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*CURRICULUM GUIDES, LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION, SPEECH, *DICTIONARIES, *TEACHING GUIDES, MANUALS, SEVENTH GRADE, STUDENTS, *ENGLISH CURRICULUM, GRAMMAR, *DIALECTS, EUGENE, OREGON, PROJECT ENGLISH, NEW GRAMMAR

A GUIDE FOR TEACHER USE WAS PREPARED FOR A SEVENTH-GRADE LANGUAGE CURRICULUM. CONTAINED IN THE GUIDE WERE BACKGROUND INFORMATION, SUGGESTIONS FOR INTRODUCING UNITS ON (1) VARIETIES OF ENGLISH, AND (2) USING THE DICTIONARY, AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY, TEACHING METHOD DESCRIPTIONS, EXERCISES, AND ANSWERS. RELATED ASSIGNMENTS IN SPEECH AND COMPOSITION WERE ALSO INCLUDED. AN ACCOMPANYING GUIDE WAS PREPARED FOR STUDENTS (ED 010 149). (NN)

OREGON CURRICULUM STUDY CENTER

VARIETIES OF ENGLISH

USING THE DICTIONARY

Language Curriculum I
Teacher Version

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VARIETIES OF ENGLISH

Language Curriculum I

Teacher Version

CONTENTS

I. INTRODUCTION

This unit, "Varieties of English," is intended as an introduction to the junior high school pupil's study of the English language. The primary purpose of the unit is to make the pupil aware of the diversity of American English, to encourage him to see his language as a varied instrument which is adaptable to an infinite number of uses. As far as it is possible, the pupil should be encouraged to adopt the view of an interested observer of language--an observer who carefully notes the facts of language and draws generalizations from those facts. Perhaps most importantly, the unit provides a structure within which the pupil can make sense out of the several varieties of English that he hears, reads, and speaks daily. He sees English in its full complexity of dialects and styles, not as a single correct way of speaking and writing that only English teachers know how to use properly.

The exercises and illustrations included in this unit are not intended to be used as test items. They simply illustrate the differences among the various dialects and styles of English and, as such, should not be used to determine the pupil's mastery of the subject matter. The important thing for the pupil to know is the principle or idea that is exemplified by certain facts. For example, it is not important for him to remember that "snake feeder" and "darning needle" are regional variants of the name for an insect known commonly as the dragonfly. But it is important that he remember that vocabulary is one way in which regional dialects differ.

The pupil, then, should gain from this unit a recognition of the existence of both regional and social dialects and also the existence of several styles within the dialect called Standard English. Furthermore, as a consequence of this knowledge, he must take upon himself the obligation to use the dialect and style of language which is most appropriate to the situation in which it is used.

II. SUGGESTIONS FOR INTRODUCING THE UNIT

Since this is an introductory unit, it may prove best not to hand out the pupil materials until the class has discussed some of the questions provided in this introduction. These questions have been designed to draw from the pupils themselves the idea that the spoken and written language which surrounds them in their daily lives is not homogeneous. Language differences, even among members of the same family, do indeed exist. It is for the purpose of arousing the pupils' curiosity about these differences that the introductory questions have been provided.

The questions lead the pupil from (1) recognizing certain differences in his own speech and writing which distinguish his use of language from that of each of his classmates to (2) understanding that there are several varieties within what is called American English, his native tongue. Furthermore, these differences in the use of language are not simply "errors" made by persons who lack knowledge or skill. He must realize that these differences could not be eradicated by an act of government or by the efforts of school teachers, college professors, or politicians. The differences within any language are just as "natural" as the differences found among the native languages spoken in other countries: Spanish and Portuguese in South America, German, Italian, and French in Europe, and Chinese and

Russian in Asia. Not only are there many different languages, there are many different varieties within any single language.

The following questions can serve as a brief introduction to the unit:

1. Just for a few minutes, think about the ways in which you use your native language. Are there any words, expressions, or pronunciations that you use habitually but that your own classmates might not necessarily know? In other words, how is your language different from that which your classmates use?

(The discussion will certainly turn up differences of all three kinds: pronunciation, vocabulary, and the ways in which certain expressions are put together. For example, one pupil may pronounce either and neither with the same vowel sound as in the word seed, but another would say these words with the vowel sound in the word by. Similarly, one pupil may call certain carbonated drinks pop, while another might call it tonic or soda. Some pupils may even have unique names for common objects. Finally, some pupil may have a special way of expressing a particular idea. These may range from common expressions such as "goofing off," "pulling a boo-boo," and "taking a whirl at" something; or they may be such curious ones as telling another person that "he must be out of his tree" or that he needs to "get an appointment with the head-shrinker." Later, the pupils may be asked to write a paper in which they discuss the peculiar aspects of their own speech habits.)

2. Are there any noticeable language differences among the members of your own family? Does the amount of schooling a person has had, the person's age, or his occupation seem to have anything to do with the kind of language he uses?

(This question may lead to a wide range of comment and speculation. The teacher may try to elicit comments that pertain most closely to the problem at hand. In some families the language will be quite uniform, but in others there will be a wide range of difference. In those families where the parents are foreign-born or have moved to their present home from a distant point in the United States, the language differences will be most pronounced. The children may bring up differences [usually a matter of a special vocabulary] that are largely a result of the person's occupation. This subject could be pursued indefinitely, so the teacher must choose an opportune moment to go on to the next question.)

3. Do you use the same kind of language in all situations? For example, what kind of language do you use when answering a question in the classroom? Is it the same variety you use when talking to your friends on the playground? If you say that you use different varieties of language in these situations, can you explain how these varieties differ from each other?

(These questions are closely related to a central point: linguistically sophisticated persons use several varieties of language, each variety suited to a different social situation. Again, some children are linguistically more sophisticated than others. They may claim that they use the same variety of language in all situations, and this may be very nearly the truth. Most pupils, however, will report that they modify certain aspects of their language according to the situation in which they find themselves. For example,

they will certainly confess to using a different language when trying to impress adults or special girlfriends or boyfriends than they would use when talking to their parents or brothers and sisters.)

4. Do the people who live in parts of the United States that are distant from your home use exactly the same kind of language as you do? Can you give specific illustrations of differences that you have noticed?

(Nearly all pupils will be able to report pronunciations, vocabulary items, or expressions that are usually associated with speakers who live in a particular part of the United States. In most cases, the pupils will report only those items which sound peculiar to them because these items do not occur in their own particular dialect. Perhaps there are pupils in the classroom whose dialect is exceptionally different. In such circumstances, you have the opportunity to exhibit a tolerant and enlightened view of such differences in dialect by his handling of the discussion. Language differences should be seen as the natural outgrowth of geographical separation. It should be emphasized that the educated person understands and accepts these differences and does not consider his own particular dialect to be the only "correct" one.)

5. Do Americans (as a group) speak exactly like the people who live in England, Australia, and Canada where English is also the native language?

(Again, nearly all pupils will be able to mention language differences that distinguish British or Canadian English from our own American varieties. Here, you should stress that everyone in England or Canada does not speak exactly alike and that dialects also exist in these countries. British English, like American English, contains a great variety of speech habits.)

6. (Optional item) How many different languages can you name? Can you estimate how many different languages now exist on earth?

(The pupils will certainly be able to name the most common languages such as French, German, Russian, Spanish, etc. But most of them will not have heard of such strange-sounding names like Serbo-Croatian, Albanian, Kurdish, Urdu, Sinhalese, Samoyed, Basque, Amharic, Coptic, Tuareg, Songhai, Mandarin, or Algonquian. The total number of languages is difficult to estimate, precisely because of the difficulty in defining "a language" as opposed to "different dialects of the same language." Some estimates as to the total number of languages now existing on the earth run as high as 3,000.)

At this point, you may wish to read the discussion of language which occurs in Huckleberry Finn. What is the central point that Jim fails to understand?

"Why, Huck, doan' de French people talk de same way we does?"
"No, Jim; you couldn't understand a word they said--not a single word."
"Well, now, I be ding-busted! How do dat come?"
"I don't know; but it's so. I got some of their jabber out of a book. S'pose a man was to come to you and say Polly-voo-franzy--what would you think?"

"I wouldn' think nuffn; I'd take en bust him over de head--dat is, if he warn't white. I wouldn't 'low no nigger to call me dat."
"Shucks, it ain't calling you anything. It's only saying, do you know how to talk French?"
"Well, den, why couldn't he say it?"
"Why, he is a-saying it. That's a Frenchman's way of saying it."
"Well, it's a blame ridicklous way, en I doan' want to hear no mo' 'bout it. Dey ain' no sense in it."
"Looky here, Jim; does a cat talk like we do?"
"No, a cat don't."
"Well, does a cow?"
"No, a cow don't, nuther."
"Does a cat talk like a cow, or a cow talk like a cat?"
"No, dey don't."
"It's natural and right for 'em to talk different from each other, ain't it?"
"Course."
"And ain't it natural and right for a cat and a cow to talk different from us?"
"Why, mos' sholy it is."
"Well, then why ain't it natural and right for a Frenchman to talk different from us? You answer me that."
"Is a cat a man, Huck?"
"No."
"Well, den, dey ain't no sense in a cat talkin' like a man. Is a cow a man?--er is a cow a cat?"
"No, she ain't either of them."
"Well, den, she ain't got no business to talk like either one er the yuther of 'em. Is a Frenchman a man?"
"Yes."
"Well, den! Dad blame it, why doan' he talk like a man? You answer me dat!"

You should point out that Jim reasons (incorrectly) that if we share certain characteristics with Frenchmen (i.e., Americans and Frenchmen are human beings) we must also share a common language. His analogy comparing the noises made by animals and the sounds of human speech is not appropriate in that animal sounds are simply instinctive and are not a part of a culturally determined system which (in the case of human beings) must be learned from other speakers. In other words, a cow would, in the absence of other cows in the environment, still make "mooing" noises; but man, although he would have the inborn ability to make sounds with his vocal apparatus, would not learn a language unless other humans were present for him to learn from. He would, of course, learn only that language spoken by the other human beings in his environment.

At this point, it might be advantageous to pass out the student version of the unit and ask the pupils to read the first section.

III. VARIETIES OF ENGLISH

The study of the English language should not be restricted to grammar alone. Pupils are primarily users--more often than analyzers--of their native language. That different varieties of English are used in different parts of the United States is a fact recognized by even the dullest pupil. A more perceptive pupil may have noticed less obvious differences in both speech and writing, ranging from the "book talk" of certain members of the community to the informal slang used by school children. The pupil's understanding of these different varieties of language may well determine his attitudes toward the study of English. If the pupil decides that the language of the classroom is totally unrelated to the language he and his friends use in everyday affairs, he may conclude that the study of English has little practical value to offer him. Clearly, then, the junior high school pupil needs some knowledge in the areas of language usage and dialects if he is to become a competent writer and speaker.

Before proceeding further, we must make a distinction between the terms grammar and usage. Grammar is a term used to identify the system of rules that explains the grammatical utterances of a language. It has three components: a syntactic component, a phonological one, and a semantic component. The grammarian makes statements about spoken or written language --statements describing what the language is like, not what it should be like. He is not limited to describing formal written English, since other varieties of language have "grammars" also. Usage, on the other hand, is concerned with reporting on the status of words, expressions, and pronunciations in the speech and writing of particular social groups. For example, if an expression is restricted to the usage of a single social group or social situation, it is so labeled by the student of usage. Such status labels simply indicate that the particular expression is preferred by that social group; similar expressions used by other groups are by linguistic standards neither better nor worse. The fact that the expression "Ain't I?" lacks approval among cultivated speakers of English does not prevent the expression from being used freely and with no resultant disapproval in other social groups. It is assumed that the usage of the educated will be taught in the classroom, but the teacher should understand that this practice is a reflection of rhetorical values, not the objective application of "rules". When usage is taught as an element of style, the pupil sees it as an essential consideration in deciding upon the appropriateness of words and expressions.[1]

The purpose of this unit of study is to present information which has been gleaned from the writings of linguists on the subject of regional and social variations in language. In the interest of clarity, the pupil should be exposed to the phenomenon of regional dialects before he considers the subject of social levels of language. Once pupils have recognized the historical and linguistic bases for the differences in regional speech, they can be led to see that social forces such as education, urbanization, and class structure can also produce dialects--that is, varieties of speech and writing. Reference books commonly used in the classroom--dictionary, handbook, or thesaurus--contain various labels which refer, among other things,

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[1]James B. McMillan, "A Philosophy of Language," College English IX (April 1948), pp. 385-390.

to both regional dialects and social levels. One reasonable objective of this unit would be to clarify the meanings of these labels.

Regional Dialects

The English-speaking visitor to the United States soon recognizes the existence of several distinctive dialects to American English. He is also struck by the fact that, although these dialects exist, he has little difficulty communicating with speakers of each of these dialects. In other words, the differences among regional varieties of American English are relatively insignificant, and the higher the individual goes socially the less significant regional differences become. Another observation he might make if he were quite perceptive is that no single regional dialect is generally conceded to be the best, as is the case in England. Several "standard dialects" exist in the United States and each has a valid claim to the title standard within its own region.

Origin of regional dialects. Teachers often hear from pupils imaginative explanations regarding the presence of regional differences in speech. The "Southerner" speaks with a drawl because the warm climate makes him sluggish, or the Negro cannot pronounce the r sound because of his thick lips. Scientific observation yields other findings. Linguists have found the following factors to be most important in the development of regional dialects; the speech habits of early settlers, migration routes, old political or ecclesiastical boundaries, physical geography, the presence of a cultural center, social structure, and the language of foreign immigrants.[2]

American English has three major regional dialects--Northern, Midland, and Southern--which are in turn divided into smaller dialect areas.[3] The Northern dialect area includes all of New England, New York State, and the northern sections of Pennsylvania and New Jersey. Included in the Midland area are the Delaware, Susquehanna, and Upper Ohio Valleys, West Virginia, eastern Kentucky and Tennessee, and western Carolina. The Southern area includes generally the southeastern coastal area of the United States, extending from Maryland to the South Carolina low country. These dialect areas extend from east to west across the continent, but they are most sharply distinguishable on the eastern coast where they first developed. The speech forms found in the Pacific Northwest, for example, represent the mingling of dialects from several regions. Evidence seems to indicate that immigrants from the Northern dialect area were predominant in the early settlement of the entire Pacific Coast. Both Northern and North Midland forms are found in the Pacific Northwest, but residents of Washington show a preference for Northern forms in contrast to the Midland forms which are preferred in Oregon and parts of eastern Washington.[4] Later immigrations of Germans and Scandinavians may also have left some traces in the speech of the region.

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[2] Raven I. McDavid, Jr., "The Dialects of American English", in The Structure of American English, W. Nelson Francis, (New York, 1958), pp. 483-85.

[3] McDavid, op. cit., p. 511. (See also pp. 580-1, Map 2, "Dialect Areas of the United States".)

[4] Carroll E. Reed, "The Pronunciation of English in the Pacific Northwest", Language, XXXVII (October-December 1961), p. 563.

Development of a standard dialect. The development of a standard dialect within a nation follows a common pattern.[5] A particular region or town, as a result of such things as political events or economic advantages, becomes a center which is visited frequently by inhabitants of the surrounding country. The forms of speech favored in the trading or cultural center become the preferred forms for the entire region. A development such as this took place in England during the late Middle Ages when the speech of London and vicinity became the standard for much of the nation. A similar development has not taken place in the United States probably because no one region has acquired the necessary prestige. Although a few regions have laid temporary claim to cultural and political ascendancy, new centers of culture and political power are developing in the United States and, as a result, their particular speech forms have acquired new prestige.

Social Levels or Dialects

It is also apparent to the perceptive observer of American English that within any single language community (e.g., a regional dialect) there exist several varieties of speech and writing which differ not only in sentence structure and vocabulary but (for speech) in pronunciation as well. One might call these varieties of language "social levels" or "social dialects". The latter term does not carry with it the implications of higher or lower positions on some arbitrary scale of language excellence as does the former. In a nation such as England, where social cleavage is sharper, it is relatively easy to determine which variety of speech is granted the highest prestige; the public-school dialect of southeastern England persists as a requirement for upper-class membership. In the United States, where boundaries between social classes are less closely drawn, education seems to be the best single indicator of a speaker's cultural status.[6] One might classify the two social dialects in American English as standard, the language of the educated, and substandard, the language of the uneducated. Substandard English is language which is never (or rarely) used by the influential classes in our society. The standard dialect is the one used by the prestige groups in American society in conducting the important business of the nation.

The social dialects of American English can be classified in several ways. Raven I. McDavid, Jr., recognizes three social levels of language in the United States: cultivated speech, common speech, and uneducated speech. He defines them as follows: "Cultivated speech is simply the speech of those who have had educational and social advantages--normally four years of college or beyond--and hold a position of esteem, or at least of responsibility, in the community."[7] In contrast to the speech of the cultivated, uneducated speech is the language of those who have had little or no education and whose status in the community is definitely inferior. McDavid explains that the term common speech is not as clearly defined as either cultivated or uneducated speech but represents "what is socially the middle class, though the economic status of its users may be very high or low."[8] McDavid also makes an important distinction between social dialects and occupational varieties of speech. The peculiarities of occupational speech

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[5] Leonard Bloomfield, Language (New York, 1933), pp. 476-485.
[6] McDavid, op. cit., p. 537.
[7] Ibid., p. 535.
[8] Ibid., p. 536.

are primarily those of the special vocabulary used in certain types of work, hobbies, or special interests. Thus occupational speech is not a different level of language. In the interest of simplicity, only two social dialects will be distinguished in this unit--standard speech and substandard speech.

Functional Varieties of Spoken and Written English

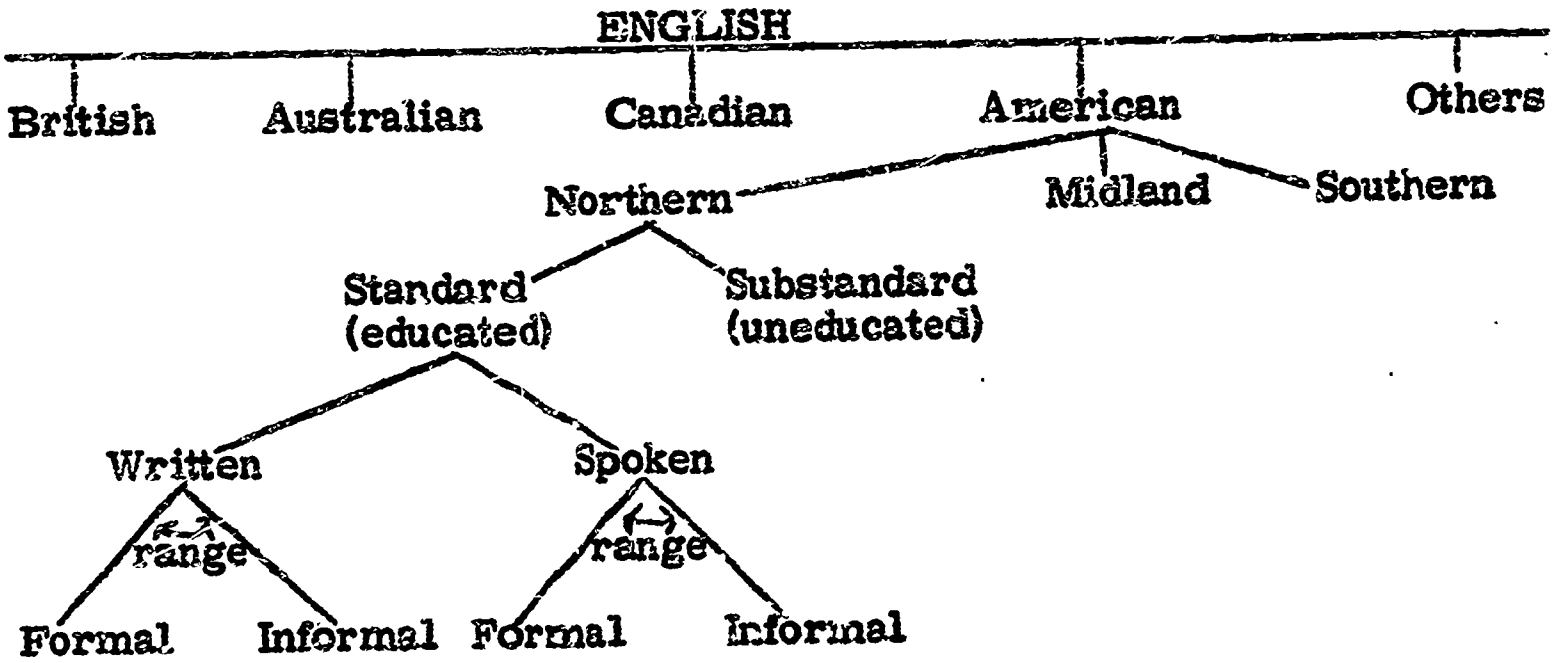
It is necessary to go beyond the discussion of regional and social variations in language if we wish to account for yet other differences which exist in both speech and writing. These differences are usually discussed under the heading of "style." Careful observation will confirm that users of both standard and substandard English have different forms and expressions for informal and formal occasions and for speaking and writing. John S. Kenyon was the first American linguist to draw the distinction between what he called "cultural levels of language" (standard and substandard) and "functional varieties" of speech and writing.[9] He pointed out that these two terms are based upon entirely different principles of classification--culture and function--and therefore should not be mixed (as they so often are) in scales titled "levels of usage." Thus such terms as "colloquial," "familiar," and "intimate" indicate differing degrees of familiarity; whereas other terms such as "literary," "scientific," and "formal" specify different degrees of formality. The above terms do not distinguish "levels" of language at all, but rather varieties. A speaker of standard American English does not ordinarily change his level of usage in different social situations; he simply selects the functional variety of language called for by that particular situation. Since the classroom is by definition a standard language situation, teachers do not often concern themselves with the different varieties of substandard usage (except to mark them in red), but it should be remembered that substandard English also has functional varieties of language for use in speaking or writing in different social situations.

In making the above distinctions, it becomes apparent that there are innumerable shades of familiarity and formality called for in both speaking and writing. It is possible to illustrate the grosser differences among the several functional varieties of English, but the obvious relativity of the term "formal" and "familiar" makes a refined system of classification impractical. This difficulty extends also to the classification of words and expressions as being standard or substandard. For example, an educated speaker from one region might well use words or pronunciations which would be shunned by educated and uneducated alike in another region. The pronunciation of the word ate as /et/, for instance, is considered elegant in Charleston, South Carolina, but it would be considered illiterate in many other regions. It is easy to label an utterance such as "They ain't never gonna go" as substandard, but the use of the pronoun who in the expression "Who did you see?" presents a more difficult classification problem. Similarly, some people would consider the expression "To whom do you wish to speak?" quite appropriate in rather informal circumstances, but others would avoid the expression even in very formal situations. Use of the word may in certain contexts identifies a formal variety of standard English, as

[9] John S. Kenyon, "Cultural Levels and Functional Varieties of English," College English, X (October 1948), pp. 31-36.

does the use of the pronoun one by the speaker in reference to himself or members of his audience. The expression "Come on!" would just as certainly identify a casual, more familiar, variety of standard English. Fine distinctions are always difficult to make, and distinctions in language usage are no exception.

Differences in pronunciation and vocabulary are usually associated with regional variations in language, and differences in sentence structure are usually considered the main distinction between cultural levels of language (social dialects). This generalization does not always hold. McDavid found that among the social differences in American pronunciation (1) some differences are purely regional, (2) a few pronunciations lack prestige everywhere, (3) other pronunciations lack prestige but occur in limited areas, and (4) several pronunciations may lack prestige in one area but be acceptable in another.[10] It seems evident, then, that regional dialects, social dialects, and (to some extent) functional varieties of English are characterized by variations of vocabulary, sentence structure, and pronunciation. Perhaps the following chart will more clearly show the relationships which exist among the different types of language discussed above.



Please note that each of the other branches could be developed in a similar manner. By reading up the left-hand side of the diagram, we can identify the type of language required in the northern United States in written documents dealing with a serious subject--formal, written, standard, northern American English.

Current Usage and Usage Labels

Recognizing the existence of regional, social, and functional varieties of language is the first step toward developing a comprehensive view of the problem of usage. Unfortunately, some people hold to the belief that there

[10] Raven I. McDavid, Jr. "Some Social Differences in Pronunciation," Language Learning, V (1952-1953), pp. 102-116.

exists but one correct form (word, pronunciation, expression), and all departures from this single standard are degenerate and hence incorrect. Any close examination of written and spoken English, however, should turn up evidence which would render such a position untenable. Martin Joos, using the metaphor of several clocks which tell the time for several different time zones, points up the existence of five distinct styles of English and deplores the fact that many people (especially school teachers) continue to demand "that all the clocks of language be set to Central Standard Time."[11] The five varieties (or clocks) of English are identified as (1) intimate, (2) casual, (3) consultative, (4) formal, and (5) frozen. Joos says that consultative style is central to all other styles, others being described as departures from the pronunciation, grammar, and meanings of consultative style. As a person perceives the immediate social situation, he selects the appropriate style of speaking or writing. For example, it is quite natural to use consultative style with strangers; but, once the stranger becomes a member of a social group, the speaker shifts to casual style. Similarly, intimate style would be restricted to the private and personal atmosphere found in one's home or in the company of close friends.

Current practice among linguists and lexicographers favors descriptive usage labels rather than the authoritarian or condemnatory ones of earlier writers. Reference books and composition handbooks are by no means uniform in their labeling of words, pronunciations, and expressions. In view of these conditions, it appears that one of the thorniest tasks facing the pupil as he writes or speaks is the selection of appropriate words and expressions from among the many possibilities. For instance, one dictionary will label a word slang, whereas another will not label it at all. One handbook will label a certain preterite form as substandard, but another will call it acceptable. Such lack of uniformity is not necessarily bad, but it does create the need for the exercise of discrimination in the application and interpretation of usage labels. Should the teacher not be a native of the region in which he teaches, he must also be aware of special pronunciations, word forms, and expressions which are customary usage in that particular region.

Current labeling practices. Webster's Third New International Dictionary uses the following status labels: obsolete, archaic, substandard, nonstandard, slang, and dialect.[12] Substandard is defined as follows: "The stylistic label substand for 'substandard' indicates status conforming to a pattern of linguistic usage that exists throughout the American language community but differs in choice of word or form from that of the prestige group in that community: hisself, hisself, ...substand." Nonstandard is defined in the following way: "The stylistic label nonstand for 'nonstandard' is used for a very small number of words that can hardly stand without some status label but are too widely current in reputable context to be labeled substand: irregardless.....adj....nonstand." The definition of slang follows: "The stylistic label slang is affixed to terms especially appropriate in contexts of extreme informality, having usually a currency not

[11] Martin Joos, The Five Clocks (Bloomington, Indiana, 1962), p. 1.
[12] Philip B. Gove (ed. in chief), Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language, Unabridged (Springfield, Mass., 1961), pp. 18a-19a.

limited to a particular region or area of interest, and composed typically of clipped or shortened forms or extravagant, forced, or facetious figures of speech. There is no completely objective test for slang...." The label dial for dialect is used to indicate regional patterns of usage which are too complex for labeling. Standard words are labeled for regional restrictions if there are any.

Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language uses the following status labels which are accompanied with definitions similar to those given above: colloquial, slang, obsolete, archaic, poetic, dialect, and British. The only mention in the explanatory notes of the terms standard and substandard occurs in the following statement: "It cannot be repeated too often, however, that such classification has no connection with good (or standard) usage and bad (or substandard) usage."[13]

The Perrin-Smith Handbook of Current English lists the following principal "levels of English usage:" "Formal English, General English, Informal English, and Vulgate English."[14] Each level is broken down into typical varieties and uses. Formal English is "more often written than spoken," whereas Vulgate English is "chiefly spoken." The terms are further explained by the following statement: "The Formal, General, and Informal levels make up what is generally known as Standard English and the Vulgate level is equivalent to Nonstandard."[15]

A recent publication in the field of usage, Current American Usage by Margaret M. Bryant, avoids the use of single status labels. Based upon numerous language studies and published writing, the book contains 300 alphabetical entries discussing one or more debatable points of usage. Each entry includes a summary which attempts to report on the current status of the word or expression in the actual speech and writing of Americans on all levels of education. The cultural levels of English are defined in the introduction: (1) Standard English--"Any expression is standard English if it is used by many cultivated people to communicate in speech or writing." (2) Nonstandard English--"Nonstandard English is language rarely or never used by members of the influential classes: for example, double negatives, such as 'We never got no money from him.' . . . [Nonstandard expressions] are disapproved of socially and the disapproval is likely to be attached to those who use them"[16] Bryant also lists and defines three varieties of standard English: (1) formal English, for use in serious writing or in formal addresses; (2) informal English, for use in writing intended for the general public; and (3) colloquial English, for use in dialogue and in writings that are conversational in tone.

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[13] Joseph Friend and David Guralnik (eds.), Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language, College Edition (N. Y., 1960), p. xiv.

[14] Porter G. Perrin and George H. Smith, Handbook of Current English (Chicago, 1955), pp. 8-9.

[15] Ibid., p. 9.

[16] Margaret M. Bryant, Current American Usage (New York, 1962), p. xxii.

A few examples from Current American Usage will serve to illustrate the descriptive approach to usage. Under the entry FARTHER, FURTHER is the following summary: "Further, meaning 'in addition' or 'more,' occurred in formal written English 53% of the time; referring to distance, farther is used 62% of the time and further 38%. Usage is divided."[17] Under the entry REAL, REALLY is the following statement: "In formal English, real precedes a noun, as in 'real courage'; in colloquial English, real serves as an intensifier, meaning 'very'; really, an adverb meaning 'truly' or 'genuinely', is employed in both formal and informal English."[18] The entry WHILE, CONJ. has the following summary: "The connective while, meaning 'whereas,' occurs as frequently in standard English as whereas itself; it also occurs in the senses of 'during the time that' and 'although'."[19]

CONCLUSIONS

One of the primary purposes of the study of English is to develop in the pupil a thorough knowledge of the complexity of our native tongue. Among the fruits of such a knowledge would be the following: (1) being able to see and understand differences which distinguish one regional dialect from another, (2) recognizing those differences which distinguish standard from nonstandard English, and (3) understanding that it is the responsibility of the writer or speaker to choose the appropriate style (or functional variety) of English to suit his subject, his audience, and his purpose. In short, the pupil should view his native language as a varied and complex instrument requiring careful use.

Once a pupil has acquired this comprehensive view of English, he may even be more willing to learn the specific skills needed in effective writing and speaking. Furthermore, it is unlikely that he can ever become a truly effective writer or speaker unless he thoroughly understands the variety of language that surrounds him. To one who believes that it is necessary and possible to determine the correct word, pronunciation, or expression, regional dialects appear to be examples of "incorrect" language and "funny accents." Even the speech forms used by college professors from other parts of the United States will be judged as not quite "acceptable" by one who does not recognize that Standard American English is simply the language used by educated Americans. To one who does not realize that the only standard of language correctness that we possess is the actual usage of native speakers and writers, the search for the correct form will lead only to frustration. And, to one who does not recognize the existence of several different writing and speaking styles, the casual conversation and informal writing of some of our best authors will be found to contain hundreds of "errors."

Two concepts which are fundamental to the view of language usage advocated in this unit are the following: (1) The only source of information and authority for statements about English usage is the actual writing and

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[17] Ibid., p. 87.
[18] Ibid., p. 169.
[19] Ibid., p. 231.

speaking of native users of the language. (2) There is no single variety of written or spoken English which represents the fixed and unchanging standard against which all others are to be measured. W. Nelson Francis calls these two ideas the "usage concept" and the "dialect concept."[20] Their implications are clear.

The pupil cannot appeal to logic or some "universal grammar" in choosing between alternative pronunciations or expressions. The decision as to whether one construction or another is acceptable lies in the hands of those who write and speak the language. "In regard to" is no better by linguistic standards than "in regards to," but we know that the former expression is preferred in standard written English and the latter is not. Nor can we condemn expressions found in the writing of educated persons on the grounds that such expressions have been proscribed by some "authority" on language. The only thing that can condemn a particular expression is the disfavor of the language community itself. Even then, many condemned expressions and pronunciations continue to enjoy favor in the language of some social groups. Logic is of little help when we try to discover why educated people say "brought" rather than "brung."

The notion that languages consist of several different kinds of dialect is a most useful idea. It permits the pupil to understand why other users of English speak and write differently. He knows that these differences of pronunciation, vocabulary, and sentence structure have arisen from historical and social conditions as well as from the phenomenon of linguistic change. Furthermore, he realizes that, of two or more expressions, one need not be right and all the others necessarily wrong. Finally, he looks upon the learning of standard English as simply the task of learning a particularly useful new "dialect." In the process of learning standard English, he understands that he need not "unlearn" the other social and regional dialects he may have, for it is simply adding another weapon to his arsenal of language. Teaching the facts about English usage can lead to more effective writing and speaking only if the pupil recognizes that is is his job to choose intelligently and purposefully from among the varieties of English at his command. Good writing or speaking style is not restricted to formal written English. "Good" style is possible in all varieties of language.

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[20] Francis, pp. 567-68.

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A useful article in which the distinction between grammar and usage is clearly defined.

V. TEACHING METHODS AND ANSWERS TO EXERCISES

Once the initial discussion of language has been completed, you should proceed with the unit as you think best. Several methods are possible: (1) The pupils could read each major section silently and do the exercises on paper, and you could follow this work with a discussion; (2) you could read orally all (or part) of the text to the pupils, discussing difficult points as they come up and handling the exercises orally; or (3) you could devise another approach.

A. Regional dialects

If you desire to have additional information about regional dialects, you should go to the sources listed in Part IV of this unit. Exercises 1, 2, and 3 in the student version develop the concept that dialects can be distinguished on the basis of (1) grammar, (2) vocabulary, and (3) pronunciation. The dialect items in the exercises were selected on the basis of their simplicity and may be supplemented by other examples if you wish to do so. A large map of the United States would be an extremely valuable aid in teaching this part of the unit. Any recordings, films, or filmstrips to which you have access might also prove to be a good source of supplementary information.

Regional variations in common expressions. The following expressions are found in the speech of educated Americans in various parts of the United States.[21] Instruct the pupils to mark those expressions which they use in normal conversation. The expressions most frequently marked will be those which are native to your region. A mixed response indicates a mixture of regional dialects in your area. Expressions found primarily in one or more dialect areas have been marked as follows: N--northern, M--midland, S--southern. Those not labelled have no clear regional restriction.

Exercise Number 1.

I want for you to take it. (S)
I want you to take it.

I want to talk to you.
I want to talk to you-all. (M, S) (both addressing a group)

He felt sick to his stomach.
He felt sick at his stomach.
He felt sick in his stomach.

The boy dove into the water. (N)
The boy dived into the water. (M, S)

Those children were not raised properly
Those children were not brought up properly. (N)
Those children were not reared properly.

I waked up early this morning. (N, S)
I awakened early this morning. (N)
I woke up early this morning.
I wakened early this morning. (N, M)
I awoke early this morning. (N)

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[21] Raven I. McDavid, Jr., "The Dialects of American English," in The Structure of American English, W. Nelson Francis (New York, 1958), pp. 513-527.

He lives on Jackson Street.
He lives in Jackson Street. (N. Y. City, Canada)

We stood on line.
We stood in line.

It is quarter till eleven. (M)
It is quarter of eleven. (N, M)
It is quarter to eleven. (S)

I sweated all afternoon yesterday. (S)
I sweat all afternoon yesterday. (N)

Tabulate the results of the exercise on the chalkboard. Read orally those expressions which are most common in your region. If there is no strong preference for any one of the expressions in each set, it will be necessary to discuss the phenomenon of mixed dialects. Draw from the pupils the conclusion that one way in which regional speech varies is in the construction of some common expressions.

Regional variations in vocabulary. The following sets of words contain common names for various objects; educated people living in various parts of the United States use these terms in their conversation.[22] Instruct the pupils to mark those words which they use normally in their conversation.

Exercise Number 2

pail	(N)	clapboards	(N)
bucket	(M, S)	weatherboards	(M, S)
		weatherboarding	(M, S)
swill	(N)	siding	
garbage			
slop	(M, S)	pancake	
		fritter	(N)
stoop	(N, S)	hotcake	(M)
porch		flannel cake	(M)
		batter cake	(S)
faucet	(N)		
spicket	(M, S)	angleworm	(N)
spigot		earthworm	
		rainworm	(M)
spider	(N, S)	fishworm	(N, M)
skillet	(M)	dew worm	(Canada)
frying pan		mud worm	(N)
cherry pit	(N)	corn meal pudding	
cherry seed	(N, M)	hasty pudding	(N)
cherry stone		mush	(M, S)
brook	(N)	andirons	(N)
creek		fire dogs	(S)
branch	(M, S)	dog irons	(M, S)
run			

[22] Ibid.

lightwood	(S)	johnnycake	(N)
fat pine	(M)	corn bread	
fatwood	(S)	corn pone	(M, S)
kindling	(M)		
		mosquito hawk	(S)
cottage cheese		darning needle	(N)
curds	(N, S)	snake feeder	(M)
Dutch cheese	(N, M)	dragonfly	
clabber cheese	(S)	snake doctor	(M)

Tabulate the results and read aloud those words which are most common in your region. Lead the pupils to conclude that vocabulary is another area in which regional dialects differ.

Regional variations in pronunciation. The following exercise lists pronunciations which are used by educated people in various parts of the United States.[23] Instruct the pupils to mark those pronunciations which they use in normal conversation.

Exercise Number 3

greasy --with an /s/ sound, as in sis (N)
greasy--with a /z/ sound, as in zoo (M, S)

can't--with an /a/ sound, as in got or father (N, esp. N. E.)
can't--with an /ē/ sound, as in paint (S)
can't--with an /ae/ sound, as in cat

creek--with an /i/ sound, as in pit (M, N)
creek--with an /ī/ sound, as in sheep (S)

path--with an /a/ sound, as in got or father (N, esp. N. E.)
path--with an /ae/ sound, as in cat

barn--with an /a/ sound, as in father, and approximately the /r/ sound, as in roar
barn--with an /a/ sound, as in father, but no /r/ sound (parts of N. and S.)

either--with an /ī/ sound, as in he
either--with an /ay/ sound, as in bite (N. Y. City, Philadelphia)

ate--with an /ē/ sound, as in paint
ate--with an /e/ sound, as in pet (N, also Charleston, S. C.)

catch--with an /ae/ sound, as in cat
catch--with an /e/ sound, as in fetch

Tabulate the results of the exercise and repeat the pronunciations which are most common in your own region. Lead the pupils to conclude that pronunciation is a third way in which regional dialects differ from one another.

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[23] Ibid.

You may wish to read orally other examples of dialect found in literature.

Central Mississippi Valley dialects found in other Mark Twain selections, from Tom Sawyer or Huckleberry Finn

Kentucky hill speech in Jesse Stuart's The Thread That Runs So True

"Cracker" speech of northern Florida in Marjorie Rawling's The Yearling

Yankee speech of James R. Lowell's Bigelow Papers

Central Georgia Negro dialects in Joel Chandler Harris's Nights with Uncle Remus

You may wish to explore further the subject of language change. Two supplemental exercises are offered here to provide specific illustrations.

Supplemental Exercise 1:

The purpose here is to give the student an awareness of the historical development of words. The following list contains words whose meanings have shifted interestingly (for example, Old English steorfan "to die": Modern English starve). The exercise can be done in class or at home, or started in class and completed at home. Probably the classroom would be the better place since you might bring Walter Skeat's Etymological Dictionary of the English Language and show the students how to look for the word's original meaning. The first meaning listed after each word is the older meaning; the second is the newer meaning.

1. starve--to die; to perish with hunger
2. nostril--nose; an external opening of the nose
3. husband--householder, peasant; the man who has a wife
4. drench--to give to drink; wet thoroughly
5. saloon--hall, room; a shop where intoxicating liquors are sold
6. bless--to make holy with blood; pray for happiness
7. curfew--a rule that fires be put out at a certain hour; a signal for children to leave the streets
8. deer--any wild animal; a particular wild animal
9. ghost-ghastly--the spirit of man; a spirit of a dead person
10. woman--(wif) wife + (mann) man; an adult female person
11. marshal--servant in charge of horses; an official

Supplemental Exercise 2:

The purpose here is to show the foreign influences in the development of the English language in America. After the words have been marked for the language they came from, you might want to group all the Spanish items, all the German, all the Italian, and so on, to see if the student can detect which areas of our culture these foreign cultures have contributed to. No Greek items have been included, but an interesting exercise leading from this one might be to collect a number of scientific terms (atom, oxygen, etc.) from the students and see what percentage are Greek. Not every item will reflect the particular contribution of a foreign culture, but most will.

In general the words from Spanish derive from our experience in the Southwest (gold prospecting, raising of horses, etc.); from the Italian, words for particular foods (spaghetti) and musical terms; from the German, mostly names of particular foods (wurst) but also some common colloquial and slang (bum, ouch); from the French, words connoting a developed culture: literature, dress, dining (cuisine), and the military; from the French Canadian, some words for topographical formations; from the Dutch, terms in painting and relating to the sea and ships; from the Latin, philosophical and religious terms (oil, altar); from the Scandinavian, very common words of everyday experience (egg, them, give), many beginning with an sk-cluster, skirt, sky, scant, scatter, etc.; and from the native Indians, names for plants and animals (muskrat) and certain implements (tomahawk).

1. bonanza--Spanish
2. chipmunk--Am. Indian
3. colonel--French
4. tycoon--Japanese
5. sketch--German
6. bum--German
7. coyote--Spanish
8. pretzel--German
9. squash--Algonquian Indian
10. oil--Latin
11. obnoxious--French
12. dope--Dutch
13. wrangler--Middle Eng.
14. canoe--Spanish
15. uncle--Latin
16. skirt--Scandinavian
17. prairie--Latin
18. pecan--Algonquian Ind.
19. dunk--German
20. silo--Latin
21. pizza--Italian
22. toboggan--Algonquian Indian
23. music--Latin
24. cinch--Spanish
25. beef--Latin
26. yen--Chinese
27. noise--nuisance--French
28. piano--Italian
29. bracelet--Latin
30. butte--French
31. loafer--Anglo-Saxon
32. sloop--Dutch
33. hickory--Am. Indian
34. sextet--Italian
35. story--Latin
36. ouch--German
37. bronco--Spanish
38. kindergarten--German
39. altar--Latin
40. palomino--Spanish
41. hominy--Am. Indian
42. hamburger--German
43. concert--Latin
44. school--Anglo-Saxon, Latin, Old French
45. stampede--Spanish
46. landscape--Dutch
47. novel--Latin, Italian
48. sky--Scandinavian
49. mustang--Spanish
50. frankfurter--German

The pupils may want to pursue the topic of how regional differences come about. The discussion on pages 6 and 7 of this unit will give you some information on this question. The important thing to stress is that any group which is isolated geographically from other groups (and the language of those other groups) will tend to develop a different dialect. Both the language of the parent group and that of the isolated group will undergo changes in the passage of time, but these will not likely be identical changes.

Bridge the gap to the next topic of study (i.e., social levels) by explaining that within any region of the United States the language of the educated and of the uneducated can be shown to have differences in pronunciation, vocabulary, and sentence structure. Like regional dialects, the language of both the educated and the uneducated can also be called dialects, since

they are varieties of a language. Varieties of a language which are the result of social or cultural forces such as education are called social dialects or social levels.

B. Social levels or dialects

The following exercise contains expressions which are found in the speech of the educated, and others which are found primarily in the speech of the uneducated. Instruct the pupils to write standard after the ones which they believe an educated person would use in normal conversation with friends. After those expressions which would be found only in the speech of the uneducated, instruct them to write the word substandard. To the right of each expression, you will find a status label and other information based upo data found in Margaret Bryant's book, Current American Usage. Remember that the status label in this exercise is for spoken English.

Exercise 1

I feel quite spry today.	standard
Jack isn't to home today.	substandard
You-uns better quit that.	substandard
Who did you see on the bus?	standard (not in formal written or spoken)
They ain't gonna give up.	substandard
That boy has been dogbit.	substandard
He fell outn the bed.	substandard
Bob dove into the water.	standard (also dived)
The garbage pail stank.	standard (also stunk in spoken English)
The wind blowed it down.	substandard
He had to wait till I came.	standard (also until, which is preferred in written English)
Leave me be!	substandard
His clothes fitted well.	standard (also fit)
He behaves pretty well.	standard (not in formal spoken or written)
It's me, your neighbor!	standard (I in formal spoken or written)
I dreamt last night.	standard (also dreamed, which is preferred in written English)
I might could get it for you.	substandard
I brung my coat along.	substandard
You hadn't ought to do that!	standard in certain Northern dialects, but substandard in other regions.

Read the labels to the class and explain any which result in disagreement. Explain that usage is frequently divided as to preference for one form or another. It is also possible for an expression to be standard in one region and substandard in another. Explain the following important concepts: (1) the speech of the educated person differs in several ways from that of the uneducated; (2) the forms used by uneducated persons communicate meaning just as well as standard forms--brung is as clear as flung--but educated people disapprove of substandard forms for other reasons;

(3) in certain social groups, certain speech forms are disapproved, and this disapproval is likely to be attached to persons using the expressions; and (4) the language forms of the educated are the ones taught in the nation's schools. It might be emphasized that one good reason for the teaching of standard English is that there are fewer regional differences found in the language of the educated. Uneducated speech, especially what might be called "folk speech," shows much greater regional variation than standard or written English. Thus Standard English is the most useful and practical dialect for pupils to learn.

C. Functional Varieties of Standard English.

The following exercises illustrate differences in functional varieties of spoken and written standard English.

1. Spoken Standard English

Each of the following sets of expressions is arranged roughly in descending order, from formal to informal. (Note that in the student unit they are in random order.) Instruct the pupils to arrange the expressions in descending order, from formal to informal. Then, next to each expression have them write the number(s) of the situation(s) in which they would use that expression. The situations are the following: (1) in an interview on television, (2) in an oral report in class, (3) in a conversation with a teacher, (4) in a conversation with a pupil who is not a close friend, (5) in normal conversation at home, or (6) none of these.

Exercise 2

I have none.
I haven't any.
I don't have any.
I haven't got any.

To whom did you speak?
Who did you speak to?
Who'd you speak to?
Who are you talking to?

I am not well.
I don't feel well.
I feel bad.
I feel badly.
I'm sick.

I thank you for the invitation.
Thank you for the invitation.
Thanks for the invitation.
Thanks for the invite.

May I help you?
Can I help you?
C'n I help you?

Am I not?
Aren't I ?
Ain't I?

Tabulate the results and inform the pupils of the suggested order of arrangement. There may be some disagreement, especially upon usage in the middle range of situations. The main point to be stressed is that spoken English does vary according to its use in formal and informal situations.

This exercise (and perhaps the one following it) includes several expressions which contain debatable points of usage. You must decide how you will handle expressions such as "Ain't I"and "I feel badly." Such decisions should be based upon the actual facts of English usage. In other words, you should determine whether educated Americans actually say such things in certain situations. The following evidence, taken principally from Bryant's Current American Usage, may help you decide what to tell the class:

a. I haven't got any.--Have and got, used in such constructions, is characteristic of conversational or informal speech, both standard and substandard.

b. Who are you talking to?--In informal spoken English, who is used more often than whom as the object of a verb or preposition when the pronoun occurs at the beginning of a sentence or clause.

c. I feel badly.--Usage is nearly evenly divided on the use of bad and badly in such a constructinn. "Feel badly" occurs more frequently in informal spoken English.

d. Thanks for the invite.--Invite, as a noun, is frequently used humorously in informal spoken English.

e. Can I help you?--Can is used to express permission on all levels of spoken English.

f. Ain't I?--Ain't is not used in standard speech except where it is "homey" or said with humorous intent.

Stress the following points in discussing the above exercise: (1) people speak differently in different social situations; (2) some words, pronunciations, and expressions are more appropriate to formal talks, whereas other forms are more appropriate to intimate conversations among friends or relatives; (3) the expressions used in very informal situations (slang and colloquial terms) are not "bad" English, but are simply appropriate forms for informal spoken English; and (4) uneducated people also use different varieties of speech in different situations, but a greater number of functional varieties are found in standard English.

2. Written Standard English.

Each of the following sets of expressions is arranged roughly in descending order, from formal to informal. (Again, note that in the student unit they are in random order.) Instruct the pupils to arrange the expression in descending order, from formal to informal. Then, next to each expressio

have them write the number(s) of the situation(s) in which they would use that expression. The situations are as follows: (1) in an essay dealing with a serious subject (2) in an article written for the school paper, (3) in a letter to a friend in another city, (4) in a note to a brother or sister, or (5) none of these.

Exercise 3

I have no use for it.
I've no use for it.
I've got no use for it.
Got no use for it.

I have an appointment with him.
I have a date with him.
I've got a date with him.
I've been dating him.

I have not decided for whom I shall cast my ballot.
I don't know whom I'll vote for.
I don't know who I'll vote for.

Politics is one subject about which people are curious.
Politics is one thing people are curious about.

That is a real adventure.
That is a real thriller.
That is really a thriller.
That is real thrilling.

The reason he is late is that he became lost.
The reason he is late is because he got lost.

He went a little way down the road.
He went a little ways down the road.

Tabulate the results and inform the class of the suggested order. Through discussion, emphasize the following idea: (1) as with spoken English, written English varies with the situation, the audience, the subject, and the purpose of the writer; (2) in formal writing, the reader expects a variety of English usage which would not be appropriate for a personal letter to a friend; and (3) the expressions used in less formal writing situations are not "bad" English, but are simply informal varieties of written English.

The only point of debatable usage that might cause some difficulty in this exercise is the use of real as an adverb or intensifier. Facts about this use of real may be found on page 12 of this unit.

D. Review

It is important that the student conclude his study of the orientation unit with the following basic concepts:

1. The speech of well educated persons is different from that of less well educated or from that of uneducated ones. Point out that these differences are most easily detected at the upper and lower extremes of these classes. There is a greater difference between the speech of a backwoods hillbilly and that of a college professor than can be found between the speech of a high school graduate and a college senior. In the interest of simplicity, only two classes of cultural level are distinguished in this unit: the speech of the educated and the speech of the uneducated (cultural levels of language).

2. Educated persons and uneducated persons speak differently in different social situations. The language of a formal talk is not identical with that of informal conversation at home. Similarly, the language used in a formal report is different from that used in a friendly letter. (functional varieties of language)

3. People judge others on the basis of how they speak and write (or how they behave at the dinner table). Like matters of table etiquette, the criteria used in judging your speech are primarily social--not linguistic --in nature. Sung is no better, linguistically speaking, than the word brung, but educated people use the former and shun the latter.

4. The language used in the English class may vary greatly or slightly from the speech used in the pupils' own homes. On written assignments, the dialect of educated persons who write is the one which is expected; for classroom talks, the speech patterns of educated persons are the ones which pupils are expected to follow. The job of the teacher is to teach pupils to use this dialect well in both speech and writing. Society has decided this--not teachers.

5. Pronunciations, words, and expressions used by educated persons are no better, linguistically speaking, than those used by uneducated persons; the preference for one variety of language over another is rooted in the prestige and power which educated people command in our society. Similarly, the language used in a formal address is grammatically no better than the informal language used by that same individual in his own home; both varieties have their complexities. The point to remember is that the variety of language used in one situation may not be appropriate for another.

6. Dictionaries and composition handbooks sometimes use various labels to indicate the status of many words and expressions. The definitions of such status labels (e.g., substandard, slang, colloquial) must be understood before the information can be of help to the person using the reference book. You might take advantage of this opportunity to read orally that section of your own classroom dictionary which deals with status labels.

7. The distinction between grammar and usage should be made clear to every pupil. A clear distinction between the matters of usage and those of grammar will facilitate the study of grammar in Part II of the course of study. The study of grammar deals with the rules which explain the grammatical utterances of the language--the structure of words and the larger structures made up of words. The grammatical rules for standard English are different from those of substandard English. The study of usage is a matter of style concerned with the appropriateness of words and expressions. Both standard English and substandard English have formal and informal

varieties of speech and writing. For example, normal word order in questions is a verifiable fact of grammar; preference for "in regards to" is a matter of usage. The pupil must recognize that when he is using standard English it is inappropriate for him to mix usage levels or to apply grammatical rules from substandard English.

E. Summary Questions

Again, a single "correct" answer is not intended. Generally, the kind of response desired is:

1. As one group becomes in some way isolated from other groups, its language changes in different ways.

2. (a) As the settlers encountered people from other countries and discovered new products in the New World, words from other languages were borrowed, new words were added as needed, and word meanings changed. In addition to these vocabulary changes, there are those linguistic changes involving pronunciation and grammar which are too complex to consider here.

(b) The influences described in answer (a) above, made American English different from British English. The Englishman's English is no "better" linguistically, than American English.

3. No specific regional dialect is rated higher socially, except as individuals reflect their own personal preferences and prejudices.

4. Differences are likely to decrease because of better communication via radio and television and as higher education becomes more widespread. The answer to this question is purely conjectural, since we lack scientific proof of such changes.

5. Standard English is, in general, that which is used by the majority of people with at least a high school education. Standard English has the advantage of allowing a person to communicate with the largest language community.

6. The chief differences between oral and written expression are:

(a) The speaker can respond to the immediate reaction of his audience.

(b) Writing must observe conventions in spelling to facilitate communication.

(c) Speakers convey information through intonation, pauses, facial expressions, and gestures in addition to sounds; writers substitute written symbols for sounds and use punctuation, capitalization, and paragraphing to aid communication.

7. The choice of words and the sentence structure illustrate the primary difference. That difference does not occur only in standard English.

There are levels of formality in other dialects as well. Differences of formality occur in both speaking and writing.

F. Related Assignments in Speech and Composition

Each teacher must decide for himself how much additional work on dialects will be desirable or necessary. The following assignments can be used to extend and deepen the pupils' knowledge of social and regional dialects.

1. Make a list of debatable or interesting expressions gathered from pupil compositions. Have the pupils determine the status of each of the expressions. Another method would be to assign a single word or expression to each student who would be responsible for an oral report upon the status of his assigned word.

2. Encourage pupils to keep a notebook in which they record examples of dialect, both regional and social. The following are good sources of information: television programs, radio programs, relatives in the home (especially older persons), and neighbors.

3. Have the pupils write a short piece of dialogue in which they attempt to illustrate how a person from another region speaks. For example, they might select one of the more obvious regional dialects (e.g., New York, Boston, or Charleston) and show how this person might ask for directions in the pupil's home town or neighborhood. This assignment should probably be read aloud, since most pupils will have difficulty representing regional speech in writing.

4. Have the pupils give several examples of how an anecdote or some expression might be worded in each of the following situations: (1) speaking to the principal of your school, (2) giving a talk in class, (3) telling the family at dinner, and (4) telling a brother or sister privately.

OREGON CURRICULUM STUDY CENTER

USING THE DICTIONARY

Language Curriculum I

Teacher Version

Teacher Version

USING THE DICTIONARY

Most seventh graders have a good background in syllabication and many other basic dictionary skills as a result of their lower grade work in spelling and reading. This unit does not devote much space to alphabetizing, syllabication, etc., but seeks to encourage exploration of the dictionary itself.

In preparing a dictionary unit it is necessary to use materials and exercises which will adapt to any of the several dictionaries in general classroom use. An effort has been made to keep the work general enough to fit into any classroom.

We have not thought it necessary to supply a key for the exercises, since nearly all of them call for kinds of information about dictionaries and their use that teachers can be expected to know already. Besides, you will no doubt want to work through the exercises with your students and so will necessarily locate the answers to the questions at the same time they do.

In the hope that you may find time and opportunity to reinforce the unit by additional drill, we have included several suggestions for drill exercises, below. You will no doubt be able to devise others of your own.

WORLD WORDS

A large map of the world on the bulletin board may be utilized as a class project on an extended assignment basis. Pupils watch for words originating in the various countries of the world and then attach their word to the map in the proper location.

A similar procedure may be followed with the teacher supplying typewritten slips with words; the students look them up for origin and pin them on the bulletin board map or on notebook maps. Pins with colored heads add color, or the words may be written on vari-colored papers.

WHAT KIND OF PERSON AM I?

A list of personality traits, good and bad, may be presented by a committee of the abler students. The pupils select a dozen or so to describe themselves, and write sentences using them in a situation which shows they understand the meaning. For example, "In the mornings I am quite irritable until I've had my breakfast. Then I am rather amiable."

BLACKBOARD RELAY

The class is divided into two or three teams. Identical lists of words written phonetically are placed on the board by the teacher or a neutral committee. At a signal, the first member of each team goes to the board and writes the first word in its orthographical spelling, and hurries back to touch the next team member's right hand, who then goes to the board, etc.

Orthographically spelled words may be listed and the teams can use their dictionaries to ascertain the phonetic spellings and write them on the board.

Syllable division may also be used.

Team members may challenge members of the opposite team as to the correctness of their words, and penalties may be enforced against the loser.

CODE-WRITING

Alphabet codes can be used for writing messages and jokes. This will give practice in alphabetizing in a painless way. The code may be one in which the letter before is the key, as z equals a, a equals b, etc. Cn xnt tmcdqrszmc? (Do you understand?)

WORD WAR

Students collect ammunition in the form of words taken from textbooks used in the class. Sides may form for the war, with one side challenging the opposite. Failure to define the word is a casualty. The side with the most men left at the end of the given time wins the war.

WORD HISTORIES

Students may be interested in looking up word histories and reporting back to the class. Some words with an interesting past are curfew, sandwich, salary, aftermath, pedigree, bonfire, panic, macadam, tantalize, assassin, halcyon, journey.