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Language Development in Disadvantaged Children: An Annotated Bibliography.

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LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT IN DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN
AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

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LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT IN DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN
AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

The bibliography which follows is not intended to be exhaustive. Rather, it is aimed at broad representativeness and attempts to show the current range of approaches to language issues in disadvantaged children. Note that some documents, tangential to the specific topic but basic to some of the points of view, have been included.

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ANASTASI, ANNE; and D'ANGELO, RITA. "A comparison of Negro and white pre-school children in language development and Goodenough Draw-a-Man I. Q." Journal of Genetic Psychology, 81:147-65, 1952.

This study was designed to examine the language development of Negro and white preschool children and their scores on a nonverbal I. Q. test. The population involved consisted of 100 five-year-old predominantly lower SES children attending day care centers--25 Negro and 25 white children living in uniraical, unmixed neighborhoods and 25 Negro and 25 white children living in racially mixed neighborhoods. The sex ratios were approximately the same in each group; all the families spoke English at home; and the median number of siblings in all groups was one. Each child was individually tested by being presented with a collection of toys to stimulate his verbalization. A white examiner recorded 60 consecutive responses or "sentences" for each child, scoring only the last 50. The language responses were scored on the basis of mean sentence length and sentence structure. Immediately after the language recording session, the Goodenough Draw-a-Man I. Q. was administered. On the Goodenough, there were no significant overall race differences. Only a sex differential in favor of the girls was significant, and even this difference did not occur in the mixed neighborhood Negro group. In terms both of mean sentence length and frequency of mature sentence type, Negro boys surpassed Negro girls in the unmixed group. In the mixed Negro groups, the differences were less pronounced and, in terms of sentence type, insignificant. In white groups, there was a sex reversal with girls being superior to boys on both language measures, a superiority which obtained even in the mixed white groups. Race x sex interaction resulted in within-sex comparisons showing Negro boys superior to white boys and white girls superior to Negro girls. Results suggest the importance of keeping boys' and girls' scores separate in any Negro-white comparisons of language development.

ANASTASI, ANNE; and DE JESUS, CRUZ. "Language development and nonverbal I. Q. of Puerto Rican children in New York City." Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, 48:357-66, 1953.

This study investigated the performance of Puerto Rican preschool children on the Goodenough Draw-a-Man I. Q. and on a measure of spontaneous language production in order to test the hypothesis that their poor performance in school was related more to various identified psychological and sociological factors than to ability per se. The subjects were 50 Puerto Rican children--25 boys and 25 girls--attending day care centers in Spanish Harlem. The majority of the children came from homes in which more Spanish than English was spoken, and eight came from homes in which no English was spoken. The testing procedure was similar to that used by Anastasi and D'Angelo in an earlier study (see "A Comparison of Negro and White Pre-School Children in Language Development and Goodenough Draw-a-Man I. Q."). Speech samples,

however, were recorded by a Puerto Rican examiner in both Spanish and English. Results were compared with those from the Negro and white samples of the previous investigation. In all three groups, girls excelled boys on the Goodenough Draw-a-Man I. Q. ; but the Puerto Rican children demonstrated a strong resistance to taking the test and showed a wider variance in I. Q. scores. As in the earlier study, the children's utterances were recorded by the examiner while they played with a collection of toys. Responses were almost entirely in Spanish. There were no significant sex differences within the group; but even after controlling for English-Spanish language differences, the examiner found that Puerto Rican children excelled both the Negro and white groups in mean sentence length and maturity of sentence structure. Considering various psychological factors in the test situation which might have enhanced their performance, the authors noted that the mean educational and occupational level of Puerto Rican mothers and fathers was lower than that of both Negro and white groups. The more verbal Puerto Rican household may be a factor in producing children whose language development is not inferior to white American norms.

AUSUBEL, D.P. "How reversible are the cognitive and motivational effects of cultural deprivation? Implications for teaching the culturally deprived child." Urban Education, 1:16-38, 1964.

In this article, the problem of the reversibility of the effects of cultural deprivation on verbal and abstract intelligence and on the development of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for academic achievement is examined. It is suggested that the "critical periods" hypothesis, which holds that some degree of permanent retardation is inevitable if the organism is deprived of necessary stimulation when maximally susceptible to it, is difficult to extrapolate to human cognitive development. It has been based on perceptual, motor, and social traits in infrahuman species. In the human, particularly after the first year of life, the rate of maturation is relatively slow, and further optimal periods for intellectual growth have not been demonstrated. Rather, older children and adults seem to have definite advantage over young children in learning new material. The possible disadvantage of postponing learnings "inheres rather in loss of precious years of opportunity when reasonably economical learning could have occurred if attempted, but did not. . . The individual, in comparison to equally endowed peers, incurs a learning deficit which limits his current and future rate of intellectual development." The author points out that possible irreversibility in cognitive development may result from the "cumulative nature of intellectual deficit." The child who has a deficit in growth is less able to profit developmentally from new levels of environmental stimulation. "New growth always proceeds from the existing phenotype, that is, from already actualized capacity, rather than from the potentialities inherent

in the genotype." Furthermore, intellectual development becomes increasingly differentiated with age, leaving those who are deficient at one less differentiated level less able to profit from stimulation which helps develop differentiation. The author also suggests that present I. Q. tests do measure "functional or operating capacity at a given point of development" rather than innate potential per se and are fair in this respect. They are unfair to the culturally deprived in that these children have fewer test-taking skills and are less responsive to speed pressure, less highly motivated, and less familiar with specific vocabulary. However, even when these errors are eliminated, substantial social class differences still remain. Due to language retardation in the culturally deprived, children experience the most difficulty in transition from concrete to abstract modes of thought--a transition which is necessary in the junior high school years. Implications for education are prevention (preschool enrichment emphasizing perceptual discrimination and language development) and amelioration (use of more concrete empirical props in teaching in order to facilitate transfer to the abstract and revision of language arts teaching in order to emphasize mastery in principal syntactical forms in written and oral language rather than grammatical forms). Any teaching strategy for these children should consider: 1, state of readiness; 2, mastery of all ongoing learning before new tasks are introduced; and, 3, use of structured learning materials optimally organized to facilitate efficient sequential learning. In conclusion, intrinsic motivation for learning may be most effectively developed by focus on the cognitive, relying on motivation developed retroactively from achievement.

BAILEY, BERYL L. "Concern for special curriculum aspects: bilingualism." In: Imperatives for change: proceedings of the New York State Education Department conference on college and university programs for teachers of the disadvantaged, April 10-11, 1967, Adelaide Jablonsky (ed.). New York: Yeshiva University, 1967. p. 86.

E (In process.) UD 003942

Recent research indicates that for all practical purposes Negro children operate under many of the handicaps of non-English speaking children. The resemblance of their language to English gives them no advantage in acquiring effective use of English or in understanding all that is taught in this mode. Indeed, well-known features in the language of Negro children represent parts of an identifiable structure which differs from English in certain crucial aspects of the grammar and sound system. If we recognize this language difference, the recent announcement by the New York Board of Education that Negroes and Puerto Ricans now constitute the majority of public school students in New York City should "jolt us out of our complacency" with regard to language competence. We can no longer assume that teachers trained in the traditional methods of the language arts are adequately equipped to teach a population

with whom they cannot fully communicate. In dealing, therefore, with the problem of communicating with and teaching Negro children, in addition to other non-English speaking students, teachers must understand the role of language in a culture or subculture; and they must bring to their classrooms certain understandings that will enable them to cope with diverse situations. In addition, the curriculum of teacher training programs needs to be expanded to include courses in language and culture and in linguistics and the structures of specific languages.

BAILEY, BERYL L. "Some aspects of the impact of linguistics on language teaching in disadvantaged communities." 20p. (Author's affiliation: Yeshiva University.) (Article summarized from two papers presented at the 1965 and 1966 annual meetings of the National Council of Teachers of English: "Linguistics in Nonstandard Language Patterns" (1965) and "The Effects of Dialect on High School English in Mississippi" (1966).)

C UD 006672

By the time a child enters elementary school, he will have "an adequate control of the basic structures of some language system." The traditional techniques of the English teacher, directed toward refining his skill or toward providing a second language to those who do not speak English in the home, have not proved adequate for those substandard speakers of English whose "basic linguistic system. . . is different enough from English to pose rather serious problems in the classroom." The most serious difficulties arise not in vocabulary but in structurally based phonological differences which result in "a host of potential homonyms not accounted for in any of our texts." Such systematic differences appear to be "responsible for some of the more readily discernible syntactic problems or else serve to reinforce them." Creole specialists "believe that the verb system of Negro nonstandard speakers of English is much more like that of the English-based Creoles (which) express the possessive relationship, the number distinction in nouns and verbs, the past tense in verbs, and the cases of pronouns by different means than the Indo-European languages." Examples are given of concurrence between Creole and American nonstandard Negro speech forms, suggesting that certain forms "incorrect" in standard English may have strong reinforcement from within a different language system. The author uses samples from her own work with 100 pre-freshmen at Tougaloo College to document the fact that "persistent use in deviant behavior is directly traceable to a dialectal substratum which has not felt the effects of years of efforts at change in the classroom." What is required is a systematic approach to teaching the language arts based on an understanding that the phenomena "are really parts of a system which is only partially similar to that of the standard language."

BAILEY, BERYL L. "Toward a new perspective in Negro English dialectology." Reprint from American Speech, 40(2):171-77, October 1965. C UD 006673

The author argues that "blind ethnocentrism" has prevented structuralists from looking for the "real facts" underlying the grammatical structure of American Negro dialect and has led them to deal with it instead as the "poor brother" of standard English. It is suggested that, in fact, southern Negro speech differs from other southern speech because its deep structure has its origins in "some Proto-Creole grammatical structure." To validate or nullify this possibility, both a description of the dialect and of its historical background are needed. As an "indication of the direction in which we have to move," the author analyzes the speech of a Negro narrator, Duke, in Warren Miller's The Cool World, on the theory that "an author regularly packs his dialogue with those features which he knows to be most distinctive in the dialect which his characters speak." Examples are given to illustrate: 1, differences in phrase structure rules of nonverbal predications in English, Jamaican, and The Cool World; and, 2, the existence in The Cool World "dialect" of special verb forms, a special deployment of the negative markers don't and ain't, and the substitution of they for their. The author suggests that what are needed are trained native speakers of southern Negro dialect who can rely on their intuitions to throw light on the issues involved.

BARKER, GEORGE C. "Growing up in a bilingual community." The Kiva, 17:17-32, 1951.

"The . . . brief survey would seem to indicate that the influence of the media of urban, American culture by no means displaces a parallel influence of Mexican culture among bilingual children on the West side of Tucson. Through family and neighborhood pressure, the language of the home continues to be Spanish. Thus, the child is exposed early in life to many aspects of Mexican culture, while he does not receive the full impact of urban U.S. culture until after he enters public school. This would suggest that the process of Americanization in this situation, far from being automatically handled through home and neighborhood, is largely dependent for its success on the influence of the public schools and such mass media as radio, motion pictures, and the press."

BARKER, GEORGE C. "Social functions of language in a Mexican American community." Acta Americana, 5:185-202, 1947.

This paper describes a six month field study investigating possible relationships between the linguistic behavior of members of a bilingual

minority group undergoing cultural change (individuals of Mexican descent living in Tucson, Arizona) and other aspects of their social behavior. In addition to obtaining background information on community social structure and language behavior through interviews and questionnaires, the author observed a rough cross section (100 individuals from 20 families) "in a variety of situations to see how their usage of Spanish and English compared with their actions in each case." He concludes that there is a division of the social functions of language within such a group so that "each language comes to be identified with certain fields of interpersonal relations." A kind of continuum of language usage, with the southern Arizona dialect of Spanish dominant at one end and English dominant at the other, is paralleled by a continuum in fields of interpersonal relations with "intimate relations with others of Mexican descent" at one end and "purely formal relations with Anglos" at the other. "Categories of interpersonal relations are reflected by corresponding variations in linguistic behavior," and individuals in various stages of acculturation occupy roughly parallel positions on both the cultural and linguistic continua. Inferior social status is associated with both a "Mexican accent" and with the southern Arizona dialect. The author suggests that this type of analysis is useful in examining acculturation and assimilation problems since an individual's linguistic behavior may reveal his attitudes more directly than his rationalized statements of belief.

BARTH, ERNEST A. T. "The language behavior of Negroes and whites." Pacific Sociological Review, 4(2):69-72, 1961.

The author contends that if one could show that different patterns of social organization are systematically associated with different meanings for mutually used terms or if one could show that converging patterns of social organization are associated with convergences in the meanings of terms, a valuable step would be taken toward a theory of language. The article discusses a pilot study undertaken to explore one approach to the identification of linguistic differences between Negroes and whites.

BEREITER, CARL. "The relative importance of verbal and nonverbal factors in cultural deprivation: evidence from children with sensory handicaps." Urbana: University of Illinois, Institute for Research on Exceptional Children. C UD 005519

The author adduces evidence from studies of deaf and blind children to support the hypothesis that verbal factors rather than physical interactions represent the major source of "environmentally induced variation in intelligence" among culturally deprived children. On the assumption that language "plays little part in early intellectual development" of deaf

children and that blind children are "cut off from what is probably the major source of stimulation from the physical environment," the author argues that the relatively normal development of blind children contrasted with the lower I. Q.'s and academic retardation found among the deaf suggests "that language experience accounts for much more of the variance in intelligence and educational achievement than does physical interaction with the environment." In attempting to assess the relationship between SES factors, intelligence, and deafness, the author cites several studies showing no significant differences in I. Q. scores between residential (tending to be lower class and rural) and day school (tending to be middle class and urban) deaf populations. "If the judgement is accepted that (these) populations represent significantly different levels of socioeconomic and cultural background, then one is led to the startling conclusion that. . . when language is removed as a factor, the relationship between SES and intelligence vanishes." In an addendum, the author draws further evidence of the effect of language on intelligence from the unexpectedly low correlation among a group of public school deaf children in California between their I. Q.'s and parents' I. Q. and educational level.

BEREITER, CARL; and ENGLEMAN, SIEGFRIED. Language learning activities for the disadvantaged child. New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'Nai B'rith, 1965(?). 34p. C UD 002898

This booklet presents game-like activities involving language fundamentals, reading readiness, counting, and singing to be used to simulate participation and learning among language handicapped disadvantaged children.

BEREITER, CARL; and ENGLEMAN, SIEGFRIED. Teaching disadvantaged children in the preschool. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1966. 312p. C UD 002093

The methods, curriculums, teaching strategies, and management issues of a preschool program for the disadvantaged are described. It is felt that such a program should focus on specific learning goals to make higher rates of progress possible. Fifteen objectives are outlined, ranging from "being able to distinguish words from pictures to being able to perform certain if-then deductions."

BEREITER, CARL; and OTHERS. "An academically-oriented preschool for culturally deprived children." Urbana: University of Illinois, Institute for Research on Exceptional Children, 1965. (Paper presented at the American Education Research Association Conference in Chicago, February 1965.) C UD 004812

This is a collection of papers describing the rationale and techniques of a preschool program based on the premise that to overcome the handicaps of culturally deprived children "mere enrichment" is insufficient and that "specific and significant educational objectives" must be established. In two hour per day, five days a week sessions, 15 four-year-old Negro children drawn "from the lower stratum of a culturally deprived ghetto" are daily given "task-oriented, no-nonsense" 20 minute training periods in language, arithmetic, and reading. Goals, approaches, and children's achievement in each program are described. The language program is aimed at teaching the child a different language, replacing at least in school settings his own "non-logical mode of expressive behavior." To promote "the acquisition of grammatical statement patterns and a grasp of the logical organization of these patterns," the child is taught how to make positive and negative statements about relationships among objects in his environment. Arithmetic is taught as a language with emphasis on "learning certain statement forms and how to answer questions derived from them." Reading is structured to "reduce the inconsistency and complexity of English orthography" and presented as a set of six rules for decoding print. Changes in IPTA scores indicate that "in terms of traditional achievement quotients, these children gained approximately 20 points in three months in three highly significant language areas." Moreover, the children improved markedly (to near normal) on an unstructured "vocal encoding test," suggesting that concentration on fundamental language processes also helps young children verbalize more freely.

BERNSTEIN, BASIL. "Elaborated and restricted codes: their social origins and some consequences." American Anthropologist, part 2, 66(6):55-69, December 1964.

This paper examines some possible relations between social structures and speech patterns. According to the author, social structure intervenes between language (representing "what can be done" with words) and speech (representing "what is done"), thus establishing specific principles of choice for speakers--i. e., coding principles. The author describes two codes which he characterizes as "restricted" and "elaborated" on the basis of the relative ease with which a listener can predict those syntactic alternatives which a given speaker will choose in a particular situation. Restricted (high prediction) codes are seen as developing wherever there is a common backdrop of assumptions "which reduces the need for the speakers to elaborate their intent verbally and to make it explicit." The notion implies only structural prediction, but there are special variants (e. g., military language) where lexicon prediction is also possible because all signals are rigidly prescribed. In a restricted code, verbal signaling of personal difference is limited, and new information or discrete intent is communicated through extraverbal

channels. Therefore, "as the child learns a restricted, code he learns to control a particular role relation. The verbal channel promotes the transmission of social rather than individual symbols (since) what is said reflects the form of the social relation and its basis of shared assumptions." Conversely, "an elaborated code reflects the speaker's individual status. He (is) differentiated from his social group as a figure is differentiated from its ground." Since his intent may not be taken for granted, "the speaker is forced to expand and elaborate his meanings." Thus, the child learning an elaborated code "comes to perceive language as a set of theoretical possibilities for the presentation of his discrete experience to others." As any child learns speech, "the identity of the social structure. . . is transmitted. . . essentially through the implications of the linguistic code. Children who have access to different speech systems or linguistic codes, by virtue of their position in the class structure, may adopt quite different intellectual and social procedures which may be only tenuously related to their purely psychological abilities."

BERNSTEIN, BASIL. "Linguistic codes, hesitation phenomena and intelligence." London: University College. 22p. (Article also appeared in Language and Speech, 5(1):31-46, 1962.) E ED 001348 MF \$.09 HC \$.96

Two linguistic codes have been proposed, elaborated and restricted. These codes are regarded as functions of different social structures. They are considered to entail qualitatively different verbal planning orientations which control different modes of self-regulation and levels of cognitive behavior. Social class differences in the use of these codes were postulated, and the hesitation phenomena associated with them predicted. Speech samples were obtained and the hesitation phenomena analyzed from a discussion situation involving small groups of middle-class and working class subjects with varying I. Q. profiles. Overall social class differences were found. The working class subjects used a longer mean phrase length, spent less time pausing, and used a shorter word length. Holding nonverbal intelligence constant, social class differences were found in the same direction. Holding verbal and nonverbal intelligence constant, social class differences were again found in the same direction, but not for word length. Within the middle-class group, the subgroup with superior verbal intelligence used a longer mean phrase length, a faster rate of articulation, and a longer word length. Within the working class group, the subgroup with the average I. Q. profile spent less time pausing. The major predictions were confirmed. The results were considered supporting evidence for the two codes and the different verbal planning orientations which are entailed.

BOSSARD, J.H.S. "The bilingual individual as a person--linguistic identification with status." American Sociological Review, 10:699-709, 1945.

An in-depth study of 17 bilinguals stresses the relationship of bilingualism to personality development. The function of language is defined as "part of the cultural achievement of a people, comparable to its family system, its economic life, or its religious life" and also as a "mechanism which transmits the rest of the culture system. . . . The true bilingual is a person who participates intimately in two cultures." There are two basic variables: 1, the ecological setting; and, 2, the social attitude toward the non-English tongue and those who use it, i. e., its social status. Within the family, the mother's attitude toward language use is particularly significant, and the following typical situations develop. The family is aware of, and preoccupied with, the problem of language which creates tension. A "comparative appraisal" of parents by children develops. In intimate families and those of small size, linguistic differences have greater effect. Most cases show resentment toward the non-English speaking parents, and some use avoidance techniques. The elders do not appreciate the problems created for the children by the foreign language, except in its role in school progress. In terms of child development, there are three significant aspects: 1, the double linguistic task and its burden on the child; 2, "the role of bilingualism in the development of confidence in the self"; and, 3, the exposure to social ridicule. Protective devices are developed--a restrained manner of speaking, inconspicuous behavior, home avoidance, and meticulous English. In conclusion, linguistic identification with status seems to be the underlying social process affecting the problem of bilingualism and is especially significant in the U. S. with its highly heterogeneous population.

BOSSARD, J.H.S. "Family modes of expression." American Sociological Review, 10:226-37, 1945.

"Transcripts of family table talk, supplemented by other special case material, constitute source material for a study of the linguistic element in the family culture. This paper is a report of a research study of family modes of expression, based on a total of 51 case records. The emphasis is primarily on family linguistic situations. Its findings are to be related to the social development of the child and his induction into the prevailing culture." The following topics are discussed: infant conditioning situations; preverbal expression in the family; range and meaning of family vocabulary; levels of language; language as a social index; family linguistic systems; family patterns of conversation; and some characteristics of speech. The summary section outlines the sociological significance of language.

BOSSARD, J.H.S.; and OTHERS. "Some neglected areas in family-life study." Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 272:68-76, 1950. C UD 000364

The authors discuss six neglected factors "whose role in the promotion of successful family living seems wholly obvious and highly important." Among these are the family meal, approaches to family entertaining and visiting, family rituals, household pets, the family council, and "family modes of expression." Referring to the importance of language in human relationships, the authors note that it is the "vehicle through which ideas and attitudes are transmitted." A study of conversation in 82 families suggests that specific patterns of conversation are characteristic of given families, reflecting the various aspects of the family's life, their occupations, religious affiliation, the geographic areas in which they have lived, social status, age, sex, and so forth. Various observed patterns of family interaction are discussed; the authors note that among the families there is "no awareness or thought either of (the nature of these patterns) or of their role in the development of the child members or in the relations between the adult family members. One cannot but be impressed with the possible human salvage that could be achieved by some judicious attention to the cultivation of family language patterns." Other areas of family life are similarly discussed.

BRAININ, SEMA. "Language skills, formal education and the lower class child." New York: Mobilization for Youth, 1964. 16p.
C UD 002564

A review of the literature indicates that the absence of verbal interchange with adults (particularly with the mother) at a crucial developmental stage is believed to be an important factor in the verbal deficit of low SES children. It appears, however, that the contextual sufficiency of the lower-class child's language has been overlooked. Peers and siblings are the probable major stimuli for linguistic development; thus, the child's verbal ability is adequate for his own communication. Early compensatory programs have attempted to "alter the social reality" expressed by the language of low SES children with the goal of fostering a language thought more appropriate to the school situation. While the child's own language may be richly expressive and dynamically integrated with his environment, the depreciation of this verbal usage by the teacher who misunderstands the lower-class context will encourage the child to fulfill her low expectations by neither learning to speak nor being receptive to the more formal middle-class language which is foreign to his existent cognitive and expressive context. Before it can be built on, the full verbal expression of the lower-class child must be valued rather than evaluated by those who teach him, and his education must begin from the point at which he is.

BROPHY, JERE; and OTHERS. "Effects of social class and level of aspiration on performance in a structured mother-child interaction situation." SRCD, 1965. E ED 011 906 MF \$.09 HC \$.64

Relationships between social class, success expectations of mothers, and task performance of mother and child are examined to determine whether "differences in expectations of success would be reflected in performance scores and in measures of effort expended" in a perceptual motor task. Subjects were 160 Negro mothers of four SES levels (A--middle, intact; B--upper-lower, intact; C--lower-lower, intact; and D--lower-lower, father absent) and their four-year-old children divided equally by sex. The task was to reproduce five simple polygons on the Etch-a-Sketch toy with one knob worked by the mother and the other by the child. Before each task, the mother was asked to predict her "score" in duplicating the model, and designs could be erased and reattempted until she was satisfied with the result. The examiner saw the mother's task primarily as that of controlling the child and evolving a "mutually understood directional system." Data were collected on figure scores. Verbal behavior and physical activity were observed and recorded. The A group scored higher than the other groups "which did not differ significantly among themselves," except at the lowest intelligence levels. "The kind and extent of control exercised over the child was more potent in determining scores than were the strictly cognitive maternal variables, and a "lack of correlation between predictions and the other measures was observed. . . All expectations based on the theory that the predictions were measuring achievement motivation were disconfirmed," and what the predictions measure "remains an open question."

BROWN, BERT. "The relationship of language development to social class and intelligence." Teachers Journal, 1(1), 1965.

This brief review of some of the research of the Institute for Developmental Studies indicates that the performance of low SES children is significantly lower on tests of verbal ability than that of middle-class subjects. Measures of the quantity of verbal output do not significantly differentiate SES status, but low SES children's speech is more likely to be loaded with pauses, repetitions, slips, and extraneous words. The preliminary results of a battery of tests designed to measure verbal ability to label, relate, and classify show that low SES children tend to have poorer labeling ability, the cumulative effects of social class differences becoming more pronounced with age. Differences in relational ability to connect names of objects with descriptive modifiers, e.g., nouns with adjectives, increases more sharply with age than with social class. Lower SES children showed poorer ability to classify and, among fifth graders, less skill in inclusive categorization. It was also found that on measures of variety of verbal output social class differences disappeared when I. Q. was held constant.

BROWN, ROGER; AND BELLUGI, URSULA. "Three processes in the child's acquisition of syntax." Harvard Educational Review, 34:133-51, 1964. (Reprinted in New Directions in the Study of Language, Eric H. Lennenberg (ed.). Cambridge, Mass.: M.I.T. Press, 1964.)

This is a report on a longitudinal study of the sentence constructing processes of two children, beginning when the boy was 27 months and the girl was 18 months old. Both are only children of highly educated parents and are at the same level of speech development despite the differences in age. The data considered were collected over a period of a year during bi-weekly tape-recorded sessions involving the mother and child in the home. One speech process is termed "imitation and reduction" by the authors in which short sentences (e.g., "Wait a minute") are imitated and longer sentences are reduced (e.g., "Doggie bite" from "The doggie will bite") preserving the word order and retaining the words with semantic content--the "contentives." The authors attribute the selection to "the reference making function of contentives, the fact that they are practiced as single words, the fact that they cannot be guessed from context, and the heavy stresses they receive" in adult speech. In a second speech process, "imitation and expansion," the adult takes the child's incomplete sentence and expands it to make a complete sentence on the basis of existing circumstances (e.g., "Eve lunch" is expanded to "Eve is having (will have) (had) lunch"), "thus encoding aspects of reality that are not encoded by the child's telegraphic utterance." A third process is designated "induction of the latent structure" in which the child attempts to discover "the regularities of English syntax." The authors examine the evolution of the noun phrase from its use as a single utterance in early speech (e.g., "the top," "that knee," "more nut," "a Becky"), making indiscriminate use of various modifiers through a progressive differentiation in which classes of modifiers are separated out, and the noun phrase as a whole is integrated into progressively larger constructions in a wider range of positions. "It looks as if this last process will put a serious strain on any learning theory thus far conceived by psychology. The very intricate simultaneous differentiation and integration that constitutes the evolution of the noun phrase is more reminiscent of the biological development of an embryo than it is of the acquisition of a conditional reflex."

BULL, W.A. "Review of the use of vernacular languages in education." International Journal of American Linguistics, 21:288-94, 1955. (Reprinted in Language in Culture and Society: A Reader in Linguistics and Anthropology, D. H. Hymes (ed.). New York: Harper and Row, 1964.)

The monograph reviewed is based on three operational assumptions: 1, "that every child of school age should attend school"; 2, "that every illiterate should be made literate"; and, 3, "that the best medium for

teaching is the mother tongue of the pupil." The committee's corollary conclusion is that "every pupil should begin his formal education in his mother tongue and should continue to be taught in that language as long as the language and the supply of books and materials permit." The reviewer argues that though such a circumstance may be "psychologically and pedagogically best for the child," it may not be "what is best for the adult socially, economically, or politically." Furthermore, "while getting educated is a personal matter. . . providing a modern education is a social enterprise." While "it may be pleasant. . . to envisage a world which permits the preservation of museum cultures and a multitude of languages," given the lack in many countries of an adequate school system even for those children who speak one of the major tongues, universal education in an "excessively polyglot" society would be an impossibly costly enterprise. The committee's recommendations for modernizing and simplifying writing systems, for developing technical terminology, and other proposals are critically discussed. Questioning a frame of reference which formulates most problems in terms of the individual, the reviewer argues that "linguistic self-determination conceived in the face of a potential of two or three thousand languages and dialects is hopelessly unattainable, and. . . that too much stress on the immediate benefits for the individual endangers the elaboration of a long-range program compatible with the needs and the potentials of modern society."

CARSON, A.S.; and RABIN, A.I. "Verbal comprehension and communication in Negro and white children." Journal of Educational Psychology, 51:47-51, 1960.

This study investigated the hypothesis that northern born white (NW) children would be superior to Negro children and that northern born Negro (NN) children would be superior to southern born Negro (SN) children on measures of verbal communication when comprehension levels were similar. Subjects were 16 fourth graders, eight fifth graders, and six sixth graders (total 30) in each group (NW, NN, SN) from public schools in Lansing, Michigan. The three groups were matched on age, sex, grade placement, and verbal comprehension scores on the Full Range Picture Vocabulary Test (FRPVT). They were not matched for occupational level of the main wage earner. Verbal communicative ability was tested by administration of the vocabulary portion of the WISC and by requiring oral definition of the FRPVT pictures. The hypothesis was confirmed with white children as the highest scorers, northern Negro children in an intermediate position, and southern Negro children scoring lowest on the measures of verbal communication. The authors suggest that the superior cultural milieu of the white children and the "superior educational environment and greater opportunity for cultural advancement of the NN child over the SN child" account for the differences between the groups. "Differences between Negroes and whites on conventional intelligence tests, and especially on vocabulary

subtests, may be primarily due to failure in verbal communication rather than in comprehension."

CAZDEN, COURTNEY B. "Some implications of research on language development for preschool education." 1966. (Author's affiliation: Harvard University.) (Paper presented at the Social Science Research Council Conference on Preschool Education in Chicago, February 1966.) E ED 011 329 MF \$.09 HC \$1.24

Recognizing the limitations of our understanding of the relationship between environmental assistance and the acquisition of language and lack of knowledge as to whether a relationship exists between developmental findings and education, the author discusses four different aspects of language development benefiting from environmental assistance and their implications for preschool programs. The first aspect of language, the acquisition of grammar, is assisted by adult-child conversations which develop ideas. Vocabulary, the second aspect of language development, also benefits from active tuition in adult-child conversations and reading. The third aspect, the multiple functions of language (referential, emotive, conative, phatic, poetic, metalinguistic), probably develop independently in the child. As all of these functions are important, they should all be stressed in the educational system in contrast with the common practice of emphasizing only the referential function. The fourth aspect of language development, the acquisition of a standard dialect related to social mobility, should not be overemphasized. While the teacher should provide models of the standard dialect, she should avoid undue attention to dialect features and avoid the risk of extinguishing verbal behavior in general. The author points out that while more research is needed, three additional recommendations seem warranted: 1, a larger part of the language problem should be based on motor activity (rhythmic); 2, reading and prereading materials should be derived from the area of overlap where sounds and grammatical patterns are common to both standard and nonstandard dialects; and, 3, programs should be continued throughout elementary education to avoid the limitations of "one shot" preschool programs. (More than 20 references to research studies on language development are included.)

CAZDEN, COURTNEY B. "Subcultural differences in child language: an interdisciplinary review." Reprint from Merrill-Palmer Quarterly of Behavior and Development, 12(3), 1966. E ED 011 325 MF \$.09 HC \$1.48

The author reviews findings from the fields of linguistics, developmental and experimental psychology, anthropology, and sociology that bear on the question of whether the "language used by children in various sub-cultural groups" should be considered merely "different" or whether it

is in some manner "deficient." She concludes that the issue cannot be resolved on the basis of present knowledge, and that in the absence of adequate evidence, the concept of subcultural relativity must be retained since it provides an "essential perspective for objective analysis and for any program of planned change."

CENTER FOR APPLIED LINGUISTICS. CLEARINGHOUSE FOR SOCIAL DIALECT STUDIES. Current social dialect research at American higher institutions, report #2. Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics and National Council of Teachers of English, 1966. E ED 010 876 MF \$.09 HC \$1.52

This booklet contains descriptions of 26 projected, ongoing, and completed university-based studies on nonstandard dialects and associated school problems in the U.S. Each project is presented in a one page summary.

CHERRY-PEISACH, ESTELLE. "Children's comprehension of teacher and peer speech." Child Development, 30(2):467-80, 1965.

This study was designed to test the following hypotheses: 1, that teacher speech, being predominantly middle-class and "elaborated" in structure, would be less comprehensible, because less familiar, to lower- than to middle-class children and to Negro than to white children; and, 2, that both lower-class and Negro children would be better able to understand speech samples from members of their own groups than from middle-class and white children. Sixty-four first grade and 127 fifth grade public school children, matched within groups for SES and race, were asked to perform a Cloze task involving the restoration of words deleted from speech samples of teachers and of children representing various race-SES combinations. The first grade group and half of the fifth graders received an auditory presentation--the other fifth graders had the material visually presented. Administration and scoring procedures are described. Results indicated that the auditory mode of presentation appeared to be much more difficult. Significant differences relating to social class were generally absent at the first grade level. At the fifth grade level, however, lower-class children did less well than their middle-class peers, and boys did less well than girls. The SES differences were not maintained when I. Q. was controlled statistically, but the sex differences were increased. However, this superiority appeared to be a function of social class, since there were sex-related differences in performance on language comprehension tasks only among lower-class children and not between middle-class boys and girls. There was a striking absence of Negro-white differences in performance, but "Negro and lower-class children were penalized less by speech samples derived from children of similar social background."

COHN, W. "On the language of lower-class children." School Review, 67:435-40, 1959.

The language of the lower-class child contributes to his dislike of and difficulty with the public school culture. The author defines the language of the lower-class child as a "separate dialect, related to, but distinct from standard English." Basil Bernstein, the British sociologist, emphasizes that the language of the lower class is inferior to standard English; however, it is not a separate lower-class dialect. He says that lower-class English permits only gross intellectual distinction; whereas, standard English facilitates fine distinctions. Students of Hawaiian English speech have shown that it is quite possible to acknowledge perceptual deficiencies in lower-class language and view it as a separate dialect. The author is critical of this approach because of tendencies to equate intellectual shortcomings with moral shortcomings. Nevertheless, it is generally acknowledged that standard English is much better adapted for analytic and scientific functions. Lower-class speech carries with it emotional capacities used not only by lower-class parents, children, and peers but also by writers who wish to convey greater emotive expressiveness. The difference which Bernstein noted between the speech of higher- and lower-class children is not "an absolute language distinction, but is the evident acquisition by the higher classes of standard English in addition to the common lower-class forms." The differences between lower-class English and standard English may be revealed in differences in certain values of lower and higher classes. Practical suggestions (mainly borrowed from the Hawaiian English dialect studies) are given in relation to public school curriculums and lower-class English. First, moralistic depreciation of lower-class English should be avoided because it reflects depreciation of lower-class values. Secondly, it is essential for the teacher to understand and respect lower-class speech in order to gain respect by lower-class children. Standard English needs to be taught to lower-class children; however, this presents complex problems which involve the entire social structure, patterns of social mobility, and the values of lower-class culture. The widespread implementation of these suggestions is considered doubtful because of the social status of the public school teachers who themselves are close to the dividing line of middle class. The teachers' status position being achieved so recently often results in their tendency to insist on linguistic purity.

CORBIN, RICHARD; and CROSBY, MURIEL. Language programs for the disadvantaged: the report of the NCTE Task Force on Teaching English to the Disadvantaged. Champaign, Ill: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965. 327p. C UD 002303

A 1965 Task Force of the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) studied special English projects and programs for the disadvantaged

throughout the country. The survey and evaluation are reported: Part I deals with the NCTE project organization and operation; Part II discusses programs on the preschool, elementary, and secondary levels, adult education, teacher training, and administration; Part III contains four commentaries by experts; Part IV discusses the language background of the disadvantaged; and Part V offers general recommendations. Appendixes contain bibliographies on education of the disadvantaged and on language learning, an annotated list of bulletins and materials, an index of the contributing schools and projects, and a list of members and consultants.

DEUTSCH, CYNTHIA. "Auditory discrimination and learning: social factors." New York: New York Medical College, Institute for Developmental Studies, Department of Psychiatry. 38p. (Article also appeared in Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 10:277-96, 1964.) E ED 001116 MF \$.09 HC \$1.60

It is the author's thesis that "a particular minimum level of auditory discrimination skill is necessary for the acquisition of reading and of general verbal skills" and that lower-class children do not develop this skill because of the din in which they grow up. On the basis of physiological research relating to audition and attention, it is possible to hypothesize that failure to develop adequate auditory attentiveness and discrimination skills in the absence of brain or end-organ damage may result from having been raised in a crowded, noisy, and nonspeech directed environment where the "signal to noise" ratio is low. In order to examine the hypothesized relationship between poor auditory discrimination and poor reading, the author collects data from several projects all of which have in common data on auditory discrimination as measured by the Wepman Auditory Discrimination test. "Summed up in terms of the characteristics of poor readers (the data show): they have more difficulty with auditory discrimination; they have greater difficulty in shifting from one modality to another and back again; and they are more inefficient at a serial learning task when the stimuli are auditory than when those are visual. In all these findings, the performance of poorer readers as related to better readers parallels the performance of younger children as compared with older ones. . . . The similarity between the retarded readers and the younger children leads to an hypothesis of immaturity in. . . basic functions on the part of the retarded readers." No data is presented to support the earlier hypothesis that there is a relationship between this "immaturity" and a noisy homelife. Since it is clear that by the time children reach first grade many have poor discrimination ability already "organized," training in auditory discrimination at the preschool level would seem to be called for to assure later reading success.

DEUTSCH, MARTIN. "The disadvantaged child and the learning process." In: Education in depressed areas, A. Passow (ed.). New York: Columbia University, Teachers College, 1963. p. 163-79
E ED 012 721 MF \$.25 HC \$.76

The slum child, as an outsider in an affluent society, first exposes himself in school to the values of the mainstream American culture. "The thesis here is that the lower-class child enters the school situation so poorly prepared to produce what the school demands that initial failures are almost inevitable, and the school experience becomes negatively rather than positively reinforced." This poor preparation is the result of "macroscopic background factors" such as substandard housing, unstable family life, lack of opportunity for individuation, and scarcity of objects such as pencils, toys, books, etc. that are the tools of learning in school. It is also the result of environment-related psychological factors. Reduced "variety in input," "stimulus deprivation" relative to his maturational capacity, may leave the lower-class child deficient in the kinds of skills--perceptual discrimination, attentional mechanisms, expectation of reward for completed tasks, and the ability to use adults as sources of information--required for school learning. In the nonverbally oriented slum home, the child may also fail to acquire a language concept system and factual knowledge about himself and the physical world equal to that common to children from middle-class homes. The expectation that such a child will succeed in the socioculturally alien school situation is over-sanguine. Research suggests that early intervention in language areas, perhaps preceded by an emphasis on perceptual training, can facilitate the transition from home to school. "The school should assume responsibility for a systematic plan (that) will insure both the intellectual and the attitudinal receptivity of each child to its requirements."

DEUTSCH, MARTIN. "The role of social class in language development and cognition." New York: New York Medical College, Institute for Developmental Studies. April 1964. 23p. (Article also appeared in the American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 25(1), 1965.) E ED 001 061
MF \$.09 HC \$1.00

This study is one of a series attempting to identify background patterns at two developmental states and to relate them to specific cognitive and linguistic patterns. Data in this paper involve 292 Negro and white children in the first and fifth grades of lower and middle SES levels constituting the population of a four year "Verbal Survey." Measures reported primarily reflect language function. A table of significant correlations of first and fifth grade samples with race and SES is included along with a brief description of the test measures. Of the 42 measures for first graders, six correlated with race alone, 10 with SES alone, and 12 with

both. In the first grade, a total of eight comparisons correlated with race; in the fifth grade, 18 comparisons did so. The study showed that being of lower SES yielded lower language scores as did being Negro, but being lower class and Negro did not yield disproportionately lower scores. There is "a deficiency based on class and race in measures which reflect abstract and categorical use of language. . . (a deficiency which) becomes more marked as the child progresses through school." The data reported support the author's "cumulative deficit hypothesis." "Effective remedial and enrichment programming would have to follow developmental stages, and curriculum change should be introduced at the earliest possible time. . . in order to arrest the cumulative deficit."

EDMONDS, WILLIAM S. "Sex differences in the verbal ability of socio-economically depressed groups." Journal of Educational Research, 58:61-64, 1964.

This study was designed to test on a large population the long standing assumption that there are differences in verbal ability between sex groups, favoring girls, which tend to increase as SES decreases. Subjects were 1,239 eleventh grade pupils from 66 Deep South unaccredited schools. An upper-lower and lower-middle SES group from three parochial schools formed a "Selected Improved" (N=54) sample. Children from an area of lowest income and educational level were designated "Selected Depressed" (N=49). The Otis Mental Ability and Cooperative School and College Ability Tests were administered to all pupils. No significant differences by sex were found in either the I. Q. or SCAT Verbal Ability scores (mean SCAT score for 482 males equaled 255.26 and for 757 females equaled 255.85). With SES held constant, there was no significant difference in measured verbal ability between boys and girls at any SES level. However, within both sex groups there were significant differences in verbal ability related to SES, with scores declining with class status. Scores of the highest group boys were greatly superior to those of regular girls (265.60 versus 251.81) and slightly, though not significantly, higher than those of the highest group girls. Results suggest that sex cannot be assumed to be a valid predictor of verbal ability, but that within-group differences among lower-class groups are significant. In terms of educational planning, "low socio-economic groups cannot be lumped together in total inferiority."

ERVIN-TRIPP, SUSAN. "An Issei learns English." Journal of Social Issues, 23(2):78-90, 1967.

The article reports the findings of an investigation of the factors which contribute to the learning of English by Japanese immigrants to the U.S. The subjects were 36 Japanese women who married U.S. soldiers and

came to live with them in the U. S. (they thus are first generation or Issei). Their skills on a variety of English tests were correlated with a number of psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic variables. It was found that the number of years spent in the U. S. was the strongest predictor of fluency in English. But for mastery of English, morphological rules and pronunciation reading was important. In order to study the effect of language on content, monolingual norms for a variety of tests were determined; the performance of the Issei on these tests was related to these norms. The Issei showed gross shifts in content with shift in language. These findings cannot be explained adequately by self-instructions to give typical responses. In general, subjects responses when given in Japanese resembled the Japanese monolingual controls; when given in English they resembled the unilingual English controls. However, content shift was not simply a function of language, as subdivision of the data showed. Friendship patterns in the U. S. were shown to have a bearing on the results.

The ethnography of communication. American Anthropologist, part 2, 66(6):1-186, December 1964, John J. Gumperz and D. H. Hymes (eds.).

The term "ethnography of communication" defines the area of concern-- that is, "studies ethnographic in basis, and of communication in the scope and kind of patterned complexity with which they deal." The twelve papers included indicate "only some of the variety of anthropological and linguistic lines of work that can contribute to the ethnographic study of communication." They are: 1, "'Rhetoric,' 'Logic' and 'Poetics' in Burundi: Culture Patterning of Speech Behavior," by Ethel M. Albert; 2, "Elaborated and Restricted Codes: Their Social Origins and Some Consequences," by Basil Bernstein (q. v); 3, "Proverbs and the Ethnography of Speaking Folklore," by E. Ojo Arewa and Alan Dundes; 4, "An Analysis of the Interaction of Language, Topic, and Listener," by Susan Ervin-Tripp; 5, "Baby Talk in Six Languages," by Charles A. Ferguson; 6, "Words for Self and Others in Some Japanese Families," by J. L. Fischer; 7, "How to Ask for a Drink in Subanun," by Charles O. Frake; 8, "The Neglected Situation," by Erving Goffman; 9, "Linguistic and Social Interaction in Two Communities," by John J. Gumperz; 10, "Adumbration as a Feature of Intercultural Communication," by Edward T. Hall; 11, "Phonological Correlates of Social Stratification," by William Labov; and, 12, "Some Diachronic Implications of Fluid Speech Communities," by Yakov Malkiel. The introductory essay, "Toward Ethnographies of Communication," was authored by D. H. Hymes.

FEINBERG, HARRIET. "Some problems in pre-school education for disadvantaged children--with special emphasis on Project Head Start. Chapter III--Language Development." 1965, unpublished. 51p. (Author's affiliation: Harvard University.) C UD 006671

A chapter of a general paper exploring problems of preschool curriculum planning discusses the "unsettled questions" of how to characterize and what to do about the "language difference" of the children of the poor. Summarizing "certain well-founded hypotheses about the universality of linguistic phenomena," the author asks "wherein lies the cause of the linguistic deprivation which compensatory preschool programs seek to remedy?" A review of current understandings about how children learn to speak suggests that, in spite of an apparently universal tendency to acquire language, "the child does learn one particular way of speaking. . . along with. . . a way of looking at the world, a way of feeling about the world, and some conception of why it is that people talk to each other." What then is the language deficit of disadvantaged children? Speech patterns of these children have been characterized as "a substandard version of correct English, as a less mature stage of linguistic development," and as a communication mode different in form, content, or function from middle-class speech. Overall, though problems of speech elicitation and measurement exist, various methods and measures persist in showing a deficit in lower-class as compared to middle-class speech. Social class, however, is not an explanation. Among a number of specific environmental factors which "various investigators have suspected make a difference in child language learning," none has any "a priori relation" to social class, so that the effort must be made to separate "contingent from necessary causes." Reviewing several existing intervention attempts, the author concludes that there is little evidence "that particular programs can reduce the language deficit." Enrichment programs have the most chance of being effective if the teacher, aware "of some things that have been tried (and) others that have been suspected to be helpful," attempts to suit her techniques to the needs of her particular group.

FISCHER, JOHN L. "Social influences on the choice of a linguistic variant." Word, 14:47-56, 1958.

The author considers social factors influencing the use of -in or -ing for the present participle ending among 24 boys and girls of a single speech community in a semirural New England village. Noting that the concept "free variation" is "a label, not an explanation," he analyzes texts obtained from TAT protocols, interviews, and questionnaires for factors which may lead "a given child in given circumstances to produce one of the variants rather than another." He concludes that factors affecting the choice "appear to be related to sex, class, personality (aggressive/

cooperative), and mood (tense/relaxed) of the speaker to the formality of the conversation and to the specific verb spoken." Such "sociosymbolic variants. . . serve to symbolize things about the relative status of the conversants and their attitudes toward each other" rather than facilitating important distinctions in denotational meanings. If "free" variation is recognized as a prerequisite to linguistic, including dialect, change then understanding of such change will require studying not only "individual variations in linguistic forms in small face-to-face speech communities and. . . in the speech of single individuals in a range of social situations," but information on how often, under what circumstances, and in whose presence a group of socially conditioned variants are used. By examining both synchronic and diachronic implications of sociosymbolic variants, "one would end up with a statement not simply of the direction of linguistic drift, but what this drift means psychologically and what social changes might check it."

FRASER, C.; BELLUGI, URSULA; and BROWN, R. "Control of grammar in imitation, comprehension and production." Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 2:121-35, 1963.

To test the familiar assumption that in language development understanding precedes production, 12 monolingual preschool children, ranging in age from 37 to 43 months, were tested for comprehension, imitation, and production ability on 10 grammatical contrasts (utterances identical except for some grammatical feature). Contrasts included: mass noun/count noun; singular/plural, marked by inflections; singular/plural, marked by is and are; present progressive tense/past tense; present progressive tense/future tense; affirmative/negative; singular/plural, of third person possessive pronouns; subject/object, in the active voice; subject/object, in the passive voice; and indirect object/direct object. Contrasts (e.g., "The sheep are jumping" versus "The sheep is jumping") were illustrated by pictures. For comprehension tasks, the subject had to point to the picture illustrating each of the contrasting sentences spoken by the examiner. In Imitation task, the subject was to imitate, retaining crucial features, the sentence spoken by the examiner. No evidence of understanding was required, i.e., no pictures were used. For production tasks, pictures were named but not identified. Subjects, then, had to name each picture, appropriately matching grammatical contrast, as the examiner pointed to it. For the total group, scores on I > C > P, thus suggesting that in three-year-olds imitation is more advanced than understanding, which is more advanced than production ability. The affirmative/negative contrast proved easiest, and indirect object/direct object most difficult of the problems. The authors discuss the possible psychological operations underlying each task and suggest that analysis of incorrect responses to various problems on the ICP Test can shed light on "grammatical operations that are developmentally prior to attainment of the rules followed by adult speakers."

FRAZIER, A. "Helping poorly languaged children." Elementary English, 41:149-53, 1964.

Though "the meanings built into or conveyed by language are not equally available. . . to all children," it is an error to assume that "poorly languaged" children come to school with very little language of any kind. "The great mass of children we consider poorly languaged actually have quite a lot of language. . . their handles are good for many kinds of experiences, but not for all those we value." We have "learned to think of learning language as learning systems or networks of meanings. . . a consequence of thinking about what we have experienced or can and do experience." "The child learns ways of dealing with experience as he learns his language," but the ways he learns "depend in part on. . . the aspects of experience that members of the family think about and the language they use in reporting their thoughts to one another. . . Not all the kinds of experiences we would like children to have thought about and so learned to talk about are equally available or have been equally experienced." Help can best be given to the child who possesses language insufficient for school success by developing "finer frameworks of meaning (or more familiar networks)" for dealing with experiences he has had and by "providing new experiences for which appropriate networks of meanings can be developed." A program structure for developing thinking processes and related language activities is provided.

FURFEY, PAUL HANLEY. "The sociological implications of sub-standard English." The American Catholic Sociological Review, 5(1):3-10, 1944.

The independent origins of what is called "standard" and "substandard" speech are discussed to emphasize the point that social class factors are important determinants of "correct" speech. Sociologists now attempt to distinguish the various classes on the basis of kinship units, personal qualities, achievements, possessions, etc., while future investigations might profitably pay attention to the importance of language as an index of social class.

GAARDER, A. BRUCE. "Organization of the bilingual school." Journal of Social Issues, 33(2):110-20, 1967.

The article is directed toward sociologists and school administrators interested in bilingual education. It carefully distinguishes between adding the mother tongue and adding a second language, tries to show why more than ordinary teacher training is needed for second language work, and takes the position that the effectiveness of bilingual schooling can neither be assessed nor assured without full consideration of school

organization and classroom practices. It describes an American bilingual public school and gives some information about its pupils' achievement.

GEWIRTZ, J. L.; and GEWIRTZ, H. B. "Stimulus conditions, infant behaviors, and social learning in four Israeli child-rearing environments: A preliminary report." In: Determinants of infant behavior, B. Foss (ed.). London: Methuen, 1965. 22p. E ED 002 153
MF \$.09 HC \$1.00

A methodological paper describes a "theory of process" derived from a learning-behavior theory. It focuses on molecular rather than global units of behavior "in an attempt to assess stimulus conditions in the environment of the infant in the first year of life and the impact of these stimuli on his adaptive and social behaviors." The rationale for this method is discussed and related to other approaches to developmental studies. Using "entire day" observations, data was gathered in four child-rearing environments in Israel--residential institution, kibbutz, single child family, and multiple child family. One hundred and ten subjects were divided into groups of eight, 16, 24, and 32 weeks of age; only the youngest infant of the multiple child family was observed. Each subject was observed for 12 hours by a trained female observer (O) who followed him around for all his activities. Every 30 seconds, O recorded data in three major categories: 1, background; 2, setting; and, 3, behavior. The major class, behavior, was made up of three subgroups: 1, subjects' acts; 2, other person's acts; and, 3, interaction. The enormous mass of data is being coded for computer analysis, and only the records of two middle-class male urban infants are reported--an only child and a youngest child. The authors are concerned with a "search for systematic relationships between interaction sequence patterns and response rates in nonsocial contexts. . . Relationships such as this one would be relevant to our basic theoretical assumption. . . that selected classes of environmental stimuli could have an impact" based not only on availability but whether "they are provided in effective contingencies with the infant's behavior." The distinction is made between Pavlovian and operant conditioning patterns of interaction between infants and caretakers in diverse environments. Three tables summarize some of the data.

GLEITMAN, LILA R. "A study of the acquisition of syntactic structure." 1965. 12p. (Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Linguistic Circle of New York, March 1965.) C UD 006670

This is a preliminary report on a study attempting to "examine the process of language development almost from its inception" by observing

differences in behavior of 15- to 30-month-old children associated with differences in structure of verbal stimuli presented to them. From each of the 12 subjects, the examiner elicited six nouns (names of toys, etc.) which the child understood and could produce independently. These nouns were then used in various types of stimulus utterances: noun alone; noun preceded by plausible verb; noun and verb in grammatical sentence; telegraphed noun-verb sequence with neutral material added to equal length of sentence; and two-word and grammatical utterances in which "nonsense was substituted for either the verb, the function words, or both." For each child, 96 stimuli (each toy name presented twice with each stimulus type) were presented in 12 one-hour sessions conducted in the home. In the presence of the examiner and an observer, the mother presented stimuli under specified conditions. Results indicate that discrimination, evidenced by relevant response, is affected by degree of familiarity and unaffected by "astructural features such as length" for both older and younger groups. For the younger group, "any context at all" makes recognition of a known word more difficult; nonsense words actively interfere with discrimination. First choice of the older group is the grammatical English sentence, and even nonsense is preferred to the absence of a verb. The child's verbal repetition is usually accompanied by, but is not necessary for, a relevant act. The author suggests that manipulation of this kind can free investigators of child language from limitations of naturalistic observation.

GOLDEN, RUTH I. Effectiveness of instructional tapes for changing speech patterns: NDEA Title VII project #559. Washington, D. C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1962. 147p. E ED 003 705

Predominantly Negro students in tenth-grade English classes at Central High School, Detroit, Michigan are divided into two experimental and two control groups. Experimental groups are taught speech improvement by prepared lessons recorded on tape and transmitted by earphones. Control groups read the lesson material from scripts without hearing it. The interaction of the variables of group, sex, education of parents, teacher time, and mental abilities are investigated. All students are administered oral and written English usage tests before and after the experiment. Data analysis using covariance and F-ratios indicates that the experimental group achieve almost twice as much as the control groups. The most significant factor in changing speech habits is group meaning in instructional auditory learning through tapes. A second significant factor is education (.01 level), a third is teacher-time, and a fourth is mental abilities. Analysis of the questionnaire survey indicates that students have favorable attitudes toward both treatments.

GOTKIN, L.; and FONDILLER F. "Listening centers in the kindergarten." Audiovisual Instruction, 10(1), January 1965. C UD 005746

Implementing the language training of the disadvantaged child is difficult, as teachers have to spend a major portion of their time in classroom management. In order to provide children with the equivalent of extended individual conversations, which are assumed to be the bases of vocabulary development, the authors strongly recommend the use of a tape recorder and earphones. Their own experience has shown that this equipment captures the child's attention and provides extended, repetitive language experiences in listening and talking. They carefully list specific requirements and equipment needed in setting up such a listening center. They have found that using flexible dividers to create private booths and having the children face away from the activities of the classroom are important factors in the successful utilization of this equipment. They suggest various methods for the introduction of this equipment into the classroom, offering alternate possibilities depending on the facilities and the number of teachers available. They give concrete pointers that should prove helpful to the individual classroom teacher such as the importance of keeping the sessions brief and how to rotate the children using the equipment. The authors touch on the need for programmed instruction and "sequenced tapes so that each takes a child a step further in a particular learning task."

GOTKIN, L.; and OTHERS. "Standard telephone interview: a procedure for assessing the language behavior of young children." 1964, unpublished. 8p. (Author's affiliation: Institute for Developmental Studies.) C UD 000192

The use of a standard "telephone" interview as an approach to obtaining representative speech samples for use in studying verbal behavior of young children is reported. Forty-two low SES kindergarten children were asked six questions "designed to demonstrate the child's orientation to place and time, recall of immediate and past events, labeling ability, imagination in descriptive use of language, and his ability to verbally communicate these things." Interviews took place during free-play periods in the familiar kindergarten setting, with the child seated in a small "booth" facing away from the interviewer at a distance of about 15 feet and speaking into a telephone instrument, standard except that it lacked a dial. Questions and responses were tape recorded. The experimental group (22 children) had received enriched nursery school curriculum. The control group (20 children) had had only one month in kindergarten. Children were compared on three variables: 1, degree to which they gave more than a routine unelaborated response to the question; 2, ability to communicate so as to be easily understood; and, 3, structure of the responses (e.g., use of complete sentences). Ratings

by three judges showed high interrater reliabilities on all dimensions and significant differences between groups in favor of the experimental group. On one item checked, the experimental group named an average of 3.92 colors (in the clothes of a clown toy) correctly while the control group named 1.45 (p .01). "Since the technique proved effective in discriminating between groups of children using only gross measures. . . its. . . refinement. . . would enable developmental changes. . . to be intensively studied." Furthermore, it may prove useful for teaching the socially disadvantaged child, since nonverbal "crutches" are eliminated.

GUMPERZ, JOHN J. "On the linguistic markers of bilingual communication." Journal of Social Issues, 23(2):48-57, 1967.

Any attempt to describe the skills involved in the bilingual's concurrent use of his two languages must face the fact that the speaker's view of what constitutes distinct languages is not always directly related to linguistic reality. Ethnographic field studies of verbal behavior in a number of societies using measures of language distance adapted from machine translation analysis, which are independent of speakers' attitudes, reveal instances where distinct genetically unrelated languages have almost identical grammars. In such case of near grammatical identity, it may be no more difficult for speakers to switch from one language to another than to change from formal to informal styles of the same language.

GUMPERZ, JOHN J. "Types of linguistic communities." Anthropological Linguistics, 4(1):28-40, 1962.

A review of the literature illustrates that the study of a specific language of an area gives only the end product of structural change. A study of the languages of a specific community, the author claims, would point up the dynamics of this change. The shift in emphasis recommended, then, is from a linguistically defined area to a specific community. The term linguistic community is suggested and defined as "a social group which may be either monolingual or multilingual, held together by frequency of social interaction patterns, and set off from the surrounding areas by weakness in the lines of communication." Such terms as "social communication," "communication matrix," "code matrix," are explicated and discussed. "Argots" or special parlances are shown to be of several functional types. The application of these concepts and others (role distinctness, language distance, language loyalty) to linguistic communities of different degree of social complexity could produce classifications which might show rough parallels between speech distribution and social groups of the type now classified by social

scientists as bands, larger tribal groups, and modern urbanized communities. Illustrations are given.

GUNDERSEN, RICHARD O.; and FELDT, LEONARD S. "The relationship of differences between verbal and nonverbal intelligence scores to achievement." Journal of Educational Psychology, 51(3): 115-21, 1960.

"Four fourth grade groups whose language and nonlanguage intelligence quotients differed in amounts ranging from 24 or more points in favor of the language quotient to a similar discrepancy in favor of the nonlanguage quotient were compared in achievement. Data were gathered via standardized tests and teacher observations. The groups, which were matched on total I. Q., were found to differ significantly in their proficiency in reading, oral and written language, vocabulary, work study skills, and arithmetic. In each area, the group with marked verbal superiority ranked first, and the group with marked nonverbal superiority ranked last. The largest differences among groups occurred in reading, language and vocabulary and the smallest in work study skills and arithmetic. Teachers were more often aware of special talents in the language pupils than in the nonlanguage pupils. A significant proportion of the nonlanguage groups was regarded to have special skills. Language groups showed a definite preference for free-time activity of a verbal nature. Nonlanguage groups had a preference for physical activity."

HERMAN, SIMON N. "Explorations in the social psychology of language choice." Human Relations, 14:149-64, 1961.

The position of a bilingual speaker required to choose one language rather than the other in situations where either could serve as the medium of conversation may usefully be analysed as that of a person in an overlapping situation. He may be influenced by factors in the background situation or by personal needs or by the demands of the immediate situation. The choice depends on the relative potency of these situations. Potency is regarded as a function of valence and salience, and the factor of salience is seen to be of particular importance in determining the influence of a background situation on behavior. The present preliminary paper sets out a number of hypotheses in regard to the determinants of the relative potency of the situations in language behavior. A case history of an immigrant is presented illustrating a pattern in regard to the fluctuations in the potency of background, personal needs, and immediate situation at various stages in the immigrant's adjustment. In this analysis the language chosen has been the dependent variable. It is suggested that the choice of language may in its turn serve--subject to

certain qualifications--as a behavioural index of group preferences and social adjustment. It is further suggested that the analysis of the determinants of language choice may have implications for the policy of the host society in regard to the use of its language by immigrants and other newcomers. The analysis may also have relevance to problems of motivation in the learning of a second language.

HESS, ROBERT D.; SHIPMAN, VIRGINIA; and JACKSON, DAVID.

"Early experience and the socialization of cognitive modes in children." Child Development, December 1965.

Essentially, this article is a summary of the various component studies examining the cognitive environments of preschool children. It is based on the theory that "the structure of the social system and. . . the family shape communication and language, and that language shapes thought and cognitive styles of problem-solving." Low social class status is characterized by a restricted communication code, which is interrelated with the status oriented type of family control where behavior is regulated by role expectations. The elaborated code, typical of middle-class status, is related to a person oriented control system. A toy sort task was given to 160 urban Negro mother-child pairs from four social classes--middle, upper-lower, lower-lower, and ADC--to measure social class differences in maternal teaching styles. Under the mother's tutelage, the child was to sort the toys by color and kind. Data was also obtained on the child's ability to verbalize the sorting principle. Middle-class children were consistently better than their lower-class peers in sorting correctly and verbalizing the sorting principle. "These differences clearly paralleled the relative abilities and teaching skills of the mothers from differing social status groups." The environment of the deprived child is one in which "behavior is not mediated by verbal cues or by teaching that relates events to one another and the present to the future." Children from a lower-class milieu relate to authority rather than to an internalized system of rationale. Although compliant, they are nonreflective, and the consequences of an act "are largely considered in terms of immediate punishment or reward rather than future effects and long range goals." They have not developed cognitive styles adaptive to problem-solving.

HIGGINS, C.; and SILVERS, C.M. "A comparison of the Stanford Binet and the Colored Raven Progressive Matrices I. Q. for children with low socio-economic status." Journal of Consulting Psychology, 22:465-68, 1958.

In order to test the assumption that the Stanford Binet (SB) gives an artificially depressed I. Q. score for children of "limited social experi-

ence and cultural deprivation" because it is heavily loaded on the verbal factor, a sample of 789 low SES Negro and white pupils were individually tested with the SB Form L, followed by the Colored Raven Progressive Matrices Test (CRPM), a nonverbal scale. The assumption of the study was that "CRPM items have no social bias and that success in responding to the items is independent of home and school experience." The population consisted of all seven-, eight-, and nine-year-old children in the first three grades of public schools serving the lowest socioeconomic areas of a northeastern city, "plus children from five fourth grade classes." SB mean I. Q. 's for 349 Negro subjects was 90.3; for 440 whites, it was 90.6, a nonsignificant difference. "Intelligence as measured by the SB is comparable for color, sex, color-sex, and age-color-sex groups" in this population. The CRPM, however, discriminated on the basis of color--white children had mean scores significantly higher than Negro mean scores in all instances (color, sex, color-sex, and age-color-sex). Overall, white mean (90.8) on the CRPM was 10.29 points higher than the mean of the Negro children (80.5). No significant difference was found between white I. Q. scores on the two tests, but Negro children's SB I. Q. 's exceeded their CRPM I. Q. 's by an average of 9.83 points. "The present findings suggest that intelligence tests heavily loaded with nonverbal items may discriminate against Negro children."

HOCKETT, CHARLES F. "Age-grading and linguistic continuity."
Language, 26:449-57, 1950.

The author presents and discusses four propositions bearing on the "mechanisms whereby continuity of linguistic tradition is maintained in a community in the face of the constant turnover of the population." First, with a few exceptions, "the fundamental speech habits of an individual are firmly established by the age of puberty." After puberty there is a loss of linguistic flexibility; "the sounds and forms of one's own language are. . . in some real sense 'right' and the sounds and forms of other languages are 'wrong'." Evidence is adduced from the easier accommodation of children to a new linguistic environment, from the persistence in adult speech of "a childhood core of speech habits," and from Haugen's investigations of the gradual infusion of English into once monolingually Norwegian Wisconsin communities. Second, the most important environmental force shaping the emerging dialect of a child is the speech of other children." Evidence is drawn from the adaptation of children to the speech habits of a new community regardless of the extent of parental adaptation, from the similarity of the speech patterns of the oldest generation of native-bred inhabitants of a given area and those adolescents who have spent their childhood in that area, and from the "peculiar flavor" of the English of children raised in a foreign country who have learned their English entirely from adults. The third proposition, that "in any community there is a continuity of

linguistic tradition through successive generations of children," is seen as a consequence of the first and second propositions. The fourth proposition hypothesizes "that the kind of linguistic change which has been characterized as 'regular' takes place within the childhood continuity." Suggested methods of proof of the fourth proposition are offered.

HYMES, D.H. "Models on interaction of language and social setting." Journal of Social Issues, 23(2):8-28, 1967.

The study of bilingualism is part of the more general study of code repertoires and code-switching. Every community is characterized by a variety of codes and by rules for choosing and switching among them. The study of such variety and such rules is, in turn, part of the general study of sociolinguistic systems. Such systems, understood as the rules governing speaking in a community, differ significantly cross-culturally in a way that affects the role of language in thought and in social life as a whole. There is need for a taxonomy of such systems and a model, or theory, for their description. The author's present work toward a taxonomy and model is linked to investigation of cross-cultural differences in the acquisition of speaking by children. Among the notions found essential are notions for social units of analysis, such as speech community, speech area, speech field, speech network, speech event, and speech act and notions for the components of speech events that enter into the statements of rules of speaking. Some of the problems and limitations of the formal statement of rules for speaking are suggested.

HYMES, D.H. "On communicative competence." In: Research planning conference on language development in disadvantaged children, June 7-8, 1966, Yeshiva University (ed.). New York: Yeshiva University, 1966. p. 1-17. C UD 004912

This paper discusses the important theoretical and practical contributions which could be made by a study of the language development of disadvantaged children. The author reviews the contributions of current linguistic and sociolinguistic theories and assesses their adequacy (or inadequacy) in providing a complete description of language development. He provides the reader with a tentative practical and theoretical framework for examining communicative competence within given socio-cultural settings.

IRWIN, O.C. "Infant speech: the effect of family occupational status and of age on sound frequency." Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders, 13:320-23, 1948.

Speech sound data collected on two groups of infants, 175 babies from families in which the fathers were skilled or unskilled laborers and 576 babies from business, clerical, and professional homes, were analyzed for occurrence of phoneme types ("elemental speech sounds"). Within each class group, there were 15 bimonthly age groups, ranging in age from one to 30 months. "Mastery of speech sounds for the two groups was found to precede at different rates," favoring the higher status group. Analyses of variance indicated significant differences among the children based on age and occupational status. Mean number of speech sound types increases steadily with increasing age, but differences due to occupational status of the families do not begin to become significant until the last year of the infant period. No information is given on data collection.

IRWIN, O. C. "Infant speech: the effect of systematic reading of stories." Journal of Speech and Hearing Research, 3:187-90, 1960.

To test the hypothesis that "systematic reading of stories to infants between the ages of 13 and 30 months" would increase their "phonetic production," two groups of working class mothers were instructed to give differential treatment to their children. The mothers of 24 experimental infants "were instructed to spend 15 or 20 minutes each day reading stories to their children from illustrated children's story books. . . and in general furnishing materials supplemental to the text so that the speech sound environment impinging on the children would be enriched." Ten control mothers were not so instructed. "Children of both groups were regularly paid an afternoon visit during each two month period, and their spontaneous speech was recorded by paper and pencil in the international phonetic alphabet." "Vocalizations of sounds on 30 breaths constituted the sample taken at each visit"--total phoneme frequency of all types representing the amount of vocalization. Results showed that between the thirteenth and seventeenth month there was little difference in mean phoneme frequency scores between the groups. However, curves for the two groups separated shortly after the seventeenth month, after which experimental group means consistently exceeded those of the control group. The author concludes that "systematically increasing the speech sound stimulation of infants under two and a half years of age in homes of lower occupational status. . . will lead to an increase in the phonetic production of these infants over what might be expected without reading enrichment." There is no control in the study for the possible effect of increased individual attention alone.

ISCOE, IRA; and PIERCE-JONES, JOHN. "Divergent thinking, age and intelligence in white and Negro children." Child Development, 35:785-97, 1964.

Part of a larger investigation into learning and intelligence in white and Negro children, this study examined divergent thinking ("originality") in a sample of 132 Negro and 135 white children aged five to nine from segregated schools in Austin, Texas. Subjects were all from lower-class neighborhoods, but "there was a significant difference in socio-economic level. . . favoring the whites." All subjects were given the WISC and an Unusual Uses Test which required them to identify, state the use of, and then suggest new or different uses for a newspaper, a table knife, an alarm clock, and a pottery cup. No time limits were imposed. Total number of uses given for all four objects was scored as "ideational fluency." Responses were classified by object into functional categories to obtain an "ideational flexibility" score. Results showed Negroes had significantly higher overall ideational fluency scores (specifically for the cup $p < .01$ and the newspaper $p < .05$), though whites WISC scores were superior. Results suggest that "the originality of uses proposed for familiar objects is related to the cultural background of the subjects." Age alone was not a statistically significant variable, but there was a significant age x race interaction (younger white and older Negro children had higher fluency scores). No significant race, age, age x race differences were obtained in response flexibility. The authors discuss and interpret correlations between divergent thinking scores and various portions of the WISC. Since divergent thinking tests sample quite different intellectual functions than conventional tests of mental ability, they may afford an advantage to the Negro child.

JACKSON, J.D.; HESS, ROBERT D.; and SHIPMAN, VIRGINIA. "Communication styles in teachers: an experiment." 1965. (Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Research Association in Chicago, February 12, 1965.) C UD 003240

As part of a larger study on "patterns of teacher-pupil communication with culturally deprived children," this paper attempts to assess "mothers' patterns of communication with their preschool children to determine how these patterns increase or reduce the child's subsequent ability to learn in school." Sixty Negro mothers of varying SES levels were taught a block sorting task with two criteria. Mothers were then given unlimited time to teach their four-year-olds the sorting principles involved. Teaching sessions were observed and tape recorded. The task was scored on the child's correct placement of two new blocks and his explanation of their placement. Analysis of verbal exchange between mother and child showed that "the important factor in whether the child learns is that he is given many opportunities to talk about the task."

Also, "the larger the proportion of the mother's messages which ask or tell him only to manipulate the blocks, the less likely will he be to learn the task." Eliciting task related feedback gives the teacher (mother) information on the next appropriate teaching step relative to the child's conception of the task. It also gives the child greater opportunity to think about the problem. Immediate positive feedback by the mother to a correct verbal response by the child also greatly enhances the child's task learning and explanations. "Communication in teaching, to be effective, must be a two-way street. . . Why it is more helpful for a student to talk rather than perform remains an open but fascinating question."

JENSEN, ARTHUR R. "Learning ability in retarded, average and gifted children." Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 9(2), 1963.

This study examines ways in which children classified as "mentally retarded" differ from average or above average children in their learning abilities. Subjects were students of one junior high school and were predominantly middle class. Thirty-six were classified as "mentally retarded" (I. Q.'s 50 to 75), 24 as average (I. Q.'s 90 to 110), and 13 as gifted (I. Q.'s over 135). "The task consisted of learning, by trial-and-error, to associate five or six different stimuli (colored geometric forms) with five or six different responses (an array of pushbuttons)." After a first test of 200 trials given to all groups, a sequence of special learning procedures involving verbal reinforcement, stimulus naming, stimulus naming while learning, and delayed response following reinforcement were given to retarded subjects to make sure they understood the task. All groups were then given a final test involving a new set of 6 S-R connections. There were highly significant differences between the groups in the expected direction, but the retarded showed much greater improvement with practice. Giving verbal reinforcement or requiring the subject to verbalize dramatically improved performance of some retarded subjects. "Some subjects who showed practically no learning on the first task, once they really understood the instructions were among the fastest learners in the retarded group." Moreover, they showed much greater variability in scores. "The four fastest learners in the retarded group were all above the mean of the gifted group on all the tests!" The author suggests that learning ability should not be thought of as unitary but as multidimensional and that normal and fast learners among retarded subjects may simply have failed at some crucial developmental period to acquire those behaviors necessary for school learning. Among these are habits of spontaneous overt or covert verbalization which seem to facilitate learning.

JENSEN, ARTHUR R.; and ROHNER, WILLIAM D., JR. "Syntactical mediation of serial learning and paired-associate learning as a function of age." Child Development, 36(3):601-08, 1965.

One hundred and twenty subjects aged five to 17 were matched on I. Q. and socioeconomic background and were compared on serial and paired-associate learning. All the participants were given both serial and paired-associate tasks--one half were given instructions on how to use syntactical verbal mediators while the others were not. The same materials were used for all age levels. Each subject was to continue the task until mastery was attained (one errorless trial) or until 15 trials were completed. There were two "conditions" to be dealt with in both tasks: 1, "meaning condition"; and, 2, "sentence condition." The results showed that with the exception of five-year-olds sentential verbal mediation had a pronounced facilitating effect on paired-associate learning. For the youngest children, "instructions to combine the pairs in sentences (had) no appreciable (effect)." Instructions to use mediators tended to eliminate age differences in speed of learning from about eight years of age on.

JOHN, VERA P. "The Basic Bernstein fad: a critical look at theories of language and educability." 1966. 11p. (Author's affiliation: Yeshiva University.) (Paper presented at the AAA Symposium on Culture of Poverty: A Critique in Pittsburgh, November 1966.)
C UD 006674

Not only are most academicians presently concerned with poverty lacking in prolonged personal experience with the poor they are also bereft of "a comprehensive theory of the social environment as it affects behavior." In the "search for a simplified theory," many workers have accepted uncritically Bernstein's "idea of a restricted code as a convenient handle with which to approach the educational problems of the disadvantaged." In Bernstein's theory, a restricted code is the language of those in limited contact with the "controllers of society." The weakness of Bernstein's position is his "fundamentally static conception of society [which is] particularly distressing at a time when we are witnessing in this country many thrusts among the poor. . . for an extension of their power." Such changing social relationships will inevitably change the language competence of the actors, since, in Dell Hymes terms, "each social relationship entails the selection and/or creation of communicative means considered specific and appropriate to it by its participants." Leaving change aside, the present speech competence of the ghetto child is too often misjudged in settings which inhibit his natural speech. When he does speak, his nonstandard English is judged socially handicapping and inadequate for educational success--the latter on the basis of the "untested assumption that a certain form of overt

language (the English of Huntley and Brinkley) is the prototype of inner speech." In fact, it is "questionable whether the skill to produce standard English. . . is a required step for low income children." Given the increasing "poverty of language" in our prepackaged culture, elimination of the often rich language of low income speakers "appears a policy of folly." Rather, we should seek to learn how to strengthen communicative competence in all children.

JOHN, VERA P. "Communicative competence of low-income children: assumptions and programs." 1967. 14p. (Author's affiliation: Yeshiva University.) (Report prepared for the Language Study Group, Ford Foundation, March 1967.) C UD 006675

The "compensatory program" of the middle-class home has tended to obscure the fact that "the schools are not educating anyone adequately." Compared with children from these homes, lower-class children, totally dependent on school taught skills, do less well on standardized reading, language, and, "to some extent," on generalized intelligence tests. To overcome this achievement "gap," compensatory programs for low-income children emphasize middle-class language skills, though "the role of language in educability. . . is as yet scarcely understood." This emphasis derives in part from the vulgarized theories of Basil Bernstein and in part from a growing awareness of educators that whatever their role in conceptualization, "verbal skills are of crucial importance in reading and in academic achievement generally." Since middle-class children excel in abstraction, we try to teach low income children middle-class language forms, though "there is little justification in equating any form of overt language with the process of conceptualization." In the absence of an adequate theoretical premise, such "enrichment" is questionable, just as it is doubtful whether, without knowing how conceptual language develops, attempts to teach it necessitate "elimination of the low income child's current speech repertoire." Educators should have two major objectives for all children; 1, preparing them to become "permanent learners" in the face of an ever changing job market; and, 2, preparing them for creative leisure. These goals will not be met by automated educational methods which, while sometimes producing quick and visible results, simultaneously reduce personal contact. Rather, we must creatively integrate "the technological skills of the larger society" with the "untapped reservoirs of cultural diversity and language richness" represented by many ghetto and tribal communities. Four major areas in need of research are outlined.

JOHN, VERA P. "The intellectual development of slum children." American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 33:813-22, 1963.

"This study examines certain patterns of linguistic and cognitive behavior in a sample of Negro children from various social classes." Subjects were 174 first and fifth grade Negro children from three social classes (lower-lower, upper-lower, and middle-class) who were compared on three levels of language behavior. Labeling was measured on the PPVT, the WISC vocabulary scale, and on a Verbal Identification Test requiring "enumeration" and "integration" of items in a picture. Relating was measured on the Word Association Test, and categorizing was measured on an original concept sorting task. Three hypotheses were tested: 1, that lower-class and middle-class children would differ little. . . in their enumerations, but. . . would manifest class differences in labeling tasks that require integrating"; 2, "that middle-class children would show a higher percentage of responses in the same form-class as the stimulus words and shorter latencies in this task than their lower-class age-mates;" and, 3, "that lower-class children would classify test stimuli according to functional criteria "thus sorting into more piles," and would be less able to state the underlying concept explicitly. The second hypothesis was not confirmed. Results confirmed the first and third hypotheses for the fifth graders--i. e., middle-class Negro children performed significantly better on the integrative part of the Verbal Identification test. On the concept sorting task, they sorted cards into fewer piles giving more explicit verbalizations of their sorting behavior than did lower-class children. The author concludes that "the middle-class child has an advantage over the lower-class child in tasks requiring precise and somewhat abstract language." Learning to categorize and integrate requires "specific feedback" from adults, a kind of attention "far less available to the lower-class child."

JOHN, VERA P. "The social context of language acquisition." New York: New York Medical College, Institute for Developmental Studies, Department of Psychiatry, 1964. 28p. (Article also appeared in the Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 10:265-75, 1964.) E ED 001 494 MF \$.09 HC \$1.20

This paper focuses on social conditions that affect language acquisition. "Children develop and test their tentative notions (hypotheses) about the meanings of words and the structure of sentences chiefly through verbal interaction with more verbally mature speakers." As a child begins to speak, his acquisition of labels for things in his environment is affected by two interrelated variables--"the stability of the word-referent relationship" and "the frequency and type of verbal interaction during language acquisition." In lower-class homes, children "have relatively little opportunity to engage in active dialogue when learning labels." Most of the lower-class child's learning is through passive hearing rather than through verbal interaction; and, though some labels may be acquired simply by their frequent co-occurrence with their referents,

insufficient adult-child verbal interaction or lack of corrective feedback will impede the acquisition of "words which appear in a number of different contexts." Such a circumstance will affect conceptualization, since the discovery of the invariance "common to multiple instances of a label is fundamental for the conceptual as well as the verbal development of the young child." "We posit that while the child gains practice in correctly identifying objects having the same name and while he develops his knowledge about the hierarchy of category-names, he also develops skills of use in verbal mediation." Thus, the unavailability of adults to engage in ongoing dialogue with the lower-class child may handicap his cognitive development. The hypotheses presented suggest a shift in emphasis in preschool programs for socially disadvantaged children away from "vocabulary building" to activities fostering communicative and cognitive development.

JOHNSON, GRANVILLE B., JR. "Relationship between bilingualism and racial attitude." Journal of Educational Psychology, 42:357-65, 1951.

"The purpose of the present investigation was to determine the relationship existing between the bilingual background of the Spanish subjects and the attitude of the sample Spanish at the chosen age levels toward the Anglo ethnic group. The method of procedure used to measure this relationship was to derive the prejudice score from each of the Spanish protocols on the Projective Test of Racial Attitudes and compute the degree of relationship between it and the bilingual background score of the Hoffman Bilingual Schedule. It was noted that the rectilinear relationship existing between bilingual background and racial prejudice increased progressively with age. Curvilinear analysis demonstrated that, at the four year level, decreasing progressively through the eighth and twelfth years, there was a tendency for those subjects with the least prejudice to have the highest and lowest bilingual scores. . ."

JOOS, MARTIN. "Language and the school child." Harvard Educational Review, 34(2):203-10, Spring 1964.

Of the various processes involved in the acquisition of a native language, the learning of the complete pronunciation system and the learning of the grammatical system are completed before the age of nine. "Grammar is nothing but custom and habit." Therefore, the child normally acquires a way of speaking identical with the custom of his community, but he is not aware, when he speaks, of obeying any rules of grammar since "nothing can be perceived except by being an obstacle." "When a child is said to speak 'ungrammatically' he is (actually) obeying a vast number of grammatical rules." The singled out "errors" feel no different to the child

speaker than the rest of his speech. To him "every correction (is) completely arbitrary." The results of this are several: The child concludes that "school ain't for real anyhow--that the lessons of the schoolroom are irrelevant to life. Secondly "the child's image of himself and his associates. . . (is affected by the) artificial school treatment of usage." "Long before any teacher began to correct his English. . . he has developed considerable skill in judging adults by their speech. . . It is part of the pervasive unreality of the schoolroom that he is now required to junk his elaborate map of society and replace all his speech tests with a single yardstick that has no scale: Its two ends are labeled "correct" and "incorrect" and that's all. . . He is indoctrinated into the theory that correct language is the same as morality, that only the Bad Guys talk with native freedom." In slum schools, the author observes, where the child's "social self-defense has been precarious enough already. . . he is superciliously informed that the rhetoric he has been protecting himself with is essentially rotten and that the school language will take him many years to learn--years during which he will be unable to fight his battles with either the one or the other!" Terrified, the school child barricades himself behind what he already knows how to do and refuses to be trapped into learning anything economically significant." The solution is honesty. "Usages can be learned without condemning those which they replace. . . The learner has an indefensible right to speak as he likes without school penalties, while the teacher has no rights in this respect, but only the duty to demonstrate what usages are profitable in the adult world."

KELLER, SUZANNE. "The social world of the urban slum child: some early findings." American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 33:823-31, 1963.

This paper describes some aspects of the family life of lower-class Negro and white public school children in New York City. Conclusions are based largely on parent questionnaires and children's anecdotal accounts gathered in connection with a larger study. Findings from 46 first and fifth graders are reported. The majority of parents of these children are native born and, on the average, have not progressed beyond the first year of high school. Though one in six was unemployed at the time of the study, most work at unskilled or semiskilled jobs which they have held for several years. Though job mobility is low, fully two-thirds of these parents feel they are going up in the world. The same proportion see their sons as professionals. Even more, four-fifths want their children to have a college degree. Family size is larger than average; two-fifths have from six to 10 members and an average of 1.5 persons per room. The children appear to have little sustained contact with adults--only about one-half regularly eat one meal with a parent, but they have extensive contact with TV. All the homes have both radio and

TV, and the majority of the children watch at least two hours a day. Otherwise, they occupy themselves with a restricted group of activities --radio, movies, church once a week, and play with other children. The children's mean Lorge-Thorndike I. Q. score dropped from 97 in the first grade to 89 in fifth grade, a descent which was matched by an increase in unfavorable self-evaluation from 55 percent in first grade to 65 percent in fifth. Comparisons between Negro and white children in the group showed that "even when gross socioeconomic factors are controlled, Negroes and whites do not live in comparable social environments." The Negroes came from larger families. There was more schooling among the whites, less unemployment, and less multiple employment--i. e., nine-tenths of the white families are solely father supported versus one-half of the Negro families. The Negro families are more geographically mobile (three-fourths have come from the South or outside the U.S.) but less so occupationally--a larger proportion of Negroes than white having been at their present low level jobs more than six years. Even so, a larger proportion of Negro families felt they were going up in the world. Negative self-evaluations are strikingly higher among Negro children in the fifth grade (80 percent evaluate themselves unfavorably versus 30 percent for the whites). The differences between lower- and middle-class children irrespective of race, and within the lower class between white and Negro children, suggest a radically different preparedness for school which may help "account for the long demonstrated correlation between socioeconomic deprivation and school failure."

KLAUS, RUPERT A.; and GRAY, SUSAN W. Early Training Project: interim report. Nashville, Tenn.: George Peabody College for Teachers, November 1963. E ED 001 812 MF \$.09 HC \$1.20

This article is a report of the Early Training Project which involved two experimental groups of approximately 20 Negro culturally deprived children. One group (T1) had two summers of the school program and home contact for the intervening year, starting at about age 3 1/2. A second group (T2) had one summer school program at about age five. Two matched control groups were used. The program aimed at improving attitudes toward achievement and aptitudes and abilities (language, perception, concept formation) for school learning. Results of pre- and post-testing showed significantly greater improvement on the Binet and Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test for the experimental groups than for the controls over a 15 month comparison. The average I. Q. gain for experimental group T1 was 10.1 points (from 85.6 to 95.7); and for group T2, it was 5.1 points (from 91.2 to 96.3). The first control group showed an average decrease of 5 points (from 87.4 to 83.4), and the second control group showed a decrease of 2.5 points (from 88.0 to 85.5) over the same period of time.

LABOV, WILLIAM. "The non-standard vernacular of the Negro community: some practical suggestions." 1967. 11p. (Author's affiliation: Columbia University.) (Paper presented at the Seminar in English and Language Arts, Temple University, May 1967.)
C UD 006676

Despite widespread resistance to the notion that there is a "Negro dialect," there is a similarity in the speech of Negro children in northern urban centers due not to any "racial, genetic or physiological feature (but to) a culturally inherited pattern. . . transmitted to the centers of most northern cities by migrants from the South. . ." Based on data from the author's own research, various aspects of this dialect are discussed. First, in examining "the depth or abstractness" of the rules governing various nonstandard forms, the author concludes that "the deletion of the copula is a relatively superficial rule," since with very strong motivation the majority of a group of 10 to 14-year-old Negro boys could repeat back standard sentences preserving the copula. More "fundamental differences" appear to be involved in "negative concord"--sentences like "Nobody ever said that" regularly became "Nobody never said that." Second, the instant transformation of a sentence like "He asked if I could go" into "He asked could I go" demonstrates understanding of the standard form, "the abstract character of the language mechanism involved," and the complex structure of Negro nonstandard English. Third, in spite of the rise of nationalist feelings among Negroes, these nonstandard forms are not positively valued, and "norms of correct speech are the same for the Negro. . . as for the white community," although the "social significance of dialect differences seems to be hidden" from children until surprisingly late. Fourth, since certain "masculine" values tend to cluster about certain nonstandard speech forms, the school must work to "eliminate the association of standard English with effeminacy, gentility, and overcultivation." Fifth, inappropriate language testing situations in school have produced nonverbal behavior in these children obscuring the fact that "they are proficient at a wide range of verbal skills," not all of them acceptable within the school program. The teacher teaching "a different set of verbal skills . . . for different purposes (should be clear) that she is opposing one verbal culture with another." Finally, since the adolescent in the vernacular culture prizes verbal skill for manipulating situations and people, the benefits of standard English mastery for the same purposes should be emphasized in motivating learning.

LABOV, WILLIAM. "Some sources of reading problems for Negro speakers of nonstandard English." In: New directions in elementary English, National Council of Teachers of English (ed.). 1967. p. 140-67. E ED 010 688 MF \$.09 HC \$1.60

The persistent "ignorance of standard English rules" displayed by speakers of nonstandard English through years of schooling can be partially explained by a reciprocal ignorance among the children's teachers of the different rules governing nonstandard English speech. From the standpoint of learning to read, some of these differences are severely handicapping, especially those in which "large scale phonological differences coincide with important grammatical differences [resulting in] the existence of a large number of homonyms in the speech of Negro children" different from those of the teacher. Some of these phonological variables are: 1, "r-lessness" which produces homonyms such as guard=god or, in the extreme, Paris=pass, etc.; 2, "l-lessness" which results in toll=toe, fault=fought, etc.; 3, "simplification of consonant clusters" so that past=pass, hold=hoe, or, where several rules combine, "unexpected" final results are produced such as she wow!=she wild!; 4, "weakening of final consonants," especially final /t/ and /d/, which produces such homonyms as seat=seed, and bit=bid=big; and, 5, "other phonological variables" which may result in pin=pen, find=found, and Ruth=roof. When speech rules are so different, "a child has no clue to the standard spelling differences from his own speech patterns. . . and may have difficulty recognizing many words in their standard spellings." Since final consonants affected "are the same consonants which represent the principal English inflections," sound shifts often coincide with grammatical differences producing major effects on the possessive, the future, the copula, and the past-- -ed, for example, apparently "cannot function as an effective marker of the past tense for many children." Thus, careful analysis is required to distinguish between a child who is making a mistake in reading--i. e., who "has no concept -ed as a past tense marker"--and one who is merely giving a nonstandard pronunciation to a word which he has correctly "read." When the teacher does not understand the child's grammar, she will not understand the source of his errors, and "he will experience only a vague confusion somehow connected with the ends of words." Though "eventually the school may wish to teach the child an alternative system of pronunciation. . . the teacher must be prepared to accept the system of homonyms for the moment if this will advance the basic process of learning to read."

LAMBERT, WALLACE E. "Psychological approaches to the study of language: part II--on second language learning and bilingualism." Modern Language Journal, 47:114-21, 1963.

The author reviews a number of studies related to the development and testing of a social-psychological theory of language learning and a psychology of bilingualism. Various studies carried out in Quebec Province led the author to conclude that "two independent factors underlie the development of skill in learning a second language": a factor involving aptitude, intelligence, and motivation and type of orientation

toward the language and social attitudes toward speakers of the other language. To test the validity of the findings in another cultural setting, studies were conducted in three U.S. communities. Two of them (in Louisiana and Maine) were specifically bi-cultural for French. The third was a "typical" eastern urban situation where "students would not be expected to have a clear linguistic cultural group in their immediate experience toward which favorable or unfavorable attitudes would have developed through direct contact." Results indicate that except in Maine where the "community of Franco-Americans enjoys a comparatively dynamic and distinctive existence," Franco-American students show "little or no advantage in French over American students." It is consistent with this finding "that all groups except the Maine Franco-Americans hold unfavorable stereotypes of French people" and that "achievement in foreign language training for American students. . . is apparently (an) incidental goal. Intelligence coupled with a value placed on achievement is a major determiner of success. . . in. . . the study of language."

LAMBERT, WALLACE E. "A social psychology of bilingualism." Journal of Social Issues, 23(2):91-109, 1967.

In an attempt to integrate psychological and social-anthropological approaches to bilingualism, the outline of a social psychology of bilingualism is presented wherein attention is directed to the distinctive behavior of the individual bilingual, to the social influences that affect his behavior, and to the social consequences that follow from his behavior. The outline is illustrated through studies of the changes in reactions of social audiences when bilinguals switch languages or dialects. It is argued that such switches call out dramatically different sets of stereotypes and that these affect the role relationships of a bilingual and his coactors in various social settings. Likewise, the person progressing toward full bilingual skill is affected by the attitudinal reactions of his coactors so that his progress toward becoming bilingual is conditioned by his attitudes and orientations toward the two ethnolinguistic groups involved. Although the bilingual consequently encounters social and cultural tugs and pulls, it is argued that he can overcome these annoyances and may be particularly instrumental in creating a totally new, nonethnocentric form of social interaction.

LENNENBERG, ERIC H. "Understanding language without ability to speak: a case report." Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, 65:419-25, 1962.

This is a case report on an eight-year-old boy, "typical of a larger category of patients," with a congenital disability for the acquisition of

motor speech skills but possessing a "normal and adequate understanding of spoken language" as evidenced by an ability to respond appropriately to commands and questions. His ability to respond to tape-recorded instructions in the absence of any observer and to such commands as "take the block and put it on the bottle" refuted the hypotheses that he might be responding either to visual cues or to "key words" in the communications. Such individuals disprove the assumption that "babbling, hearing oneself vocalize, and imitation", phenomena related to motor skills, are necessary factors in the acquisition of understanding. Thus, understanding can occur in the absence of speaking. though "there is no clear evidence" that true speech is ever present in the absence of understanding. "The vocal production of language is dependent on the understanding of language, but not vice versa." Reviewing theories on the learning of grammar, the author concludes that "we do not yet have a satisfactory model," but since comprehension normally precedes production in the process of language learning, "the acquisition of grammatical rules must occur first in connection with analyzing incoming sentences, then with producing outgoing sentences." It appears that "knowing a natural language is dependent on the acquisition of a single set of organizing principles" which is ordinarily reflected in "two distinct behavioral manifestations, understanding and speaking," but is not identical with them.

LESSER, G.S.; FIFER, G.; and CLARK, D.H. "Mental abilities of children from different social class and cultural groups." Mono-graphs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 30(4), 1965.
E ED 003 293

The verbal and reasoning ability, number facility, and space conceptualization of 320 middle- and lower-class Chinese, Jewish, Negro, and Puerto Rican first graders were studied to examine the effects of social class, cultural background, and sex on the development of these various mental abilities. A modification of the Hunter College Aptitude Scales for Gifted Children were individually administered in three 30- to 45-minute sessions by a bilingual psychometrician, a member of the child's cultural group. In general, results indicated that: 1, social class produces significant differences in the absolute level of each mental ability but not in the patterning of these abilities; 2, ethnic group membership produces significant differences in both the absolute level and in the patterning of mental abilities; and, 3, social class and ethnicity interact to affect the absolute level of each mental ability but not to effect the ethnically determined pattern of these abilities. Specifically, middle-class children were found significantly superior to lower-class children on all scales and subtests. In verbal ability, Jewish children were significantly better than all other ethnic groups. Chinese ranked first in space conceptualization. Social class position produced a greater

difference in the mental abilities of Negro children than in those of other groups on each mental ability scale. Scores of middle-class children of various ethnic groups resembled each other more than did the scores of lower-class children. Finally, with the exception of the better performance of Jewish girls, boys in all ethnic groups scored higher on the verbal and space scales than girls. The findings indicate that although social class and ethnic groups "differ in their relative standing on different functions," only ethnicity "fosters the development of a different pattern of abilities while social class differences within ethnic groups do not modify these basic patterns associated with ethnicity."

LEVIN, HARRY; and OTHERS. Report of the first research planning conference held under the auspices of Project Literacy--Project Literacy reports, #1. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, July 1964. ED 010 307 MF \$.09 HC \$1.68

LEVIN, HARRY; and OTHERS. Report of the second research planning conference held under the auspices of Project Literacy in Chicago, Ill., Aug. 6-8, 1964--Project Literacy reports, #2. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, September 1964. E ED 010 308 MF \$.09 HC \$2.32

LEVIN, HARRY; and OTHERS. Report of the third research conference held under the auspices of Project Literacy in Swampscott, Mass., Sept. 25-27, 1964--Project Literacy reports, #3. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, November 1964. E ED 010 309 MF \$.18 HC \$2.56

LEVIN, HARRY; and OTHERS. Report of the fourth research planning conference held under the auspices of Project Literacy in Princeton, N.J., Dec. 11-13, 1964--Project Literacy reports, #4. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, December 1964. E ED 010 310 MF \$.18 HC \$2.36

LEVIN, HARRY; and OTHERS. The analysis of reading skill, a program of basic and applied research--Project Literacy reports #5. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, November 1965. E ED 010 311 MF \$.09 HC \$2.20

LEVIN, HARRY; and OTHERS. Report of the fifth research planning conference held under the auspices of Project Literacy in New York, N.Y., Dec. 10-12, 1965--Project Literacy reports, #6. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, January 1966. E ED 010 312 MF \$.09 HC \$2.32

LEVIN, HARRY; and OTHERS. Reports of research in progress--Project Literacy reports, #7. Ithaca, N. Y. Cornell University, September 1966. E ED 010 313 MF \$.18 HC \$3.80

LEVIN, HARRY; and OTHERS. Reports of research in progress: seventh conference of Project Literacy in Cambridge, Mass., May 25-26, 1967--Project Literacy reports, #8. Ithaca, N. Y.: Cornell University. C UD 004023

These reports consist of brief project outlines and progress reports submitted by participating researchers. Emphasis is on a wide range of approaches to reading.

LEVINE, LEWIS; and CROCKETT, HARRY J., JR. "Speech variation in a Piedmont community: postvocalic r." Sociological Inquiry, 36:204-26, 1966.

A study of speech variation and social structure in a North Carolina community is described, and data are presented on a single linguistic variable--the pronunciation of the post-vocalic r. Sentences and a word list were utilized to elicit pronunciations from a sample of 275 individuals. Though differences in pronunciation resulted from the two situations, certain results were similar. The tendency to make or not to make the r sound appeared to vary with sex, age, length of residence in the community, and social status. The fact, however, that higher educational and occupational level were associated with both the highest and the lowest R scores suggested that there were two r pronunciation norms--both of which could be "said to be socially sanctioned in the community." Generally, younger people and shorter-term residents were "more likely than older people and longer-term residents to pronounce r with constriction [suggesting], of course, that the community is experiencing transition." Arguing that the word list situation invited the respondent to "worry" about his pronunciation and that any pronunciation shift from sentence to word list score would thus "reflect the speakers' attitudes toward 'correct' pronunciations," the authors suggest that the general community tendency to increase the R score on the word list reflected "the presence of the outside, national r pronouncing norm." Resistance to this tendency appeared in the group with initially low R scores which contained a disproportionate number of those who tended to decrease their R score from the sentence to the word list. One interpretation of the data would "suggest that women, young people, the newer residents, and higher status persons take the national r norm as their speech model, while the linguistic behavior of males, older people, long-term residents, and blue-collar respondents is referred to a southern prestige norm."

MACNAMARA, JOHN. "The bilingual's linguistic performance--a psychological overview." Journal of Social Issues, 23(2):58-77, 1967.

Studies of bilingualism rather than of the effects of bilingualism on intellectual development or school attainment are reviewed. Six topics receive particular attention. They are the measurement of bilingualism, the distinction between coordinate and compound bilinguals, linguistic interference, language switching, and translation. The theoretical implications of the studies which are reviewed are assessed, and suggestions are made about the possibilities for future research.

MACNAMARA, JOHN. "The effects of instruction in a weaker language." Journal of Social Issues, 23(2):120-34, 1967.

Studies which investigate teaching subjects such as mathematics, history, and geography (e. g., subjects other than languages) in a student's weaker language are reviewed. The effects of such instruction on a student's attainment in those subjects and also its effects on his two languages is discussed. Special attention is paid to the student's attempts to learn and understand material in a weaker language even when he knows all the vocabulary and syntactic structures employed. Some new data on such a student's ability to read and understand a weaker language are also presented.

MCDAVID, RAVEN I.; and MCDAVID, VIRGINIA. "The relationship of the speech of American Negroes to the speech of whites." American Speech, 26:3-17, 1951.

Reviewing earlier opinions on the origins of characteristics that distinguish American Negro from American white speech, the author proposes a framework for the study of the relationship between them. Two persistent popular myths, that there are no African survivals in American Negro speech and that differences derive instead from Negro physical or mental characteristics, have hampered objective study of Negro speech. More recently, however, results of African, Creole, and American Negro language research (especially Lorenzo Turner's 17 years of research in Gullah) have provided unmistakable evidence of the survival in American Negro speech of African features. Acknowledging that the data are still spotty, the authors suggest "places to be investigated and types of linguistic investigation to be conducted" in various North American communities in order to flesh out a framework based on the following propositions: 1, that the "overwhelming bulk" of American Negro speech, vocabulary, grammar, and phonology is borrowed from the speech of white groups with whom they have been in contact; and, 2, that the survival of relic forms of these can probably

be accounted for by geographical or cultural isolation due to the caste system. Borrowing has also proceeded in the other direction, and words of African origin have been found to be wide spread in the speech of southern whites. Honest evaluation of relationships between Negro and white speech will require laying aside ethnocentric prejudices.

MILNER, ESTHER. "A study of the relationship between reading readiness in grade one school children and patterns of parent-child interaction." Child Development, 22:95-112, 1951.

This study attempts to test three hypotheses: 1, "that the extent of reading ability in Grade I children is related to certain ascertainable patterns of parent-child interaction in the family setting"; 2, that those patterns associated with reading ability are related to SES; and, 3, that high reading ability is related to "higher" family status and low reading ability to "lower" family status. The study group consisted of children receiving the 21 highest and 21 lowest language factor scores on the California Test of Mental Maturity out of a test group of 108 southern first grade Negro children representing a range of SES from upper-middle to lower-lower class. Children and parents were individually interviewed. For 33 children for whom scores on Warner's ISC rating were obtained, more than 94 percent of high scorers were LM or higher. All but 6.25 percent of low scorers were below LM status. For study, therefore, terms "lower-class mothers" and "mothers of low scorers" are interchangeable as are terms "middle-class mothers" and "mothers of high scorers." Interviews revealed that high-scoring children have a much richer verbal environment with more books available and are read to more by personally important adults. High scorers have more opportunity for "emotionally positive interaction," are more aware of having been "happy," and are less subjected to physical punishment. Nevertheless, they are equally negative toward parental control. High scorers are much more likely to have meals with the family at which they engage in conversation, are given more open affection, and have mothers more likely to be employed in "professional or high level clerical occupations." The lower-class child "seems to lack chiefly two things upon entering school. . . a warm positive family atmosphere or adult-relationship pattern (and) an extensive opportunity to interact verbally with adults of high personal value to the child and who possess adequate speech patterns." An approach to remediation is suggested.

MODIANO, NANCY. "Concern for special curriculum aspects: bilingualism." In: Imperatives for change: proceedings of the New York State Education Department conference on college and university programs for teachers of the disadvantaged, April 10-11, 1967, Adelaide Jablonsky (ed.). New York: Yeshiva University, 1967. p. 88. E (In process.) UD 003942

Research has shown, the author argues, that reading can be most effectively introduced to non-English speaking children in their mother tongue. In support, she cites a southern Mexican study involving both monolingual schools where all instruction was in Spanish and "dual-language" schools where reading in Spanish was begun only after the child had learned some oral Spanish and had begun to read in his native Indian language. At an unstated later time, the dual language schools were judged superior on a variety of measures including the fact that a higher percentage of their pupils were teacher estimated as "able to understand what they read in Spanish." The introduction of reading through the mother tongue accompanied by oral English would present some problems in staffing, materials, and grouping. Teachers would need to be skilled enough in the mother language to communicate easily with their students (ability to communicate fluently should outweigh formal education as a teacher prerequisite); new materials would have to be developed "appropriate in both content and language for the learners"; and the usefulness of various groupings would need to be explored, comparing, for example, "the relative merits of special instruction in all-English classes with full-time orientation classes." In addition to lessening the educational frustration of our non-English speaking children, a program of reading in the vernacular would result in greater comprehension in English with the attendant improvement of academic achievement in all phases of curriculum. Additionally, there would probably be, as there has been in other programs of mother language instruction, "greater carryover of school programs into the community."

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH. Social dialects and language learning, proceedings of the Bloomington, Indiana conference. Champagne, Ill.: 1965. E ED 003 402

This is a report of an invitational conference in which educators, linguists, psychologists, and sociologists were brought together in an attempt to relate research on the English language problems of the "culturally underprivileged" to the needs of the schools in this area. Each relatively brief formal paper is followed by a summary of the discussion which it evoked. The material is divided into six sections: 1, "Social Dialectology"; 2, "Reports on Field Projects"; 3, "Reports on School and College Teaching Programs"; 4, "Social Factors in Learning Standard English"; 5, "Reactions of Related Behavior Sciences"; and, 6, "Implications for Future Research." A conference summary is included.

NEWTON, EUNKE S. "Planning for the language development of disadvantaged children and youth." The Journal of Negro Education, 34:167-77, Spring 1965. E ED 002 089 MF \$.09 HC \$.56

Noting that "verbal disadvantage is customarily a specific and significant facet of overall educational disadvantage," the author outlines a language arts program for disadvantaged children based on eight premises about the "nature of language and the interrelationships among the language arts." It is hypothesized that there is a universal sequence (from listening, to speaking, to reading, to writing) in the developing use of language. Vocal language is considered the kingpin, with visual language its conventionalized, coded representation. Speaking and writing perform the same function in the communicative cycle as listening and reading. Each has a vocabulary; by the end of elementary school, the reading vocabulary should exceed the other three. "The structural arrangements of one's native language. . . are learned unconsciously in infancy and early childhood," that of English posing "formidable problems to the acquisition of its written form." Characteristics of "poorly languaged" children are reviewed and three types of deficits identified. A language arts program for these children should provide "a continuum of linguistic experiences," with development of reading proficiency as its dominant concern and "experiencing" as its basic activity. Opportunities to exercise "thinking processes"--relating, generalizing, classifying, criticizing--and to approach abstractions multisensorially through audiovisual materials should be incorporated. Teachers should "function as (prototypes) in all communicative situations" and avoid alienating the pupil through criticism of his language. "Promising instructional innovations," including individualized programmed learning machines and materials, textbooks reflecting cultural pluralism, peer teaching, and teaching English as a second language, should be investigated.

OLIM, ELLIS G.; HESS, ROBERT D.; and SHIPMAN, VIRGINIA. "Maternal language styles and their implication for children's cognitive development." 1965. 28p. (Authors' affiliation: University of Chicago.) (Paper presented at the Symposium on the Effect of Maternal Behavior on Cognitive Development and Impulsivity, American Psychological Association Meeting, Chicago, September 1965.)
E ED 012 282 MF \$.09 HC \$1.56

Part of a larger study examining the cognitive environments of preschool children, this report examines the relationships between mothers' language styles and the cognitive styles and I.Q.'s of their preschool children. Speech samples were obtained from 160 urban Negro mothers of four social groups (middle class, upper-lower class, lower-lower class, and ADC mothers) by asking each of them to tell her child a story about the "lion-mouse" card of the CAT. Samples were scored on nine language scales developed to measure various dimensions of speech complexity and elaboration. Factor analysis of the scores revealed that six of the nine language scales were measuring unique factors and that they could be separated from I.Q. and social class level. Middle-class

mothers scored highest on all measures, upper-lowers next, and the two lower-lower groups, presumably reflecting their similarity of educational level, next. The major break occurred between the middle-class mothers and the rest of the group, reflecting their highly elaborate language style. Children's conceptual styles were then measured, and data from both studies were extensively analyzed statistically on the Sigel Conceptual Sorting Task for Children. "The most striking and clear-cut results occur with regard to the relationship between the mothers' language abstraction and the children's cognitive abstraction." Mothers' and children's scores are significantly correlated, and it would appear that the mother's abstract language behavior has a major effect on the child's development of abstract conceptualization. The authors suggest expanding the linguistic environment of the culturally disadvantaged preschool child in order to compensate for what would appear to be a deficit in the linguistic environment of his mother.

OSSER, HARRY. "The syntactic structures of 5-year-old culturally deprived children." 1966. 5p. (Author's affiliation: Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine.) (Paper presented at the Symposium on the Concept of Structure in Language and Thinking, Eastern Psychological Association Annual Meeting, New York City, April 1966.)
C UD 005874

The notion that normal language development is largely dependent on appropriate early environmental stimulation was investigated. Speech samples from a group of 20 Baltimore Negro children from "grossly deprived environments" were compared with those drawn from an earlier study of a group of middle-class white nursery school children in Boston. The children's syntax was analyzed by means of transformational grammar, and dialect differences between samples were minimized by "developing a concept of Functional Equivalence--e.g., "His sister hat" in the Negro sample is equal to "His sister's hat" in the white sample. There were substantial differences favoring the middle-class group in the range of syntactic structures available to the children. "Many of the Negro children, for example, did not employ such structures as Separation (He took it off), the Reflexive, the Relative Clause, Complement Infinitival (I want to play), and Complement Participial (I like singing)," which were all used by the majority of the middle-class children. The author suggests that "there are difficulties in the way of being certain that the comparison" between the Negro and white speech is a valid one. Work on the data is continuing, and tests are being utilized to examine capacities for imitation and comprehension. There were differences within the Negro children's sample, as well, though all the children were severely deprived. These differences are "far from trivial and strongly suggest that the environment plays much more than a minor supportive role in language development. . . "

PASAMANICK, B.; and KNOBLOCK, HILDA. "Early language behavior in Negro children and the testing of intelligence." Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 50:401-02, 1955.

"Forty Negro children examined by a white examiner were found to have lowered language scores on the third examination at two years of age." A division of the language behavior items on the Gesell Developmental Examination into three subgroups--reported language behavior, comprehension of language, and verbal responsiveness--showed that "verbal and comprehension behavior spheres are significantly different ($p < .001$)." Mean D. Q. for verbal responsiveness was 94, while the comprehension mean was 104. The authors hypothesize that the lack of verbal responsiveness may be related to the fact that the examiner was white. "If our interpretation of the cause of lack of verbal responsiveness in Negro children is correct, the awareness of racial differences apparently occurs much earlier than has been previously demonstrated. . . . This apparent early awareness of racial differences and loss of rapport has serious implications in the field of ethnic group psychology, particularly in the use of verbal items of intelligence testing."

PAVENSTEDT, ELEANOR. "A comparison of the child-rearing environment of upper-lower and very low-lower class families." Journal of American Orthopsychiatry, 35(1); January 1965.

In this study, a "stable group" of upper- and lower-class families (organized upwardly mobile), part of the population of a longitudinal child development study is contrasted with a "disorganized group" (deprived, multiproblem) of low- and lower-class families. Differences between these types of family groups are pointed out to emphasize the fact that though both are lower-class they require totally different educational approaches. Observations were made of both groups during home visits and in a demonstration nursery school for the "disorganized group" children. Characteristics of the two groups are richly described in terms of their milieux, child-rearing behaviors, occupations, affective relationships, etc. within a psychoanalytic framework. In the stable group, the children were cherished, trained, mutually involved with parents, and had developed trust. ". . . They learned in school because it was expected of them, seldom because they were excited about what their new skills might open up to them." But this group is clearly educable, especially if enrichment programs could significantly involve the parents. "In the disorganized families, impulse-ridden adults led a chaotic existence in which the mothers barely managed to maintain a home." The children had never learned to trust, were self-devaluing, manipulative, lacking in communicative skills, suspicious, anxious, "immature little drifters." "In order to teach these children anything that will really take root, the teachers will have to overcome the children's distrust and

demonstrate very concretely to them that they are consistently helpful adults who can be relied on." A massive approach by the schools will be crucial to convince "disorganized" parents that "society attributes some value to them and to their children."

PUTNAM, GEORGE N.; and O'HERN, EDNA M. "The status significance of an isolated urban dialect." Language 31(4), 1955.

To test the hypothesis that speech serves as a mark of social class, the authors studied the social significance of a dialect spoken by a low status urban group in terms of deviation from standard English. In the described experiment, a correlation was found between judges' rating and the social status of speakers. The method is given, as well as the results which confirm the hypothesis.

REIFF, DONALD G.; and JULIA MARIE, PERE. "The language-situation in Project Head Start centers, 1965: a survey." Washington, D. C.: Office of Economic Opportunity, 1965. C UD 004247

Surveying the linguistic data available in reports from Summer 1965 Project Head Start Programs, the authors conclude that "not one shred of systematically gathered, linguistically interesting data is available in any of the 1965 research project reports," a fact which they attribute largely to a paucity of professional participation in data gathering. In three sections, the report states desiderata for "fruitful acquisition of linguistic information," summarizes available information, and offers 10 suggestions for developing appropriate language research in Project Head Start Centers. In Part 1, after reviewing the characteristics of language as behavior, the authors offer five desiderata for data acquisition:

1. Problems must be characterized and solutions structured on the basis of "carefully and systematically gathered samples of phonetic behavior carefully studied."
2. Differences between two dialects, languages, or verbal repertoires must be objectively characterized "regardless of their respective prestige" before the teaching and learning tasks can be specified.
3. To create a classroom environment in which desired learnings will take place, there must be careful functional analysis of both verbal and extra-verbal behavior.
4. The collection of data amenable to precise interpretation depends on carefully designed techniques of data acquisition.
5. Skilled professional observers of verbal behavior should be utilized to achieve maximum results in research projects. Part 2 of the report includes a discussion of the kinds of linguistic material available on the Head Start population from the protocols of certain sections of the Pre-school Inventory. Other available documents are individually and critically discussed.

RHEINGOLD, HARRIET L.; GEWIRTZ, J.L.; and ROSS, HELEN W.
"Social conditioning of vocalizations in the infant." Journal of Comparative and Physiological Psychology, 52:68-73, 1959. (Reprinted in Readings in Child Development and Personality, Paul Mussen (ed.). New York: Harper and Row, 1965.)

This study examines whether the frequency of infant vocalizing can be increased if an adult makes a social response contingent on it. Subjects were 21 normal infants, three months of age, resident in an institution. During the first two days, the examiner leaned over the baby's crib with an expressionless face, making no response to the baby's vocalizations. Thus, the vocalization baseline was established. The unit for statistical analysis was the number of vocalizations during a three minute period. Three three-minute periods broken by two minute rest periods were scheduled three times a day--early morning, late morning, and after mid-day meal--for a total of nine periods of measurement. Following the establishment of a baseline, conditioning was begun. The examiner now reinforced the baby's vocalizations by a response consisting of a broad smile, three "tsk" sounds, and a light touch to the infant's abdomen with the thumb and fingers of the hand opposed. During the final two extinction days, the examiner returned to baseline conditions. Under baseline conditions, infants gave 13 to 14 vocalizations per three minute period. The rate increased to 18 (up 39 percent) after a one day of social reinforcement and to 25 (a further increase of 34 percent) after two conditioning days. Two days of extinction brought the rate of vocalizing down almost to baseline level and increased emotional behavior, which, however, was still infrequent. Results suggest that adult responses to the vocalizing of infants can affect their social vocalizing and, more generally, their social responsiveness. Unresolved is the issue of whether the adult responsiveness acted as a stimulus and would have increased vocalization even if it were not contingent on the infant's initiating behavior.

RIESSMAN, FRANK. "The overlooked positives of disadvantaged groups." The Journal of Negro Education, 33:225-31, 1964.

The author suggests that "a theoretical rationale to give meaning and direction to the action suggestions" is missing from much of the work done on the education of disadvantaged children. Such a rationale might be based on the strengths of the disadvantaged culture--for example, the slowness in performing intellectual tasks which is characteristic of disadvantaged children should not be automatically interpreted as dullness, but as a possibly positive characteristic indicating carefulness, a refusal to generalize easily, or a persistent single-minded way of learning. Further, disadvantaged children often have "a hidden verbal ability" which they evidence in role-playing or with their peers in out-of-school

situations. Many questions about this verbal potential must be answered by research. "Under what conditions are they verbal? What kind of stimuli do they respond to verbally? With whom are they verbal? What do they talk about? What parts of speech do they use?" There is a qualitative limitation, "a deficit in formal language, (but) too many people have come to believe that this formal deficit. . . means that deprived people are characteristically nonverbal." With an awareness of existing verbal ability, "teachers might look for additional techniques to bring (it) out, (abandoning) the prediction that deprived children will not go very far in the education system." The school needs to provide these youngsters with academic "know-how" while consciously opposing their generally antiintellectual attitude. Their attitude toward education is not negative-- rather, they have different ideas about the goals of education and have often learned to respond negatively to the schools' negative attitude toward them.

SALZINGER, SUZANNE; and OTHERS. "Operant conditioning of continuous speech in young children." Child Development, 33:683-95, 1962.

This study investigated the effect of reinforcement on the spontaneous continuous speech of five- to seven-year-old public and private school children. The reinforcing apparatus consisted of a papier-mache clown's head, with a red light bulb for a nose. The children were told by the clown, via tape recording, that if they talked to him and made him happy, his nose would light up. Five experiments were run using different schedules of reinforcement, different preexperiment instructions, or reinforcing different aspects of the children's speech. Difficulties were experienced in defining the response-unit to be used in establishing ratio reinforcement schedules, but one second of cumulated speech was eventually used as the measured unit. The study showed that "speech rate increased as a result of reinforcement and decreased or stabilized when reinforcement was withheld. Reinforcements were not effective unless more than 10 were administered." Variable ratio reinforcement produced the greatest resistance to extinction. Reinforcement of the class of first person pronouns increased total speech output, as well as the particular response class, possibly because of syntactical ties between the pronouns and the rest of an utterance. Private school subjects from professional middle-class homes showed higher speech rates both before and during conditioning than public school subjects from lower SES homes. The difference may relate to more frequent and insistent prodings given reluctant talkers in the private school group. Data are presented in one table. The study demonstrated that speech may be treated operationally as a conditionable behavior rather than "as a symbolic representation of underlying meaning."

SAPON, STANLEY M. "Micro-analysis of second-language learning behavior." IRAL, 3(2):131-36, May 1965. (Paper presented at the Berlin Kongress fur Modernen Sprachunterricht in 1964.) C UD 002419

"Behavior can be described in terms of two kinds of repertoire--discrete and continuous." The notion of a "word" or a phoneme as a discrete item exists only as a perceptual notion based on "an analytical fragmentation after the fact, the fact being the emission of an effective utterance [but] the speaker in the act of producing an utterance is actually moving in a continuous field." Speakers of a language "who can operate in a continuous field can continue to operate in a reduced, discrete field, but not vice-versa." Most language training, based on the paired-associate model, incorporates training procedures appropriate to a discrete repertoire but not to a continuous one; for although "the analysis of a language from the point of view of its production yields a much more complex system than an analysis based on its perception, the teaching of both production and perception is usually based on the analysis appropriate only to the latter." From the standpoint of programmed learning, this means that linguistic rather than functional adequacy will be established as a criterion behavior, since "the programmer is likely to be viewing his subject matter through an analytical glass that shows language as a set of perceptually-discrete units." Foreign language learning in a foreign country is probably more effective largely because the native speakers who are one's teachers are "much more likely than the school teacher to supply reinforcement for functionally effective approximations." What is needed in the field of second language teaching is a "microanalysis of the behavior of the speaker as distinguished from that of the listener."

SAPON, STANLEY M. "'Receptive' and 'expressive' language." 1965, unpublished. (Author's affiliation: University of Rochester.) (Paper presented at the American Psychological Association, 1965.) C UD 003309

It is the author's thesis that "receptive" and "expressive" language behaviors might be investigated more effectively if understood and spoken language were not viewed as merely two sides of the same coin. "Bringing an organism under complex stimulus control is a very different matter from shaping that organism to emit the same complex stimuli as operant. . . . A promising way of looking at these behaviors. . . . is in terms of control. . . . 'Understanding' is the evidence of verbally controlled behavior (while) 'speaking' can be looked upon as evidence of an individual's attempts to control his environment through his own verbal output." Such a conception can be of particular value in situations where speech is delayed, aberrant, or apparently nonexistent. Citing what he calls a "skewed bilingualism" existing between himself and his dog--i.e., the dog understands English but cannot speak it--and he himself under-

stands Dalmatian but cannot speak it--the author suggests that "a narrow conception of language causes much potentially useful behavior to 'go down the drain' because it is incorrectly characterized as being simply 'non-linguistic'." Citing the case of a Mongoloid boy who understood spoken language but had no conventional speech, the author notes that not only could the child "talk" to his parents through a complex repertoire of movements and sounds, but, in an experimental situation where his home language was not understood, he developed a whole new nonverbal repertoire in order to effect control of the examiner. A disparate group of observers agreed on the communicative intent of the nonverbal elements involved. "The notion of 'productive language' needs to be considered in a broader sense and a fresh look at ancillary 'language' behaviors is very much in order."

SHER, A.; and HORNER, V. "A technique for gathering children's language samples from naturalistic settings." 1967. (Authors' affiliation: Yeshiva University.) (Paper presented at the Biennial Meetings of the Society for Research in Child Development, March 1967.)
C UD 003877

The authors describe a technology for collecting children's speech within the contexts of the home and the classroom. Emphasis is placed on the need for gathering data records without changing the natural setting in which the speech occurs. The paper focuses on the rationale for collecting complete and high quality audio tapes.

SMILANSKY, SARAH. "Promotion of preschool, 'culturally deprived' children through dramatic play." American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 35(2):201, March 1965.

The objective of this study was to develop the ability to engage in "dramatic play" in preschool, culturally deprived children and, through "dramatic play," to promote cognitive abilities, to impart basic information, and to modify attitudes which are essential for scholastic success. What do we mean by "dramatic play" as relevant to children aged three to seven years? "Dramatic play" in this study is that form of children's play in which a minimum of two children participate. They undertake roles and spontaneously act out a theme drawn from their own experience without formal organization by an adult. The game is played as "make believe." Toys and other play objects are used flexibly, freely, and sometimes symbolically to interpret the theme. The players verbalize as they act. The game is sustained over a sufficient period of time to enable the players to become involved in their interaction and thus realize the theme. "Dramatic play" does promote cognitive abilities, impart basic information, and modify attitudes which are essential

for scholastic success. Problem-solving in school subjects requires a great deal of make believe. Geography, history, and literature are make believe; solving a problem in arithmetic is make believe. All are conceptual constructions which the child has not experienced sensuously. "Problems" are conceptual conditions in which it is necessary to project oneself if one is to act and solve the problem. Having learned to sense conceptual conditions as satisfying rounds for action, the child can accept the teacher's requirement for again submitting himself to the harness of conceptualized forms and operate from this position. He then has internalized a condition in which he can "learn" more readily from which he derives certain satisfaction. Observations were made by five field workers in 36 kindergarten classes where the ages of the children ranged from three through six years. In 18 of these classes, the children were from middle and upper sociocultural European backgrounds (H children). In the other 18 classes, the children were from a low sociocultural middle Eastern background (L children). Observations were noted with as much detail and accuracy as possible. They included content of play; form and process of play; number of children participating; toys, tools, or other objects used; time consumed; and children's verbatim. This was done in all 36 kindergarten classes; at least 10 examples were reported from each center of interest in the H (high) set of kindergartens and in the L (low set). Recorded material thus acquired reveals conspicuous differences in dramatic play of H children compared with that of L children. Differences were in character and content of play which we analyzed quantitatively. Analyzed qualitatively were differences in linguistic ability. To study some of the causes of differences found in dramatic play of L children compared with that of H children, we made home visits, interviewed parents, and carried out observations. Our aim was to see if certain patterns of growth and development in the children's immediate environment could account for these differences. Observations and interviews were made in 50 L families and 60 H families, with children one to six years old, particularly with respect to the children's play. The three main hypothesis on which the three experimental groups were based are:

1. The first hypothesis-first experimental group. Inadequacy of dramatic play of the L children stems from externalization of their impressions and experiences. These children look but do not see; more important, they do not understand. Because they receive no explanation which would broaden their impressions and make them more meaningful, these impressions remain superficial and ineffective as stimuli for dramatic play. If we provide these children with meaningful impressions within their comprehension THEY WILL BEGIN TO engage in dramatic play.

2. The second hypothesis-second experimental group. The L children absorb the impressions and experiences afforded them by their immediate environment. They understand what they see and experience. They are not taught, however, by adults in their immediate environment how

to translate these impressions and experiences into the language of play. If we shall teach these children how to exploit their impressions and experiences, they will learn how to convert them into dramatic play.

3. The third hypothesis-third experimental group. Inadequacy of dramatic play of L children results from lack of two interdependent factors-- meaningful impressions and experiences together with lack of teaching and guidance in playing. If we present these two factors simultaneously in THE KINDEGARTEN SITUATION, THE CHILDREN WILL BEGIN TO ENGAGE IN DRAMATIC PLAY. Results indicated that no significant difference occurred in the ability to engage in play and linguistic ability of the children in the first experimental group (in which the children were provided with meaningful impressions only) when compared with the two other experimental groups and with the control group. Significant improvement, however, occurred in ability to engage in dramatic play in the second experimental group (in which the children were taught how to convert their impressions and experiences into dramatic play) when compared with the first experimental group and with the control group. A significant improvement occurred in the ability to engage in dramatic play and in some factors of linguistic ability in the third experimental group (in which children were provided with meaningful impressions and experiences and also were taught how to convert their impressions and experiences into dramatic play) when compared with the two other experimental groups and with the control group.

STERN, CAROLYN. "Evaluating language curricula for preschool disadvantaged children." 1967. 21p. (Author's affiliation: University of California, Los Angeles.) C UD 003871

"The consistent finding. . . that language deficits characterize children from low income homes" has inspired a number of language remediation programs whose usual "implicit goal" is to provide dialect speakers with control of middle-class speech patterns. While such a goal tends, in fact, to emphasize "the social values of 'good' English," the overt rationale for such programs is that "standard English is an essential ingredient in effective cognitive functioning." Evaluation of such intervention programs, then, is complicated not only by the lack of appropriate mass testing instruments for measuring language facility and development but also by a confusion over objectives. One often stated goal is to raise scores on intelligence tests--an objective of obvious usefulness to the child in spite of arguments that all this does is to teach him to "play the game." "Unfortunately it is especially difficult to establish that a particular type of instructional sequence has achieved the objective of preparing a child for continuing success in school tasks." Several new instruments designed for summative evaluation in the UCLA Preschool Language Project are described. They include the Children's Auditory Discrimination Inventory and the Visual

Discrimination Inventory, tests designed to assess abilities presumed related to reading progress; the Echoic Response Inventory for Children, the Expressive Vocabulary inventory, and the Language Comprehension Inventory which were designed to measure, respectively, the child's range of sentence complexity, his useful vocabulary, and his ability to respond to verbalizations of others; and the Verbal Output Inventory and the Structured Story-Telling Test, two tests designed to get larger samples of speech. Formative evaluation involves the study of the rate or efficiency of learning under various pedagogical techniques. All these procedures are limited, the author suggests, even in their ability to measure how well a particular curriculum "achieves its stated goals." Eventually, we will have to evaluate the worthwhileness of the goals themselves.

STEWART, WILLIAM A. "Sociolinguistic factors in the history of American Negro dialects." Florida FL Reporter, 5(2), Spring 1967.
E ED 012 435 MF \$.25 HC \$.24

To insure the social mobility of socially and economically underprivileged groups in modern American society, the schools must help nonstandard speakers acquire a command of standard English. Though many educators are beginning to recognize that nonstandard English is not merely "sloppy speech" but a different language system, many of these same educators, and even some linguists, are unwilling to approach the problem of teaching standard dialect in any but the most general terms. In order to cope with dialect-based language problems, i. e., the purely structural conflicts between patterns of a nonstandard dialect and the equivalent patterns of standard English, educators are in need of information on one of the pedagogically most important features of nonstandard dialects--their grammatical systems. In filling this "information gap," however, linguists often meet with uneasiness and/or hostility among liberal whites and Negro leaders because the existence of dialect communities seems to imply the existence of unwanted "uniform or stable behavioral differences" between whites and Negroes. The fact is, however, that certain Negro American dialects are not only radically deviant from standard English but different from the nonstandard dialects of American whites simply because these dialects embody a different historical tradition. Briefly reviewing the linguistic history of the Negro in the United States, the author expresses the hope that an awareness of the sociolinguistic factors involved in the evolution of various dialects will lead to a greater tolerance for the survival of dialect features in the speech of educated persons and will reduce the school's frustration at not being able to convert nonstandard Negro dialect speakers into speakers of standard English overnight.

STEWART, WILLIAM A. "Urban Negro speech: sociolinguistic factors affecting English teaching." 1965, unpublished. 12p. (Author's affiliation: Center for Applied Linguistics.) (Paper will appear in the Proceedings of the Conference on Urban School Dialects and Language Learning, National Council of Teachers of English (ed.).) C UD 003083

The author proposes that attempts to teach "standard" English to speakers of nonstandard dialects, the largest group of whom are urban Negroes, must be based on extensive studies of the dialects involved. To date, such studies have been lacking. Contrasting studies are needed to demonstrate to both the teacher and the student just where a given dialect does and does not agree with "standard" speech and to clarify those specific areas in quasi-foreign language situations which would be accessible to foreign language teaching techniques. On the basis of his own observations of the Washington, D. C. Negro community, the author identifies a number of dialect strata, the topmost of which he designates as "acrolect" and the most "incorrect" (in terms of "standard" speech) as "basilect." Examples of each are given. Basilect is found predominantly among young children in lower-class neighborhoods, and the author observes that a spontaneous shift toward acrolect (though still quite distant from it) takes place among this group at around the age of seven or eight which is about the same age as the transition from "small-boy" to "big-boy" takes place in the formal age-grading structure. "The continued use of pure basilect probably becomes undesirable for a boy who aspires to status in the older age group." "It would be interesting to see if the energies expended by the basilect speaker on the kind of dialect change described. . . as well as his frame of mind toward language differences at that period. . . could be harnessed by formal education in, say, an intensified English-teaching program for nonstandard speakers at the 7-8-9 year old level."

UNESCO. "The report of the UNESCO meeting of specialists, 1951." In: Vernacular languages in education, UNESCO (ed.). Paris: UNESCO, 1964. p.45-75. C UD 006677

"There is nothing in the structure of any language which precludes it from becoming a vehicle of modern civilization, [and] no language is inadequate to meet the needs of the child's first months in school." Indeed, because the mother tongue is a person's natural means of expression, every pupil, whether a child or an adult, should begin his formal education in the language native to him, and if that language "is adequate in all respects to serve as the vehicle of university and higher technical education, it should be so used." The mother tongue, nevertheless, should be used as the medium of instruction only insofar as an adequate supply of schoolbooks and other educational materials permit. In classes that contain children from several language groups, when it is

not possible to regroup the students, the first task of the teacher "must be to teach all pupils enough of one language to make it possible to use that language as the medium of instruction." A lingual franca, however, is "not an adequate substitute for the mother tongue unless the children are familiar with it before coming to school." The objective of educational authorities should be to persuade the public to accept education through the mother tongue; it should never be to force it on an unwilling public. If the student's mother tongue is "not the official language of his country, or is not a world language, he needs to learn a second language." In school, "the second language may be introduced orally as a subject of instruction" and gradually increased until the pupil is familiar enough with it to receive instruction for general subjects in it. Additional considerations in determining the language to be used in school as the medium of instruction, particularly for the polyglot state which is developing a national language, include the need for the standardization of written language, the introduction of a limited set of written symbols for the convenience of printing, and the simplification of materials for teaching the language so that "pupils may progress towards full mastery without having anything to unlearn."

WEPMAN, J.M. "Auditory discrimination, speech and reading."
Elementary School Journal, 60:325-33, 1960.

Auditory discrimination and its relationship to speech and reading are investigated. The main hypothesis is that auditory discrimination is attained gradually and often as late as the age of eight. The author distinguishes three levels of audition which develop sequentially:

1. Acuity is the ability of the ear to collect sounds and transmit them to the nervous system.
2. Understanding is the ability to extract and interpret meaning from sound patterns.
3. Discrimination and retention are the abilities which permit the individual to differentiate each sound from every other sound and to hold each sound in mind well enough and long enough to make accurate phonic comparisons.

The Wepman Auditory Discrimination Test was administered to 80 first graders and 76 second graders. There is a decreasing number of children with poor auditory discrimination--26 percent in grade one and 19 percent in grade two. Children with poor discrimination tended to be poorer readers, but the major effect of poor discrimination was reflected in poor speech articulation. The author concludes that since auditory discrimination often develops more fully in the first years of school, speech therapy should not be initiated in poor discrimination children (about 80 percent of articulation problems) until around the age of eight. He also concludes that reading instruction can be made consonant with the discrimination abilities of the children. Many first

graders would not benefit from phonic reading instruction, and these children are identifiable.

YESHIVA UNIVERSITY. Research planning conference on language development in disadvantaged children, June 7-8, 1966. New York: Yeshiva University, 1966. C UD 004912

Six papers, with commentary and discussion, are contained in the proceedings of a conference on language development in disadvantaged children. A summary of an earlier working conference on the same topic is appended. The papers presented at the conference were: 1, "On Communicative Competence," by D. H. Hymes; 2, "How to Learn a First Language," by David McNeill; 3, "A Theory of Linguistic Development," by Wayne O'Neil; 4, "Social Dialect," by William Stewart; 5, "Some Methods in Sociolinguistic Research," by Paul Cohen; and, 6, "A Curriculum Demonstration Project for Teaching Literary Skills to Disadvantaged 7th and 8th Graders," by S. Alan Cohen.

The following documents are not available through journals or the ERIC-IRCD collection. They have been included because they were felt to have special relevance to this bibliography and warrant search efforts.

BLOOMFIELD, LEONARD. "Literate and illiterate speech." In: Language in culture and society: a reader in linguistics and anthropology, D. H. Hymes (ed.). New York: Harper and Row, 1964. p. 391-96.
GLC

Examining the notions of "literate" and "illiterate" speech, the author observes that differences between "correct" and "incorrect" are not a matter of knowledge versus ignorance or carefulness versus carelessness. Rather they represent a "conflict of definite, fixed locutions, one of which for some reason is 'good' while the others are 'bad.'" A child learning to talk approximates more and more closely the speech of older people around him and ultimately comes to speak in the local dialect. Popular explanations of incorrect language are simply explanations of incorrect writing and are thus tied up with standard language in its most definite and inflexible form--literary language. "In the main,

the scientific diagnosis of 'bad' language seems to be: standard language with dialect features." According to this explanation, "a small community of people speaking a uniform language, and above all a community without schools or writing, would not distinguish 'good' and 'bad' language." Drawing on his observations of Menomini Indian speech in Wisconsin, the author finds this assumption to be untrue--the Menomini do judge persons as speaking well or badly. "The nearest approach to an explanation of 'good' and 'bad' language seems to be this then, that by an accumulation of obvious superiorities, both of character and standing, as well as of language, some persons are felt to be better models of conduct and speech than others (and) the forms which these same persons use are felt to have the better flavor. This may be a generally human state of affairs. . . and the factor of standard and literary language versus dialect may be a superadded secondary one.

CASLER, L. "1961, maternal deprivation: a critical review of the literature." Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 26(2), 1961.

The author summarizes the main findings from many studies of maternal deprivation drawing on literature which represents the institutional approach, the cultural approach, animal experimentation, and neuro-anatomical hypotheses. He concludes:

1. Emotional, physical, and intellectual malfunctioning is known to occur with frequency among children in many institutions.
2. Some authors have alleged that this malfunctioning is attributable to the deprivation of maternal love.
3. It is more likely, however, that deprivation of maternal love can have ill effects only after specific affective responsiveness has been achieved by the child (usually at about the age of six months). Ill effects found in children maternally deprived before this age probably have some other cause.
4. Evidence is accumulating, both on the human and animal level, that this "other cause" is perceptual deprivation--the absolute or relative absence of tactile, vestibular, and other forms of stimulation.
5. Those forms of social stimulation necessary for proper language development, etc. can be provided within an institutional setting.
6. Recent neuroanatomical findings, especially those concerning the reticular formation, help to explain why perceptual stimulation is so important for normal development.

DAVE, R.H. The identification and measurement of environmental process variables that are related to educational achievement. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1963. (Ph. D. Dissertation.)

The author hypothesized on the basis of the literature that the home environment relevant to educational achievement might be studied in terms of six variables: 1, achievement press; 2, language models in the home; 3, academic guidance provided in the home; 4, stimulation provided in the home to explore various aspects of the larger environment; 5, the intellectual interests and activity in the home; and, 6, the work habits emphasized in the home. Sixty mothers were interviewed, and the ratings on their responses were related to the scores of their children on a battery of achievement tests taken at the end of the fourth grade of school. The overall index of the home environment had a correlation of +.80 with the total score on the entire achievement battery. The correlations between the home environment and parts of the achievement test were highest with the tests of word knowledge and reading and lowest with spelling and arithmetic computation. This suggests that the home had the greatest influence on the language development of the child and the least influence on skills taught primarily in school. The correlation of +.80 may be contrasted with the much lower correlations (usually less than .50) between school achievement and other indexes of the home environment such as socioeconomic status, education of parents, occupational status, or social class. If supported by further research, these techniques may enable the school to analyze the home environment and to determine the best strategy for the school and the home to provide the environmental conditions necessary for school achievement. This approach also makes it clear that parents with relatively low levels of education or occupational status can provide very stimulating home environments for educational achievement. It is what the parents do in the home rather than their status characteristics which is the powerful determiner.

ERVIN, SUSAN M. "Imitation and structural change in children's language." In: New directions in the study of language, Eric H. Lenneberg (ed.). Cambridge, Mass.: M.I.T. Press, 1964. p. 163-89.
GLC

Imitation, increasing comprehension, and the construction and testing of idiosyncratic systems as possible sources of change and development in child language are discussed. To test the hypothesis that imitation is a significant "source of progress in grammar" among young children, the author compares "freely generated" sentences and "overt immediate repetitions" in the speech of five children for adherence to the same rules of word arrangement. For four children, sentences of both types were equally predictable from the rules of their own grammars; and for one of these children who was studied at three ages, there was no change with age "in the consistency of his imitated sentences." For the one child in which samples were unlike, imitations proved grammatically less advanced than free sentences. Based on this sample. . .

"there is not a shred of evidence. . . that progress toward adult norms of grammar arises merely from practice in overt imitation of adult sentences." In a second study involving 31 children, evidence was derived from the development of number and tense inflections that children generate new forms through analogical extension from familiar forms rather than by imitation. Similar evidences of generalization from known cases in the development of simple syntax and transformations are described. The author concludes that child language develops from a "building by analogy of classes and rules," but that the accrual of gradual changes in these rules probably results from the imitation of particular instances in, and an expanding comprehension of, adult speech.

ERVIN-TRIPP, SUSAN. "Language development." In: Review of child development research, Vol. 2, L. W. Hoffman and M. L. Hoffman (eds.). New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1966. p. 55-105. GLC

A recent survey of the literature on children's language development gives special emphasis to the preschool years. The materials are dealt with under the following headings: prelinguistic vocalizations; the linguistic system--semantic development; the linguistic system--phonology; the linguistic system--grammar; language and thought; functions of languages; and sources of variation.

FISHMAN, JOSHUA A. Language loyalty in the United States; the maintenance and perpetuation of non-English mother tongues by American ethnic and religious groups. The Hague: Mouton and Co., 1966. GLC

This book examines the problems of shifts in and maintenance of linguistic identity by immigrant groups in the U.S. up to 1960. The author uses a broad sociolinguistic approach to explore the cultural-contextual parameters (institutional and social) which are associated with language shifts across different communities. German-, Franco-, and Mexican-American groups are chosen for study in depth.

HYMES, D.H. "Functions of speech: an evolutionary approach." In: Anthropology and education, F.C. Gruber (ed.). Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1961. p. 55-83. GLC

The author argues in favor of a new evolutionary approach to the functions of speech as distinct from the "old" rejected evolutionary approach which classified languages structurally on a scale from primitive to advanced. No known languages are, in the old sense "primitive" languages. "All known languages have achieved. . . the level of basic or primary efficiency such that they can fully adapt in time to the needs of any

population." However, a specific language may be less functionally useful because less advanced, and the issue will only be confused by focusing on such matters as relative prestige and attitudes toward a language. "Some cultures are technologically more advanced than others. Vocabulary is the linguistic analogue of technology (hence) the reality of general evolutionary advance in the sphere of language seems clear." Thus, while any language can theoretically expand to serve a complex civilization, "not all languages are equally efficient compared with one another, either in terms of specific evolution in meeting particular needs, or in terms of general evolution in meeting the needs of modern complex civilization." If we study speech habits in relation to a given population, we may find "not only different types, varieties, and dialects, but even different languages as parts of the whole. . . . Competition between sets of speech habits, languages, or parts thereof, has frequently been taken to be a purely social matter, and (has often) been interpreted under the blanket term of an unanalyzed differential 'prestige'." The fact is that one set of speech habits may simply be more functionally useful in an evolving culture, and in this sense "advanced" languages will tend to displace those presently "less advanced."

HYMES, D.H. Language in culture and society: a reader in linguistics and anthropology. New York: Harper and Row, 1964. GLC

This volume contains "a survey of the full range of anthropological interest in the study of language and of linguistic interest in the sociocultural context of language." See especially Part V, "Role, Socialization, and Expressive Speech"; Part VII, "Social Structure and Speech Community"; and Part VIII, "Processes and Problems of Change." In addition to an extensive bibliography, the volume contains topically classified bibliographic references at the end of each article.

LURIA, A.R. The role of speech in the regulation of normal and abnormal behavior. New York: Liveright, 1961. GLC

This book contains the texts of three lectures given by the author in London in 1958. It is the "first detailed account to be published in English of the important experimental research that has been going on for more than a decade. . . . in the U.S.S.R. on the dynamics of the mental development of children." The experiments described were designed to demonstrate the increasing potency of speech in regulating the behavior of growing children--"showing how language at first achieves an 'impelling' function in that it can initiate activity but not inhibit it; later it acquires a more 'directive' function for the child, being able to inhibit as well as to initiate action." Differences, qualitatively and in rate of development, between normal and abnormal children are also explored.

LURIA, A.R.; and YUDOVITCH, F. la. Speech and the development of mental processes in the child. London: Staples Press, 1959. GLC

This study attempts to investigate the role of speech in the development of children's mental processes. After reviewing relevant literature, the authors note the inherent technical difficulty of examining relationships between speech and mental activity. As speech is developing, other factors--namely general maturation and changing life conditions--are normally influencing the child's mental processes. The authors hypothesized that if Yura and Liosha G., five-year-old speech retarded twins could be caused to acquire speech rapidly--first by creating a necessity for speech by separating them, and, second, by specific speech training--"the resultant peculiarities in the development of mental processes would be the product of the one changed factor--the acquisition of a system of language and speech communication--rather than the result of gradual maturation." When first observed, the twins had predominantly "autonomous" speech, heavily dependent on context for its meaning and largely unintelligible to outsiders. Their play activities were similarly undeveloped. "The significance of the play, any allocation of roles, the rules of the game. . . remained entirely inaccessible. . . They were drawn into the external ritual side of play activity, but remained outside the meaningful aspect." After separation, "the new objective necessity "for communication led to the appearance of objective speech for both. Special speech lessons for Yura "called forth differentiated developed sentences." Concurrently, the quality of their mental life changed dramatically. In play, they could plan and carry out a project, subordinating marginal activity to its purpose. Both were able to perform a formerly inaccessible classification task, though Yura, with his special training, was superior. "Cardinal improvement in the structure of the twins' mental life" the authors attribute "to the influence of the one changed factor--the acquisition of a language system."

MCCARTHY, DOROTHEA. "Language development of the preschool child." Institute of Child Welfare Monographs, 4, 1930.

This study was an investigation of the acquisition of speech in children in the preschool years. Subjects were children between 18 and 54 months of age. One hundred and forty children, 20 at each of seven age levels, were selected to be representative of occupational distribution of Minneapolis using paternal occupation. Children were observed at home or in nursery school alone with an investigator. Fifty consecutive, spontaneous verbal responses were recorded for each child while he played or looked at picture books. A response was a unit of speech preceded and followed by pauses. Mean length of response for every age group was found to be significantly higher for higher SES (classes one to three on Goodenough-Tausig-Barr Scale) children than for lower SES (classes four to six) children. Using Piaget's functional analysis in relation to

paternal occupation, children of upper SES were found to use a larger percentage of adapted information responses and to ask more questions than children of lower SES.

ORATA, PEDRO T. "The Iloilo experiment in education through the vernacular." The use of vernacular languages in education, 280:123-31, 1953, UNESCO (ed.).

The purpose of the experiment during the first year, 1948-49, was ". . . to determine the relative effectiveness of the local vernacular, Hiligaynon, and of English as media of instruction in the first grade." Seven control and seven experimental schools were selected. Twenty-nine teachers were chosen. The pupils in both groups were matched in age, intelligence, economic status, and other factors. Achievement tests were developed and used. Results indicated that ". . . the use of the local vernacular, Hiligaynon, as a medium of instruction was more productive of teaching results in Grade I than the use of English. Grade I pupils who were taught reading, arithmetic and social studies through the vernacular were noticeably superior in these subjects to the Grade I pupils taught through English." Secondly, "there seemed to be a transfer of training from the vernacular to English and from English to the vernacular, the amount of carry-over being approximately the same in both cases." The purpose, method, and conclusions for the second year of the experiment, 1949-50, approximate those of the first year. In the third year of the experiment, 1950-51, English was used as the medium of instruction for both groups. ". . . The experimental group continued to surpass the control groups, the difference being statistically significant in arithmetic and predominantly in favour with respect to language and reading. . . The experimental group caught up with the control group in knowledge of English after six months of being exposed to this language as the medium of instruction." Other nonacademic results of the experiment are reported on.

PEAL, ELIZABETH; and LAMBERT, WALLACE E. "The relation of bilingualism to intelligence." Psychology Monographs, 76:1-23, 1962.

A majority of researchers over the last 40 years "have concluded. . . that bilingualism has a detrimental effect on intellectual functioning." Reviewing these studies and others showing bilingualism as having either a positive or no effect, the authors conclude that most investigators failed to control for relevant variables known to be related to intelligence such as "socioeconomic class, sex, degree of bilinguality, age, and the actual tests used." From a theoretical standpoint, there are arguments which would support either idea, i. e., that bilinguality might be an advantage or a disadvantage intellectually. In a research study of their own designed to control the relevant variables, the authors

tested 75 monolinguals and 89 bilinguals selected from the total population of 10 year olds in six Montreal French schools. They found that "bilinguals performed significantly better than monolinguals on both verbal and nonverbal intelligence tests" and that the bilinguals tended to have more favorable attitudes toward English Canadians than monolinguals. Statistical analysis of the data (48 variables were involved) led the authors to conclude that the experience of the bilingual child "with two language systems seems to have left him with a mental flexibility, a superiority in concept formation, and a more diversified set of mental abilities." Taken all together, results from the tests reveal "monolingual and bilingual children as representatives of two distinct groups, differing in intellectual structure, attitude patterns, achievement in school, and achievement in languages." Though the study does not show whether bilingualism aided intellectual development or vice versa, "the results. . . indicate the value of shifting emphasis from looking for favorable or unfavorable effects of bilingualism on intelligence to an inquiry into the basic nature of these effects."

PEDERSON, LEE A. "Non-standard Negro speech in Chicago." In: Non-standard speech and the teaching of English, William A. Stewart (ed.). Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1964. GLC

On the basis of his own field study of Negro speech in Chicago and other sources of data on Negro dialects in that city, the author concludes that "the average Chicago Negro, native or immigrant, speaks a variety of English different in many ways from that of the rest of the population." Examples of divergent phonemic features are given. It is the author's thesis that in order "to communicate effectively with that part of Chicago which holds the power, (the Negro) must learn a second language--the language of The Man." Recognizing that differences in grammar and vocabulary "create a real barrier to the acquisition of a fluent command of the standard English so necessary to social advancement," he concludes that "phonological differences alone can be injurious. . . for his nonstandard allophones may (serve) to identify him as a suspicious one, if not an outright invader."

SAPON, STANLEY M. "Shaping productive verbal behavior in a non-speaking child--a case report." Monograph Series on Languages and Linguistics 17th Annual Roundtable, 19:151-75, 1966.

A detailed description is presented of the rationale and procedures used in a two week experimental intervention which utilized operant conditioning techniques to shape productive (oral) verbal behavior in a nonspeaking ten-year-old boy. With an I.Q. of under 50, the subject had been classed

as a trainable mentally retarded, probably brain damaged. While the subject responded generally to instructions and requests, he demonstrated almost no articulate, productive speech. His monosyllabic and occasionally bisyllabic vocalizations were characterized by extreme pharyngeal tension, with each syllable beginning and ending with a glottal stop. Initially, behavioral control was achieved through the establishment of tokens as secondary reinforcers. The tokens, awarded for successive approximations to identifiable verbal responses, could be exchanged for candy and other reinforcements. Gradually, the tokens were largely replaced by verbal and other social reinforcers. The strategy employed to modify the subject's unsuccessful vocal behavior involved: 1, teaching the subject to whisper, sing, and, later, to say, "long vowels," vowel-consonant combinations, then strings of syllables; and, 2, building differentiated strings of syllables by means of which the subject could control his environment. By the thirteenth session, which lasted 55 minutes and yielded 220 verbal responses, the subject had demonstrated verbal control over the adults in the laboratory through his verbal ability to produce a sentence expressing choice (e.g., "I wanna puppy" in response to the question, "Michael, tell me what you want"). The limited verbal behaviors that the subject developed in these experimental sessions subsequently generalized outside the laboratory. When he returned to school, he was transferred from his class for trainable to one for educable mentally retarded children. His teacher reported that the subject's speech continued to improve in intelligibility, that he used phrases, and, most significantly, that his verbal behavior had become less restrictive and that he had begun to initiate verbal interchanges. The success of this limited experiment suggests that even "tiny" periods of planned, directed control, guided by the experimental analysis of behavior, can lead to behavioral changes that are only slowly, if ever, brought about in a random environment.

STEWART, WILLIAM A. "Foreign language teaching methods in quasi-foreign situations." In: Non-standard speech and the teaching of English, William A. Stewart (ed.). Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1964. GLC

The author suggests that there are a number of situations in which clear distinctions between foreign language and nonforeign language teaching had better be dealt with as theoretical rather than actual. Examples of these "quasi-foreign language" situations are drawn from Jamaican Creole and Liberian pidgin to demonstrate that what have often been thought of as "corrupted" forms are actually "separate languages in their own right." There are similar situations in the United States, the author suggests, where "in spite of striking structural similarities in certain areas (such as vocabulary), structural dissimilarities in other areas (such as in grammars) have given rise to language learning prob-

lems of a type similar to foreign language learning problems." Examples are drawn from Mexican-American English and the various substandard dialects which have appeared in urban areas as a result of migrations from the Southern Atlantic and Gulf states. "Though (the dialectical) traits may have been shared by white and Negro alike in their home territory. . . they are (often) brought in and used primarily by Negroes (so that) the English teaching situation--complex enough in terms of the linguistics alone--is further complicated by the intrusion of social, cultural, economic and even political factors." The author gives examples of specific problems involving phonological mismatch, choice of definite and indefinite articles, and verb usage which he has encountered in his studies of Washington, D. C. dialects. He suggests ways in which understanding of the "interference" involved could be utilized in English teaching. "It will be apparent that the development of more suitable language teaching materials (for these situations) depend heavily on the availability of good linguistic descriptions of those nonstandard varieties of speech which are normally used by the learners of the language to be taught." Such studies have yet to be made.

STEWART, WILLIAM A. Non-standard speech and the teaching of English. Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1964. GLC

This booklet contains three essays: 1, "Foreign Language Teaching Methods in Quasi-Foreign Language Situations," by William A. Stewart (q. v.); 2, "Non-Standard Negro Speech in Chicago," by Lee A. Pederson (q. v.); and, 3, "Some Approaches to Teaching English as a Second Language," by Charlotte K. Brooks.

STRODTBECK, FRED. "The hidden curriculum of the middle class home." In: Urban education and cultural deprivation, C. W. Hunnicutt (ed.). Syracuse, N. Y.: University Division of Summer Sessions, Syracuse University, 1964.

The author presents the problem of the vicious cycle in the constant fluctuation in ghetto slums and explains the failure of better housing projects and ADC to alleviate the situation. Part of the answer lies in modifying the school curriculum so as to supplement the home of youngsters from these deprived areas. The author also discusses the Zacharias report, claiming that this Panel on Educational Research and Development of the President's Science Advisory Committee places little stress on learning through identification or social psychology relevant to development. While the committee conceived of the school system as the "natural unit" for reform and although cognitive learning aspects are emphasized, the author criticizes its placing in the background the role of verbal skills in maintaining interpersonal relations and motivations.

Basil Bernstein's formulation of "public" and "formal" language systems is upheld as descriptive of the difference between the language of the dependent poor and the middle class. A call is made for a more analytic explanation of why the distinction is maintained. The author explains it via power relations in the function of family and other groups. Adults are ranked by the child according to their relative power and what each adult expects of him, and the child judges this and acts accordingly. The difference between the power relations of the lower and middle class are explored, and deficiencies of the lower class are exposed. The author concludes that educational intervention must reduce fear and motivate verbal participation by increasing the absolute power of the child in the school setting. Middle-class educational objectives cannot be seriously undertaken in the absence of the same equivalent of stable lower-class security systems. Children must be able to make and suffer the consequences of their decisions. Students should have organizations broader than the classroom. They should be exposed to a wide range of problems and groups. This hidden curriculum, absent from the home and school settings of the lower-class child, must be added to accomplish the objectives of compensatory education.

WEAVER, S.J. Interim report: psycholinguistic abilities of culturally deprived children. Nashville, Tenn.: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1963.

The Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities administered to 61 Negro subjects in Early Training Project for the culturally deprived child. The pattern of both experimental and control groups indicates strength in visual-motor patterns and deficit on auditory-vocal channels. The experimental groups (with varying amounts of summer school and the home contact program) showed significantly higher scores on overall language development than the controls. In particular, visual decoding, auditory-vocal association, and visual-motor sequencing showed strong differences after the training program. The subjects entered the program at approximately age 3 1/2 and were around age five at testing. Possible sex differences are indicated (lower for boys). Data indicate the possibility of changing psycholinguistic abilities through training.

WEINREICH, URIEL. Languages in contact. The Hague: Mouton and Co., 1963.

The author presents a thorough systematization of a comprehensive range of phenomena, procedures, and concepts basic to the study of bilingualism. The topic of language contact is treated primarily from the linguist's point of view, but the book includes substantial and significant comments on extra-linguistic implications. Opportunities for further

research are specified. There is a threefold division of emphases: 1, linguistic "mechanisms and structural causes of interference"; 2, the mainly psycholinguistic problems of the "bilingual individual"; and, 3, the "sociocultural setting of language contact".

WELLMAN, BETH L.; and MCCANDLESS, B. R. "Factors associated with Binet IQ changes of preschool children." Psychology Monographs, 60(2), 1946.

The purpose of this study was to measure selected experiences of the child while in preschool and their relation to I. Q. changes, vocabulary development, and the role of vocabulary in I. Q. changes. The first unit of the investigation involved 66 children ranging in age from 35 to 58 months, who were observed over an average interval of 5.6 months for selected types of teacher-child and child-child contacts thought relevant to intelligence. Teacher-child categories were: 1, channelizes activity; 2, gives physical help; 3, gives information; and, 4, asks leading questions. Subjects were tested and retested with the Stanford Binet, Form L. No relationship was found between I. Q. change and frequency of teacher-child or child-child contacts of the type studied. The Smith-Williams vocabulary test was administered in the fall and again in the spring to 34 subjects, age 38 to 61 months. Vocabulary and I. Q. correlated .71 for the fall measures and .75 for the spring tests. There was no relationship between change in vocabulary and change in I. Q. Teacher contacts showed an r of +.47 with vocabulary change for 18 children who were new to the preschool. Children whose vocabulary sigma score in the fall was higher than their M. A. sigma score gained significantly in I. Q. (7.6 points) during the year, while those whose vocabulary standing was lower than their M. A. standing did not show appreciable gain (.6 I. Q. points). Subjects who increased their superiority of vocabulary over M. A. tended to receive more teacher contacts than those who moved in the opposite direction, the contacts appearing to be more effective for new entrants than for children previously enrolled. It should be noted that the mean fall I. Q. of these children was 120.5, the mean spring I. Q. 124.9, the mean change in I. Q. 4.4 points, with 33 percent of the group gaining +10 or more points. "The results of this study suggest that teacher contacts of the type recorded. . . play a definite role in the verbal aspects of mental development particularly of children who are undergoing their first year's experience in this preschool. The results also suggest that the verbal aspects of intelligence are not the aspects in which the preschool is most stimulating to I. Q. change."

WOLF, R.M. The identification and measurement of environmental process variables related to intelligence. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1964. (Ph. D. Dissertation.)

The author hypothesized that 13 process variables could be used to describe the interactions between parents and children insofar as intelligence development was concerned. These process variables were classified under: 1, press for achievement motivation; 2, press for language development; and, 3, provision for general learning. He devised an interview form and interviewed the mothers of 60 fifth grade students in a midwestern community. He then rated each family or home on each of the 13 process variables. He found a multiple correlation of +.76 between these ratings and Henmon-Nelson I.Q. This may be contrasted with the correlations of +.40 or less between intelligence and such environmental variables as social status, parent's occupation, or parent's education. This method of measuring environmental process variables may be used to analyze the ways in which an environment can have a relatively direct influence on general intelligence, and it should provide a method of measuring the environment for various kinds of experimental research on the problems involved in the development of intelligence.

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