Knowledge and Ideas)</td>
<td>Presentation 3: Originality</td>
<td>Product shows a large amount of original thought. Ideas are creative and inventive.</td>
<td>Product shows some original thought. Work shows new ideas and insights.</td>
<td>Uses other people’s ideas (giving them credit), but there is little evidence of original thinking.</td>
<td>Uses other people’s ideas, but does not give them credit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. 9-10.1-3, 6 SL. 9-10.4-6 (Conventions of Standard English, Knowledge of Language, Vocabulary Acquisition and Use) (Presentation of Knowledge and Ideas)</td>
<td>Teaching Grammar 1: Overall Teaching</td>
<td>Well-rehearsed with smooth delivery that holds audience attention.</td>
<td>Rehearsed with fairly smooth delivery that holds audience attention most of the time.</td>
<td>Delivery not smooth, but able to maintain interest of the audience most of the time.</td>
<td>Delivery not smooth and audience attention often lost.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. 9-10.1-3, 6 SL. 9-10.4-6 (Conventions of Standard English, Knowledge of Language, Vocabulary Acquisition and Use) (Presentation of Knowledge and Ideas)</td>
<td>Teaching Grammar 2: Content</td>
<td>Covers topic in-depth with details and examples. Subject knowledge is excellent.</td>
<td>Includes essential knowledge about the topic. Subject knowledge appears to be good.</td>
<td>Includes essential information about the topic but there are 1-2 factual errors.</td>
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<td>Teaching Grammar 3: Originality</td>
<td>Product shows a large amount of original thought. Ideas are creative and inventive.</td>
<td>Product shows some original thought. Work shows new ideas and insights.</td>
<td>Uses other people’s ideas (giving them credit), but there is little evidence of original thinking.</td>
<td>Uses other people’s ideas, but does not give them credit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. 9-10.1-3, 6 SL. 9-10.4-6 (Conventions of Standard English, Knowledge of Language, Vocabulary Acquisition and Use) (Presentation of Knowledge and Ideas)</td>
<td>Teaching Grammar Activity</td>
<td>Activity gives students an ample amount of exercises to complete that are challenging. The activity is also original and comes with an answer key.</td>
<td>Activity gives students an ample amount of exercises and challenging, but it is not original. The activity does come with an answer key.</td>
<td>Activity gives students some practice with grammar, but it is not challenging and/or original. There is no answer key provided.</td>
<td>Activity is basic and provides no originality, challenge, and does not come with an answer key. No effort was put into creating the activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventions of Standard English, Knowledge of Language, Vocabulary Acquisition and Use</td>
<td>Written Essay 1: Content</td>
<td>Covers topic in-depth with details and examples. Subject knowledge is excellent.</td>
<td>Includes essential knowledge about the topic. Subject knowledge appears to be good.</td>
<td>Includes essential information about the topic but there are 1-2 factual errors.</td>
<td>Content is minimal OR there are several factual errors.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Written Essay 2: Mechanics</td>
<td>No misspellings or grammatical errors.</td>
<td>Three or fewer misspellings and/or mechanical errors.</td>
<td>Four misspellings and/or grammatical errors.</td>
<td>More than 4 errors in spelling or grammar.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written Essay 3: Sources</td>
<td>Source information collected for all graphics, facts and quotes. All documented in desired format.</td>
<td>Source information collected for all graphics, facts and quotes. Most documented in desired format.</td>
<td>Source information collected for graphics, facts and quotes, but not documented in desired format.</td>
<td>Very little or no source information was collected.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written Essay 4: Organization</td>
<td>Content is well organized using headings or bulleted lists to group related material.</td>
<td>Uses headings or bulleted lists to organize, but the overall organization of topics appears flawed.</td>
<td>Content is logically organized for the most part.</td>
<td>There was no clear or logical organizational structure, just lots of facts.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All requirements were met for all three of the previous sections.</td>
<td>All requirements but one were met for the previous three sections.</td>
<td>Two to three requirements were not met.</td>
<td>Four or more requirements were not met.</td>
<td>---</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>The workload is divided and shared equally by all team members.</td>
<td>The workload is divided and shared fairly by all team members, though workloads may vary from person to person.</td>
<td>The workload was divided, but one person in the group is viewed as not doing his/her fair share of the work.</td>
<td>The workload was not divided OR several people in the group are viewed as not doing their fair share of the work.</td>
<td>---</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX E

Logic Analysis Essay

For this final analysis assignment, you’re to find a speech or a piece of writing that you find intriguing, disgraceful, or mediocre. After finding your text, you’re to critically analyze this text using the classical rhetoricians’ beliefs on what makes a good writer/speaker, classical rhetorical terms along with their Latin equivalent, and your own knowledge of what makes a piece ineffective or effective. Essentially, you’re analyzing this essay to see whether or not it is effective according to classical rhetoricians’ beliefs and terminology. You’re to bring in exact terms to describe the speaker/writer’s effectiveness and its impact on the audience (i.e. you). You need to show me that you understand the terms, so picking out a piece of the text and explaining how this term relates is pivotal. All of the terms you need and “The Envoys Plead with Achilles” and “Socrates’ Apology” sample analyses are located in the Classical Rhetoric for the Modern Student textbook.

The follow are the necessities of this assignment:

Technical Details:
1. Two to three pages
2. Double-spaced
3. 12 pt. Times New Roman font
4. 1” margins
5. Utilizes MLA format
6. Typical essay format is need (Intro, Thesis, Body, and Conclusion)

Content Details:
7. Use the SOAPSTone rhetorical analysis method
8. Bring in precise terms and explain how they are effective
9. Discuss the issues of ethos, logos, and pathos
10. Discuss how the speaker persuades, informs, or entertains the audience
APPENDIX F

Rhetoric and Literary Criticism: An Original Argument Essay

We have studied grammar, logic, and now rhetoric, so it is time that you show what you have learned and apply it in your own original argument. For this assignment, you are going to find a piece of classical literature that you enjoy, dislike, or think is mediocre. After selecting your text, you are to analyze this piece of literature in relation to a type of literary criticism (see notes from class). Once you have your text and your type of literary criticism, you will have to research articles that back up your point via library research.

For your library research, you’re to find four articles that deal with your text and/or type of criticism. The sources will then need to be read and analyzed in relation to your type of literary criticism and you will then have to concoct an original argument about this piece of literature. The argument can range from a main character serving as an archetype to an important theme that is continually brought up through symbolism. Or, you may look at the piece of literature as an example of a literary or rhetorical principle (see notes for the entire year). The choice is up to you! Make it fun and exciting.

Your paper is going to be a formal argumentative research paper, which will require proper MLA formatting, citing, mechanics usage, and language development. I expect to see well-developed paragraphs, higher level vocabulary, melding of source information and your opinion, and well thought out ideas that leave no room for questions. This paper is the culmination of your studies in classical education; therefore, the paper is going to have to be 5 pages in length (not counting the works cited) with a works cited page. Additionally, it is to be in 12-point Times New Roman font and in proper MLA documentation. We will have some rough draft days so that you’re able to receive feedback from peers and myself, but a majority of the work will need to be on your own. Remember to push yourself and to use the rhetorical principles (i.e. metaphor, simile, ethos, logos, pathos, etc.) in your analysis/argument.

Once you have the paper finished, you are going to have to put together a presentation that asks you to share your original argument in an official presentation, which requires that you have a visual aid, eloquently describe your point, dressed professionally, and have some sort of guide for the audience to follow you through the presentation. For example, you could give the audience a set of fill-in the blank notes or an outline of your presentation. Nevertheless, you will need a presentation that describes your original argument and since this is the final stage of rhetoric, this presentation must be well put together and you must speak eloquently along with the use of vocal variation and movement. This is it, so show me what you know and what you’re capable of completing. Also, don’t forget to utilize the principles that have been given to you throughout the entire year by classical authors such as Plato. The overall goal of this project is to put you above all other sophomores and to gain the knowledge necessary to succeed in future high school classes as well as in college.
**APPENDIX G**

**Grammar, Logic, and Rhetoric Pretest and Posttest**

**Stage One: Grammar**

For the following grammar terms/concepts, please match the term/concept with its corresponding letter. Make sure your answers appear in all capital letters.

1. _____Verb
   A. The word to followed by the verb
2. _____Verb Phrase
   B. Take direct objects
3. _____Direct Object
   C. Indicates a completed action
4. _____Indirect Object
   D. Refers to the time of the action or state of being
5. _____Noun
   E. Names any one of a class of persons, places, or things
6. _____Common Noun
   F. The person or thing to which or for which the action is done
7. _____Compound Noun
   G. Expresses action or a state of being
8. _____Collective Noun
   H. A main verb plus one or more helping verbs
9. _____Infinitive Form
   I. A noun made of two or more words
10. _____Past Participle
    J. Receives the action of the verb and names who or what was acted upon
11. _____Tense
    K. Link the subject with a noun or pronoun which follows the verb
12. _____Action Verbs
    L. A word that names a person, place, thing, idea, quality, or action.
13. _____State-of-being Verbs
    M. Names a group of people, places, or things of the same kind

14. Please write the definition of a pronoun below:

   A pronoun must agree with its ______________________________.
16. Please list and give an example of the five types of pronouns:

17. Please list and give at least one example of the three types of personal pronouns:

18. What function does an adjective serve?

19. What function does an adverb serve?

20. What function does a preposition serve?

For the following sentences, please fix the incorrect punctuation and circling what you’ve changed. If it is correct, please mark it correct:

21. The following three subjects are the subjects that you will have to learn, grammar, logic, and rhetoric.

22. I fell in the river yesterday, today I tripped on the carpet and broke my arm.

23. Before I went to bed last night; I forgot to shut the oven off and when I woke up the oven was in flames.

24. When are we going to leave for the movies.
25. My only sister’s boyfriend decided it would be okay to surprise her with daffodils; however, my sister hates daffodils because she is allergic, so he was the one that received a surprise.

26. The following are the three goals that every effective student should encompass: good attitude, organization, and a willingness to succeed.

27. My brother Jacob was Mr. Sherman’s favorite student.

28. Milk eggs and butter are the three items at the top of my grocery list.

29. Jonathan went to the nurses office yesterday and was diagnosed with a bad attitude.

30. Megan told Kelsey, you’re not a good person when you think that *Pride and Prejudice* is better than *Northanger Abbey*.

**Stage Two: Logic**

31. What does deductive reasoning mean?

32. Give me an example of deductive reasoning?

33. List the five steps of the writing process:

34. Please describe each step of the writing process:
For the following terms, please match the term with its correct definition. Capitalize answers.

**Section 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>35. Anecdote</td>
<td>A figure of speech in which a person, thing, or abstract quality is addressed if present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Perspective</td>
<td>A satirical imitation of a work of art for the purpose of ridiculing its style or subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. Aphorism</td>
<td>A figure of speech which makes brief, even casual reference to a historical or literary figure, event, or object to create a resonance in the reader or to apply a symbolic meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Contradiction</td>
<td>A person or thing that makes another seem better by contrast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. Apostrophe</td>
<td>A piece of literature contained in or carried on by letters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. Oxymoron</td>
<td>A brief story or tale told by a character in a piece of literature</td>
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<tr>
<td>41. Allusion</td>
<td>A form of deduction. An extremely subtle, sophisticated, or deception argument</td>
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<tr>
<td>42. Syllogism</td>
<td>A piece of writing in praise of a dead person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. Satire</td>
<td>A sharp caustic remark. A form of verbal irony in which apparent praise is actually bitterly or harshly critical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. Bildungsroman</td>
<td>A novel or story whose theme is the moral or psychological growth of the main character</td>
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<tr>
<td>45. Foil</td>
<td>A speech or writing in praise of a person or thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. Epistolary</td>
<td>A concise statement designed to make a point or illustrate a commonly held belief</td>
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<tr>
<td>47. Epitaph</td>
<td>A word capturing the sound of what it describes</td>
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<tr>
<td>48. Parody</td>
<td>A direct opposition between things compared</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49. Sarcasm</td>
<td>A sudden or intuitive insight or perception into the reality or essential meaning of something</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50. Irony</td>
<td>A literary style used to make fun of or ridicule an idea or human vice or weakness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51. Eulogy</td>
<td>A situation or statement characterized by significant difference between what is expected or understood and what actually happens or is meant</td>
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<tr>
<td>52. Paradox</td>
<td>A statement that seems contradictory, but is actually true</td>
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<tr>
<td>53. Epiphany</td>
<td>A figure of speech that combines two apparently contradictory elements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54. Onomatopoeia</td>
<td>An author’s choice of words to convey a tone or effect</td>
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<tr>
<td>55. Diction</td>
<td>A character’s view of the situation or events in the story</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Section 2:

56. _____Utopia A. An overstatement characterized by exaggerated language
57. _____Hyperbole B. Desire to return in thought or fact to a former time
58. _____Antagonist C. Conclusion or type of reasoning whereby observation or information about a part of a class is applies to the class as a whole
59. _____Analogy D. The focus statement of an essay
60. _____Inductive E. Character or force in a literary work that opposes the main character
61. _____Nostalgia F. A comparison of two things that are alike in some respects
62. _____Chiasmus G. An imaginary place of ideal perfection
63. _____Thesis H. Figure of speech by which the order of the terms in the first of parallel clauses is reversed in the second
64. _____Litote I. The moral element that determines a character’s actions
65. _____Doppelganger J. Not related to concrete properties of an object
66. _____Zeugma K. Information or rumor deliberately spread to help or harm a person, group, or institution
67. _____Ethos L. Narrative form in which characters and actions have meaning outside themselves
68. _____Propaganda M. Grammatically correct linkage of one subject with two or more verbs or a verb with two or more direct objects
69. _____Didactic N. Opening a story in the middle of the action, requiring filling in past details by exposition
70. _____Allegory O. Form of understatement in which the negative of the contrary is used to achieve emphasis and intensity
71. _____Abstract P. Intended for teaching or to teach a moral lesson
72. _____In medias res Q. Ordinary language; the vernacular
73. _____Colloquial R. Parallel structure in which the parallel elements are similar not only in grammatical structure, but also in length
74. _____Isocolon S. Ghostly counterpart of a living person or an alter ego
75. _____Aesthetic T. Placing of two items side by side to create a certain effect, reveal an attitude, or accomplish some other purpose
76. _____Juxtaposition U. Poem or prose lamenting the death of a particular person
77. _____Elegy V. Pertaining to the value of art for its own sake or for form
### Section 3:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>78. _____ Antihero</td>
<td>A. Recurrent device, formula, or situation that often serves as a signal for the appearance of a character or event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>79. _____ Catharsis</td>
<td>B. Repetition of the last word of one clause at the beginning of the next clause</td>
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<td>80. _____ Epigraph</td>
<td>C. Rhetorical argument in which the speaker either claims to be an expert or relies on information provided by experts, attempts to affect the listener’s personal feelings, or attempts to persuade the listener through use of deductive reasoning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81. _____ Motif</td>
<td>D. Purification or cleansing of the spirit through the emotions of pity and terror as a witness to a tragedy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82. _____ Parallelism</td>
<td>E. Regular repetition of the same word or phrase at the beginning of successive phrases or clauses</td>
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<tr>
<td>83. _____ Anaphora</td>
<td>F. Sensory details in a work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>84. _____ Anadiplosis</td>
<td>G. The chief character in a work of literature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85. _____ Appeals to authority, emotion, and logic</td>
<td>H. Quote set at the beginning of a literary work or at its division to set the tone or suggest a theme</td>
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<tr>
<td>86. _____ Imagery</td>
<td>I. The dictionary definition of a word</td>
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<tr>
<td>87. _____ Euphemism</td>
<td>J. Protagonist of a literary work who does not embody the traditional qualities of a hero</td>
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<tr>
<td>88. _____ Genre</td>
<td>K. Substitution of a milder or less direct expression for that is harsh or blunt</td>
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<tr>
<td>89. _____ Voice</td>
<td>L. The feeling or ambiance resulting from the tone of a piece</td>
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<tr>
<td>90. _____ Tone</td>
<td>M. Term used to describe literary forms, such as tragedy, comedy, novel, or essay</td>
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<tr>
<td>91. _____ Theme</td>
<td>N. The ordinary of form of written language without metrical structure, as distinguished from poetry or verse</td>
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<td>92. _____ Protagonist</td>
<td>O. The attitude a literary work takes towards its subject and theme</td>
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<td>93. _____ Denotation</td>
<td>P. Recurrent syntactical similarity where several parts of a sentence or several sentences are expressed alike to show that the ideas in the parts or sentences equal in importance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>94. _____ Mood</td>
<td>Q. The literary practice of attempting to describe life and nature without idealization and with attention to detail</td>
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<tr>
<td>95. _____ Realism</td>
<td>R. The acknowledged or unacknowledged source of words of the story</td>
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<td>96. _____ Prose</td>
<td>S. The central or dominant idea or concern of a work</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Section 4:

97. ______Audience  A. The view the reader gets of the action and characters in a story
98. ______Asyndeton   B. The use of angry and insulting language in satirical writing
99. ______Deductive  C. The voice or figure of the author who tells and structures the story and who may or may not share the values of the actual author
100. ______Assonance  D. The practice of omitting conjunctions between words, phrases, or clauses
101. ______Alliteration  E. To sidestep or evade the real problem
102. ______Consonance  F. The works of an author that have been accepted as authentic
103. ______Invective  G. Treating an abstraction or nonhuman objects as if it were a person by giving it human qualities
104. ______Point of View  H. The repetition of two or more consonants with a change in the intervening vowels, such as pitter-patter
105. ______Persona  I. To hint at or present things to come in a story or play
106. ______Syntax  J. The repetition of identical or similar vowel sounds, usually in successive or proximate words
107. ______Canon  K. What is implied by a word
108. ______Foreshadow  L. The person(s) reached by a piece of writing
109. ______Begging the question  M. Use of language in which multiple meanings are possible
110. ______Personification  N. The way words are put together to form phrases, clauses, and sentences
111. ______Anachronism  O. Words and devices that bring unity and coherence to a piece of writing
112. ______Ambiguity  P. The reasoning process by which a conclusion is drawn from set of premises and contains no more acts than these premises
113. ______Connotation  Q. The repetition of initial consonant sounds or any vowel sounds within a formal grouping, such as a poetic line or stanza, or in close proximity in prose
114. ______Transition Words  R. Use of historically inaccurate details in a text
Stage Three: Rhetoric

Please fill out the rhetorical triangle with the appropriate terms:
Rhetorical Analysis:

Your last part of this test is to write a rhetorical analysis of Maria Stewart’s “Lecture Delivered at the Franklin Hall.” When completing a rhetorical analysis essay, you’re to look at the text and analyze the feature that Maria Stewart used in the speech, so make sure you use rhetorical terms by their exact names and illustrate their effect on the audience through the ideas of ethos, logos, and pathos. Remember that your goal is to show me how Stewart utilizes various rhetorical techniques to persuade, inform, or entertain her audience. Essentially, discuss the speech and its rhetorical effectiveness on the audience.

Additionally, please make sure that you’re meeting the following standards:
1. Use essay structure
2. Point to specific pieces of evidence
3. Have a thesis
4. Cite all information according to MLA standards
5. Utilize the rubric that has been attach to determine how you will be graded
# Rhetorical Analysis Essay Rubric (Major Logic Project and Pretest and Posttest)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>100-90</th>
<th>89-80</th>
<th>79-70</th>
<th>69-60</th>
<th>60-</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thesis/Claim</td>
<td>10-9 Excellent and well executed thesis</td>
<td>8—Good thesis, but more development needed</td>
<td>7—Fair thesis/thesis is not fully proven in the essay</td>
<td>6—Neither the explicit or implicit thesis are clear or prove/the thesis is not analytical</td>
<td>5 or lower—No thesis</td>
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<tr>
<td>Evidence Utilized</td>
<td>10-9 Excellent choice of evidence employed</td>
<td>8—Good use of evidence, but stronger evidence is needed in spots/additional backing is needed</td>
<td>7—There is an overuse or underuse of evidence/some of the evidence is inappropriate</td>
<td>6—There is little use of evidence/an overabundance of evidence/the evidence is not related to claim</td>
<td>5 or lower—no evidence is used</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding of the Appeals</td>
<td>5-4.5 Excellent demonstration of the persuasive appeals and rhetorical strategies</td>
<td>4—Demonstration of strong appeals strategies and use of evidence; however, some interpretation and explanations need to be developed and/or expanded</td>
<td>3.5—Fair demonstration of appeals, but tends to focus on the basics</td>
<td>3—Weak demonstration of the appeals or misinterpretation of the appeals/rhetorical strategies</td>
<td>2.5 or lower—There is no demonstration or understanding of the appeals/rhetorical strategies</td>
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<tr>
<td>Analysis (50%)</td>
<td>20-18 Excellent discussion of appeals and the corresponding literary/rhetorical elements and strategies and use of evidence. A smooth connection exist between the appeals, devices, and the author’s thesis</td>
<td>16—Good discussion of appeals, devices, and author’s thesis; however, some interpretations and explanation need to be more developed/expanded</td>
<td>14—The discussion of the appeals, devices, and author’s thesis is fair, but it needs to be more fully developed/there is too much reliance on summary/there is a misinterpretation of evidence/the interpretation of evidence needs to be clearer</td>
<td>12—There is little exposition exploring the connection of the evidence, devices, and author’s thesis. The evidence is misinterpreted or there is no interpretation of the evidence</td>
<td>10 or lower—There is no analysis of the appeals, devices, or author’s thesis. There is no evidence</td>
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<tr>
<td>Essay Structure</td>
<td>10-9 Excellent balance between the introduction, summary, body, and conclusion</td>
<td>8—All components of an essay are present; however, there is an imbalance between 1 or 2 paragraphs</td>
<td>7—All components are present; however, there is an imbalance between 3-4 paragraphs</td>
<td>6—1-2 components of the essay structure are missing</td>
<td>5 or lower--More than half of the essay components are missing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Paragraph Transitions</td>
<td>5—Excellent use of transitions throughout the essay</td>
<td>4—Good transition throughout, but some transitions need to be smoother</td>
<td>3.5—Fair transition between paragraphs, but 3-4 are rough</td>
<td>3—There is little transitioning between paragraphs</td>
<td>2.5 or lower—There is no transition between paragraphs</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Internal Paragraph Flow</td>
<td>10-9 Excellent internal paragraph flow/strong use of transitional phrasing/superior logic flow</td>
<td>8—Good paragraph flow overall; however, 1-2 paragraphs have some awkward phrasing and/or logic</td>
<td>7—Fair paragraph flow overall; however, 2-3 paragraphs have some awkward or repetitive phrasing and/or logic</td>
<td>6—More than half of the paragraphs contain little clarity or connectivity</td>
<td>5 or lower—Paragraphs maintain little to no clarity overall</td>
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<tr>
<td>Style (10%)</td>
<td>Voice/Originality</td>
<td>Mechanics (15%)</td>
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<td>10-9—Excellent tone and voice/original style/superior word choice</td>
<td>10—Good overall tone, though some phrases and words are repeated/there are some informal tone usages/some paragraphs contain a flat voice</td>
<td>20-18 Near perfect grammar, sentence structure, and use of MLA</td>
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<tr>
<td>8—There are repetitive phrases or words/informal tone is used/and the voice is flat or offensive/or elements are bias</td>
<td>7—There are repetitive phrases or words/informal tone throughout/strong moments of bias and/or offensive language. Grammar and syntax compromises tone</td>
<td>16—There are minor errors in grammar/syntax and/or documentation</td>
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<tr>
<td>6—There are excessive errors throughout and they compromise clarity</td>
<td>5 or lower—The tone is repetitive, informal, inappropriate, biased, flat and/or offensive</td>
<td>14—There are several consistent errors in grammar/syntax (usually 8-15)</td>
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<td>4 or lower—The tone is repetitive, informal, inappropriate, biased, flat and/or offensive</td>
<td>12—There are excessive errors (15-20 errors)</td>
<td>10 or lower—There are excessive errors throughout and they compromise clarity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Areas to improve

**Grammar & Syntax:** punctuation usage and identification of independent and dependent clauses (fragments, run-on sentences, comma splices, conjunctive adverbs, coordinating conjunctions, semi-colons and/or colons), missing words, missing articles, incorrect verb tenses, verb-subject agreement, possessives, pronoun-antecedent, homonyms, capitalization, spelling, transitional phrasing.

**MLA Conventions:** heading, paper format, internal citation (commas, quotations, parenthesis), block quoting.
APPENDIX H

Pre-Questionnaire

Please fill out your answers to the questions to the best of your ability. Make sure you’re using complete sentences and explaining yourself thoroughly. I appreciate you taking the time to fill out this survey for my master’s thesis.

1. To you, what is the difference between a classical education and a modern education? Or, is there a difference?

2. Do you think a classical education is harder to complete than a modern education? Were classical education students smarter than modern students? If so, in what ways? If not, why?

3. Do you like classical literature such as The Odyssey, The Iliad, and Greek/Roman Mythology? Why?

4. Do you think that learning how to think is taught in schools today? Why or why not?

5. What do you see are the issues with the current educational system in America today? Please be specific.
APPENDIX I

Post Questionnaire

Please fill out these questions with thoughtful answers and be as specific as you can be by bringing in examples. Again, thank you for helping me complete my study.

1. Now that you have completed a classical education, how do you feel this was different than any other education you have received? Was it beneficial? If so, why? If not, why?

2. If you were taught in this manner throughout your schooling, do you feel that you would be more prepared to step out into the workforce? If so, why? If not, why?

3. Do you now see the benefits in reading classical literature such as *The Odyssey*? Has your opinion on classical literature changed since the start of this year? If not, why? If so, why?

4. Can the issues of incorrect grammar usage, spelling, punctuation, and etcetera be corrected if everyone were to receive a classical education? Why or why not?

5. Finally, is a classical education or a modern education better according to you? Why?

6. If you have any last comments, please write them down here or on the back:
## APPENDIX J

### AP Rhetorical Devices List

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Device</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anecdote</td>
<td>A brief story or tale told by a character in a piece of literature</td>
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<tr>
<td>Perspective</td>
<td>A character's view of the situation or events in the story</td>
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<tr>
<td>Aphorism</td>
<td>A concise statement designed to make a point or illustrate a commonly held belief. The writings of Benjamin Franklin contain many aphorisms, such as &quot;Early to bed and early to rise/Make a man healthy, wealthy, and wise.&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>Contradiction</td>
<td>A direct opposition between things compared; inconsistency</td>
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<tr>
<td>Apostrophe</td>
<td>A figure of speech in which a person, thing, or abstract quality is addressed as if present; for example, the invocation to the muses usually found in epic poetry.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Oxymoron</td>
<td>A figure of speech that combines two apparently contradictory elements, as in &quot;jumbo shrimp&quot; or &quot;deafening silence.&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>Allusion</td>
<td>—A figure of speech which makes brief, even casual reference to a historical or literary figure, event, or object to create a resonance in the reader or to apply a symbolic meaning to the character or object of which the allusion consists. For example, in John Steinbeck's Of Mice and Men, the surname of the protagonist, George Milton, is an allusion to John Milton, author of Paradise Lost, since by the end of the novel, George has lost the dream of having a little ranch of his own to share with his friend Lennie.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Syllogism</td>
<td>A form of deduction. An extremely subtle, sophisticated, or deceptive argument</td>
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<tr>
<td>Satire</td>
<td>A literary style used to make fun of or ridicule an idea or human vice or weakness</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bildungsroman</td>
<td>A novel or story whose theme is the moral or psychological growth of the main character.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Devices</td>
<td>A particular word pattern or combination of words used in a literary work to evoke a desired effect or arouse a desired reaction in the reader</td>
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<tr>
<td>Foil</td>
<td>A person or thing that makes another seem better by contrast</td>
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<tr>
<td>Epistolary</td>
<td>A piece of literature contained in or carried on by letters</td>
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<tr>
<td>Epitaph</td>
<td>A piece of writing in praise of a deceased person</td>
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<tr>
<td>Parody</td>
<td>A satirical imitation of a work of art for purpose of ridiculing its style or subject.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Delayed</td>
<td>A sentence that withholds its main idea until the end. For example: Just as he bent to tie his shoe, a car hit him.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sarcasm</td>
<td>A sharp caustic remark. A form of verbal irony in which apparent praise is actually bitterly or harshly critical. For example, a coach saying to a player who misses the ball, &quot;Nice catch.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expletive</td>
<td>A single word or short phrase intended to emphasize surrounding words. Commonly, expletives are set off by commas. Examples: in fact, of course, after all, certainly</td>
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</table>
Irony
A situation or statement characterized by significant difference between what is expected or understood and what actually happens or is meant. Irony is frequently humorous, and can be sarcastic when using words to imply the opposite of what they normally mean.

Eulogy
A speech or writing in praise of a person or thing; an oration in honor of a deceased person.

Paradox
A statement that seems contradictory, but is actually true.

Epiphany
A sudden or intuitive insight or perception into the reality or essential meaning of something usually brought on by a simple or common occurrence or experience.

Onomatopoeia
A word capturing or approximating the sound of what it describes, such as buzz or hiss.

Diction
An author's choice of words to convey a tone or effect.

Utopia
An imaginary place of ideal perfection. The opposite of a dystopia. —An imaginary place where people live dehumanized, often fearful lives.

Hyperbole
An overstatement characterized by exaggerated language.

Deus ex machina
As in Greek theater, use of an artificial device or contrived solution to solve a difficult situation, usually introduced suddenly and unexpectedly.

Antagonist
Character or force in a literary work that opposes the main character, or protagonist.

Analogy
Comparison of two things that are alike in some respects. Metaphors and similes are both types of analogy.

Inductive
Conclusion or type of reasoning whereby observation or information about a part of a class is applied to the class as a whole. Contrast with deductive.

Nostalgia
Desire to return in thought or fact to a former time.

Chiasmus
Figure of speech by which the order of the terms in the first of parallel clauses is reversed in the second. “Has the Church failed mankind, or has mankind failed the Church?”—T. S. Eliot.

Thesis
Focus statement of an essay; premise statement upon which the point of view or discussion in the essay is based. Antithesis—The juxtaposition of sharply contrasting ideas in balanced or parallel words or phrases.

Litote
Form of understatement in which the negative of the contrary is used to achieve emphasis and intensity. For example, "She is not a bad cook." Or "No man ever followed his genius until it misled him." Thoreau

Doppelganger
Ghostly counterpart of a living person or an alter ego.

Zeugma
Grammatically correct linkage of one subject with two or more verbs or a verb with two or more direct objects. The linking shows a relationship between ideas more clearly.

Ethos
In dramatic literature, the moral element that determines a character's actions, rather than thought or emotion.

Propaganda
Information or rumor deliberately spread to help or harm a person, group, or institution.

Didactic
Intended for teaching or to teach a moral lesson.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Formal Language</strong></th>
<th>Language that is lofty, dignified, or impersonal</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Allegory</strong></td>
<td>Narrative form in which characters and actions have meanings outside themselves; characters are usually personifications of abstract qualities</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Abstract</strong></td>
<td>Not related to the concrete properties of an object; pertaining to ideas, concepts, or qualities, as opposed to physical attributes</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>In medias res</strong></td>
<td>Opening a story in the middle of the action, requiring filling in past details by exposition or flashback.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Colloquial</strong></td>
<td>Ordinary language; the vernacular. For example, depending on where in the United States you live, a sandwich is called a sub, a grinder, or a hero.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Isocolon</strong></td>
<td>Parallel structure in which the parallel elements are similar not only in grammatical structure, but also in length. For example, &quot;An envious heart makes a treacherous ear&quot; (Their Eyes Were Watching God, Zora Neale Hurston).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Aesthetic</strong></td>
<td>Pertaining to the value of art for its own sake or for form</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Juxtaposition</strong></td>
<td>Placing of two items side by side to create a certain effect, reveal an attitude, or accomplish some other purpose</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Elegy</strong></td>
<td>Poem or prose lamenting the death of a particular person. Perhaps the most famous elegy is Thomas Grey's poem, &quot;Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard.&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Antihero</strong></td>
<td>Protagonist of a literary work who does not embody the traditional qualities of a hero (e.g., honor, bravery, kindness, intelligence); for example, the protagonists created by Byron in Don Juan and Childe Harold, and the characters of Rosencrantz and Guildenstern in Tom Stoppard's Rosencrantz and Guildenstern Are Dead</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Catharsis</strong></td>
<td>Purification or cleansing of the spirit through the emotions of pity and terror as a witness to a tragedy.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Epigraph</strong></td>
<td>Quote set at the beginning of a literary work or at its divisions to set the tone or suggest a theme.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Motif</strong></td>
<td>Recurrent device, formula, or situation that often serves as a signal for the appearance of a character or event</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Parallelism</strong></td>
<td>Recurrent syntactical similarity where several parts of a sentence or several sentences are expressed alike to show that the ideas in the parts or sentences equal in importance. It also adds balance, rhythm, and clarity to the sentence. For example, &quot;I have always searched for, but never found the perfect painting for that wall.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Anaphora</strong></td>
<td>Regular repetition of the same word or phrase at the beginning of successive phrases or clauses. For example, &quot;We shall fight in the trenches. We shall fight on the oceans. We shall fight in the sky.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Anadiplosis</strong></td>
<td>Repetition of the last word of one clause at the beginning of the next clause. For example, “The crime was common, common be the pain.&quot; (Alexander Pope)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appeals to:  
- Authority: Rhetorical arguments in which the speaker either claims to be an expert or relies on information provided by experts (appeal to authority), attempts to persuade the listener through use of deductive reasoning (appeal to logic).
- Emotion: Attempts to affect the listener's personal feelings (appeal to emotion).
- Logic: Attempts to persuade the listener through use of deductive reasoning (appeal to logic).

Imagery: Sensory details in a work; the use of figurative language to evoke a feeling, call to mind an idea, or describe an object. Imagery involves any or all of the five senses.

Euphemism: Substitution of a milder or less direct expression for one that is harsh or blunt. For example, using "passed away" for "dead."

Genre: Term used to describe literary forms, such as tragedy, comedy, novel, or essay.

Voice: The acknowledged or unacknowledged source of words of the story; the speaker, a "person" telling the story or poem.

Tone: The attitude a literary work takes towards its subject and theme. It reflects the narrator's attitude.

Theme: The central or dominant idea or concern of a work; the main idea or meaning.

Protagonist: The chief character in a work of literature.

Denotation: The dictionary definition of a word; the direct and specific meaning.

Mood: The feeling or ambience resulting from the tone of a piece as well as the writer/narrator's attitude and point of view. The effect is created through descriptions of feelings or objects that establish a particular feeling such as gloom, fear, or hope.

Realism: The literary practice of attempting to describe life and nature without idealization and with attention to detail.

Prose: The ordinary form of written language without metrical structure, as distinguished from poetry or verse.

Audience: The person(s) reached by a piece of writing.

Asyndeton: The practice of omitting conjunctions between words, phrases, or clauses. In a list, it gives a more extemporaneous effect and suggests the list may be incomplete. For example, "He was brave, fearless, afraid of nothing."

Deductive: The reasoning process by which a conclusion is drawn from set of premises and contains no more facts than these premises.

Assonance: The repetition of identical or similar vowel sounds, usually in successive or proximate words.

Alliteration: The repetition of initial consonant sounds or any vowel sounds within a formal grouping, such as a poetic line or stanza, or in close proximity in prose.

Consonance: The repetition of two or more consonants with a change in the intervening vowels, such as pitter-patter, splish-splash, and click-clack.

Invective: The use of angry and insulting language in satirical writing.

Point of view: The view the reader gets of the action and characters in a story.

Persona: The voice or figure of the author who tells and structures the story and who may or may not share of the values of the actual author.
| **Syntax** | The way words are put together to form phrases, clauses, and sentences. It is sentence structure and how it influences the way a reader perceives a piece of writing. |
| **Canon** (canonical) | The works of an author that have been accepted as authentic. |
| **Foreshadow** | To hint at or present things to come in a story or play |
| **Begging the question** | To sidestep or evade the real problem. |
| **Personification** | Treating an abstraction or nonhuman object as if it were a person by giving it human qualities. |
| **Anachronism** | Use of historically inaccurate details in a text; for example, depicting a 19th-century character using a computer. Some authors employ anachronisms for humorous effect, and some genres, such as science fiction or fantasy, make extensive use of anachronism. |
| **Ambiguity** | Use of language in which multiple meanings are possible. Ambiguity can be unintentional through insufficient focus on the part of the writer; in good writing, ambiguity is frequently intentional in the form of multiple connotative meanings, or situations in which either the connotative or the denotative meaning can be valid in a reading. |
| **Connotation** | What is implied by a word. For example, the words sweet, gay, and awesome have connotations that are quite different from their actual definitions. |
| **Transitions** | Words and devices that bring unity and coherence to a piece of writing. Examples: however, in addition, and on the other hand. |