A STUDY OF ORAL LANGUAGE COMPREHENSION OF BLACK AND WHITE, MIDDLE AND LOWER CLASS, PRE-SCHOOL CHILDREN USING STANDARD ENGLISH AND BLACK DIALECT IN HOUSTON, TEXAS, 1972

A Dissertation

Presented to

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In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements of
the degree
Doctor of Education

by
Beverly J. Jones
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ABSTRACT

Beverly J. Jones. "A Study of Oral Language Comprehension of Black and White, Middle and Lower Class, Pre-School Children Using Standard English and Black Dialect in Houston, Texas, 1972." Doctoral Dissertation. The University of Houston, 1972.

Committee Chairmen: Sally A. Fechtmeyer and Thomasine Taylor

Purpose and Procedure

This study compared the oral language comprehension of standard English with the oral language comprehension of black dialect in a cross sectional sample of eighty preschool children living in the Houston area. The subjects were randomly selected from four categories: low and middle socioeconomic white and low and middle socioeconomic black, and were equally divided by age (four and five year olds), and sex.

The <u>Carrow Test for Auditory Language Comprehension</u>
was translated into local black dialect. Both the standard
English and black dialect test versions were administered on
tape to each child by two white and two black testers who
tested across subject categories. Data was analyzed by a
three way analysis of variance with repeated measures on one
factor. Each test version was checked for reliability by
the Kuder-Richardson technique and for normality of distribution and homogeneity of variance by Bartlett's test.

Additional analyses were made on subjects' socio-economic class, age and sex, as well as on group response patterns by grammatical categories within the testing instrument.

Results and Conclusions

Principal findings. The young children tested comprehended standard English and black dialect at different levels. Only three of the eighty subjects understood the two language versions equally well. There were significant differences in the levels of oral language comprehension in both standard English and black dialect when the subjects were grouped by socio-economic class, but no significant differences when language comprehension was compared by race. This indicated that social class was the major determining factor in the young child's ability to comprehend language structure.

Race, apart from class did not effect the level of performance. The combination of black dialect and standard English comprehension scores for all black subjects was identical to the combination of black dialect and standard English scores for all white subjects.

This study suggested that age was a significant factor in the oral language comprehension level of most subjects in both standard English and black dialect. When four year olds comprehended the structure of their native language well, the five year olds in the same sample comprehended the

structure of a second dialect well. At the same time, in low SES groups where four year old subjects performed at a lower level on both tests, there was moderate to no increase in the scores of five year olds. An examination of subject scores by sex indicated an atypical finding in that the mean scores of the boys, in most cases, were higher than the mean scores of the girls.

Various oral language comprehension patterns existed within the SES groups of children tested. Though performing at different levels, the middle SES black and the low SES white children were the most bi-dialectal in their comprehension. Middle SES white children comprehended standard English at a much higher level than they comprehended black dialect. Low SES black children were inconsistent in their facility to comprehend structural items within black dialect and standard English.

Dialect barriers to comprehension do exist for the young child in learning centers where the language of the teacher and that written in the materials differs from the language spoken by the child. The type and degree of dialect interference depend upon the structural similarities of the dialects in contact and the subjects' adeptness in bi-dialectal comprehension.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Communication skills are vital to the people of a verbal society. Successful verbal interchange depends upon the speaking and understanding of a common language by members of the total speech community. Yet in America, a society of ethnic, social, and economic diversities, there are accompanying language and dialect diversities. Children learn to speak the language of their social environment. The educational system, serving a diverse but verbal society, is faced with the task of teaching communication skills for a common language to students who may be speaking a language or dialect different from that spoken by the teacher and used in the teaching materials.

Large metropolitan cities contain different dialect communities. The dialect differences can be noted from black to white; native to migrant; and from low to middle and high socio-economic classes. Social isolation from the language mainstream feeds and perpetuates dialect diversity. This isolation has occurred for blacks living in the inner city. Language differences are inconsequential as long as people

¹Joyce Hertzler, <u>A Sociology of Language</u>, New York, Random House, 1965, pp. 308-312.

remain in their language community and have no need to communicate with those outside. However, people are no longer living exclusively in their native language communities, and language differences are assuming significant implications for school, economic, and social success.

The spread of nationwide integration of races across school populations causes students and teachers speaking different dialects to be in contact with one another and has given rise to concern with language diversity. Though teachers and students may be speaking different dialects, they remain dependent upon language communication skills for successful teaching and learning in the school environment. The effect of dialect diversity is magnified for the young child since he relies upon oral communication as his main channel for learning.

Most children come to the school setting already fluent in the native language or dialect which has surrounded them from birth. Acquisition of the environmental language is one of the most important tasks that a child accomplishes in his lifetime, and he does much of this by the time he reaches the age of four. He has learned this language through auditory reception and external reinforcement of his speech efforts. His random utterances become meaningful as the sounds which

¹Kornei Chukovsky, <u>From Two to Five</u>, trans. by Marian Morton, (rev. ed.), <u>Berkeley</u>, <u>California</u>, <u>University</u> of California Press, 1968, p. 11.

fit the prevailing language patterns are reinforced by those attending him. 1 He depends upon auditory reception of the spoken word for continual language input. This is his only source of language input prior to his comprehending and mastering the abstraction of the printed word. He learns to understand and to speak the unique dialect spoken in his home environment. He internalizes and adopts the communication system which serves his community. 2 This is the language that he brings to school.

The effect of language diversity becomes a focus of attention by educators as many black children, often speaking some form of black dialect, meet with failure in the standard English environment of public school curriculum. This failure has continued despite vast funding and compensatory measures employed in the past ten years.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

Language development has been of foremost concern to educators and psychologists. The development of language skills is a central focus of many preschool intervention programs. For these reasons, copious literature on the

¹M. M. Lewis, <u>Infant Speech</u>; A Study of the Beginning of <u>Language</u> (2nd rev. ed.), New York, Humanities Press, 1951, p. 383.

²Kenneth S. Goodman, "Dialect Barriers to Reading Comprehension," in Eldonna L. Everetts, ed., <u>Dimensions of Dialect</u>, Champaign, Illinois, National Council of Teachers of English, 1967, pp. 39-46.

verbal skills of young children has evolved. In a recent review of research on the language abilities of black Americans, Baratz¹ restates the two major views concerning the language performances of black children. One, frequently held by educators and psychologists, postulates that many black children are linguistically deficient. The second view, advocated by linguists and anthropologists, argues that such children use a well-formed, highly developed language system that is different from standard English. The writer of this study accepts the latter position.

The inability to produce standard American English is often equated with language deficiency. Examples are studies of Bereiter and Engelmann, Deutsch, Shaeffer, and Caldwell. All of this research involved measures that were in standard English and did not make an attempt to deal with

¹ Joan C. Baratz, "Language Abilities of Black Americans, Review of Research; 1966-1970," in Miller and Dreger, eds., Comparative Studies of Negroes and Whites in the United States, New York, Basic Books, Inc., forthcoming, p. 1.

²Carl Bereiter and Siegried Engelmann, <u>Teaching Disadvantaged Children in Preschool</u>, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, <u>Prentice Hall</u>, 1967.

Martin Deutsch, "The Role of Social Class in Language Development and Cognition," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1965, 35, pp. 24-35.

⁴Earl Shaeffer, Home Tutoring, Material Behavior and Infant Intellectual Development, APA paper, Washington, D.C., 1969.

⁵Betty Caldwell, APA paper [concerning results of Syracuse project], Washington, D.C., 1969.

dialect as a distinct language system. Linguists and anthropologists do not question the data but only the interpretation of such data as "linguistic pathology." Baratz and Baratz, Stewart, Labov, and Stroufe have instead asserted that such data merely indicates that the children tested do not know standard English.

Though linguists agree that dialect does exist, it is not known how many blacks actually speak this language.

Despite widespread disagreement concerning who is to be classified as a dialect speaker, there is considerable agreement in the description of the linguistic forms that are found to be characteristic of black dialect. Differences occur in phonology, in grammatical structure, and in vocabulary.

¹J. Baratz, "Language Abilities of Black Americans," p. 1.

²Stephen Baratz and Joan Baratz, "Negro Ghetto Children and Urban Education: A Cultural Solution," <u>Bulletin of the Minnesota Council for the Social Studies</u>, 1968, reprinted in <u>Social Education</u>, 33, 1969, pp. 401-404; and "Early Childhood Intervention: The Social Science Base of Institutional Racism," Harvard Educational Review, 40, 1970, pp. 29-50.

William A. Stewart, "Sociopolitical Issues in the Linguistic Treatment of Negro Dialect," in Alatis, ed., School of Languages and Linguistics Monograph Series, No. 22, Washington, D.C., Georgetown University, 1969, pp. 215-225.

William Labov, The Position of Negro Nonstandard English on the Past Creole Continuum. Unpublished paper, LSA, Washington, D.C., 1970.

⁵A. Stroufe, "A Methodological and Philosophical Critique of Intervention Oriented Research, Mimeo, Minneapolis, 1970.

Grammatical differences in morphology and syntax between standard English and black dialect have been summarized by Baratz, Politzer and Bartley, and Fasold and Wolfram. The language distance between two dialects could lead to differences in language comprehension.

Several studies of oral language comprehension in the black child have been made. Osser, Wang, and Zaid⁴ tested for comprehension and imitation abilities of 16 white middle and 16 black lower class five year olds. They found that the black children did less well than the white. The imitation scores were adjusted to correct for what they thought might have been the result of dialect interference. Baratz⁵ felt that the adjustments made were not comprehensive because all features of dialect were not included. The comprehension

¹Joan Baratz, "Language Development in the Economically Disadvantaged Child: A Perspective," <u>ASHA</u>, Vol. 10, 1968, pp. 143-144.

Politzer and D. Bartley, Standard English and Nonstandard Dialect: Phonology and Morphology, Research and Development Memorandum No. 46, Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, 1969.

³Ralph Fasold and Walt Wolfram, "Some Linguistic Features of Negro Dialect," in Ralph Fasold and Roger Shuy, eds., Teaching Standard English in the Inner City, Washington, D.C., Center for Applied Linguistics, 1970, pp. 41-86.

Harry Osser, Marilyn Wang and Forida Zaid, "The Young Child's Ability to Imitate and Comprehend Speech; A Comparison of Two Subcultural Groups," Child Development, Vol. 40, 1969, pp. 1063-1075.

⁵J. Baratz, "Language Abilities of Black Americans," pp. 30-31.

task was administered only in standard English so there was no possibility of correcting for dialect differences.

Stern and Gupta¹ attempted to determine if black children comprehend better in "dialect" than in standard English using the UCLA Echoic Response Inventory (ERI). The findings were distorted since the assessment of the child's ability to comprehend dialect was produced by adding non-standard phonology to standard English, disregarding grammatical differences.

Baratz² suggests that the general assumption concerning non-standard speakers' high comprehension level for standard English is based mainly on the ability of these speakers to repeat nonstandard equivalents of standard English sentences. However, Ervin-Tripp,³ agreeing with an often made assertion by Stewart, has pointed out that a sentence repetition test, while valid for learning about production abilities, is inadequate for assessing comprehension. Despite the many studies reviewed by Baratz, she concludes that "Research on

¹Carolyn Stern and William Gupta, "Echoic Responding of Disadvantaged Preschool Children as a Function of Type of Speech Modeled," <u>Journal of School Psychology</u>, Vol. 8, No. 1, 1970, pp. 24-27.

²J. Baratz, "Language Abilities of Black Americans," p. 38.

³Susan Ervin-Tripp, "Social Dialects in Developmental Sociolinguistics," <u>Sociolinguistics</u>, A Cross Disciplinary Perspective, Washington, D.C., Center for Applied Linguistics, 1971, pp. 36-65.

comprehension is sorely needed not only concerning non-standard English forms but also standard English speakers' comprehension of non-standard dialects.

Dialect study is needed in Houston as the School District prepares to provide instructional programs for the early years, ultimately extending to three year old children.²

There is need to know what effect, if any, dialect differences have on the oral language comprehension of young children who are likely to attend school in the Houston Independent School District. It is of particular value to determine bi-dialectal oral comprehension levels of very young children who may be learning in a bi-dialectal environment.

In order to establish whether or not dialect is indeed a distractor to comprehension, a pilot study was conducted by the writer. Results strongly indicated that there was a need for research in the area of dialect barrier to comprehension. Twenty subjects (three, four, and five year olds, low socioeconomic black) were selected from Myra Stevens Day Care Center. The Carrow Auditory Test for Language Comprehension was administered. The mean oral language comprehension level in each six-month age group was significantly lower than the

¹J. Baratz, "Language Abilities of Black Americans," p. 38.

²J. Don Boney, <u>The Houston Post</u>, January 9, 1972.

Auditory Test for Language Comprehension, June 1969, Dr. Elizabeth Carrow and Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, Austin, Texas, 1969.

mean oral language comprehension level of a white low socioeconomic control group which was pre-established by the author
of the test. This significant difference of scores in children who speak dialect pointed up a need to translate the test
into black dialect in order to retest for comprehension in
black dialect.

At the present time in Houston, 38 percent of the public school population is black. Most of these children live in communities where some variation of local black dialect is spoken. Integration has placed approximately 60 percent of these children with white teachers who speak variations of local standard English. At the same time the remainder of the school population (47 percent Anglo and 15 percent Mexican American) have a 40 percent chance of having black teachers, some of whom will speak black dialect. (Population statistics HISD, 1971). These statistics on integration in Houston at the present would indicate that much of the school population will be likely to have experience with more than one dialect. Though population data was not sought from other large school districts, similar circumstances are presumed to exist where there is integration.

lElizabeth Carrow, Auditory Comprehension of English by Monolingual and Bilingual Preschool Children. Paper received from Dr. Carrow, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, Texas, 1972.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This investigation was designed to compare the oral language comprehension of standard English with that of black dialect in four groups of preschool children: low and middle socio-economic black children, and low and middle socio-economic white children. Each of the four categories consisted of ten four-year olds, and ten five-year-olds. For purposes of this study, ages were not treated separately.

STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESES

- 1. In the black children tested, there is no significant difference between the mean oral language comprehension level in black dialect and the mean oral language comprehension level in standard English.
- -2. In the white children tested, there is no significant difference between the mean oral language comprehension level in the black dialect and the mean oral language comprehension level in standard English.
- _3. In the low and middle socio-economic black children tested with black dialect, there is no significant difference in their mean oral language comprehension levels.
 - 4. In the low and middle socio-economic black children tested with standard English, there is no significant difference in their mean oral language comprehension levels.

- 5. In the low and middle socio-economic white children tested with black dialect, there is no significant difference in their mean oral language comprehension level.
- 6. In the low and middle socio-economic white children tested with standard English, there is no significant difference in their mean oral language comprehension level.
 - 7. In the black and white children tested, there is no significant difference between their mean oral language comprehension levels of black dialect.
 - 8. In the black and white children tested, there is no significant difference between their oral language comprehension levels of standard English.

PROPOSED DATA ANALYSES

The method of analysis to be used for hypotheses one through eight is a three factor analysis of variance with repeated measure on one factor. The effect of the two version testing sequence will be co-varied out. The reliability of each version of the test will be checked with the Kuder-Richardson technique. Determination of the effect of testing repetition will be tested within each group to see if order is a variable. Normality of distribution and homogeneity of variance by sample will be tested with Bartlett's test.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Black dialect as defined in this study is phonetically transcribed in Appendix A. It is recognized that there is more than one version of black dialect spoken by black people living in the Houston area. (The method used for selection and translation may be found in Chapter III under Translation Procedure). It is also recognized that not all black people living in Houston speak black dialect; some speak basically standard English and some speak standard English in addition to a black dialect.

Negro dialect as defined in this study will be used interchangeably with the term black dialect.

Standard English (SE) as defined in this study is phonetically transcribed in Appendix B. It is recognized that there is more than one version of standard English spoken by white people living in the Houston area. An effort was made to use the local standard spoken by a white person native to Houston.

Low socio-economic status (Low SES) as defined in this study refers to children in families where the total annual income averages less than \$4,000. Children were selected from funded agencies which accommodate those families whose income is below the level established by Federal Poverty Guidelines.

Middle socio-economic status (Middle SES) as defined in this study refers to children in families where the total income averages more than \$8,000 and does not exceed \$16,000. From consulting with the directors of the nursery schools from which the middle class samples were taken, this income range was deemed to be realistic.

SUMMARY

Chapter I sets forth a need for a dialect study, contains a statement of the problem, the hypotheses to be tested, and the definition of terms used in the study. Chapter II includes a review of literature on language acquisition and black dialect. Chapter III describes the procedure for the study. Chapter IV deals with the testing data and analysis of the data as described under Data Analysis in Chapter III. Other significant findings will be included. Chapter V contains conclusions, limitations of the study, and suggestions for implementation and further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

During the past decade, new dimensions in the areas of language development and language usage have emerged as a result of the application of linguistic theory and analysis. The impact of linguistics on established disciplines has been responsible for the creation of the new fields of psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics.

Descriptive linguistics has presented psychologists, long interested in the process of language acquisition, with a basic framework of language elements. This framework has changed research techniques and resulted in new psycholinguistic theories (McNeill, Brown, and Vetter and Howell). Linguistic theory applied to sociology points out the universality of language systems and the interdependence of language and society. These concepts present a basis for

¹David McNeill, "Developmental Psycholinguistics," in Frank Smith and George Miller, eds., The Genesis of Language, Cambridge, Massachusetts, The M.I.T. Press, 1966.

²Roger Brown, <u>Psycholinguistics</u>, New York, The Free Press, 1970.

³Harold Vetter and Richard Howell, "Theories of Language Acquisition," <u>Journal of Psycholinguistic Research</u>, Vol. 1, 1971, pp. 31-63.

research and theory in sociolinguistics (Ervin-Tripp, 1 Hymes, 2 and Gumperz 3).

· A cluster of disciplines relating to language development and social dialect usage were reviewed by the author for background information and for a closer look at the influence of linguistics on these areas. Included were child development, psychology, psycholinguistics, speech pathology, sociology, sociolinguistics, anthropology and folklore. A synthesis of this information will be presented under the major headings of Language Development and Black Dialect. First, language development will be dealt with as a means of looking at language comprehension in the young child. portion will include a brief view of the language acquisition process and will discuss comprehension as a principle element in linguistic competence. Second, black dialect will be treated as to its existence, its legitimacy, and its evaluation. Other views of dialect will be discussed under the subheadings of cultural style, sociolinguistics, language in contact, and measuring language competence and dialect in the school setting. The chapter will conclude with suggestions from research.

¹Susan Ervin-Tripp, "Children's Sociolinguistic Competence and Dialect Diversity," in Seventy First NSSE Yearbook, Early Childhood, 1972, pp. 123-160.

²Dell Hymes, "Toward Ethnographics of Communication," in J. J. Gumperz and Dell Hymes, eds., "The Ethnography of Communication," American Anthropologist, 66, 1964, pp. 1-34, pt. 2, no. 6.

³John Gumperz and Dell Hymes, "The Ethnography of Communication," American Anthropologist, 66, 1964, pp. 1-34.

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

New Approaches

Lenneberg¹ and Smith and Miller² suggest an innate predisposition for acquiring language, with its extremely complex patterns of stimuli. Since each child must learn his native language, the genetic predisposition is not for a specific language. Any normal child can learn any language if he is raised in the appropriate linguistic environment.

Given the potential to learn any language, how then does a child learn a specific language? McNeill³ has suggested that the child's language has been viewed as a primitive version of adult language, thus categories of adult grammar were used to describe it on the supposition that the scholar knew the grammar of the child because he knew his own grammar. Today the student of child language has begun to adopt a different approach. Without imposing rules of his own grammar on the utterances of the child, he takes a more detached view, investigating child language the way any modern linguist

¹E. H. Lenneberg, <u>Biological Foundations of Language</u>, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., <u>New York</u>, 1967.

²Frank Smith and George Miller (eds.), Introduction to <u>The Genesis of Language</u>, The M.I.T. Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1966, pp. 1-13.

³D. McNeill, "Developmental Psycholinguistics," pp. 78-81.

approaches the description of an alien tongue through its phonology, morphology and syntax.

Ervin and Miller² set forth two aspects of this approach. The first states that the sound system of the child and the set of rules he uses to form sentences are to be described in their own terms independently of the model presented in the adult community. The second aspect concerns the successive steps through which the child passes toward mastery of the environmental adult system. Vetter and Howell suggest that "The new look in child language studies places much greater emphasis on the active creative role of the youngster."

The problem of structuring lies at the basis of psycholinguistic research. Weksel⁴ has suggested that language ontogeny is not going to be accounted for by extensions of current learning theory; but what is needed is a revolution in psychological theory to match one that has taken place in linguistics with the advent of generative grammar.

¹H. Vetter and R. Howell, "Theories of Language Acquisition," pp. 31-33.

²Susan Ervin and Wick Miller, "Language Development," in Sixty Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Child Psychology, Chicago, Illinois, University of Chicago Press, 1963, pp. 108-143.

³H. Vetter and R. Howell, "Theories of Language Acquisition," p. 32.

⁴W. Weksel, Review of Ursula Bellugi's and Roger Brown's (eds.), <u>The Acquisition of Language</u>, in <u>Language</u>, 1965, Vol. 41, pp. 692-709.

Language Acquisition

Literature abounds with studies on the early stages of language in the infant. Some of these are the studies by Lenneberg, ¹ Ervin and Miller, ² Irwin, ³ Carroll, ⁴ Tischler, ⁵ and Weir. ⁶ At present, the term linguistic behavior, when applied to early language development, is usually reserved for utterances which include identifiable words. Ervin and Miller state that, "at least two sytematically contrasted meaningful words, a point usually reached by the end of the first year." Tonal or intonational patterns consistent

¹E. H. Lenneberg, "Speech as a Motor Skill with Special Reference to Nonaphasic Disorders," in U. Bellugi and R. Brown, eds., The Acquisition of Language, Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, Vol. 49, 1964, No. 1, pp. 115-127.

²S. Ervin and W. Miller, "Language Development," pp. 108-143.

^{30.} C. Irwin, "Infant Speech; Consonantal Position,"

Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders, 16, 159-161. [Cited in Ervin & Miller (1963), "Language and Communication," in P. H. Mussen, ed., Handbook of Research Methods in Child Development, New York, John Wiley & Sons, pp. 487-516.]

⁴John Carroll, "Language Development in Children," in Sol Saporta and James Bastion, eds., <u>Psycholinguistics</u>, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961.

⁵H. Tischler, "Schreien, Lallen und Erstes Sprechen in der Entwicklung des Sauglings," Z. Psychol., 160, 1957, pp. 210-262. [Cited in Ervin and Miller (1963).]

Ruth Weir, Language in the Crib, The Hague, The Netherlands, Mouton & Co., 1962.

⁷S. Ervin and W. Miller, "Language Development," p. 109.

with the linguistic environment are acquired around the seventh month, and maybe the first steps of linguistic behavior. This is suggested but not substantiated by research.

v Language acquisition is a matter of gradually inducing rules and principles of language structuring that make it possible for the child to generate sentences. He thus practices the speech to which he is exposed so as to induce from it a latent structure. At about the end of the second year a profound change occurs in the child's language behavior when he begins apparently to learn "rules" of language construction. Rules about privileges of occurrence for individual words and phrases apparently are implicitly observed by the child and he deliberately practices syntactic arrangements. He comes to identify the classes to which a new word belongs by its placement in the utterance and thus to discriminate something of its flexibility in speech.

¹L. Kaczmarek, <u>Ksztaltowanie sie mowy dziecka</u>, Paznau, Poland. Cited in Weir (1966).

M. M. Lewis, <u>Infant Speech</u>, (1951), <u>Language</u>, <u>Thought and Personality in Infancy and Childhood</u>, New York, <u>Pasic Books</u>, 1963.

Ruth Weir, "Some Questions on the Child's Learning of Phonology," in F. Smith and G. Miller, eds., The Genesis of Language. Cambridge, Massachusetts, The M.I.T. Press, 1966, pp. 153-168.

Brown and Berko state that this is "one of the ways in which the lawful flexibility of speech is developed."

Chomsky suggests that:

In formal terms the child's acquisition of language is a kind of theory construction. The child discovers the theory of his language with only small amounts of data from that language. The theory has enormous predictive scope and enables the child to reject a great deal of the very data on which the theory has been constructed. Normal speech consists of fragments, false starts, blends and other distortions of underlying idealized forms. Nevertheless what the child learns is the underlying ideal theory. This is a remarkable fact. The child constructs an ideal theory without explicit instructions and he acquires this at a time when he is not capable of complex intellectual achievements in many other domains and his achievement is relatively independent of intelligence or the particular course of experience.²

Brown and Bellugi³ focused on the development of the capacity to construct sentences. Observers noted frequent imitation on the part of both mother and child. The mother's sentences were short and similar in structure to those of her child, with no words missing. The child's sentences usually eliminated the functors but retained the essential meaning and the correct word order. To explain

lRoger Brown and Jean Berko, "Word Association and the Acquisition of Grammar," Child Development, 1960, 31, pp. 1-14.

²Noam Chomsky, "Language and the Mind," in A. A. Bar and W. Leopold, eds., <u>Child Language</u>, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice Hall, <u>Inc.</u>, 1971, p. 429.

Roger Brown and Ursula Bellugi, "Three Processes in the Child's Acquisition of Syntax," <u>Harvard Educational</u> Review, 1964, 34.

the significance of this tendency and how the child acquires it poses an important problem. From this corpus of reduced sentences it is suggested that the child induces general rules which govern the construction of new utterances. Brown and Fraser¹ suggest that as the child becomes capable of registering more detail of adult speech, his original rules will have to be revised and supplemented. As the generative grammar grows more complicated, and closer to adult grammar, the child's speech will become capable of expressing greater variety of meaning.

Comprehension, a Subset of Linguistic Competence

Vinguistic competence is an abstraction away from performance; it represents the knowledge that a native speaker of a language must have in order to understand any of the infinitely many grammatical sentences of his language. Performance as described by McNeill² is the expression of competence in talking or listening to speech. Gardner³ states that understanding of verbal speech is not merely passive absorption of sounds, but requires very real and active participation on the part of the child to understand a word

Roger Brown and Colin Fraser, "The Acquisition of Syntax," Society for Research in Child Development, 1964, 29, No. 1, pp. 43-79.

²D. McNeill, "Developmental Psycholinguistics," pp. 15-82.

³Bruce Gardner, <u>Development in Early Childhood</u>; The Preschool Years, New York, Harper & Row Pub., 1964, Chap. 7.

or phrase. Cairns and Silva¹ suggest that to perceive speech, the listener must take the phonetic representation of the sentence and match it to his internalized grammar. This matching then provides the listener with the meaning of the sentence.

✓ The child's development of comprehension is concurrent with his development of production. This learning is largely dependent upon the interaction he experiences in his social environment. The baby's own repeated utterances, one by one, become equivalent to the words he hears others speak. Through face to face rehearsals with his mother the baby perfects his own approximation of these words. At the same time these utterances gain referents which go from the general to the specific. Brown calls the language learning process the Original Word Game. The infant or other learner of the language is the player and the parent or teacher the tutor. Brown describes the process in the following way: ι

In learning referents and names the player of the Original Word Game prepares himself to receive the science, the rules of thumb, the prejudices, the total expectancies of his society.²

Dorothea McCarthy's comprehensive review of research on the speech of children concluded that most writers agree

¹Charles Cairns and Delores Silva, <u>How Children Learn</u> Language, ERIC, Ed. 038401, 1969.

²Roger Brown, <u>Words and Things</u>, New York, Free Press, 1958, pp. 227-228.

³Dorothea McCarthy, "Language Development in Children," in Leonard Carmichael, ed., Manual of Child Psychology, New York, John Wiley & Sons, 1954, pp. 492-630.

that the child understands the language of others considerably before he actually uses the languages himself. A study by Fraser, Brown and Bellugi with three year old children presents evidence which would suggest a different view of the child's understanding. In this study on the sequence of understanding and production in language development, ten grammatical contrasts were used. The authors, Fraser, Brown, and Bellugi, summarize:

Understanding was operationalized as the correct identification of pictures named by contrasting sentences. Production was operationalized in two ways:
(a) as the correct imitation of contrasting features in sentences without evidence of understanding; and (b) as the correct production of contrasting features in sentences applied appropriately to pictures. Production, in the second sense, proves to be less advanced than understanding in three year-old children. However, production in the sense of imitation proves to be more advanced than understanding in three year-olds.

In a recent review of the role of children's comprehension of language structure, Carrow states that:

Only a limited number of studies have been made of children's comprehension of language structure either from the point of view of its development or as it relates to expression. Most of the studies of language comprehension have focused primarily on the understanding of vocabulary and not on the comprehension of structure. Ammons and Holmes (1949), Templin (1957), Seashort and Eckerson (1940). A few have been concerned with structure as well as lexicon, Leopold (1954), Lerea (1958), and Wolski (1962).

¹Colin Fraser, Ursula Bellugi and Roger Brown, "Control of Grammar in Imitation, Comprehension and Production," Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 2, 1963.

[Cited in Roger Brown, ed., Psycholinguistics, New York, The Free Press, 1970, pp. 134-135.]

²Elizabeth (Sister Mary Arthur) Carrow, "The Development of Auditory Comprehension of Language Structure in

Slobin¹ and McNeill² suggest the need for more study in the areas of language production and comprehension. Most of what is known of language acquisition is based on children's production of speech. It is possible that inferences drawn about children's competence will be different when based upon comprehension. Children appear to profit from examples of well-formed sentences that are presented (through expansions or otherwise) by parental speech, which indicates that a child's additions to competence are made through his comprehension. McNeill concludes that:

The competence-comprehension cycle may be the principal avenue over which the child acquires the local form of the linguistic universals and the problem of how children comprehend language may be inseparable from the problem of how they acquire it.³

BLACK DIALECT

Its Existence, Legitimacy and Evaluation

To establish a framework for the study of black dialect, it is helpful to note the views of linguists in regard to language study. Two of these views which are relevant to

Children," <u>Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders</u>, May, 1968, 33, p. 101.

¹D. I. Slobin (1964). [Cited in David McNeill, "Developmental Psycholinguistics," in F. Smith and G. Miller, eds., The Genesis of Language, Cambridge, Massachusetts, The M.I.T. Press, 1966.]

²David McNeill, "Developmental Psycholinguistics," p. 81.

³McNeill. Ibid.

dialect study are: (1) Every language has system and is highly structured with a well formed grammatical system. This system has three parts which are interrelated: phonology-sound, morphology-meaning, and syntax-order. (2) Within a large complex society containing different social classes and different ethnic groups living in close proximity, people often speak different varieties (dialects) of the same language. One of these may be considered more prestigious than the others and may be used as the standard for the nation. This is an arbitrary social decision which has nothing to do with that particular dialect's linguistic merits. 1

Research presents overwhelming evidence to indicate that there is distinct Negro dialect in the United States.

Two of these studies are Stewart² and Baratz.³ Not only does Negro dialect exist, but it possesses all of the characteristics of a complete language with a distinct

¹J. Baratz, "Language Abilities of Black Americans," p. 2.

²William A. Stewart, "Continuity and Change in American Negro Dialects," <u>The Florida FL Reporter</u>, Vol. 6, No. 1, Spring, 1968.

³J. Baratz, "The Application of Dialect Research in the Context of the Classroom--It Ain't Easy," <u>Acta-symbolica</u>, 11, 1970, pp. 3-7.

grammatical system. (Dillard, 1 Bailey, 2 Labov, 3 Labov and Cohen, 4 Wolfram, 5 and Fasold and Wolfram 6). V The child growing up in the Negro dialect environment learns to use and to think in the language he learns from those around him. He learns to think effectively enough to assure his survival. Bailey and Labov state that Negro children, who speak black dialect, have the same vocabulary, possess the same capacity for conceptual learning, and use the same logic as any one else who learns to speak and understand standard English.

Linguistic competence of black children in dialect is well documented in a number of recent investigations.

¹J. L. Dillard, "Negro Children's Dialect in the Inner City," The Florida FL Reporter, 5, No. 3, 1967, pp. 7-10.

²Berly Bailey, "Toward a New Perspective in Negro English Dialectology," American Speech, Vol. 40, 1965, pp. 171-177.

William Labov, "The Logic of Non-Standard English," Florida FL Reporter, 1969, pp. 60-70.

⁴W. Labov and P. Cohen, "Systematic Relations of Standard Rules in Grammar of Negro Speakers," <u>Project Literacy</u>, 7, 1967.

⁵Walter Wolfram, <u>Sociolinguistic Description of Detroit</u> <u>Negro Speech</u>, Washington, D.C., Center for Applied Linguistics, 1971, pp. 86-136.

⁶Ralph Fasold and Walter Wolfram, "Some Linguistic Features of Negro Dialect," in Ralph Fasold and Roger Shuy, eds., <u>Teaching Standard English in the Inner City</u>, Washington, D.C., <u>Center for Applied Linguistics</u>, 1970, pp. 41-86.

Many lower class black children speak a well ordered, highly structured but different dialect from standard English. Evidence may be seen in the studies of Labov and Cohen, Labov, Dillard, and Wolfram.

Stephen Baratz suggests that the language of the Negro child utilizes English words on a different grammatical system:

It is the system underlying the lexical items and not the lexical items themselves that makes the difference in the case of the Negro. The confusion produced by the great similarity in lexical items leads to an assumption that the child speaks a bad form of English. It is precisely because of the apparent similarity between standard and non-standard English that for all these years no one bothered to look at Negro non-standard on its own terms. I

Fasold and Wolfram² constructed the set of grammatical rules used in black dialect by observing actual usage, a technique used by linguists for looking at the structure of all languages.

Not all who study the language of the inner city

Negro child view the system as legitimate but different from standard English. By some, such as Deutsch, Newton, and

Stephen Baratz, Negro Culture and Early Childhood Education. Paper presented at the Montessori Centennial Conference, New York, June 1970, pp. 13-14.

²R. Fasold & W. Wolfram, "Some Linguistic Features of Negro Dialect," pp. 41-86.

Martin Deutsch, "The Role of Social Class in Language Development and Cognition," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1965, Vol. 35, pp. 24-35.

⁴E. Newton, "Planning for the Language Development of Disadvantaged Children and Youth," <u>Journal of Negro Education</u>, Vol. 34, 1965, pp. 167-177.

Bereiter, the language difference is viewed as verbal destitution. By others, Bernstein, John, Loban, Engelmann, and Hess, Shipman and Jackson, the language of the inner city black child is viewed as underdeveloped.

Problems may arise when the black child speaking dialect comes to the school setting where standard English test measures are used to evaluate linguistic competence.

These tests in effect equate linguistic competence with competence in standard English. The black child's low test

¹Carl Bereiter, "Academic Instruction and Preschool Children," in R. Corbin and M. Crosby, eds., <u>Language Programs</u> for the Disadvantaged, Champaign, Illinois, National Council of Teachers of English, 1965.

²Basil Bernstein, "Language and Social Class," <u>British</u> Journal of Sociology, 1960, Vol. 11, pp. 270-276.

³Vera John, "The Intellectual Development of Slum Children," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, Vol. 33, 1963, pp. 813-822.

Walter Loban, "A Sustained Program of Language Learning," in R. Corbin and M. Crosby, eds., <u>Language Programs</u> for the Disadvantaged, Champaign, Illinois, National Council of Teachers of English, 1965.

Siegfried Engelmann, <u>Cultural Deprivation and Remedy</u>, University of Illinois, Institute for Research on Exceptional Children, 1964.

⁶R. Hess, V. Shipman and D. Jackson, "Some New Dimensions in Providing Equal Educational Opportunity," <u>Journal</u> of Negro Education, 34, 220-231, 1965.

scores are often interpreted as language deficiency (Hunt, ¹ Deutsch, ² Green, ³ and Hurst ⁴).

Galvan and Troike^b suggest that current language competence tests are "second dialect" tests for lower class children, especially black children, as they are in effect measuring the child in his second language. Ponder⁶ states that most standardized tests do not measure the language of the black child and do not tap the kind and quality of language that he possesses. Unless speech skills and social performance required by the test are equally familiar to all tested children, the test is a biased estimate of underlying

J. M. Hunt, "Towards the Prevention of Incompetence," in J. W. Carter, ed., Research Contributions from Psychology to Community Health, New York: Behavioral Publications, 1968.

²M. Deutsch, "The Disadvantaged Child and the Learning Process," in Passan, ed., <u>Education in Depressed Areas</u>, New York, Columbia University <u>Teacher College</u>, 1963.

³R. Green, "Dialect Sampling and Language Values," in R. Shuy, ed., <u>Social Dialect and Language Learning</u>, Champaign, Illinois, N.C.T.E., 1964, pp. 120-123.

⁴C. G. Hurst, Jr., <u>Psychological Correlates in</u> <u>Dialectolalia</u>, Washington, D.C., Harvard University: Communities Research Center, 1965.

⁵Mary Galvan and Rudolph Troike, "The East Texas Dialect Project, A Pattern for Education," <u>The Florida FL</u> Reporter, Vol. 7, No. 1, 1969, pp. 29-31.

⁶Eddie Ponder, "Understanding the Language of the Culturally Disadvantaged Child," in Eldonna Evertts, eds., Dimensions of Dialect, Champaign, Illinois, National Council of Teachers of English, 1967, pp. 23-29.

competence. Baratz¹ questions the validity of using only standardized test procedures for assessing the language development of black children. To understand the child who speaks dialect, it is helpful to look at the culture and social setting from which he comes.

Cultural Style

Labov² states that those who view black dialect as deficient know little about language or about Negro children. The concept of deprivation has no bases in social reality—in fact, "ghetto children receive much verbal stimulation, hear more well-formed sentences than white middle class children and participate fully in a highly verbal culture."

Abrahams³ terms the language deficiency theory ethnocentric stereotyping in the extreme. Not only is a different language at work in the Negro culture, but a different attitude toward speech and speech acts. Methods used to communicate knowledge and feelings of the Negro are different from middle class white norms. A basic variation is the method of passing information. Negro children derive verbal skill from other children and are often taught to be silent with adults.

^{1&}lt;sub>J</sub>. Baratz, "Language Abilities of Black Americans,"
p. 2.

²Walter Labov, "The Logic of Non-Standard Dialect," in J. Alatis, ed., School of Language and Linguistics Monograph Series, No. 22, Georgetown University, 1969, pp. 1-43.

³Roger Abrahams, <u>Positively Black</u>, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice Hall, Co., 1970, pp. 10-51.

(This cultural characteristic may cause white teachers to think that Negro children are nonverbal).

According to Abrahams, everyday life of the lower class Negro culture is suffused with play. In the ghetto environment, gaming, or art of <u>put-on</u>, permeates interpersonal relations. All public activities tend to gravitate toward performances. An earnest regard for effective linguistic performance is a dimension of black ghetto life, which is almost never recognized by whites. Words are especially valued as power devices.

Verbal games called "contests" and "playing the dozens" are battles of wits. The rhymed way of playing the "dirty dozens," a verbal bantering directed toward belittling the players' mothers, serves a complex function in development, not only of the man-of-words but a sense of masculine identity for all who play. (This is a valuable social trait in a predominantly matriarchial culture). Toasts, such as the tales of Stackolee, are epic fictions performed in rhymed couplets. They are multi-episodic and often depict perpetual conflict. Prestige is attached to men-of-words (preachers, story tellers, tellers of jokes, signifiers, dozens players) within the black community. Rich and colorful oral tradition is an integral part of black cultural aesthetics.

Kochman¹ suggests that several aspects of the cultural verbal style differ widely from aspects of the white mainstream classroom culture. Black audiences of verbal performance actively cheer the participants, becoming involved themselves in the performance. Classrooms modeled after a white prototype stress the traditional notion of a passive receptive audience. Oral language feats in informal settings in the black culture call for informal style while mainstream culture attaches prestige to oral facility in the public arena, which restricts language to a more or less formal style. Erickson concludes that the school setting does not provide tasks familiar to those who use dialect well, thus there is little evidence of the effectiveness of black dialect as it is used on its own terms in a congenial setting.²

Sociolinguistics

 $\sqrt{}$ Language and culture styles become intertwined, since the language carries culture identity and serves the cultural needs. Hymes³ views this identity as a fusion of sociolinguistics and linguistics into synonymy. (In socialization

¹Thomas Kochman, "Culture and Communication: Implications for Black English in the Classroom," The Florida FL Reporter, Vol. 7, No. 1, 1969, p. 89.

²Frederick Erickson, "F'get You Honky! A New Look at Black Dialect and the School," <u>Elementary English</u>, Vol. 46, 1969, pp. 495-499.

³Dell Hymes, "Models of the Interaction of Language and Social Setting," <u>Journal of Social Issues</u>, Vol. 23, No. 2, 1967, pp. 8-29.

the child acquires not only language but also sets of attitudes and habits with regard to the value and utilization of that language).

√ Hymes suggests the need for a taxonomy of sociolinguistic systems which would deal with the speech community,
speech situation, speech act, speech events, function of
speech rules for speaking, and types of speech. He states
that patterns of speech vary from group to group and along
social class lines. √

V Studies by Milner, 1 Keller, 2 and Lesser, Fifer, and Clark 3 indicate that ethnic background and social class both effect language performance of the children tested; however the effects of these two classifications are not the same. Since communicative competencies are also found to vary with the speech setting, Slobin 4 suggests the need for crosscultural study to show a valid picture of social class and ethnic differences in the child's language.

lEsther Milner, "A Study of the Relationship Between Reading Readiness in Grade One School Children and Patterns of Parent-Child Interaction," Child Development, 1951, Vol. 22, pp. 95-112.

²Suzanne Keller, "The Social Word of the Urban Slum Child; Some Early Findings," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1966, Vol. 33, pp. 823-831.

³G. S. Lesser, G. Fifer, and D. H. Clark, "Mental Abilities of Children in Different Social and Cultural Groups," Monograph Society for Research in Child Development, 1965, Vol. 30, No. 4 (Serial No. 102).

⁴D. Slobin, "Suggested Universals in the Ontogenesis of Grammar," Working paper #32, Language Behavior Research Laboratory, University of California, Berkeley, 1970.

Bernstein noted different speech styles used by low and middle class subjects. He used the terms "restricted" and "elaborated" to describe these styles. Briefly stated, in the restricted linguistic code, the meaning of a word or phrase is not specific but is determined by the social situation in which it is used. In contrast to the restricted code of the lower classes, the British middle and upper class speak an elaborated linguistic code in which the meaning of a word or phrase is quite specific. The shadings of meaning conveyed depend on precise construction of language, not on social setting. Other studies have taken issue with this terminology. Erickson² feels that these terms may be misleading. His study found that when two communicators share sufficiently common experience and point of view, the restricted style can function as precisely as the elaborated style. Labov 3 found that logic and abstraction was not hampered for those using the restricted style. Bernstein⁴ feels that the existence of these different styles in

¹Basil Bernstein, "Language and Social Class," pp. 227-276.

²F. Erickson, "F'get You Honky! A New Look at Black Dialect and the School," pp. 493-499.

³William Labov, "The Logic of Non-Standard English," pp. 60-70.

Basil Bernstein, "A Sociolinguistic Approach to V Socialization; With Some Reference to Educability," in Frederick Williams, ed., Language and Poverty, Chicago, Markham, 1970, pp. 25-61.

different classes is part of what marks the lower and middle class as distinct cultural groups with different orientation towards meaning and rationality. Baratz¹ states that Bernstein never intended to imply that the predominant use of restricted style in the lower class created a cognitive or linguistic deficit.

Language in Contact

Languages are said to be in contact if they are used alternately by the same individual. Weinrich suggests that, "Those instances of deviation from the norms of either language of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language, i.e., as a result of language contact, are referred to as Interference phenomena. An example might be when a Mexican American child says "heez" for "his," Spanish is interfering because the child is substituting the Spanish [i] for the English [I]. Weinrich feels that the mechanisms of interference appear to be the same whether contact is between Chinese and French, or between two dialects of English. To analyze types of interference, differences and similarities of each language or dialect must be stated in every domain: phonic, grammatical, and lexical.

¹Joan C. Baratz, "Language Abilities of Black Americans Review of Research; 1966-1970," in Miller and Breger, eds., Comparative Studies of Negroes and Whites in the United States, Basic Books, forthcoming. (1970)

²Uriel Weinrich, "Languages in Contact," in Sol Saporta, ed., <u>Psycholinguistics</u>, New York, Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1961, p. 376.

Shuy¹ points out that relatively little research has been done on the urban socio-language systems in contact as to their nature and rate of assimilation. Haugen² suggests that bi-dialectalism may actually be harder to acquire than bilingualism since it is harder to keep two similar languages apart than two different ones.

Evidence of language interference from standard English to black dialect is noted by Kernan, Labov, McKay, and Henri. Kernan found that speakers with forms from various social dialects have a lack of stylistic consistency. In samples of black speech, variants occurred side by side. "She has a morning class and a afternoon class and she have their name taped on the cardboard." In this example of

¹Roger Shuy, "Sociolinguistics and Urban Language," in Frederick Williams, ed., <u>Language and Poverty</u>, Chicago, Markham Pub. Co., 1970, pp. 344-348.

²Einac Haugen, "Bilingualism and Bidialectalism," in Roger Shuy, ed., <u>Social Dialect and Language Learning</u>, Champaign, Illinois, <u>1964</u>, pp. 124-126.

³Claudia M. Kernan, "Language Behavior in a Black Urban Community," <u>Monographs of the Language-Behavior Laboratory</u>, Working Paper No. 21, Berkeley University of California, 1969.

William Labov, "The Logic of Non-Standard English," Florida FL Reporter, 1969, pp. 60-70.

⁵June R. McKay, "A Partial Analysis of a Variety of Nonstandard Negro English," Ph.D. Dissertation, University of California, Berkeley, 1969.

⁶S. N. Henri, "A Study of Verb Phrases Used by Five Year Old Nonstandard Negro English Speaking Children," Ph.D. Dissertation, University of California, Berkeley, 1969.

interference is the standard English form "has" and the black dialect form "have" used in the same sentence. Kernan found the same variations in preschoolers, with "they seen the bird, saw the ducks." Here the standard English form "saw" is used with the black dialect form "seen." Labov et al. were impressed by the inconsistency of formal style features in formal school test situations. He concluded that "whenever a subordinate dialect is in contact with a superordinate dialect, answers given in any formal test situation may shift from subordinate to superordinate in an irregular and unsystematic manner."

Labov, McKay, and Henri have all found:

. . . that the full range of standard English will appear some time in black dialect speech. That is the problem of standard speech is in most cases not that the form is outside the repertoire but that the speaker cannot maintain a consistent choice of standard alternatives and not make slips.³

Wolfram 4 suggests that there is inadequate co-occurrence restriction between the standard forms whether they are dialect borrowings or not. ν

lClaudia Kernan. [Cited in Susan Ervin-Tripp, ed., "Sociolinguistic Competence," p. 137.]

William Labov, et al. A Study of the Non-Standard English of Negro and Puerto Rican Speakers in New York City, Final Report OE-6-10-059, Columbia University, New York City, 1968. [Cited in Susan Ervin-Tripp, ed., "Sociolinguistic Competence," p. 137.]

³Susan M. Ervin-Tripp, "Children Sociolinguistic Competence and Dialect Diversity," NSSE Yearbook, Early Childhood, 1972, p. 137.

⁴Walter Wolfram, <u>Detroit Negro Speech</u>, Washington, D.C., Center for Applied <u>Linguistics</u>, 1969.

psychological as well as social implications for the speaker. Williams states that a person trying to assume a new role in a new social structure feels regret at leaving the parent structure and uncertainty about being accepted in the new structure. Lambert calls this feeling "anomie" and indicates that it challenges the candidate's stereotype of himself. Lin writes: "Dialect has proved socially and psychologically satisfactory to the individual who uses it. It is the language of his family, symbol of love and security, a language which has seen him through his adjustments to different groups and to establish rapport with the world around him. 3 /

Measuring Language Competence

Comparing social and ethnic groups in the development of language and cognitive functions is common. There is difficulty however, in finding ways of testing children's language without using biased approaches. Roberts 4 determined

¹Frederick Williams, "Language Usage Attitude, Social Change," in Frederick Williams, ed., <u>Language and Poverty</u>, Chicago, Illinois, Markham Pub. Co., <u>1970</u>, pp. 390-397.

²W. Lambert, "A Social Psychology of Bilingualism," in J. MacNamara, ed., "Problems of Bilingualism," <u>Journal of Social Issues</u>, Vol. 23, 1967, pt. 2, pp. 91-109.

³San-su C. Lin, "Pattern Practice in the Teaching of Standard English to Students with Nonstandard Dialect," New York, Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1965, p. 2.

⁴E. Roberts, "An Evaluation of Standardized Tests as Tools for the Measurement of Language Development."

that widely used standardized tests such as Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities (ITPA), Wechsler Preschool Intelligence Test (WPPSI), Metropolitan and Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT) discriminate against the dialect speaker.

A theory of universal language development rate, presented by Lenneberg, 1 Brown, 2 and Cazden 3 indicates that short of biological abnormalities or deviant social conditions, a similarity of competence can be expected. Those claiming differences must be careful to use tests that are culture-fair and dialect-fair to the groups tested.

Dickie and Bagur suggest that many variables need to be considered when studying the language of low-income minority group children. Variables are considered under three categories: (a) those associated with the setting and

Unpublished paper, Language Research Foundation, Cambridge, 1970. Cited in J. Baratz, "Language Abilities of Black Americans," in Miller and Dreger, Comparative Studies of Negroes and Whites in the United States, Basic Books, forthcoming.

¹E. H. Lenneberg, <u>Biological Foundations of Language</u>, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York, 1967.

²Roger Brown, <u>Psycholinguistics</u>, New York, The Free Press, 1970.

³Courtney Cazden, "Subcultural Differences in Child Language: An Inter-Disciplinary Review," Merrill Palmer Quarterly, Vol. 12, 1966, pp. 185-219.

 $^{^4}$ Joyce Dickie and J. Susana Bagur, "Considerations for the Study of Language in Young Low-Income Minority Group Children," Miller Palmer Quarterly, January, 1972, Vol. 18, No. 1, pp. $\overline{25-38}$.

the procedure; (b) those associated with investigators and other people; and (c) those associated with the stimulus materials. This work is directed to the investigator who is interested in the potential behavior that the child has available under optimal conditions in a variety of settings.

√ In a recent study, Baratz¹ demonstrates the complexity of providing an equivalent task for Negro low SES and white middle SES children. She found that the child's ability to repeat a sentence accurately was largely dependent on whether the sentence was presented in the child's primary dialect (Negro or standard English). She found that white children were as handicapped in repeating the Negro dialect sentences as were the Negro low SES children in repeating the standard English sentences. In both cases the mistakes were systematic intrusions of the primary dialect into the less familiar one. ✓

After reviewing language studies on the low income child Dickie and Bagur conclude:

Since many studies compare the language of Negro and white children, there is a tendency to relate the characteristics of Negro speech to the Negro culture. Middle SES white have been compared with low SES black thus confounding race and SES. Several studies, designed to separate racial from SES effects (Peisch, 1965; Jeruchimowicz, Costello, and Begur, 1971) indicate that SES, not race, is the source of at least some of these significant effects. Lesser, Fifer,

¹Joan C. Baratz, "A Bi-Dialectal Task for Determining Language Proficiency in Economically Disadvantaged Negro Children," Child Development, September, 1969, Vol. 40, No. 3, pp. 889-901.

and Clark (1965) in a comparison among SES and ethnic-racial groups, demonstrated that while both race and SES effects were present, they were separate and operated along different dimensions (SES affected the level of mental ability while ethnicity affected the pattern of response). Similar studies dealing specifically with language are needed to delineate the sources of specific differences between groups and to assess significant interactions that may occur between race and SES.

The comprehension aspect of language competence in the SES-race language testing is often overlooked. There is a general assumption concerning non-standard English speakers' high comprehension level for standard English which is based mainly upon these speakers' ability to repeat an equivalent standard English. Ervin-Tripp, Labov, Kernan, and Baratz question the use of imitation tasks that children translate into their own dialect as valid measures of comprehension. Studies which utilized this technique

¹Dickie and Bagur, "Considerations of the Study of Language in Young Low-Income Minority Group Children," pp. 35-36.

²S. Erwin-Tripp, "Sociolinguistic Competence," pp. 123-159.

³William Labov, "The Logic of Non-Standard English," pp. 60-70.

⁴Claudia Kernan, "Language Behavior in a Black Urban Community."

Stephen S. Baratz, Negro Culture and Early Child-hood Education. Paper presented at the Montessori Centennial Conference, New York, June 1970, pp. 13-14.

were made by Osser, Wang, and Zaid and Stern and Gupta. ²

The argument against the imitation technique suggests that this may be an insufficient indication of comprehension of particular features since the sentences contain redundancy. Ervin-Tripp states that there is need for more studies like Torrey's exploring the full range of comprehension of specific features of various types of English for various types of listeners. Baratz concludes that there is a general dearth of information concerning the comprehension abilities of standard English by black dialect speakers.

¹Harry Osser, Marilyn Wang, and Farida Zaid, "The Young Child's Ability to Imitate and Comprehend Speech; A Comparison of Two Subcultural Groups, Child Development, 40, 1969, pp. 1063-1075.

²Carolyn Stern and William Gupta, "Echoic Responding of Disadvantaged Preschool Children as a Function of Type of Speech Modeled," Journal of School Psychology, Vol. 8, No. 1, 1970, pp. 24-27.

³Susan Ervin-Tripp, "Sociolinguistic Competence," pp. 123-159.

⁴Jane Torrey, "Teaching Standard English to Speakers of Other Dialects," Second International Congress of Applied Linguistics, Cambridge, England, 1969. [Cited in Susan Ervin-Tripp, "Children's Sociolinguistic Competence and Dialect Diversity," NSSE Yearbook, Early Childhood, pp. 123-160.]

⁵Joan Baratz, "Language Abilities of Black Americans."

Languages in Contact in the School Setting

Teacher attitude. Johnson¹ suggests that the teacher's attitude toward the child speaking black dialect is the greatest single problem in the school setting. Labov² stresses the importance of a positive teacher attitude toward the nonstandard speaker as vital for school success. The success of the Shepard project in St. Louis³ was largely dependent upon a change in teacher attitude of expectancy toward the dialect speaking child. Crosby⁴ states that the teacher speaking standard English and the child speaking black dialect frequently do not understand each other often resulting in the teacher's disapproval of how the child speaks. Baratz⁵ feels that the non-standard speaker is apt to be regarded as a poor speaker of standard English by the middle class teacher. From

¹Kenneth R. Johnson, "Pedagogical Problems of Using Second Language Techniques for Teaching Standard English to Speakers of Nonstandard Negro Dialect," The Florida FL Reporter, Vol. 7, No. 1, 1969, p. 78.

²William Labov, "The Logic of Non-Standard English," pp. 60-70.

³Charles Silberman, "The City and the Negro," in Goldberg Passau, ed., <u>Education of the Disadvantaged</u>, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967.

⁴Muriel Crosby, "Future Research Implications Growing Out of the Wilmington Study," in Roger Shuy, ed., Social Dialects and Language Learning, Champaign, Illinois, NCTE, 1964, pp. 135-138.

Joan Baratz, "Who Should Do What to Whom and Why?" The Florida FL Reporter, Vol. 7, No. 1, 1969.

Baratz's observation, it is not unusual for the middle class black teacher to be as anti-ghetto as the middle class white teacher.

Not regarded by the educational establishment as an acceptable language system, many problems ensue. Baratz² states that textbooks and teaching materials as well as the teacher's language are standard English. The non-standard speaker is viewed by Cazden³ as a social liability in the school setting. The dialect speaker is expected to accomplish as much as the standard speaker in materials that are written in his second language. Stewart⁴ sees that learning barriers are especially prevalent in reading where dialect interference is often viewed by the teacher as reading error.

Suggestions from Research

Cazden⁵ suggests that the child's language development should be evaluated in terms of his progress toward the norms

¹J. Baratz, "Language Abilities of Black Americans."

²J. Baratz, "Negro Ghetto Children and Urban Education; A Cultural Solution," <u>The Florida FL Reporter</u>, Vol. 7, No. 1, 1969, pp. 13-14.

³Courtney Cazden, "Subcultural Differences in Child Language."

William Stewart, "Toward a History of American Negro Dialect," in Frederick Williams, ed., Language and Poverty, Chicago, Markham Pub. Co., 1970, pp. 351-377.

⁵C. Cazden, "Subcultural Differences in Child Language."

of his particular speech community. This would necessitate the use of tests with dialect-fair scales. Troike¹ sees a need to measure the receptive knowledge of standard English. Many suggest teaching standard English as a second dialect. Those include Baratz,² Cazden,³ Shuy,⁴ Goodman,⁵ Stewart,⁶ and Wolfram.⁷

Incorporation of dialect into the curriculum as part of the process of teaching is proposed by Baratz. She sees a need for teacher training in the areas of language arts, dialect structure, Negro culture, speech pathology testing techniques, and foreign language teaching methods in order to produce teachers with skills for working with dialect speaking children in the standard English school environment.

Rudolph Troike, "Social Dialects and Language Learning: Implications for TESOL," The Florida FL Reporter, Vol. 7, No. 1, 1969, pp. 98-99.

²J. Baratz, "Who Should Do What and to Whom?"

³C. Cazden, "Subcultural Differences in Child Language," pp. 344-348.

⁴R. Shuy, "Sociolinguistics and Urban Language," pp. 344-348.

⁵K. Goodman, "Dialect Barriers to Reading Comprehension," pp. 39-46.

⁶W. Stewart, "Toward a History of American Negro Dialect."

⁷W. Wolfram, <u>Detroit Negro Speech</u>.

⁸Joan Baratz, "The Application of Dialect Research in the Context of the Classroom; It Ain't Easy," pp. 3-7.

For construction of language competency tests to be used with the black dialect speaker, Ervin-Tripp says:

Start by searching the speech events, testing situations, and linguistic patterns familiar to children to be tested. Full development and independent validation of the test material should take place within the reference population. It would be easier to translate material into middle class than to go the other direction. I

In summary, it is evident that there is much need to study language development in its social setting. Comprehension study may be a valuable avenue from which to gain a new perspective toward language and its role in the school, home and community setting.

¹Susan Ervin-Tripp, "Sociolinguistic Competence," p. 128.

CHAPTER III

DESCRIPTION OF RESEARCH DESIGN, PROCEDURE, AND DATA ANALYSIS

Recent racial integration in public school systems has brought together teachers and students who frequently speak different dialects. A review of related literature resulted in the formulation of this study. A pilot study conducted by the writer indicated a need to examine the possibility of barriers to comprehension of standard English existing for black dialect speaking children. This chapter includes a description of the elements involved in the procedure for the study; the testing sample, the instrument, the test administration, and the design for data analysis.

DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

This study was planned to test the auditory language comprehension of standard English and black dialect with children ages 4 to 6 from four groups: (1) low SES black, (2) low SES white, (3) middle SES black, and (4) middle SES white. The criteria for low SES selection, as stated in Chapter I, specified that the subjects would be selected from children of families whose annual income does not exceed \$4,000, placing them below the income level

established by Federal Poverty Guidelines. The low SES subjects were selected from three day care centers of the Neighborhood Day Care Association of Houston and one day care center of the Harris County Community Action Association. The centers of both organizations accept only children from low income families (see criteria for Low SES in Chapter I). Criteria for middle SES selection, set forth in Chapter I, designates that subjects be selected from children of families whose income is over \$8,000, but does not exceed \$16,000. The middle SES subjects for this study were selected from four private nursery schools in the southwest, south, and southeast sections of the Houston area. The average family income in the homes from which these children come falls within the prescribed range. Two geographic regions in the Houston area were represented in each of the four sample groups thus a total of eight different sources were used.

Because of neighborhood housing patterns, racial segregation of children and staff generally prevailed in the facilities from which the subjects were selected. The two exceptions were a black five year old boy attending a nursery school with all white middle SES children and two white five year old girls attending a day care center serving predominantly low SES black children. Though these three children were not included in the testing sample, they were tested for comparison purposes.

A total of eighty children, twenty from each of the four social groups, were randomly selected from 200 children attending day care centers and/or early childhood educational programs. Age categories included two one-year divisions. Subjects were evenly distributed by age and sex. Though age was not dealt with statistically in this study, data is available for further use.

Preschool age children were selected in an effort to assess oral language comprehension abilities in both standard English and black dialect before children come into contact with the integrated language environment of the formal school setting. An attempt was made to select only monolingual subjects (children speaking one English dialect).

DESCRIPTION OF THE INSTRUMENT USED

The <u>Carrow Test for Language Comprehension</u> was selected for use in this study. Three modifications of the test were necessary to carry out the design: (1) in order to insure that all subjects received the same test, directions and verbal stimulus items were recorded on audio tape, (2) a short pretest to determine auditory acuity (Appendix C) was recorded to be played before test administration. (This addition was made in order to deselect those children who might have had a hearing loss which would invalidate the results), (3) the test was translated into black dialect.

Standard English Version

Carrow describes the instrument:

The instrument we designed permitted the assessment of oral language comprehension without requiring language expression from the child. The test consists of a set of plates each of which contains one or more black and white line drawings; the pictures represent referential categories and contrasts that can be signaled by form classes and function words, morphological constructions, grammatical categories, and syntactic structure. (For items, see Appendix D).

The plates which test the structural contrasts provide two or three pictures one of which represents the referent for the linguistic form being tested; the alternate picture(s) represent(s) the referent(s) for the contrasting linguistic form(s). For example to test comprehension of the linguistic signal for future tense as contrasted with present and past tenses, we designed a plate to illustrate an action in the temporal sequence of present, past, and future. The stimulus in this case is in the future, i.e., "The girl will jump."

The form classes and function words tested by the instrument are nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and prepositions. Morphological constructions tested are those formed by adding "er" and "ist" to free morphs such as nouns, verbs, and adjectives. Grammatical categories that are evaluated involve contrasts of case, number, gender, tense, status, voice, and mood. Syntactic structures of predication, complementation, modification, and coordination are also tested.

The advantages of this instrument are its effectiveness, simplicity, brevity, ease of administration and scoring. Carrow refers to her experience with the test:

Previous test results have indicated test validity by demonstrating: (1) Statistically significant differences at each age level between ages 3-7. Therefore the test is developmental, as is language. (2) Statistically significant differences between children who

lElizabeth Carrow, "The Development of Auditory Comprehension of Language Structure in Children," Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders, May 1968, 33, p. 103.

have normal language and those who do not (deaf, clinically language disordered). (3) Homogeneity of variance within each of the age categories from 3 to 7. Small standard deviations of age means were found when the test was administered to a monolingual population with representative socio-economic classes. 1

The instrument was first written in standard English and has since been translated into Spanish. Both forms have been widely used with monolingual and bilingual children. The present study included a translation into local black dialect by a black dialect speaker native to Houston.

Black Dialect Version

The Back-Translation technique described by Werner and Campbell was used for the translation of the testing instrument from standard English to black dialect. For this process Werner and Campbell state:

Two interpreters are used, one translating the first half into the target language, the other the second half. This completed, each then works with the translated local-language versions of the other, translating them back into English. The investigator thus ends up with two versions in his language, and through them a triangulation on to the local-language version, which almost certainly must be adequate if the two English versions are.²

In order to translate the stimulus items into as natural a form of oral black dialect as possible, the stimulus

¹Elizabeth Carrow, Personal Communication, December, 1971.

²Oswald Werner and Donald Campbell, "Translating, Working Through Interpreters and the Problem of Decentering," in Raoul Naroll and Ronald Cohen, eds., <u>A Handbook of Method in Cultural Anthropology</u>, Garden City, New York, The Natural History Press, 1970, p. 412.

picture was presented to the translator and her dialect response was recorded on tape. This method eliminated the dialect speaker's exposure to written stimulus items and allowed for the translation to be aural-oral. The Back-Translation technique was used in the following manner: in separate recording sessions, two bi-dialectal black speakers, native to Houston, were presented alternate test items in picture form. They were asked to give the lexical item or appropriate structure for each picture in black dialect. These responses were recorded on a tape recorder. Each dialect tape was then played for the alternate speaker to translate back into standard English. Items on which there was not complete agreement were modified by consensus.

One of the dialect speakers then recorded the stimulus items from pictures using the accepted translation. The completed tape translation was validated by local black graduate and undergraduate students. A phonetic transcription of the translation may be found in Appendix A.

The standard English version was recorded by a white female native to Houston. Because the grammar of the standard English speaker paralleled that of the test stimulus items, no attempt was made to avoid the printed stimuli. A phonetic transcription of the standard English version may be found in Appendix B. Both test versions, black dialect and standard English, were transferred from the original tapes to cassette tapes for use by the testers.

PILOT TESTING

In order to determine if subjects respond as well to a taped set of test stimulus items as to stimulus items spoken by the examiner, a pilot test was conducted. Subjects were selected from the same source as the original pilot study. Results showed no noticeable difference in performance. It was then possible to administer all tests by tape recordings, thereby eliminating the critical variable dealing with consistency in oral administration.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE TEST

Testing was begun March 27, 1972 and completed April 28, 1972. The two recorded test forms were administered by two black and two white women in their twenties. It was felt that, in all probability, the young children being tested would have had the most contact with female adults of this approximate age. Three of the four testers were speech pathology senior students who had had experience with one-to-one testing in a speech clinic. The fourth tester had helped with the pilot study. Testing was done in rooms which were separated from the classes in every nursery school setting.

Each tester was given a cassette tape with the dialect test version on one side and the local standard English version on the other side. The same tester administered both tests to twenty children individually. The black

testers administered the dialect version at the first testing session and the standard English version the following week. The white testers administered the standard English version at the first testing session and the dialect version on the second week. This procedure provided for half of the children to receive the standard English version first and the other half to receive the dialect version first. Testing sequence was divided evenly among all of the four social groups.

To insure that the subjects in each socio-economicrace category would be evenly divided with half of the subjects
being the same race as the tester, the following plan was
adopted: One white tester administered the test to ten low SES
white subjects and ten middle SES black subjects. The second
white tester administered the test to ten low SES black
subjects and ten middle SES white subjects. One black tester
administered the tests to ten low SES white subjects and ten
middle SES black subjects while the second black tester
tested ten low SES black subjects and ten middle SES white
subjects.

The two test forms were administered to each subject with a minimum of one week between testings. Results were recorded by testers on a recording form (see Appendix D).

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Raw scores were used for comparison of means of the two test versions. Types of errors were noted for future

study. Hypotheses were tested using a three factor analysis of variance with repeated measure on one factor. The effect of the two version testing sequence was co-varied out. The reliability of each version of the test was checked with the Kuder-Richardson technique. Determination of the effect of testing repetition was tested within each group to see if order was a variable. Normality of distribution and homogeneity of variance by sample was tested with Bartlett's test.

SUMMARY

In summary, this study was designed to test the auditory language comprehension of eighty preschool children randomly selected from four social categories. The <u>Carrow Auditory Test for Language Comprehension</u> was modified for this specific design use by (1) putting the stimulus items on audio tape, (2) including a short pretest to determine the auditory acuity of the tested subjects, and (3) translating the stimulus items into black dialect for a second test version. A pilot test with the taped stimulus items indicated no noticeable difference in subject performance. The two test versions were administered to each subject by four testers, two black and two white, who tested across social and racial categories. Data was analyzed by a three factor analysis of variance with repeated measures on one

factor. The Kuder-Richardson technique was used to check each test version for reliability. Bartlett's test was used to test for normality of distribution and homogeneity of variance.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSES OF THE DATA

This chapter presents the results of the data collected from eighty subjects who were tested with two versions of the Carrow Test of Auditory Language Comprehension. One version was administered in the original standard English, and the other version was a black dialect translation. The discussion will focus on the hypotheses in the same order in which they were presented in Chapter I. A three way analysis of variance was used in determining the acceptance or rejection of the hypotheses (see Table 1). The Scheffé test for interaction was used to examine significant differences between small groups. The results can be seen in Table 2. The Kuder-Richardson test was used to analyze the reliability of each version of the test. Normality of distribution and homogeneity of variance by sample were tested using Bartlett's technique.

Additional analyses were also included. The results of the Carrow test were examined in order to discern any obvious differences among the groups in the comprehension of specified grammatical categories. This data was not subjected to statistical analysis. The age variable was also examined in order to observe developmental aspects. The sex variable

Table 1
Summary of a Three Way Analysis of Variance with Repeated Measure on One Factor

	SS	df	ms	F	p.
TOTAL	15943.25	159			
Between groups	11170.15	79			
Group	2484.75	3	828.25	10.43	∠. 01
B/W Administrator	91.55	1	91.55	1.15	
G *	303.25	3	101.08	1.27	
Error b	5714.40	72	79.37		
Within subject	4773.00	80			
Trial (Test 182)	500.55	1	500.55	19.76	<.01
T * G	587.80	3	195.93	7.73	<.01
Т * А	406.36	1	406.35	16.04	<.01
T * G * A	1454.25	3	484.75	19.13	<.01
Error w	1824.05	73	25.33		

T = Test T * G = Interaction of Test with 4 Groups

G = Group T * A = Interaction of Test by Administrator

A = Administrator

T * G * A = Interaction of 16 groups

Table 2 Scheffé Matrix Tables

Standard English Test

Rank Order	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Class	Middle SES	Middle SES	Middle SES	Low SES	Middle SES	Low SES	Low SES	Low SES
Tester	Black ^B l	White B ₂	White $^{ m W}_{ m l}$	White W ₂	Black W ₂	White Bl	Black $^{ m W}_{ m l}$	Black B ₂
1							· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
2	2.0467							
3	3.5435*	0.2041						
4		*1.3330	0.6054					
5		*2.4216		0.1613				
_			*4.7682*		1.1648			
•			*5.8057*			0.0510		
8	20.8668*	*9.8431*	* 7.2124 *	* 6.1742 *	*2.5003	0.2520	0.0762	

Black Dialect Test

Rank Order	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Middle	Low	Middle	${ t Middle}$	Low	Middle	Low	Low
Class	SES	SES	SES	SES	SES	SES	SES	SES
	Black	White	Black	White	Black	White	White	Black
Tester	W_2	W_2	B ₁	W ₇	W_{\neg}	$^{\mathrm{B}}2$	В ₁	В2
								
٦								

```
0.0057
3
     0.0510 0.0227
     4.2359**3.9316**3.3571
     4.5515**4.2359**3.6387* 0.0057
5
6
     5.8057**4.3398**4.7682**0.1235
                                      0.0762
     9.8431**9.3763**8.4768**1.1648
                                      1.0079
                                              0.5298
    10.3213**9.8431**8.9209**1.3330
                                      1.1648
                                              0.6451
                                                       0.0057
```

^{** =} \angle .01 Level of significance B1=Black Tester One * = \angle .05 Level of significance B2=Black Tester Two W1=White Tester One W2=White Tester Two

was examined for atypical results. Heterogeneity of scores within groups was compared. Testing sequence was examined to determine if subjects gained familiarity with testing procedure. Special cases were noted as well as comments by examiners regarding subjects' test behavior.

Table 1 is presented to indicate where the significant differences occurred in the test results. The scores of groups showed significant differences. Within subjects, significance was indicated between tests, between test and group, between test and administrator, and between test, group, and administrator. Because significant differences were found in the above areas, the Scheffe test was used to examine the areas more closely. (See Table 2).

HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis 1: In the black children tested, there is no significant difference between the mean oral language comprehension level in black dialect and the mean oral language age comprehension level in standard English. As indicated in Table 3, the black children tested scored slightly higher in standard English than in black dialect but the difference was not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Though this hypothesis was accepted, note the difference of mean scores in the small groups of black children tested (Table 3A). One group of middle SES black subjects

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, and Analysis of Variance
For all Black Subjects Tested with Standard English
and Black Dialect

Treat	ment	-	Sul	ojects	Mean	Standard Deviation
$\mathtt{T}_{\mathtt{l}}$	SE		All	Black	74.20	7.62
T_2	D		All	Black	72.65	6.94
		F-Ratio		Prol	bability	Significance
		.6054			3.98	ns

Table 3A
Small Group Means of Black Subjects Tested

Group by Class and Tester	Standard Eng. Mean Score	Dialect Mean Score
Middle SES - Black Tester	86.0	77.5
Middle SES - White Tester	74.0	78.2
Low SES - Black Tester	67.8	65.4
Low SES - White Tester	68.9	69.7

scored higher in SE while the second group scored higher in dialect. A similar situation existed with the two low SES black groups. These differences neutralized the large group scores.

Hypothesis 2: In the white children tested, there is no significant difference between the mean oral language comprehension level in the black dialect and the mean oral language comprehension level in standard English. The results, seen in Table 4, indicate that there was a significant difference at the .01 level. The mean of all white subjects tested was significantly higher in standard English than the mean in black dialect. Therefore the hypothesis was rejected.

Though the white subjects as a total group scored significantly higher in standard English, one group of ten low SES subjects scored higher in black dialect than in standard English. However this was more than offset by the middle SES class white subjects who scored much higher on the standard English. See Table 4A.

Hypothesis 3: In the low and middle socio-economic black children tested with black dialect, there is no significant difference in their mean oral language comprehension levels. As can be noted in Table 5, there was a significant difference at the .01 level. In comparing the means, the middle SES black subjects' mean was ten points higher than

Table 4

Means, Standard Deviations, and Analysis of Variance
For all White Subjects Tested with Standard English
and Black Dialect

ſreat	ment	Subje	ects	Mean	Standard Deviation
${f T_1} {f T_2}$	SE D	All Wh		76.08 70.55	7.61 8.62
	F-R	atio	Proba	ability	Significance
	7.	7059	7.	01	<.01

Table 4A
Small Group Means of White Subjects Tested

Group by Class and Tester	Standard Eng. Mean Score	Dialect Mean Score
Middle SES - Black Tester	80.3	68.6
Middle SES - White Tester	78.5	70.0
Low SES - Black Tester	69.8	65.7
Low SES - White Tester	75.7	77.7

the low SES subjects' mean on black dialect. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 4: In the low and middle socio-economic

black children tested with standard English, there is no

significant difference in their oral language comprehension

levels. The difference in oral language comprehension was

significant at the .01 level as seen in Table 6. In comparing

Table 5

Means, Standard Deviations, and Analysis of Variance
For Low and Middle SES Black Subjects Tested
With Black Dialect

Treatment	Subjec	ts	Mean	Standard Deviation
T ₂ Dialect	Middle SES	Black	77.75	6.85
T ₂ Dialect	Low SES	Black	67.55	7.06
	F-Ratio	Probabi	lity	Significance
	13.1082	2.7	4	<. 01

the means, the middle SES black subjects' mean was nearly twelve points higher than the low SES subjects' mean on standard English. The null hypothesis was rejected. There was also a noticeable difference in the standard deviation score with the middle SES black at 6.06 and the low SES black at 9.18. This difference indicated a greater variance within the low SES group.

Table 6

Means, Standard Deviations, and Analysis of Variance
For Low and Middle SES Black Subjects Tested
with Standard English

Trea	tment		Subjects	Mean	Standard Deviation
${ t T_1}$	SE		Middle SES Black	80.05	6.06
T_1	SE		Low SES Black	68.35	9.18
	······································	F-Ratio	Probab	ility	Significance
_		17.2471	2.	74	.01

Hypothesis 5: In the low and middle socio-economic white children tested with black dialect, there is no significant difference in their mean oral language comprehension level. There was no significant difference on these mean scores at the .05 level of significance, as shown in Table 7. However, it can be noted that the mean score of the low SES white was slightly higher than the mean score of the middle SES white on black dialect. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Hypothesis 6: In the low and middle socio-economic white children tested with standard English, there is no significant difference in their mean oral language comprehension levels. Here there was a significant difference at the .05 level with the middle SES group mean ten points higher than that of the low SES group. See Table 8. The standard

Table 7

Means, Standard Deviations, and Analysis of Variance
For Low and Middle SES White Subjects Tested
with Black Dialect

Treatment	Subjec	ts	Means	Standard Deviation
T ₂ Dialect	Middle SE	S White	69.30	8.41
T ₂ Dialect	Low SES	White	71.80	8.84
	F-Ratio	Probabilit	y S:	ignificance
	.7875	3.98		ns

Table 8

Means, Standard Deviations, and Analysis of Variance
For Low and Middle SES White Subjects Tested
with Standard English

Treatment	Subj	jects	Means	Standard Deviation
T _l SE	Middle	SES White	79.40	7.70
T ₂ SE	Low S	SES White	69.30	7.38
	F-Ratio	Probabi	lity Si	gnificance
	5.5715	3.9	3	∠. 05

deviation remained almost the same within each group. In this case the null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 7: In the black and white children tested, there is no significant difference between their oral language comprehension levels of black dialect. As indicated in Table 9, there was no significant difference at the .05 level in the means of black and white children tested with black dialect. Though the white children have a larger standard deviation, they scored almost as high as the black children on the black dialect test. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 9

Means, Standard Deviations and Analysis of Variance For Black and White Subjects Tested with Black Dialect

Treatment		Subjects	Mean	Standard Deviation
T ₂ Dialect		Black	72.65	6.86
Γ ₂ Dialect		White	70.55	8.63
	F-Ratio	Probal	oility	Significance
	1.1113	3	.88	ns

Significant differences in mean scores were evident within the small groups tested. This difference can be seen in Table 9A.

Table 9A

Small Group Means of Black and White Subjects
Tested with Black Dialect

Group by Class and Tester	Mean on Dialect Test
Middle SES Black - Black	77.5
Middle SES Black - White	78.2
Middle SES White - Black	68.6
Middle SES White - White	70.0
Low SES Black - Black	65.4
Low SES Black - White	69.7
Low SES White - Black	65.7
Low SES White - White	77.7

Hypothesis 8: In the black and white children tested, there is no significant difference between their oral language comprehension levels of standard English. There was no significant difference at the .05 level, as seen in Table 10, between black and white mean oral language comprehension scores on standard English. Worthy of note, the mean of the black subjects was two points higher than the white subjects on dialect (Table 9), while the mean of the white subjects was two points higher than the black subjects' mean on standard English but neither difference was significant. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 10

Means, Standard Deviations and Analysis of Variance for Black and White Subjects Tested With Standard English

Treatment		Subjects	Mean	Standard Deviation
T ₁ SE		Black	74.20	7.62
T _l SE		White	76.08	7.54
	F-Ratio	Probab	ility	Significance
	.8906	3.9	98	ns

UNHYPOTHESIZED STATISTICAL RESULTS

Though not originally planned in the design of this study, it was deemed appropriate, in light of the significant findings related to socio-economic status, that low and middle SES be compared for further information. Table 11 presents a statistical analysis in terms of SES. On the black dialect test, there was no significant difference in the oral language comprehension means of low and middle SES groups. Worthy of note, however, was the difference in means scored by the low and middle SES children on the standard English test. This proved to be the most significant difference found in any group compared throughout the study.

Table 11

Means, Standard Deviations and Analysis of Variance For Low and Middle SES Subjects Tested with Black Dialect and Standard English

				
Treatment	Subjects		Mean	Standard Deviation
T ₂ Dialect	t Midd	le SES	73.52	7.63
T ₂ Dialect	t Low	SES	69.67	7.85
	F-Ratio	Proba	bility	Significance
	3.7350	3	.98	ns
				
Treatment	Sub	jects	Mean ————————————————————————————————————	Standard Deviation
T ₁ SE	Midd	le SES	79.72	6.88
T ₁ SE	Low	SES	70.55	8.28
	F-Ratio	Proba	bility	Significance
•	21.1891	7	.01	۷.01

KUDER-RICHARDSON AND BARTLETT ANALYSIS

Two additional statistical measures were used to analyze the test results. (1) The Kuder-Richardson Reliability Test, Table 12, measured the consistency of performance on the items within the test, the instrument's homogeneity. Both the total test and the categories within the test were subjected to the Kuder-Richardson analysis. (2) The Bartlett technique was used to test for the assumption of normality

of distribution and homogeneity of variance, basic to the analysis of variance. This test was applied to the samples in each hypothesis and can be seen in Table 13.

Table 12
Kuder-Richardson Reliability

Stand	ard English Test	Version	Black Dialect Test Version
Total	Test	.77026	.76322
Categ	ories within Tes	t	
1.	Form Class	.98121	.77320
2.	Morphological Construction	.39780	.42074
3.	Grammatical Categories	.67925	.61007
4.	Syntactic Structure	.128	.36122

Categories with the largest number of items had the highest reliability.

ADDITIONAL ANALYSIS

Examination of Group Results by Testing Instrument Categories

In order to look closely at the kinds of errors made by the subjects in the oral language comprehension of standard English (SE) and black dialect, (D), test categories and items within categories were examined by group responses (see Table 14). The following is a descriptive account of this analysis in terms of the test categories: form classes

Table 13

Bartlett's Test* for Normality of Distribution and Homogeneity of Variance by Samples From the Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Subjects	Treatment	F-Ratio	р.
1.	All Black	T ₁ T ₂	1.39612	1.69 ns
2.	All White	T ₁ T ₂	1.57528	1.69 ns
3.	Low & Middle SES Black	Т2	1.15835	2.15 ns
4.	Low & Middle SES Black	$^{\mathtt{T}_{\mathtt{l}}}$	2.12828	2.15 ns
5.	Low & Middle SES White	T ₂	1.09631	2.15 ns
6.	Low & Middle SES White	T _l	1.07909	2.15 ns
7.	White & Black	\mathtt{T}_2	1.56219	1.69 ns
8.	White & Black	$\mathtt{T}_\mathtt{l}$	1.40781	1.69 ns
	Low & Middle SES	Т2	1.12009	1.69 ns
	Low & Middle SES	$\mathtt{T}_{\mathtt{l}}$	1.58625	1.69 ns

 T_1 = Standard English Test

 T_2 = Black Dialect Test

^{*}Bartlett's technique is a test for homogeneity of variance and normality of distribution, assumptions basic to the analysis of variance. Since no significant differences were found, distribution appeared to be normal.

Table 14

Percentage of Correct Responses by SES-Race Groups
Tested on Standard English and Black Dialect
Versions for Carrow Test for Auditory
Language Comprehension

Form Classes and Function Words

Total 68 items		Standa	rd Eng	lish	<u>B</u>	lack D	ialect	
Nouns 28 items	MB 98.2	MW 97.7	LB 94.6	LW 98.5	MB 98.8	MW 90.5	LB 95.2	LW 96.8
"half"	50	65	35	55	60	55	25	45
"pair"	30	30	25	25	20	30	25	30
Verbs 6 items	80	82	69	68	80	68	72.5	70
Adjectives Qualitative 7 items	66.5	52	46.5	61.5	77	50	44	57
Color 3 items	91.5	93.5	77	75	91.5	88.5	85	78.5
Number 8 items	70.5	75.5	61	65.5	68	58	55.5	59.5
Spatial 1 item	90	85	75	75	80	85	60	75
Adverbs Directional litem "up"	100	70	80	95	100	65	55	80
Demonstrative 2 items "these that"	75	65	52.5	55	60	62.5	67.8	57.5
<pre>Interrogatives i item "who"</pre>	45	45	30	30	35	30	40	60
"when"	65	40	50	50	45	30	30	60
Prepositions 6 items	82.5	84	67.5	75	79	70	61.5	72.5

Table 14 (continue	d)
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		Standa	rd Eng	lish	Bla	ck Dia	lect	
Verb-Direction-	МВ	WM	LB	LW	MB	MW	LB	LW
ality 2 items "coming," "going"	55	57.5	47.5	57.5	55	47.5	55	50
	lorphol	ogical	Const	ruction	s			
Total 8 items								
Noun + Deriva- tional suffix "er"								
2 items	82.5	82.5	55	72.5	72.5	60	60	70
Verb + Deriva- tional suffix "er" 2 items	75	70	87.5	70	67.5	72.5	80	82.5
Adj. + Deriva- tional suffix "er" 2 items	70	75	60	57 . 5	55	57.5	55	77.5
Noun + Deriva-	. 0	. •				0, 0		,,,,,
tional suffix "est" 2 items	47.5	72.5	40	47. 5	32.5	72.5	30	47.5
	Gramm	natical	Categ	ories				
Gender & Number Pronoun 5 items	60	63	42	55	63	51	49	57
Number Verb 2 items	52.5	58.5	40	27.5	38.5	42.5	30	40
Number Noun 2 items	60	65	60	55	55	60	60	60
Tense Verb 7 items	62.5	50	43.5	43	51.5	43.5	45	46.5

Table 14 (continued)

		Standa	rd Eng	lish	Bla	ck Dia	lect	
	MB	MW	LB	LW	MB	MW	LB	LW
Status Verb 3 items	52	70	50	40	52	25	40	54.5
Voice Verb 4 items	60	52.5	53	44	44	60	51	49
	Syn	tactic	Struc	ture				
Modification 2 items	60	87.5	62.5	52.5	78.5	82.5	55	45
Predication N-V Number agreement 2 items	55	50	55	60	47.5	52.5	60	72.5
Complimentation d/ind obj. l item	70	65	45	25	60	55	30	40

and function words, morphological constructions, grammatical categories, and syntactic structure. The figures presented represent the percentage of correct responses made by the eighty subjects tested from the four social groupings in this study; middle SES black, middle SES white, low SES black, and low SES white.

Form Classes and Function Words

Nouns. In the group of nouns, representing twenty-eight test items, the subjects tested yielded consistently high scores

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across groups and test versions, with a range of 90.5 percent for MW on dialect to 98.8 percent for MB on dialect. (See Table 14). The concept nouns "half" and "pair" were treated separately within the Noun designation. The number of correct responses on "half" were consistent from one test to the other for all groups but were considerably lower than the scores in the general noun classification. The same pattern was seen in the scores of "pair," with a low percentage correct for all groups on both standard English and black dialect test versions.

Verbs. The six items included in the test showed a total scoring range of 68 percent to 80 percent for all groups on both tests. Worthy of note here was the MW score decrease from 82 percent on SE to 68 percent on dialect while LB and LW scores were slightly higher on the dialect test version.

Adjectives. These were presented in four classifications: qualitative (seven items), color (three items), number (eight items) and spatial (one item). The total range of scoring for all classifications was from 50 percent for MW in dialect on qualitative adjectives to 93.5 percent for MW in standard English on color adjectives. Qualitative adjectives (score range 50 percent to 77 percent) did not hold the overall consistency seen in other categories with MW and LB scoring at least ten percentage points lower than the other groups in both test versions. Color adjective

scores showed consistency within groups from standard English to dialect. Of note were the increased scores for LB (77 percent to 85 percent) and LW (75 percent to 78.5 percent) from standard English to dialect. The spatial adjective scores remained consistent from one test to the other with a 15 point range (75 percent to 90 percent) for all groups with the exception of LB, which scored 60 percent on the test administered in black dialect.

Adverbs. The category included a directional item "up," demonstratives "these" and "that," and interrogatives "who" and "when." The directional item scores showed a range of 55 percent for LB on dialect to 100 percent for MB on both SE and dialect. There was little fluctuation within groups from test to test with the exception of LB score (80 percent on SE to 55 percent on dialect). This lack of consistency for LB scores showed up repeatedly. The demonstratives involving concepts of "these" and "that" showed a consistent score range of 55 percent to 75 percent across groups and tests. There was a major drop by MB from their comprehension of SE to their comprehension of dialect (75 percent to 60 percent). At the same time the LB scores increased from 52.5 percent in SE to 67.8 percent in dialect, and the LW scores showed a slight increase from SE to dialect. The pattern here followed SES grouping with the MB and MW scores higher in SE and the LB and LW scores higher in

dialect. Interrogatives, as presented in this test, seemed relatively difficult for all groups. Scores on the concept of "who" ranged from 30 percent (LB and LW on SE and MW on dialect) to 45 percent (MB and MW on SE). The subjects commonly referred to the picture of the cat rather than the picture of the mean when asked to point to the picture representing who is by the table. The concept of "when" presented consistent difficulty across groups with a high score of 65 percent for MB on SE and a low score of 30 percent for MW and LB on dialect. All group scores with the exception of LW dropped at least 15 percentage points from scores obtained from standard English version when compared to scores obtained from the dialect version. At the same time LW scores increased ten points from SE to dialect.

Prepositions. The six preposition items showed a consistent range across tests with a high of 84 percent for MW on SE to a low of 61.5 percent for LB on dialect. Here again can be noted a decrease for MW scores and an increase for LW scores from SE to dialect, a linguistic phenomena which appeared to be a consistent pattern.

Verbs indicating Directionality. The "coming" and "going" items had Consistently low scores on both tests across groups with a ten point range, 47.5 percent to 57.5 percent.

A possible explanation may lie in the test picture stimulus.

Morphological Constructions

The noun, verb and adjective plus the derivational ending "er," a total of six items, showed a scoring range from 82.5 percent for MB and MW on SE for noun derivation to 55 percent for LB in dialect for adjective derivation.

Of special note was the 10 to 35 point decrease in scores for MB and MW from the standard English test to the dialect version. At the same time the LB scores showed slight change from one test to the other and the LW scores indicated a 12 and 20 point increase from SE to dialect. The noun derivational suffix "est," two items, showed scores ranging from 30 percent to 47.5 percent for all groups with the exception of MW whose score was 72.5 percent on both tests.

Grammatical Categories

Gender and number pronoun. The five items, included in this classification, presented a range of scores with 42 percent for LB on SE to 63 percent for MB on dialect. All groups with the exception of MW scored slightly higher on dialect.

Number verbs involving "s" endings. These two items showed scores ranging from 30 percent to 52.5 percent. The concept of number indicated by verb endings as presented in this test, seemed quite difficult for all children in the testing sample. Nouns like "sheep" and "fish" were used in

the stimulus sentences so that the clue to number was not in the noun, only in the verb.

Number nouns. The two items showed a consistent range of scores across tests, from 55 percent to 65 percent. This category indicated more difficulty in oral language comprehension than was expected. However there was some difficulty with the "s" endings coming through distinctly on the audio tape, so two items from the original category of four were eliminated from analysis.

Tense verb. Seven items presented a range of scores from 62.5 percent for MB on SE to 43 percent for LW on SE with the pattern of MB and MW scores decreasing from SE to dialect and LB and LW scores showing a slight increase from SE to dialect.

Status verb. The scores for the three items ranged from 70 percent for MW on SE to 25 percent for MW on dialect. This included a major drop in scores for MW from SE to dialect, while the other groups were very consistent, and had scores ranging from 40 percent to 54 percent. The MB scores showed no change from SE to dialect, the LB scores showed a slight decrease from SE to dialect and the LW scores increased 14.5 percentage points from SE to dialect. This increase in score from SE to dialect was a consistent pattern for the LW group.

Voice verb. On the four items, scores ranged from 60 percent for MB on standard English to 44 percent for LW on SE and 44 percent for MB on dialect. A different pattern was noted here, this being the only instance where MW showed an increased comprehension in dialect. At the same time the MB scores decreased from 60 percent on SE to 44 percent on dialect while the LB scores decreased 53 percent on SE to 51 percent on dialect. Again the LW showed a consistent increase in their comprehension ability of black dialect.

Syntactic Structure

Modification. The two items showed a range of scores from 45 percent correct for LW on dialect to 87 percent correct for MW on SE. Of note was the 12.5 point increase seen in MB scores from SE to dialect while all other group scores decreased from SE to dialect. This was one of the few times that the LW scores indicated less comprehension in dialect than in standard English.

Predication. For the two items, scores of all subjects with the exception of LW on dialect, fell between 47.5 percent and 60 percent on both tests. A rarity existed here for it was the only time that the LW group scored the highest with 72.5 percent on dialect. Of special interest was a taping problem which inadvertantly provided comprehension information. Two significant "s" sounds were not clearly audible

on these two predication stimulus sentences: "The boys jump," and "The cat plays." The "s" sound could not be heard on plays in either the standard English or the dialect test, and the "s" sound on boys could only be heard in the dialect test version. Since the first sentence was missed more frequently than the second sentence in the SE version, it might be assumed that the plurality of nouns seems to be a more important signaling device than the plurality of verbs. Most subjects did not seem to have difficulty with "The cat play" representing singular "cat" but they did have difficulty with "The boy jump," representing plurality.

Complementation (direct/indirect object). "She showed the girl the boy." This one item produced a wide range of scores with a high of 70 percent correct for MB on SE and a low of 25 percent correct for LW on SE. This seemed to be a difficult grammatical concept especially for low SES groups. All groups scored 5 to 10 points lower on dialect than SE with one exception. The LW group showed a 15 point increase in dialect from SE which was consistent with their emerging pattern.

Summation--Patterns

Middle SES black subjects' scores were consistently higher than scores of the other groups. There was some fluctuation in their scores from SE to dialect tests but as a group they were usually higher in standard English.

Middle SES white subjects' scores were consistently higher in standard English than the low SES groups but the scores also showed a consistently large point drop on the dialect test version.

Low SES black subjects' scores were inconsistent in both standard English and dialect. Generally their scores fell at the low end of the total subjects' scoring range. The few exceptions were the items which were comprehended equally well by all subjects.

Low SES white subjects' scoreswere consistently higher in dialect than in standard English. Both their standard English and dialect test scores fell in the lower part of the total sample range.

Analysis by Age

While an age analysis was not within the scope of this study, results of test scores revealed information deemed sufficiently important to include in this presentation (see Table 15). "Developmental" evidence is speculation only, based on differences of the mean scores of the four and five year olds in the same population samples. (To secure data on development, the same subjects would need to be retested a year later). The developmental aspect of oral language comprehension could be inferred from the mean score increase from four to five year old subjects. This increase was evident in all social-race categories with the exception of one, the low SES black group, where the five year olds

Table 15
Means and Standard Deviations for Age Analysis

	Mean and Standard				
Group	Deviation	4 Year	01ds	5 Year	Olds
I		Standard English	Black Dialect	Standard English	Black Dialect
Middle SES Black	M SD	77.2 8.222	76.2 7.14	82.9 5.54	79.5 8.20
II Middle SES White	M SD	82.6 8.00	63.4 9.36	84.2 6.41	75.2 9.62
III Low SES Black	M SD	68.9 10.13	69.7 8.14	67.8 10.32	65.4 5.99
IV Low SES White	M SD	70.8 5.96	71.0 6.43	74.7 8.82	72.6 11.08
Total Sample	M SD	74.88 8.08	70.08 7.77	77.4 7.77	73.18 8.72
Race		······································			
Black	M SD	73.05 9.18	72.95 7.65	75.35 7.93	72.45 7.10
White	M SD	76.70 6.98	67.20 7.90	77.45 6.61	73.90 8.63
SES Class					
Middle	M SD	79.00 8.11	69.80 8.25	83.55 5.98	77.35 8.91
Low	M SD	69.85 8.00	70.35	71.25 9.59	69.00 8.54

SES = Socio-Economic Status

scored 4 points lower than the four year olds on black dialect comprehension and 1 point lower on standard English comprehension. However, this instance might be accounted for by the difference in population samples from which the two age groups were drawn. This was the only subject grouping where ages were not equally divided across two population samples and most of the five year olds came from a lower SES population.

Mean scores on standard English indicated different rates of increase for subject groupings. The middle SES black five year olds showed a 5.7 point increase, the middle SES white five year olds a 1.6 point increase, and the low SES white five year olds a 3.9 point increase, while the mean score for low SES black five year olds was 1.1 point less than that of the four year olds.

Mean scores on black dialect comprehension also showed different rates of increase for the subject groupings. Middle SES black five year olds were 3.3 points higher than the four year olds, middle SES white five year olds were 11.8 points higher, and low SES white five year olds were 1.6 points higher, while the low SES black five year olds' mean score was 2.3 points lower than that of the four year olds. These scores indicated a marked increase in standard English comprehension for middle SES black and dialect comprehension for middle SES white. Since in both groups the four year olds were performing at a high level, in

their first language, it might be assumed that internalization of one grammatical structure provided the facility for assimilation of a slightly different grammatical structure.

For low SES subjects there was moderate to negative difference in mean score of comprehension from four year olds to five year olds. Low SES white showed the largest gain on standard English which could indicate that this was their second dialect since middle SES black and middle SES white showed major gains on a second dialect. Since the low SES black age groupings were split by population samples, inferences regarding developmental patterns could not be drawn.

Analysis by Sex

Sex. Though the scores of one sex were not significantly higher than the scores of the other, they were atypical and therefore worthy of note. Males generally scored higher than females in oral language comprehension of both standard English and black dialect. This was in contrast to the generally expected higher scores for girls on tests involving language, and previous use of the <u>Carrow Test</u>. This may be attributed to the fact that the test was administered by tape and did not rely upon the stimulus items being presented by a female tester in person. In three instances girls did score higher; middle black and low white in dialect and low white in standard English (see table 16).

Table 16
Means and Standard Deviations for Analysis by Sex

	Mean and Standard				
Group	Deviation		Males	Female	
I Middle SES Black	M SD	Standard English 80.5 6.82	Black Dialect 76.0 10.06	Standard English 79.6 6.12	Black Dialect 79.7 4.2
II Middle SES White	M SD	80.8 7.31	70.3 10.91	78.0 7.19	68.3 7.82
III Low SES Black	M SD	71.0 8.19	69.4 10.28	74.5 6.80	74.2 7.64
All Males	M SD	75.80 8.18	72.74 9.36		
All Females	M SD			74.48 7.55	72.13 6.89
Black Race	M SD	75.70 8.60	75.60 8.13	72.70 8.10	73.00 6.05
White Race	M SD	75.90 7.75	69.85 10.60	76.25 7.00	71.25 7.73
Middle SES Class	M SD	80.65 7.07	73.15 10.49	78.80 6.66	74.00 5.97
Low SES Class	M SD	70.95 9.29	72.30 8.24	70.15 8.44	70.25 7.81

SES = Socio-Economic Status

A difference of significance may be the score of low black male SES subjects which was nine points higher than the score of their female counterparts. At the same time in the low SES white group the girls scored nearly five points higher than the low SES males.

Analysis of Scoring Heterogeneity

Heterogeneity within groups existed (see Table 17).

It is interesting to note that the scoring span for each of the groups on both tests was approximately 23-31 points with the exception of 36 for low SES black on standard English and 41 for middle SES white on black dialect. In these two instances, the wider scoring spans occurred in what was considered to be the dialect with which each respective group had had the least exposure.

Analysis of the Effect of Testing Sequence

Though it was felt that by spacing the administration of the two test versions with a minimum of one week between, there would be little retention, this did not seem to be the case in reality. Since the two test versions were administered to a split half of the sample categories, neither was weighted in scoring. However, it is noted that of the eighty subjects tested, fifty three scored higher on the second test received, three scored the same on both tests, and twenty four scored higher on the first test received. This second test scoring advantage held for every

Table 17

High and Low Mean Scores of SES-Race Groups for Comprehension of Standard English and Black Dialect

SES	Standard English	Dialect
Middle Black	70 * 98	63 * 92
Middle White	66 * 93	52 * 93
Low Black	5 3 * 89	57 * 80
Low White	59 * 82	55 * 86
	50 60 70 80 90 100	50 60 70 80 90 100

Note: SES = Socio-Economic Status

* = Mean Score

category but the middle SES white group where nine of the ten subjects who received standard English first also scored highest in standard English (see Table 18).

Table 18

Number of Subjects Scoring Higher on Each Test Version

	Standard English	Black Dialect
Middle SES Black	8	* 2
Middle SES Black	* 2	8
Middle SES White	8	* 2/2
Middle SES White	* 9	8
Low SES Black	7	* 3
Low SES Black	* 4	6
Low SES White	*2	8
Low SES White	7 1/2	*2 1/2

^{*}Indicates test version administered at first testing.

Fractions indicate those subjects who scored the same on both versions.

SPECIAL CASES OF INTEREST

For the most part the population sample was drawn from segregated nursery school or day care programs. The two exceptions were a middle class white nursery school with a black five year old boy and a day care center serving low SES black with two white five year old girls. These three subjects were tested for comparison purposes. The middle class black subject in the white middle class nursery school scored 93 (raw score) on the standard English

comprehension test and 77 on the black dialect version compared to the group mean of 80.3 on SE and 68.6 on dialect. The low SES white girl subjects in the low SES black nursery school scored 58 and 42 on standard English comprehension and 42 and 56 on the black dialect version, compared to the group mean of 67.8 for comprehension of standard English and 65.4 for comprehension of black dialect.

Testers observed that frequently the subjects being tested would verbally translate the stimulus item from standard English or black dialect into their own speaking language before they responded to the pictures. Some subjects continually repeated the stimulus item, changing it into a familiar interpretation, before they pointed to a picture. One example was the middle SES black boy in the white middle SES setting consistently changed the black dialect to standard English before he responded.

SUMMARY

The analysis of data was treated by a three way analysis of variance and a Scheffé test for significant interaction. Additional statistical analysis included the Kuder-Richardson Reliability Test and Bartlett's homogeneity test. Though race did not cause significant differences in comprehension, socio-economic class did significantly effect comprehension differences between standard English and black dialect. See Appendix E.

The test instrument categories and items were examined for comparison of group responses and evidence of patterns. Definite group response patterns were observed with two of special note, the pattern of inconsistency in comprehension of both standard English and black dialect for the low SES black and the pattern of higher scoring in comprehension of black dialect by the low SES white.

An analysis by age indicated higher scores for five year olds in most groups though the amount of difference varied. An analysis by sex showed that the males scored slightly higher, pointing up an atypical pattern. Scores of all groups showed heterogeneity though the scoring span was wider on the test version that was considered to be the subjects' second dialect. Testing sequence analysis indicated that, with the exception of middle SES white on black dialect, most subjects scored higher on their second testing. Special cases of interest included the test administrator's observation of subjects' verbally translating stimulus items before they responded.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, / LIMITATIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The primary focus of this study was to compare the oral language comprehension of standard English with the oral language comprehension of black dialect in a cross-sectional sample of preschool children living in the Houston area. Since many children come to the school setting from a community where people speak a dialect different from the language spoken by the teacher, a pilot study was conducted which found evidence of a need to determine if there is, in fact, a dialect barrier to the children's comprehension in the school setting.

The study measured young children's oral language comprehension of the standard English grammatical system by using the Carrow Test for Auditory Language Comprehension.

A modification of the Carrow test, which involved a translation of the test into local black dialect, was used to test oral language comprehension of black dialect. Preschool children from four social categories, low and middle socio-economic black and low and middle socio-economic white, were included in the testing sample. Each category was composed of twenty subjects who had been randomly selected from a group of fifty. The sample included an equal distribution of sex and age (four and five year old children). The two test versions were administered at least one week apart to each

subject individually. Tests were presented on audio tape to reduce administrator differences so that each child received the same verbal stimuli. The four testers included two black and two white females, each of whom tested subjects from two different race-class categories.

Major statistical techniques used to analyze the data were: a three way analysis of variance, a Scheffe test for interaction, the Kuder-Richardson Test of Reliability and Bartlett's technique for testing normality of distribution and homogeneity of sample. The design included eight basic hypotheses. Additional analyses were made on the subjects' socio-economic class, age, and comprehension of grammatical categories within the testing instrument.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Sample Composition

Though the investigator believes that the subjects were representative of the groups tested, it would not be sound to make general assumptions for the total population of the Houston area.

The Experimental Instrument

The instrument has not been standardized. Though it has been widely used in its standard English form, the test's statistical validity and reliability have not been estblished. The modifications, which included the following,

had not been used before: (a) the taping of an introduction and a pretest for auditory acuity, (b) the recording of the tests on audio tape for administrative consistency, and (c) the translating of the test into black dialect.

Home Background of Subjects

Data on the family and home life of the subjects was unknown. Information regarding the vocation of the parents, the number in the family, the child's position in the family, and the dialect spoken in the home, was not collected.

Experiential Background of Subjects

The amount of nursery school experience that each child had had prior to his being tested for this study, was not ascertained. The difference among groups in terms of experience with individual testing or with picture interpretation required for the Carrow test may have affected the results in this study. No attempt was made to determine the extent of these differences.

Tester Variable

The tester variable could not be completely controlled even though the verbal stimuli was taped to provide consistency of presentation.

CONCLUSIONS

Most of the young children comprehended standard English and black dialect at different levels. Of the eighty children tested, only three subjects understood the two language versions equally well. When the mean scores of all white and all black children were combined to test differences in comprehension of black dialect and standard English, the scores were equalized and analysis yielded no information. However, when SES groups and racial groups were recombined and the scores analyzed, differences in comprehension did appear indicating that comprehension ability rested with SES rather than race.

Heterogeneity of comprehension in standard English and black dialect existed within all four social categories, though the middle SES subjects generally performed at a higher level. Race, apart from class, did not effect the level of performance. There was no evidence to support the position that genetic difference as indicated by race, affected the young child's ability to comprehend language structure. The combination of black dialect and standard English comprehension scores for all black subjects was identical to the combination of black dialect and standard English comprehension scores for all white subjects.

The test results did, however, indicate that social class was the major determining factor in the young child's

ability to comprehend language structure in either standard English or black dialect. This was revealed by the middle SES black child's ability to comprehend both black dialect and standard English structure at a high level. It may be assumed that for low SES children exposed to a black dialect environment, it was not the dialect that prompted a lower level of comprehension but instead, it was the total language environment generally prevalent in the low SES area.

Various oral language comprehension patterns existed within the SES groups of children tested. Though they performed at different levels, the middle SES black and the low SES white children seemed the most bi-dialectal in their comprehension, which suggested that theirs was a bi-dialectal environment. Middle white children comprehended standard English at a much higher level than they comprehended black dialect, probably due to their lack of exposure to black dialect. Low SES black children were inconsistent in their facility to comprehend structural items within black dialect and standard English which signified that their environment probably contained a single dialect composed of a mixture of standard English and black dialect structural items.

This study suggested that age was a significant factor in the oral language comprehension level of most subjects in both standard English and black dialect. When four year olds comprehended the structure of their native language well, the five year olds in the same SES/racial grouping

comprehended the structure of a second dialect well. could be inferred that when one grammatical structure has been internalized, it may not be difficult for the child to learn to comprehend a second but similar grammatical struc-This was supported by the middle SES white five year olds' markedly higher scores on dialect and the middle SES black five year olds' higher scores on standard English. At the same time, in low SES groups where four year old subjects performed at a lower level on both tests, there was moderate to no increase in the scores for five year olds. From this it may be inferred that the introduction of a second dialect, to a young child who is performing at a lower level in his native dialect, may cause a plateauing or even a regression of the first language. It is possible that concept development and experiences remain static and result in an arrest of language development.

Dialect barriers to comprehension do indeed exist for the young child in learning centers where the language of the teacher and the materials differs from the language spoken by the child. This problem may create even greater learning dissonance for older children, and may account for consistent academic failure for many low SES black children despite huge expenditures of money.

EDUCATIONAL APPLICATIONS

Young children need much aural-oral experience with the language that they will be expected to learn to read. If they speak a dialect other than that being used by the teacher and found in the reading materials, the children will need to become bi-dialectal in their comprehension skills prior to their being presented the task of reading standard English.

For four and five year old low SES black and white children in the school setting, there needs to be abundant exposure to mainstream language through sensory experiences, storytelling, conversation, folksongs, and rhymes. There is a need for the information presentation of standard English for modeling through games, finger plays, rhythms, and songs. As an outgrowth of this rich language environment, a method utilizing a language experience approach for beginning reading and writing would be appropriate.

The teacher's attitude toward the dialect speaking child and his dialect is a vital element in the child's progress toward bi-dialectal competence. She must accept the child and the language that he brings to school. The teacher should be aware that the language spoken by the child is a legitimate form of communication, which is used by those in his home environment and serves his basic needs (physical, social, and emotional). She must recognize that

the child's dialect is a different but not an inferior form of English. It is her responsibility to be aware of these differences and possible comprehension barriers that may result from them in her communication with the child. The child may have to learn to translate the teacher's language structure into his own before he responds. This may cause him to respond less frequently, and more slowly and to verbalize for auditory reinforcement as he translates.

The teacher of the young dialect speaking child must be able to relate to the child and create a relaxed informal atmosphere, but one filled with potential for a multitude of experiences from which to build concepts and base language. The teacher and other assistants must be able to converse with the child providing stimulation and reinforcement similar to the mother-child language learning environment. For this there is need for a low teacher-pupil ratio. The teaching staff may be supplemented by other adults such as teacher aides, volunteers, and older students who have been trained to function harmoniously in the above setting.

Since the dialect speaking child may not comprehend the standard English spoken by the teacher, informal tests need to be administered periodically to determine the child's comprehension differences. Ways need to be found to compensate for the possible dialect barriers.

A second dialect structure can be internalized by young children more easily if they are linguistically

proficient in their native dialect, consequently ways to increase this facility must be explored. Parents can be lead to provide a verbally meaningful environment through talking with their children, telling stories, recounting events, listening to, and answering questions. It would appear most beneficial for parents to communicate with their children using the dialect in which the adults are most fluent and adept.

For the child low in linguistic abilities, there is much need for verbal contact with adults or verbally competent peers on a one-to-one basis. The give and take of verbal exchange in an accepting atmosphere provides the stimulus for linguistic growth.

These observations resulting from this study hold significant implications for colleges of education which must assume the responsibility of providing special training for teachers in the areas of language arts for the young speakers of non-standard English. Thorough knowledge of the structural, lexical, and phonological aspects of two widely different dialects is necessary in order to equip the teacher with: (1) the ability to predict where difficulties in comprehension will arise, (2) the techniques to enhance proficiency in both dialects, and (3) the understanding and acceptance of the value of the child's home dialect.

There are also significant implications for school administrators who select teaching personnel and design curriculum. Administrators must be concerned with the special qualifications required for teachers of very young children who speak non-standard English. Background for those responsible for curriculum writing should include know-ledge of research studies and linguistic principles. These studies suggest that the major emphasis in early childhood curriculum should be placed primarily on communication and listening skills.

Ultimately, there is no question that it is the teachers' responsibility to acquire the special skills and attitudes needed to develop language skills in young speakers of other dialects. There is also no question that the teacher must have the training from the colleges of education and the support of the administration. This training and support must stem from linguistic knowledge, findings from basic research, and fundamentals of child development.

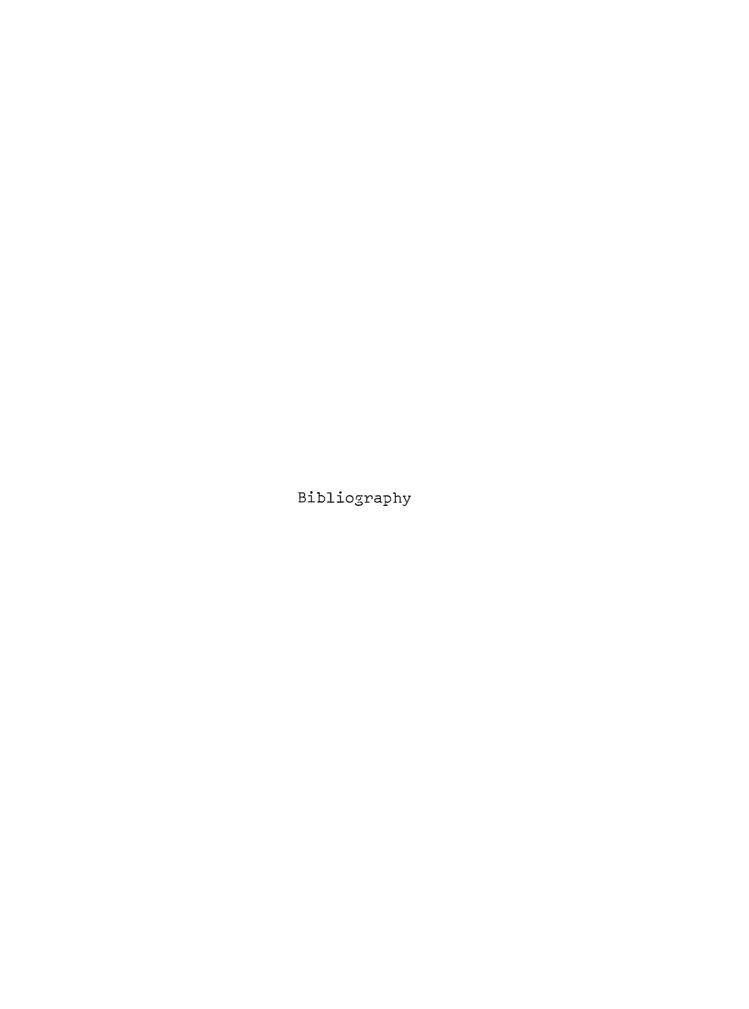
RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

(1) Compile a contrastive analysis of different dialects to determine language distance between dialects spoken by low and middle socio-economic white as well as low and middle socio-economic black living in the Houston area.

- (2) Construct an instrument having as its primary purpose the measurement of oral language comprehension of the grammatical differences between standard English and black dialect. Use three dimensional objects for stimulus items.
- (3) Analyze teacher classroom language used with low SES black and white children to see if, based on the findings of comprehension studies, dialect barriers are existing in the grammatical structure used in the classroom.
- (4) Replicate this study across broader socio-economic lines including upper middle white and black as well as other geographic areas of low socio-economic white and black in Houston.
- (5) Replicate this study using three and six year old subjects from the same populations for a broader look at developmental oral language comprehension in more than one dialect.
- (6) Conduct a longitudinal study which would follow the same subjects into the formal school experience in order to correlate school achievement with oral language comprehension abilities in the preschool years.
- (7) Using the same population, test for oral expression in both standard English and black dialect for the purpose of examining the correlation between comprehension and expression.
- (8) Analyze in detail the inconsistent oral language comprehension scores of low SES black from standard English

to black dialect to determine possible reasons for this inconsistency.

- (9) Analyze subjects by sex to determine if this is a significant factor in oral language comprehension in both standard English and black dialect. Analyze to determine if race and/or socio-economic class combined with sex and age of subject affect oral language comprehension of both standard English and black dialect.
- (10) Build and test a curriculum for young children in the bi-dialectal environment, based on findings of tests designed to measure comprehension of grammatical and vocabulary items.
- (11) Based on test items which evoke similarity of competence across socio-economic/race categories, develop a class-free test. Note the similarities of these items in contrast to items which result in a wide range of competence.



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APPENDIX A PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION OF BLACK DIALECT

PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION OF BLACK DIALECT

Symbols

TONGUE	POSITION	STRESS	
+	higher lower forward	\ / ^	weak primary tertiary secondary
INTONAT	ION	DURATIO	N
/ /	high rising mid rising low rising	< :	shortened lengthened
\	high falling mid falling	ADDITIO	NAL SYMBOLS
\	low falling	• •	dentalized voiceless
-	high level mid level low level	C 3 -	with aspiration without aspiration no release

	Stimulus	Dialect		Stimulus	Dialect
1.	Baby	/bé\biT	8.	Car	-Ka
2.	Ball	1651	9.	Cat	-Kzet°
3.	Bicycle	/báI\sîK!	10.	Chair	-tsε\ə
4.	Bird	-bз	11.	Coat	-Kot ^o
5.	Book	-bvk°	12.	Dog	-davg ^c
6.	Box	-bakts	13.	Farm	-fa:m
7.	Воу	/b=>IT	14.	Fish	-frs

	0	D. .			_ • _
	Stimulus	Dialect		Stimulus	Dialect
15.	Girl	9'3'2'	35.	Tall	-to:1
16.	Glass	glaes	36.	Yellow	/jε 13\
17.	Hand	Wae I'n	37.	Catch	-KEts
18.	Man	m/ze In	38.	Eat	-ít
19.	Mother	/m/101	39.	Give	g/Ilb
20.	Paint	-pcent=	40.	Hit	-hId
21.	Pencil	prens's	41.	Jump	dy himp
22.	Piano	「p究 並nä)	42.	Run	-ran
23.	Sheep	s'i'p'	43.	Bicyclist	básisirist
24.	Shoe	-5 u	44.	Catcher	/Két səi\
25.	Spoon	's p ^o u'n	45.	Farmer	/farməl
26.	Table	/teb!1	46.	Hitter	/6751/
27.	Tree	-tri	47.	Painter	prénon
28.	Water	1 2 2 cm	48.	Pianist	píni\st
29.	Big	/big\	49.	Smaller	1sholar
30.	Black	/black1	50.	Taller	165101
31.	Fast	-fæs	51.	Balls	bavlz
32.	Little	ハミむド	52.	Chair	+5/80
33.	Red	-red	53.	Coat	-Koto
34.	Soft	savifo	54.	Table	/téb!\
55.	The fish are				
56.	The sheep is	eating.			
	/ # + \ i ps \ +	/Pn/#			
57.	That & se t	•	58.	These d/ilz	

Dialect

Stimulus

Dialect

He is riding a bicycle.

60. Mother gave the ball to her.

His puppy is black and white.

She is making cookies. 62.

63. They are playing.

64.	Alike	-2 /2/IK-	71.	Middle	mill
65.	Different	/difj\nt	72.	More	/mo'
66.	Few	/fjul	73.	Pair	/pé3/
67.	Four	-f°-	74.	Some	SAM
68.	Half	h/ae\f	75.	Third	0/31\do
69.	Left	-1Ef	76.	Two	t/4\

/mént\ 70. Many

- 77. A large blue ball. -lard3+blu+b/51-#
- 78. A small red car. -3+ smal+red +/Kd-#
- The girl is sewing. 79. - \$I g3/2 50In-#
- The girl is jumping. 80. -83 g3/g+d3/mpIn-#

Dialect

Stimulus

Dialect

81. The girl jumped.

82. The girl has eaten.

83. The dog will run.

84. The horse has been running.

85. Coming

-K/mIn- 86.

86. Going

-góIn-

87. The girl is not swimming.

88. Neither the boy nor girl is jumping.

89. The girl isn't running.

90. The girl is drawing.

91. The boy pushes the girl.

92. The man is hit by the boy.

93. The car bumps the train.

94. The boy is chased by the dog.

Dialect

Stimulus

Dialect

- 97. The ball is under the table.

 -də bɔlz+nndə də+tebl-#
- 98. The boy is by the car.

 -bɔ̃ɪz+báɪdɔ́+ka;-#
- 99. The doll is in the box.

 % I + dálz + I n + dI + bàks #
- 100. The dog is in front of the car.

 də+ dagz+In+ frnnəudz+ka:-#
- 101. The cat is between the cars.

 -dikáet stwin+ *3+ ka:z-#
- 102. Who is by the table?
 -húz baī + ð + tèb! / //
- 103. When do you sleep?

 -hwen du ji + slip; //
- 104. The boys jump.

 d ɔ bɔrz + dʒ x mp #
- 105. The cat plays.
 -d' Kiet + plé #

APPENDIX B

PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION OF LOCAL STANDARD ENGLISH

PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION OF LOCAL STANDARD ENGLISH

(Symbols--see Appendix A)

	Stimulus	Standard English		Stimulus	Standard English
1.	Baby	/béi\bî _ī	21.	Pencil	/pf.nsəll
2.	Ball	-bo:: .ə	22.	Piano	-pcit/ze:nol
3.	Bicycle	/báisīkəl\	23.	Sheep	-51 pc,
4.	Bird	/b3:\dc	24.	Shoe	-S:u:
5.	Book	-bv:kc	25.	Spoon	sp?u:n:\
6.	Box	-ba:KS	26.	Table	t'elbal
7.	Воу	I:/cd\	27.	Tree	torlin
8.	Car	/K°a:\of.	28.	Water	/reliew/
9.	Cat	K°se:t°	29.	Big	b'I:\gc
10.	Chair	tseirs.	30.	Black	61:1201 Kc
11.	Coat	-K ^c o.t ^c	31.	Fast	f/aexs:tc
12.	Dog	/do:\gc	32.	Little	' 'Ital:
13.	Farm	f.a:T.m	33.	Red	r'EI: dc
14.	Fish	-fI. _T S	34.	Soft	-so:f+t°
15.	Girl	g/sl	35.	Tall	t%:\
16.	Glass	gl'ae;\s	36.	Yellow	/jé:18:
17.	Hand	Hae I'nde	37.	Catch	Kenez: tsc
18.	Man	m'aeia'n	38.	Eat	11:tc
19.	Mother	m/280.	39.	Give	giive
20.	Paint	p%int	40.	Hit	-hirtc

	Stimulus	Standard English		Stimulus	Standard English
41.	Jump	d3/1/mpc	48.	Pianist	p%: Je Thist
42.	Run	-r:An:	49.	Smaller	/sm5:lar:
43.	Bicyclist	báisí ki:ist	50.	Taller	163:10:N
44.	Catcher	K%5é: 453:	51.	Balls	/bo:\ z:
45.	Farmer	f'ái'rmā:	52.	Chair	t(°/ε:σ\
46.	Hitter	hited:	53.	Coat	-K ^c ot ^{>}
47.	Painter	préinita:	54.	Table	t%Ib31
55.	The fish ar	e eating.			
	-80+/fis	+ar+1:tei7: 9	#		
56.	The sheep i	s eating.			
	-82+/51:1	3+12+4:tizing	#		
57.	That \$50	.Itc	58.	These - 3	itz
59.	He is ridir	g a bicycle.			
	/hi.Iz\+/r	ái:di,\ŋ+/ei,	/báj	ils/ikal/#	
60.	Mother gave	the ball to he	r.		
	/m^ & 201+,	/gêv\+/&j+b3	5:1/+/	/tù+h:ヂ:	\ <i>#</i>
61.	His puppy i	s black and whi	te.		
	-hîz+/p/	pi_1+/12;+b	æK°\	+/zen+hu	/a î : t c \ #
62.	She is maki	ng cookies.			
	/si+Iz/+/1	nêkity\+/Kúki	~z\#		
63.	They are pl	aying.			
	-> & + ar +	/pléit: g\#			
64.	Alike	-2/14I\: KC	68.	Half	-h ref
65.	Different	/dí:fr:ðntc	69.	Left	-left ^c
66.	Few	/fiu:\	70.	Many	ménît
67.	Four	/for:\	71.	Middle	/mídl:\

77. A large blue ball.

/è +/2\rd2+/b/4+b5:\\!:#

78. A small red car. $/\dot{e} + sm3/+/r\hat{e}d + ka:/r: #$

80. The girl is jumping. $(3i + 93) + \overline{12} + 35 \text{ mpirpl} \#$

81. The girl jumped.
- 81 + /93:11: + /d3/m/p:tc#

82. The girl has eaten.

/8i:+93:\1:+ha=:z+/i:ta\n;#

83. The dog will run. 83 + d5; g: + wil: + rh: n: + #

84. The horse has been running.

/**\delta + h \delta rs\ + / h \delta z + b \delta n + / r \delta n \delta n \delta + \delta n \delta n \delta + \delta n \

85. Coming /Knmit:n:\ 86. Going /govij

87. The girl is not swimming.

/**\delta g\frac{1}{3} \rightarrow \rightarrow \delta \

88. Neither the boy nor girl is jumping.

/nival/sa/bi:\//nor+va/+/g3/\/ Iz +/d3/mpi-:n/#

Standard English

Stimulus

Standard English

89. The girl isn't running.

90. The girl is drawing.

91. The boy pushes the girl.

92. The man is hit by the boy.

93. The car bumps the train.

94. The boy is chased by the dog.

95. Up n:pc

96. The ball is on the table.

97. The ball is under the table.

98. The boy is by the car.

99. The doll is in the box.

100. The dog is in front of the car.

101. The cat is between the cars.

Standard English

Stimulus

Standard English

102. Who is by the table?

103. When do you sleep?

104. The boys jump.

105. The cat plays.

106. She showed the girl the boy.

APPENDIX C

PRETEST

PRETEST

Hello, today we are going to play a listening game. Do the following things: stand up, jump, sit down, clap, smile. You did that very well. Now we are going to play a listening game with pictures. As I say the word, or words, point to the picture. Ready?

APPENDIX D
RECORDING FORM

Name_			Sex
Schoo	1		
Birth	date		
		RESPONSE	RESPONSE
PAGE	STIMULUS	STAND. ENG.	DIALECT
1.	Baby(3)		
2.	Bal1(1)		
3.	Bicycle(3)		
4.	Bird(2)		
5.	Book(3)		
6.	Box(3)		
7.	Boy(2)		
8.	Car(2)		
9.	Cat(3)		
LO.	Chair(2)		
Ll.	Coat(1)		
L2.	Dog(3)		
L3.	Farm(3)		
L4.	Fish(1)		
L5.	Girl(2)		
L6.	Glass(3)		
L7.	Hand(1)		
L8.	Man(1)		
19.	Mother(1)		
20.	Paint(3)		
21. 22.	Pencil(2)		
23.	Piano(1)		
23. 24.	Sheep(2) Shoe(2)	**************************************	
2 4. 25.	Spoon(1)		
26.	Table(2)	······································	
27.	Tree(1)		
28.	Water(3)		
29.	Big(2)		
30.	Black(3)		
31.	Fast(2)		
32.	Little(2)		
33.	Red(3)		
34.	Soft(1)		
35.	Tall(2)	***	
36.	Yellow(1)		, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
37.	Catch(1)		
	• •		

38. 39. 40. 41. 42. 43. 44. 45. 46. 47. 48. 49. 50. 51.	Eat(3) Give(1) Hit(2) Jump(3) Run(1) Bicyclist(1) Catcher(2) Farmer(1) Hitter(2) Painter(3) Pianist(1) Smaller(2) Taller(1) Balls(2)	
52.	Chair(2)	
53.	Coat(1)	
54.	Table(2)	
55.56.57.58.59.	The fish are eating(3) The sheep is eating(1) That(2) These(2) He is riding a bicycle(1)	
60.	Mother gave the ball to her(3)	
61. 62.	His puppy is black and white (1) She is making cookies(3)	
63. 64. 65. 66. 67. 68. 69. 70. 71.	They are playing(2) Alike(3) Different(1) Few(1) Four(3) Half(1) Left(2) Many(3) Middle(2) More(2)	

5 0	D: (0)		
73.	Pair(3)		
74.	Some(3)		
75.	Third(3)		
76.	Two(1)		
77.	A large blue		
	ball(3)		
78.			****
78.	A small red		
	car(3)		
79.	The girl is		
, 5.			
0.0	sewing(1)		
80.	The girl is		
0.7	jumping(2)	W 	
81.	The girl		
	jumped(3)		
82.	The girl has		
	eaten(3)		
83.	The dog will		
	run(1)		
84.	The horse has been		
• · •	running(3)		
85.	Coming(2)		
86.	Going(2)		
87.	The girl is not		
	swimming(3)	****	
88.	Neither the boy		
	nor girl is		
	jumping(3)		
89.	The girl isn't		
	running(1)		
90.	The girl is		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
	drawing(2)		
91.	The boy pushes		
0 1 1	the girl(1)		
92.	The man is hit		
32.	by the boy(1)		
0.0			
93.	The car bumps the		
0.1	train(2)		
94.	The boy is chased		
	by the dog(1)		
95.	Up(2)		
96.	The ball is on		
	the table(1)		
97.	The ball is under		
	the table(3)		
98.	The boy is by		
- ·	the car(1)		

99.	The doll is in		
	the box(2)		
100.	The dog is in front		
	of the car(1)		
101.	The cat is between		
	the cars(2)		
102.	Who is by the		
	table?(3)		
103.	When do you		
	sleep?(2)		
104.	The boys		
	jump(1)		
105.	The cat plays		
	(2)		
106.	She showed the		<u> </u>
	girl the boy(3)		

APPENDIX E COMPARISON OF GROUP MEAN SCORES IN STANDARD ENGLISH AND BLACK DIALECT

Comparison of Group Mean Scores in Standard English and Black Dialect Using the Carrow Auditory Test for Language Comprehension

Tester	SES	Standard English	Black Dialect	Combined
В	Middle Black			771/71/2
В	Middle White		 	
W	Middle White		272	7221
W	Low White			
W	Middle Black			
В	Low White		Z	
W	Low Black		777	222
В	Low Black	65 75 85	h 65 75 85	65 75 85

SES = Socio-Economic Status

B = Black Tester

W = White Tester