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ABSTRACT

The experiment reported on in this paper investigated primarily the overall effectiveness in raising the language achievement of black children of the pattern practice approach and the use of overall contrasts between standard and nonstandard dialects within the pattern practice approach. The experiment was conducted in three third-grade and three kindergarten classes in an elementary school district in the San Francisco Bay area. Seventy-three black third graders and 68 black kindergartners were used as subjects. Although there is considerable variation in their speech patterns, their speech is by and large representative of lower- to middle-class black dialect. The six classes were randomly divided into groups for three different treatments. The treatment period lasted for five weeks, with 15 to 20 minutes a day devoted to intensive language training. In Treatment A an attempt was made first to establish the concept of a difference between standard and nonstandard speech. In Treatment B the materials and approach were the same as in A, but no attempt was made to introduce a concept of standard as opposed to nonstandard speech. Treatment C was a control activity in which the participating teachers were free to devise their own language arts activities. (Authors/JM)



STANFORD CENTER
FOR RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT
IN TEACHING

Research and Development Memorandum No. 87

THE EFFECT OF PATTERN PRACTICE AND STANDARD/NONSTANDARD DIALECT CONTRAST ON LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT AMONG BLACK CHILDREN

Robert L. Politzer and Mary Rhodes Hoover

School of Education Stanford University Stanford, California

March 1972

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Introductory Statement

The Center is concerned with the short comings of teaching in American schools: the ineffectiveness of many American teachers in promoting achievement of higher cognitive objectives, in engaging their students in the tasks of school learning, and, especially, in serving the needs of students from low-income areas. Of equal concern is the inadequacy of Ameri an schools as environments fostering the teachers' own motivations, skills, and professionalism.

The Center employs the resources of the behavioral sciences -- theoretical and methodological--in seeking and applying knowledge basic to the achievement of its objectives. Analysis of the Center's problem area has resulted in three programs: Heuristic Teaching, Teaching Students from Low-Income Areas, and the Environment for Teaching. Drawing primarily upon psychology and sociology, and also upon economics, political science, and anthropology, the Center has formulated integrated programs of research, development, demonstration, and dissemination in these three areas. In the Heuristic Teaching Program, the strategy 's to develop a model teacher training system integrating components that dependably enhance teaching In the program on Teaching Students from Low-Income Areas, the strategy is to develop materials and procedures for engaging and motivating such students and their teachers. In the program on Environment for Teaching, the strategy is to develop patterns of school organization and teacher evaluation that will help teachers function more professionally, at higher levels of morale and commitment.

This study was undertaken as part of the Center's program on Teaching Students from Low-Income Areas for the purpose of investigating teaching procedures used in the teaching of standard English to speakers of nonstandard dialects.



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Abstract

Three treatments were used in a five-week experiment dealing with improving the standard English skills of Black children at the thirdgrade and kindergarten levels. The treatments were pattern practice, along with overt contrast of standard and nonstandard English; pattern practice alone; and informal language activity. The children were also given a cest measuring their attitudes toward nonstandard Black English. The criterion measures used in the experiment were a test of the production of standard English (the Northwestern Syntax Screening Test); a series of auditory and written tests of the ability to discriminate between standard and nonstandard English, developed at the Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching; and tests of skills related to word and sound identification. The main results of the experiment were the following: (1) The pattern practice approach did not prove significantly superior to an informal language activity approach. (2) Scores on the NWSST showed some evidence that the first treatment was more effective with students having more favorable attitudes toward nonstandard English, and the second was more effective with students having more favorable attitudes toward standard English.



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THE EFFECT OF PATTERN PRACTICE AND STANDARD/NONSTANDARD DIALECT CONTRAST ON LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT AMONG BLACK CHILDREN

Robert L. Politzer and Mary Rhodes Hoover

The Purpose of the Experiment

Considerable literature exists concerning the use of foreign language teaching or quasi-foreign language teaching methodology in the teaching of standard English to speakers of nonstandard dialects (e.g., Feigenbaum, 1969; Johnson, 1969; Politzer, 1968). There seems to be a consensus that the adaptation of foreign language teaching methodology to second dialect teaching involves primarily the use of various types of pattern practice exercises of the substitution or conversion type. Pattern practice exercises have been incorporated into most of the curricular materials designed to teach standard English to speakers of nonstandard dialects (see the "Inventory of Materials to Teach Standard English" in Shuy, Feigenbaum, & Grognet, 1970). Although some formal evaluations of the effectiveness of the pattern practice approach have been made (e.g., Johnson, 1968), they have been rather scarce. Generally they have not dealt with the effectiveness of the method on the elementary school level.

In foreign language teaching methodology, the use of overt contrasts between the student's native language and the foreign language has always been a matter of debate. In second dialect teaching methodology, most scholars agree that the overt contrasting of standard and nonstandard dialects is a useful teaching device (e.g., Feigerbaum, 1970b; Johnson, 1971; Politzer & Bartley, 1970). At any rate, the overt contrasting of standard and nonstandard forms is being used in some of the most important curricular materials for teaching standard dialects to speakers of nonstandard Black English (Chicago Public Schools, 1968; Feigenbaum, 1970a). Speakers of nonstandard English often have receptive competence in both standard and nonstandard dialects, but productive competence only in the nonstandard. Even in repetition tasks, pupils speaking nonstandard dialects



often turn standard stimuli into nonstandard responses (Labov, Cohen, Robins, & Lewis, 1968). Under these circumstances it seems reasonable to assume that the acquisition of standard speech may depend heavily on the ability to perceive standard/nonstandard contrasts and that overt drills in the perception of such constrasts would be a useful teaching device. Experimental evidence concerning the effectiveness of this device is not available, however.

The experiment reported on in this paper investigated primarily the overall effectiveness of the pattern practice approach and the use of overt contrasts between standard and nonstandard dialects within the pattern practice approach.

Design

Subjects

The experiment was conducted in three third-grade and three kindergarten classes in an elementary school district in the San Francisco Bay area. The population of the elementary school district is predominantly Black, and only Black children (73 third graders, 68 kindergartners) were used as subjects in the experiment. The children came predominantly from lower- to middle-class socioeconomic backgrounds. Although there is, of course, considerable variation in their speech patterns, their speech is by and large representative of lower- to middle-class Black dialect, containing the features various researchers have identified as typical of that dialect. (One of the authors of this report, Mary Hoover, is herself Black and a resident of the community in which the investigation was conducted.)

Independent Variables

Treatments. The six classes (three kindergarten, three third-grade) taking part in the experiment were randomly divided into groups for three different treatments. In some classes the treatments were carried out by the speech therapist or special teacher; in others, by the classroom teacher herself. In each class, however, the same teacher was made responsible for all three treatments in order to achieve control of the



teacher variable. The treatment period lasted for five weeks. During these five weeks, fifteen to twenty minutes a day were devoted to intensive language training.

In Treatment A an attempt was made first to establish the concept of a difference between standard speech ("School talk") and nonstandard ("Everyday talk"). Then pattern practice was used to drill the pupils in standard speech, which was contrasted overtly with nonstandard speech. The exercises included training in discrimination between standard and nonstandard forms. The use of nonstandard as a "legitimate" alternative way of speaking was stressed. The particular grammatical problems dealt with in the training sessions included

- 1. the nonstandard use of be (e.g., "He be working");
- 2. the deletion of the copula ("He sick");
- 3. the deletion of the final -s in the third person singular ("He say," "He do," "He have");
- 4. the use of the possessive ("Charlie aunt");
- 5. the deletion of -ed in the past tense ("He pass" for standard "He passed"); and
- 6. negation ("Nobody won't do nothing").

In Treatment B the materials and approach were the same as in Treatment A. No attempt was made, however, to introduce a concept of standard as opposed to nonstandard speech ("School talk" as opposed to "Everyday talk"), and the overt contrast of standard with nonstandard speech was omitted. (The lesson plans and instructions used for treatments A and B appear in Appendix A.)

Treatment C was a control activity in which the participating teachers were free to devise their own language arts activities—provided that they did not include quasi-foreign language (pattern practice) teaching approaches to standard English. In all the C groups the teachers promoted language activities (telling stories, describing pictures) that simply encouraged the natural use of language by the pupils. (Corrections of any kind were evidently kept to a minimum by all the teachers in the experiment, partly because they could have been interpreted as "language teaching activity.")



Control variable. For the kindergartners taking part in the experiment, recent raw scores on the Metropolitan Reading Readiness Test were used, and for the third graders, raw scores on the Stanford Elementary Achievement Reading Test. Both tests had been administered before the experiment was undertaken. Scores on these tests were (1) used to obtain correlations with measures used in the experiment, and (2) held in reserve as possible covariates in case the randomization of subjects was shown not to have resulted in groups equal in the abilities relevant to the criterion measures of the experiment.

Attitude measures. In order to measure the subjects' attitudes toward nonstandard speech, an instrument was devised following the model of the "matched guise" technique developed by W. E. Lambert and his associates (see, e.g., Lambert, Frankel, & Tucker, 1966). The instrument (fully reproduced in Appendix B) consists of ten short paragraphs, five in standard English and five in nonstandard English. The paragraphs were read by five speakers and recorded on tape. Each speaker read two paragraphs—one in standard and one in nonstandard English. All of the speakers were educated Blacks and residents of the community in which the study was conducted. In reading the standard paragraphs they made no attempt to sound non-Black. Thus the contrast between their two speech guises can be described as a difference between standard Black English and nonstandard Black English.

The tape was played to the children taking part in the experiment.

The third graders were asked how much they liked each speaker and directed to indicate their reaction on the following scale:

- 1. like very much (four points),
- 2. like okay (three points),
- like so-so (two points),
- don't like (one point).

Kindergartners were simply asked to indicate whether they thought they liked each speaker (11 points) or disliked him (zero points).

A score indicating how much each child liked the nonstandard Black speech or speaker was computed by subtracting the total points for the standard guises of the five speakers from the total for the nonstandard



guises. On the scale used for the kindergartners, the maximum score for nonstandard speech was thus +5 and the minimum score -5. On the scale used for the third graders, the maximum score was +15, the minimum score -15. To avoid negative scores, both scales were converted entirely to positive values. Thus the kindergarten scores could range from one to 11, with six indicating a completely neutral score, and third-grade scores could range from one to 31, with 16 being the neutral score. In actual practice, kindergarten scores ranged from two to nine, and third-grade scores from seven to 24. The average kindergarten score was 5.8, and the average third-grade score, 14.4. Thus both kindergartners and third graders as a group expressed a slight preference for standard Black speech over nonstandard Black speech.

The purpose of attempting to measure attitude toward nonstandard Black speech was to determine whether the treatments used in the experiment would be affected by the attitude of the pupils. Such treatment/ attitude interaction had been shown in a Stanford University doctoral dissertation (Tang, 1971) demonstrating that Chinese immigrants who held their own language and culture in high esteem achieved better in English reading when translation from their native language was used as a teaching device. Thus it seemed reasonable to investigate the hypothesis that Treatment A in this experiment would be more effective with pupils having positive views of nonstandard Black speech.

Dependent Variables: Criterion Measures Used for Kindergarten

Northwestern Syntax Screening Test: Expressive Items (NWSST, NWSST₁). This instrument (Northwestern University, 1969), known as the NWSST, measures the production of standard English, concentrating on the differences between standard and nonstandard Black English. (The NWSST does not measure in any way a child's general language skill. An instrument designed to measure ability in both nonstandard and standard Black English is currently being constructed by the Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching.) The expressive section of the test is based on twenty pairs of pictures. The examiner describes each pair of pictures to the examinee and then asks him what each picture represents. For example, the first pair of pictures



shows a baby asleep and a baby who is awake. The examiner says, "The baby is sleeping" and "The baby is not asleep." Then the examiner points to each picture in turn and asks the child to tell him about it.

Responses are graded as either standard (one point) or nonstandard (zero points). Thus the maximum score on the expressive section of the Northwestern Syntax Screening Test is 40. Items 1, 3, 6, 9, 11, 13, 15, 17, and 18 of the section deal specifically with the aspects of syntax that were singled out for treatment in this experiment (the use of be, third person singular -s, -ed past tense). Criterion scores were thus computed for the subsection composed of those items (NWSST₁) as well as for the expressive section as a whole.

The test was administered individually to all pupils who took part in the experiment. The four individuals administering the test were college educated Blacks and residents of the community in which the study was conducted.

Standard Discrimination Test C (SDTC). Since it had been found in previous experience that the Black Standard/Nonstandard Auditory Discrimination tests A and B (described below in the section on criterion measures used for the third grade) were both too long and complex for kindergartners, it was decided to readminister the test used for attitude measurement (see Appendix B), using it this time as a standard/nonstandard discrimination test. The children were asked to indicate whether each of the ten passages was in "School talk" or "Everyday talk."

Standard/Nonstandard Question (S/NSQ). In order to obtain an additional evaluation of the pupils' awareness of standard/nonstandard contrasts, it was decided that in conjunction with the administration of the Northwestern Syntax Screening Test, each examiner would informally address one standard and one nonstandard question to each pupil and record whether the pupil would automatically reply in standard or in nonstandard speech. The nonstandard question used throughout was, "What you (/yə/) be doin' when you (/yə/) get home today (/tə de/)?" The standard question was, "What do you like best about school?" Standard responses to the standard question and nonstandard responses to the nonstandard question were given one point. Nonstandard responses to the standard question and standard responses to the nonstandard question and standard responses to the nonstandard question and standard responses to the



and analyzed as a two-item test, referred to in the tables and discussion as S/NSQ.

In addition to the main criterion tests used in the experiment, some brief tests were constructed in order to detect whether the treatments had affected skills generally associated with reading ability in standard English.

Auditory Discrimination Test (ADT). The test consists of 18 items. The examiner reads two words and the pupil indicates whether or not they are the same. Emphasis is placed on the recognition of grammatical endings (-ed, -s) that are often absent in nonstandard speech. (See Appendix C.)

Sound-Letter Identification Test (SLIT). The test consists of ten items. The examiner reads a word and the pupil indicates which of three letters corresponds to the final sound of the word. Again, the emphasis is on the grammatical endings (-s, -ed) of standard English. (See Appendix C.)

Dependent Variables: Criterion Measures Used for the Third Grade

Northwestern Syntax Screening Test (NWSST, NWSST₁). The same test as that used for the kindergarten classes.

Standard Discrimination Test A (SDTA). This test, reproduced in Appendix C and discussed in greater detail in a separate paper (Politzer & Hoover, 1972), consists of ten items. Each item is made up of a pair of sentences, one of which is spoken in standard Black English, the other in nonstandard Black English. The examinee indicates which sentence is standard and which is not. The test was recorded by educated native speakers of Black English capable of speaking both standard and nonstandard dialect. The differences between standard and nonstandard speech dealt with in the test are primarily phonological (-r deletion, th changed to f, and the like).

Standard Discrimination Test B (SDTB). This test, also reproduced in Appendix C and also discussed in detail in Politzer and Hoover (1972), is a 17-item test following the same pattern as SDTA. Here, however, the contrasts between standard and nonstandard speech are primarily syntactical and morphological (formation of past, negation, deletion of -s in third person singular, and the like).



Written Standard/Nonstandard Discrimination Test (WSDT). This test was constructed especially for this experiment and is reproduced in Appendix C. It has 15 items, each consisting of a sentence for which a standard and a nonstandard completion is provided. The pupil must indicate which completion is standard ("School talk") and which is nonstandard ("Everyday talk").

Standard/Nonstandard Question (S/NSQ). The same test as that used for the kindergarten classes.

Auditory Discrimination Test (ADT). The same test as that used for the kindergarten classes.

Word Identification Test (WIT). The test consists of 15 items. The examiner reads a word and the pupil must identify which of three words has been read. Again, emphasis is placed on the recognition of standard English grammatical endings. (See Appendix C.)

Sound-Letter Identification Test (SLIT). The same test as that used for the kindergarten classes.

All the teachers taking part in the experiment were asked to keep a daily log of activities and to record their comments on and reactions to the methods used in the three treatments. These comments and reactions, though not part of the measurable criterion outcomes, did provide valuable information and feedback, and some are discussed briefly in the section below on experimental results.

Main Hypothesis

The main hypothesis to be investigated was that the three different treatments would result in different outcomes as measured by the criterion tests used in the experiment. Specifically, it seemed reasonable to assume the following:

- Treatment A (pattern practice plus overt contrasts of standard/ nonstandard) and Treatment B (pattern practice) will lead to better results than Treatment C (general language activity).
- On criterion measures dealing specifically with the perception of standard/nonstandard contrasts (SDTA, SDTB, SDTC, WSDT, S/NSQ), Treatment A will prove superior to both treatments B and C.



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As far as the influence of a pupil's attitude toward nonstandard dialects was concerned, it seemed reasonable to assume that pupils with favorable attitudes would perform better in Treatment A, which included an overt and sympathetic treatment of nonstandard speech. A corollary of this assumption is that pupils with favorable attitudes toward nonstandard dialects may be antagonized by Treatment B, which consists of drilling standard forms alone. It was further hypothesized that the effect of the favorable attitude was more likely to be shown on the production tasks than on the discrimination tests.

3. Under Treatment A, students with more favorable attitudes toward nonstandard dialects will perform better on the NWSST (NWSST₁) than students with less favorable attitudes. Under Treatment B, however, students with more favorable attitudes toward nonstandard dialects will perform worse on the NWSST (NWSST₁) than students with less favorable attitudes.

Results

Correlation of Variables

Kindergarten experiment. Of most interest are the correlations of the criterion measures with the control variables (namely the Metropolitan Reading Readiness Test), shown in Table 1. With the exception of item 6 (S/NSQ), all the correlations are significantly positive—as might indeed be expected (of course, the S/NSQ, being a two—item test, is not likely to show correlations with other variables). The ADT and SLIT measure reading—related tasks similar to those measured in the Reading Readiness Test. The ability to produce standard English, measured by the NWSST and probably implied in the SDTC, can also be expected to relate to a reading readiness measure that is based entirely on standard English.

As far as the intercorrelation of the dependent variables is concerned, the 0.90 correlation of NWSST_1 with NWSST indicates that results obtained by measuring performance on the specific features dealt with in the experiment are not significantly different from the results obtained by administering the whole test.



TABLE 1

Kindergarten Experiment: Intercorrelation of Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Reading score	1.00	0.29*	0.45**	0.50**	0.25*	0.08	0.42**	0.39**
2. Attitude score	0.29*	1.00	0.17	1.19	-0.01	-0.16	0.03	0.28*
3. NWSST	0.45**	0.17	1.00	0.90**	0.13	-0.03	0.47**	0.38**
4. NWSST ₁	0.50**	0.19	0.90**	1.00	0.22*	0.03	0.42**	0.37**
5. SDTC	0.25*	-0.01	0.13	0.22*	1.00	0.15	0.29*	0.08
6. s/nsq	0.08	-0.16	-0.03	0.03	0.15	1.00	-0.18	-0.08
7. ADT	0.42**	0.03	-0.47**	0.42**	0.29**	-0.18	1.00	0.31**
8. SLIT	0.39**	0.28*	0.38**		0.08	-0.08	0.31**	1.00

p < .05

Third-grade experiment. Reading achievement scores again correlate significantly with most of the criterion tests, as shown in Table 2. The exceptions are items 5 (SDTA), 8 (S/NSQ), and 10 (WIT). The lack of correlation with the S/NSQ is to be expected, as in the case of the kinder-garten variables. The fact that item 10 (WIT) shows no positive correlation with the reading scores (or any other of the criterion variables) raises some doubts about the validity of the test. (Perhaps the children were not accustomed to the task the WIT required them to perform.)

The correlation of the NWSST with the NWSST₁ is again 0.90, indicating that the subtest did not measure very differently from the test as a whole. The written discrimination test (WSDT) correlates significantly with the NWSST and the ADT. It correlates significantly only with the "grammarcentered" part of the Audicory Discrimination Test (ADTB), however, and not with the phonological Auditory Discrimination Test (ADTA). In general, other intercorrelations between criterion variables follow the expected pattern. The reading-connected tests, items 9 (ADT) and 11 (SLIT), have



 $^{**}_p < .01$

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Third-Grade Experiment: Intercorrelation of Variables

	Variable	1	2	3	4	5	9	7	8	6	2	11
	1. Reading score	1.00	-0.16	0.32**	0.35**	0.14	0.36**	0.41**	-0.16	0.41** -0.16 0.39**	0.10	0.27*
2.	Attitude score	-0.16	1.00	-0.03	-0.07	-0.37**	-0.13	-0.21	0.18	0.18 -0.25*	-0.01 -0.05	-0.05
.	NWSST	0.32** -0.03	-0.03	1.00	0.90**	0.20	0.19	0.35**	-0.04	0.35**	-0.02	0.12
	NWSST,	0.35**	-0.07	0.90**	1.00	0.17	0.23*	0.31**	-0.08	0.26*	0.09	0.10
	L SDTA	0.14	-0.37**	0.21	0.17	1.00	0.45**	0.13	-0.11	-0.11	0.01	0.04
9	SDTB	0.36** -0.13	-0.13	0.19	0.23*	0.45**	1.00	0.29*	-0.19	0.24**	-0.06	0.36**
7.	WSDI	0.41**	-0.21	0.35**		0.13	0.29*	1.00	0.11	0.36*	0.07	0.20
&	S/NSQ	-0.16	0.18	-0.04		-0.11	-0.19	0.11	1.00	0.01	90.0-	
9.	ADT	0.39**	0.39** -0.25**	0.35**	0.26*	-0.11	0.24*	0.36**	0.01	1.00	-0.12	0.49**
10.		0.01	0.01	-0.02	0.09	0.01	-0.06	0.07	-0.06	-0.12	1.00	-0.05
	11. SLIT	0.27*	-0.05	0.12	0.10	0.04	0.36**	0.20	-0.20	-0.20 0.49**	-0.05	1.00

*p < .05

a correlation of 0.49 (p < .01). The Auditory Discrimination Test, emphasizing the grammatical endings of standard English (item 9, APT), correlates positively (0.35; p < .01) with the test measuring the ability to produce standard English (item 3, NWSST). It also correlates positively (0.36; p < .01) with the WSDT, which measures standard/nonstandard discrimination in written form.

Hypothesis

Tables 3 and 4 show all the measures for all independent and dependent variables used in the treatment. In addition, mean scores for attendance were included among the independent variables. An analysis of variance showed that the three experimental groups did not differ significantly in the mean scores for any of the independent variables, including the reading score. For this reason, it was decided that analysis of variance (rather than analysis of covariance with reading score as covariate) should be used to test for the significance of the differences in the mean scores of the dependent variables.

For the kindergarten experiment, an analysis of variance for treatment, teacher, sex of pupil, and the interaction effects of these variables was used. For the third-grade experiment, the inclusion of sex of pupil in the analysis of variance would have resulted in some cells of one or two. Hence the analysis of variance was undertaken only for teacher, treatment, and teacher-treatment interaction. The analysis of variance tables for the kindergarten and third-grade experiments are reproduced in Appendix D. Appendix E contains mean scores for boys and girls for the third-grade experiment because sex of pupil had not been included in the analysis of variance of the third-grade scores. The tables show that on several tests (SDTC, S/NSQ, ADT, and SLIT in the kindergarten experiment, and S/NSQ, ADT, and WIT in the third-grade experiment) significant variance is due to differences between teachers. There are also some significant differences due to the pupils' sex (girls perform better than boys) on some tests (ADT in kindergarten, SDTB and SLIT in third grade). The variance due to differences between teachers (or perhaps rather to the different circumstances under which individual teachers conducted their experiments) are



TABLE 3
Kindergarten Experiment: Mean Scores for

All Variables by Treatment

		ment A 25)		ment B		ment C
Variables	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D
Independent						
Reading scores	58.58	13.27	60.55	11.34	63.47	13.08 NS
Attitude scores	5.81	1.72	5.74	1.37	5.78	1.15 NS
Average attendance	14.25	1.57	13.71	1.46	15.32	2.71 NS
Dependent						
NWSST ^a	25.54	6.82	26.63	6.07	25.57	8.67
NWSST ₁	12.23	2.55	12.31	2.62	11.42	3.66
SDTC	5.54	2.67	5.00	2.45	4.95	2.44
s/nsq	1.46	0.65	1.04	0.67	1.48	0.51
ADT	12.67	3.80	11.65	4.86	11.05	4.65
SLIT	6.96	2.90	6.32	3.07	6.52	2.59

On norms published for the NWSST, the fiftieth-percentile score for the age group 4 years 6 months to 4 years 11 months is 23.4; for 5 years to 5 years 5 months, it is 29.8. Norms were based on samples from children coming from "middle income and upper middle income communities and from homes where standard American dialect was spoken" (Northwestern Syntax Screening Test, 1969, Manual, p. 3).

of course difficult to interpret. The slightly better performance of girls in the areas of reading and language arts follows a pattern that appears in many experimental results.

Evidence of significant differences in the effects of different treatments, and hence support for hypotheses 1 and 2, is practically absent. In the kindergarten experiment, differences in scores on the S/NSQ are significant, but only at the 0.10 level, with Treatment B having the lowest score. Perhaps the exposure to pattern practice in



TABLE 4
Third-Grade Experiment: Mean Scores for

All Variables by Treatment

	Treati (N =	ment A		ment B	Treat: _(N =	ment C
Variables	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Independent						
Reading scores	46.26	17.75	46.03	13.92	44.45	16.04 NS
Attitude scores	14.63	3.06	14.12	3.43	14.35	2.84 NS
Average attendance	15.88	3.37	15.80	2.26	16.54	2.84 NS
Dependent						
NWSST ^a	32.67	4.51	35.00	3.28	32.21	6.56
NWSST ₁	14.08	2.06	15.17	1.40	14.13	3.02
SDTA	5.56	1.47	5.10	1.66	4.05	2.16
SDTB	9.72	2.59	9.32	2.44	8.39	3.07
WSDT	16.30	3.05	9.72	2.62	9.58	2.92
S/NSQ	1.37	0.50	1.37	0.58	1.44	0.51
ADT	14.96	3.30	15.25	4.21	15.13	4.38
WIT	8.26	1.71	8.60	1.04	8.59	1.26

^aOn norms published for the NWSST, the fiftieth-percentile score for age 7 years to 7 years 5 months is 36.9; for 7 years 6 months to 7 years 11 months, it is 36.7 (see footnote to Table 3 above).

standard English in the classroom left the pupils confused about what kind of language is appropriate in response to any kind of stimulus (standard or nonstandard) within the school environment. In the third-grade experiment, the treatment effects on the SDTA come closest to significance, but the F-ratio shown (2.03) still falls below the value needed for even the 0.1 level (2.40). Thus there is no substantial evidence to support either Hypothesis 1 or Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that treatments A and B would interact differentially with scores on attitude toward nonstandard Black English, with



Treatment A favoring pupils with more favorable attitudes toward nonstandard Black English and Treatment B favoring those with less favorable attitudes. It also predicted that this treatment-attitude interaction would be most pronounced on the production task (NWSST, NWSST₁).

In order to test Hypothesis 3, correlations of criterion test scores with attitute scores were computed for each of the three treatment groups (Table 5). The correlations of NWSST and NWSST₁ with attitude scores within the third-grade group do, indeed, indicate that the predicted

TABLE 5

Correlations of Criterion Tests with Attitude Scores by Treatment

Experiment and test	Treatment A	Treatment B	Treatment (
Kindergarten experiment			
NWSST	0.18	0.40*	-0.02
NWSST ₁	0.31	0.35	-0.06
SDTC	0.04	0.05	-0.43*
s/nsq	0.04	-0.06	-0.33
ADT	0.08	0.25	-0.33
SLIT	0.14	0.75**	0.19
Third-grade experiment			
NWSST	0.35*	-0.33	-0.14
NWSST ₁	0.26	-0.46 *	-0.09
SDTA	-0.07	-0.20	-0.79 **
SDTB	0.15	0.11	-0.46 *
WSDT	-0.38 *	0.06	-0.24
s/nsq	0.18	-0.12	0.42*
ADT	-0.06	0.07	-0.50 **
WIT	-0.34*	0.17	-0.25
SLIT	-0.03	0.43*	-0.25

 $[*]_p < .05$



 $^{**}_{p} < .01$

treatment-attitude interaction may have occurred: they are positive under Treatment A (0.35, p < .05; 0.26) and negative under Treatment B (-0.33; -0.46, p < .05). As a further check on the hypothesis, the analysis model discussed and elaborated by Cronbach and Snow (1969) for interaction between attitude and treatment was applied to test the significance of the hypothesized interaction (see Table 6 and Figure 1). The test for the significance of the non-parallelism of the lines of regression for the correlations of NWSST and NWSST $_1$ with attitude under Treatment A and Treatment B barely missed the 0.05 level of significance, but was significant at the 0.1 level. In other words, there is some evidence that the use of nonstandard Black English did indeed have a positive effect on the learning of standard English with children who had favorable attitudes toward nonstandard English; by the same token, drill in standard English without overt contrast with nonstandard Black English favored pupils who had less favorable attitudes toward nonstandard English.

Item	NWSST	NWSST ₁
Treatment A		
Correlation	Attitude/NWSST = 0.35	Attitude/NWSST ₁ = 0.26
Equation of regression line	y = 24.22 + 0.5388x	y = 11.18 + 0.1856x
Treatment B		
Correlation	Attitude/NWSST = -0.33	Attitude/NWSST ₁ = -0.46
Equation of regression line	y = 39.16 - 0.2354x	y = 17.99 - 0.1879x
Test for parallelism of regression		
F-ratio	3.69*	3.70 *
D.F.	1.31	1.31

 $[*]_p < .10$



17

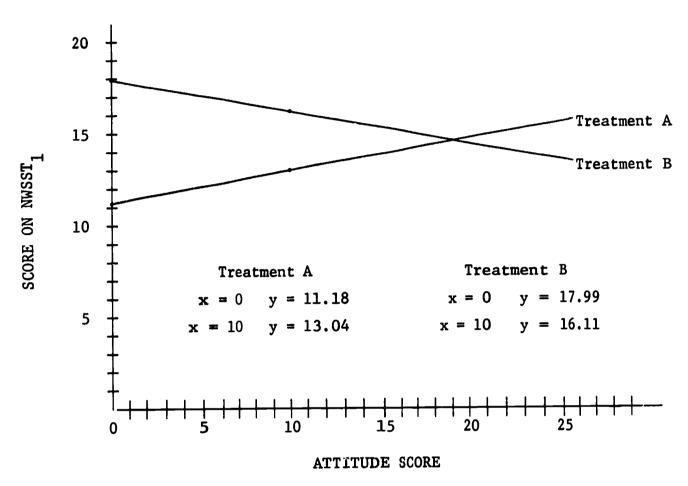


Fig. 1. Treatment-attitude interaction: Treatments A and B, on ${\tt NWSST}_1$.

Discussion

The overall results of the experiment seem to confirm the recent statement of Plumer (1971) about "the failure of pattern practice drills." Plumer bases his comments on the negative results of various experiments, chiefly that of San-Su C. Lin (Lin, 1965), which failed to show that pattern practice could decisively improve the production of standard dialect for college students speaking a nonstandard dialect. Of course, the results of the present experiment apply only to the age group with which the experiment was conducted. Pattern practice may be more effective with older subjects.

It is also possible that the experiment was simply too short in duration for pattern practice to have any marked effect. In addition, there may be other reasons why pattern practice did not outdo the more relaxed,



informal teaching of Treatment C. The greater efficiency of pattern practice in exposing pupils to specific standard speech patterns may have been offset by the effects of regimentation and repetition that can accompany the pattern practice approach. At least one of the teachers conducting the experiment referred to the groups receiving Treatment B as "behaviorally the most difficult to handle." The same teacher refers to the Treatment C group as "enjoyable from the teacher's viewpoint. Without a demanding outline to follow, I was able to give the children opportunity for free expression." Another teacher said about the Treatment C group, "This group shared freedom of expression, found a respect in the use of language, and developed trust in each other whether speaker or listener."

The interaction effects between treatment and attitude shown at the third-grade level underline the great importance of attitude factors in an area of education that has been dominated by discussions of aptitude and methods. The importance of pupils' attitudes not only is shown by statistics but was evidently also felt by some of the teachers conducting the experiment. One teacher said of the Treatment B group that the children "felt that they were getting the right answers, school answers."

Another teacher said that Treatment B "seemed to depend on external teacher reward," and that she could never decide whether lack of response from individual students was due to "auditory discrimination or the rejection of standard speech." These comments seem to corroborate the conclusion that Treatment B was indeed more suitable for the child who accepted standard English ("School talk") and school values more readily, and less suitable for the ones who valued nonstandard Black English.

Two main conclusions, then, may be drawn from the experiment. First, there is no evidence that on the primary-school level, language drills of the pattern practice type are more effective than more informal exposure. Second, language drills dealing exclusively with standard English without reference to nonstandard Black English appear to be more effective with pupils who value standard speech more highly than nonstandard speech, while the overt contrast of nonstandard with standard speech is more effective with pupils who value nonstandard speech.



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APPENDIXES



APPENDIX A: TEACHING GUIDES FOR EXPERIMENTAL TREATMENTS

Guide for Phase 1

I. Concept of "School talk" vs. "Everyday talk"

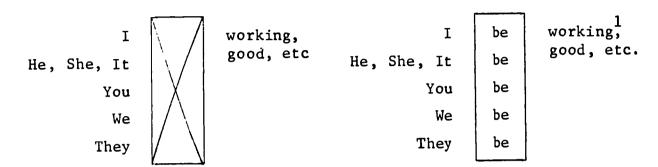
Establish the concept that there are different ways of talking that are appropriate for different occasions. Take examples of appropriateness that are not related to speech. For each of the following occasions different kinds of dress are appropriate: going to church, applying for a job, going to school, playing baseball. If we applied for a job dressed in a gym suit, we would be doing something inappropriate. There are also different ways of talking that are appropriate for different occasions. We talk differently according to where we are and whom we are talking to. The minister in church and the teacher in school talk differently from the way we talk in everyday situations. When we are in church or in school and talk to the minister or to the teacher we also talk differently from the way we talk on other occasions. We don't talk to the teacher or the minister in the same way we talk to our playmates. If we talk to the teacher or to the minister as we talk to our playmates, we would be talking inappropriately. Talking in school to the teacher the way we talk everyday is just like wearing gym suits when applying for a job. It is inappropriate. One thing we learn in school is to talk in a way that is appropriate for specific occasions. Some occasions, like talking to a teacher in school or applying for a job, are formal. In school we learn how to talk on these formal occasions. The kind of language used in the formal occasion is called "School talk." The kind of language we can use when talking to playmates or in other informal situations is not formal. It is called "Everyday talk."

- II. Basic Problem (for Week 1): The use of am, are, is.
 - A. Standard English uses the following forms of be in the present tense:

	I	am
Не,	She, It	is
	You	are
	We	are
	They	are

B. Nonstandard Black English in its pure and basic form can express a distinction that standard English does not express. The deletion of be corresponds approximately to standard English usage. The use of be indicates a "recurrent" or "habitual" situation.





Thus Black English does not differentiate in the verb forms the distinctions that are already indicated by the subject: It makes no difference between singular and plural of the third person (is/are of standard English) nor does it distinguish the first person singular from the other singular forms (am/is/are in standard English).

C. Hypercorrection

Since is and am do not exist in pure Black English, some speakers of Black English may use these words inappropriately when they attempt to speak standard English. Is is often enough substituted for am or are (They is working, I is working) to have become part of the Black dialect.

III. Suggestions for Treatment A (Pattern practice plus overt contrast of standard English with nonstandard Black English)

Remember that in Treatment A the main behavior to be rewarded is any response which indicates that the pupil knows the difference between standard and nonstandard. For example, in an exercise that requires the pupil to respond to nonstandard cues in nonstandard and to standard cues in standard, the appropriateness of the response (which is not necessarily the response in standard English) is the goal of the exercise.

A. Use pictures, perhaps from a magazine. Ask a pupil to describe them. Help with the description. The purpose is to elicit and to model sentences such as:

She a girl. She Black. She pretty. He a man. He tall. He working hard. He running.

B. Point out that these ways of talking are appropriate for Everyday talk. In School talk we have to say:

She is a girl. She is Black. She is pretty. He is a man. He is tall. He is working hard. He is running.

C. Go over the description again. Ask one pupil to describe a picture in Everyday talk and ask another pupil to put the sentence into School talk.

Pupil A: She pretty. Pupil B: She is pretty. Pupil A: She Black. Pupil B: She is Black.



Note that <u>He be working</u> really corresponds to <u>He works</u> rather than to <u>He is working</u>.

Ask pupils to make up sentences of the type She is a pupil or She is pretty. Ask them to say the sentences first in Everyday talk then in School talk. Ask pupils to describe other pupils in the class using the pattern He (She) is. After each sentence ask the class whether the sentence was said in School talk or in Everyday talk.

D. Introduce you are/I am by asking questions; e.g., Are you a pupil? Pupil: Yes, I am a pupil. If the answer is I pupil point out that this is Everyday talk. Note that the question in Everyday talk would be You pupil? You can arrange a game: If you asked the question in Everyday talk the pupil must answer in Everyday talk; if you asked in School talk the pupil must answer in School talk.

You Black? Yes I Black.
Are you Black? Yes I am Black.
Are you smart? Yes I am smart.
Are you a boy? Yes I am a boy.
You tall? Yes I tall.

E. Introduce we are by questions.

Are we in school? Pupil: Yes we are in school.

Are we learning School talk? Pupil: Yes we are learning School talk.

Point out the difference between Everyday talk (We in school) and School talk (We are in school). Elicit Everyday talk by questions in Everyday talk and School talk by questions in School talk. Continue to use techniques of "translation" from Everyday talk and School talk--especially if the pupil uses Everyday talk.

Pupil: We in school now? Teacher: That's fine, but it's Everyday talk. How would we say it in School talk? We are in school right now. Now let's repeat both the Everyday talk and the School talk. Everyday talk first. We in school right now. School talk: We are in school right now.

F. Introduce they are.

E.g., what are the other pupils in the class doing right now? They are also learning School talk aren't they? Where are they? They are with Mrs. Tell me some of the other things they are doing. They are reading stories, etc. What are your parents doing at the moment? Your daddies are working. What are your mommies doing? Some of them have jcbs. They are also working. Some of them are at home. Perhaps they are working in the yard. They are all very busy.

Ask questions that elicit the above type of answers ($\frac{\text{They are}}{\text{patterns}}$). Use the same technique as in D, E, F above and contrast Everyday talk and School talk.

G. Contrast I am, you are, he is, they are.



This can best be done by a mechanical kind of drill in which you ask the children to change a sentence when you start the sentence with a different word. For example:

Teacher: I am using School talk.

Teacher: You . . . Pupil(s): You are using School talk.

He is using School talk.

They . . . They are using School talk.

If pupils give responses in nonstandard (e.g., <u>He talking</u>, or <u>They is talking</u>), provide the standard response or have other pupils provide it. Then ask the class to repeat both the nonstandard and the standard (<u>He talking</u>, <u>He is talking</u>) and ask the pupils again to identify standard and nonstandard.

H. After the use of \underline{I} am, \underline{h} e is, \underline{y} ou are, etc., has been presented, contrast the forms of standard English with the Black nonstandard \underline{b} e.

The description of a recurrent situation is the best way of introducing the current use of Black English be. E.g., What happens (always, regularly) when the bell rings? What do the pupils do? They be noisy. They be getting up. How do we always feel by the time school is over? We be tired. We be hungry. We be glad to get home. What do we always do in church during the service? We be praying. We be listening to the sermon, etc.

In each of these situations, elicit and/or model the nonstandard form. Then point out the standard English that corresponds to it. Ask pupils to repeat both the nonstandard and the standard.

Ask pupils to tell you what they usually do. Whenever they use nonstandard \underline{be} , ask the class for the standard equivalent.

IV. Suggestions for Treatment B

This treatment can follow essentially the same steps as Treatment A, but it omits the overt contrast of nonstandard and standard English.

Behavior to be rewarded is the use of standard English. Nonstandard responses should not be "punished" but simply not reinforced. In other words, whenever a nonstandard response occurs you can simply say that "we say this differently in School talk."

- A. Use a description of a picture just as in Treatment A. Describe the picture. Have pupil repeat the description after you. E.g., This is a girl. She is Black. She is pretty, etc. Ask questions about the picture: Who is this? Describe the girl for me. Is she pretty? etc.
- B. Introduce you are, I am in conversation exercises.

Are you a pupil? Yes, I am a pupil. Are you tall? Yes, I am tall.

C. Introduce we are.

Are we in school? Yes, we are in school. What are we doing? I am playing. We are reading.



D. Introduce they are.

What are the other pupils in this class doing? They are reading. Are we doing the same thing? No we are talking.

- E. Use the same pattern drill as in Treatment A to contrast I am, you are, he (she, it) is, they are.
- F. Use the discussion of a recurrent situation to drill pupils in the use of inflected forms (as opposed to the Black English be). Since in this particular treatment the be forms are not to be elicited, you can describe recurrent situations to the pupils and ask them to repeat. Ask questions about the situation. Tell a story:

What usually happens when I get home from school, and how do I feel? I am pretty tired. I am hungry. I fix something to eat. While the food is in the oven, I watch television.

Then ask questions:

Question: How do I feel when I get home? Answer: You are tired. You are hungry.

Guide for Phase 2

- I. Basic Problem: The use of the third person singular (present tense).
 - A. In standard English (as in standard Black English) the third person singular of the main verb is marked by an ending (-s, -es). In nonstandard Black English the third person singular of the verb is not marked.

Standard English	Nonstandard Black English
He <u>is</u> sick	He sick He <u>be</u> sick
He has money	He have (or got) money
He does his work	He <u>do</u> his work
He says so	He say so
He <u>learns</u> fast	He <u>learn</u> fast

B. Hypercorrection

Speakers of nonstandard Black English may sense that at times they use a form which is not marked by -s when standard English (including standard Black English) requires it. In an attempt to speak standard English they may, therefore, introduce forms with -s into the first or second person: I says, I does, I is, I learns, etc. The main goal must thus be to have the pupil realize that in standard English the rarked forms are used only with singular noun subjects and third person singular pronoun subjects (and that the forms marked with -s are simply absent in nonstandard Black English).



- II. Treatment A (Overt contrast of standard English with nonstandard Black English)
 - A. Elicit speech likely to contain the third person singular. A good way of doing this is to make up stories or ask questions about what a person does in a recurrent or habitual situation.

What does the principal do every morning when he gets to school? Possible answers: He arrives in his car. He parks his car. He goes to the office. He opens the door with a key. He sits down in his chair. He talks to the teachers. Often he talks to parents, etc.

What does your daddy do? What kind of job does he have? Possible answers: He teaches school. He works in a bank. He drives a truck. He works in a factory. He sells cars, etc.

What does your mommy do every morning? She fixes breakfast. She gets us ready for school, etc.

In these exercises some children will most likely respond with the unmarked nonstandard forms: My daddy work in a store; My mommy she get us ready to go to school, etc. If such responses occur, point out that the use of these forms without -s is Everyday talk and compare the Everyday talk with School talk. Ask children to repeat both the Everyday talk and the School talk forms: My daddy (he) work in a store. My daddy works in a store.

B. Repeat the exercise mentioned in A, but this time ask the pupils to tell the entire story first in Everyday talk then ask them to retell it in School talk. Ask a pupil to tell what someone (his father, his mother, his brother, the mailman, the doctor, etc.) does on certain occasions. Ask the child to tell the story first in Everyday talk, then ask the same child or another child to tell the same story in School talk.

Everyday talk: The mailman (he) come everyday. He bring the letters. He drop the letters in our mail box. School talk: The mailman comes every day. He brings the letters.

C. Make statements or ask a pupil to make statements in either Everyday talk or School talk. Ask the other pupils to identify which is being used. After they do this, ask them to repeat and turn Everyday talk into School talk, or vice versa:

Pupil: The principal (he) know everything.

Children: Everyday talk.

Teacher: What would it be in School talk?
Children: The principal knows everything.
Teacher: The principal talks to many parents.

Children: The principal talks to many parents. School talk.

Teacher: What would it be in Everyday talk?

Children: The principal (he) talk to many parents.



- D. Practice the forms does, has, says.
 - 1. Ask questions about an activity:

What <u>does</u>...do? Who <u>does</u> the cooking at home? Mommy <u>does</u> the cooking. Who <u>does</u> all the work? Mommy <u>does</u> all the work. <u>Does</u> your brother go to school? Yes he <u>does</u>. <u>Does</u> the mailman bring the mail? Yes he <u>does</u>.

If children respond with do, explain that he do is used in Everyday talk but that he does is used in School talk. Ask children to repeat sentences you model and to tell you whether they are in School talk or Everyday talk. Ask them again to turn School talk into Everyday talk and vice versa.

Ask children to ask questions about somebody to elicit the pattern What $\underline{\text{does}}$ ($\underline{\text{do}}$)? This can be done by arranging a game like "I am thinking of . . ." The children ask what the person you are thinking of does.

Does he live in California?
Does he speak English?
Does he come to school everyday?

The game can be used in several ways; e.g., ask children whether they asked the question in Everyday talk or School talk, or ask the children to play the game in Everyday talk and then in School talk.

2. The use of says can be introduced by asking questions such as:

What does the teacher <u>say</u> when she enters the class? She <u>says</u> good morning.
What does this word <u>say</u>? (A word is spelled on the board.)
It <u>says</u> "nice."
What does the cow <u>say</u>? She <u>says</u> moo.

What does the dog <u>say?</u> The dog <u>says</u> bow wow.

A game like "Simon Says" can also be utilized to practice <u>he</u>

A game like "Simon Says" can also be utilized to practice he says. Again contrast Everyday talk he say with School talk he says. Make up sentences in School talk or Everyday talk. Have children identify them and have them turn Everyday talk into School talk and vice versa. Play the game "Simon Says" either in Everyday talk or in School talk. Play a game in which the children must answer a question asked in Everyday talk in Everyday talk and a School talk question in School talk:

What do the cow say? She say moo. What does the dog say? He says bow wow.

3. Practice the contrast <u>has/have</u> by asking questions, perhaps about a person or a picture.

Does . . . <u>have</u> a white shirt on? Yes he <u>has</u>.

Does . . . <u>have</u> a blue pencil? Yes he <u>has</u>.

How many brothers does . . . <u>have</u>? He <u>has</u> two.

How many sisters? He has one.



If the response <u>have</u> occurs, note that <u>he have</u> is Everyday talk. School talk is <u>he has</u>. (Some children may use <u>got</u> instead of <u>has</u>. Note that this too is Everyday talk.) Arrange again to have children respond to Everyday talk in Everyday talk and to School talk in School talk.

Do Charles have a sister? Yes he <u>have</u> a sister.

Does Charles have a brother? Yes he <u>has</u> a brother.

E. 1. Stress that the forms with -s (thinks, laughs, etc.) and also has, does, says occur only with the subjects he, she, it, or single things or persons that can be talked about as either he, she, or it.

Have the children repeat after you:

Mommy prepares the meal. She prepares the meal.

Daddy works in a store. He works in a store.

The picture looks beautiful. It looks beautiful.

Arrange a pattern drill of the following type:

Cue: The principal talks to many people. Doesn't he?

Answer: Yes he talks to many people.

Cue: Your daddy does a lot of work? Doesn't he?

Answer: Yes he does a lot of work.

Cue: The rooster says cockadoodle do. Doesn't he?

Answer: Yes he says cockadoodle do.

Cue: X has a lot of friends, doesn't he?

Answer: Yes he has.

Cue: Does the book have lots of nice pictures in it?

Answer: Yes it has.

2. Practice a pattern drill in which the children must change the verb to the -s form whenever you suggest he, she, it, or a noun replaceable by he, she, it as the subject of the sentence. For example:

Teacher

Children

We play in school.

You They

The children

She

All the boys

Mary

We play in school. You play in school. They play in school.

The children play in school.

She plays in school.

All the boys play in school.

Mary plays in school.

or

Charles works very fast.

He

Charles and Robert

That medicine

Ιt

Charles works very fast. He works very fast.

Charles and Robert work very fast. That medicine works very fast.

It works very fast.



- III. Treatment B (No overt contrast of standard and nonstandard)
 - For steps A, B, and D use the same procedures as Treatment A without the exercises in which standard and nonstandard are overtly contrasted.
 - A. Use a story about a person's recurrent or habitual activities. When Everyday talk occurs simply note it as such, but insist that the purpose of the exercise is to practice School talk. Don't ask for children's responses in Everyday talk. Remember that in this treatment you need not introduce material by eliciting responses from the children. You can introduce it yourself by telling a story and modeling it in School talk, e.g., "I will tell you a story about a man. Repeat after me. At the end of the story, you tell me who you think he is. He works in our school. He arrives here every day at eight o'clock, etc." Ask children to tell similar stories in School talk.
 - B. Ask for stories of recurrent activities in School talk (e.g., What does your mommy do? What does your brother do? etc.).
 - C. (Skip step C, since it deals entirely with Everday talk/School talk contrasts.)
 - D. 1. Begin by telling a story in order to model the form does.
 - E.g., In this school lots of people do a lot of work. X <u>does</u> the typing in the principal's office. The principal <u>does</u> the supervising. Who <u>does</u> the gardening? The gardener <u>does</u> the gardening. Who <u>does</u> the cleaning? X <u>does</u> the cleaning. What does X do? He does the driving doesn't he? etc.
 - After modeling the use of <u>does</u>, use basically the same technique as the Treatment A without utilizing the Everyday talk cues or responses.
 - 2. Model the use of says in sentences of the type used in Treatment A. Have children repeat after you.
 - Play the game "Simon Says" (but in School talk only).
 - Ask questions or have pupils ask questions about what different animals say, what different letters "say."
 - 3. Model the use of has by describing a person or a picture. Ask questions of the type "Does he have . . " to elicit answers of the type "Yes he has . . . "
 - E. Note that Step E in Treatment B is exactly the same as in Treatment A, since Step E does not deal with genuine nonstandard Black English/standard Black English contrast, but is designed to teach avoidance of hypercorrections.



Guide for Phase 3

- I. Basic Problems: The use of the -s ending in the possessive form; the use of the -ed ending in the past tense; and the most frequent patterns of negation.
 - A. In standard English (including standard Black English) the <u>possessive</u> <u>case</u> of the noun is marked by the <u>-s</u> ending: Bonnie's pencil, Charlie's aunt. In nonstandard Black English the possessive is not marked and is expressed by simple juxtaposition: Bonnie pencil, Charlie aunt.
 - B. In standard English the regular past tense is formed by adding the ending -ed to the stem (-ed is pronounced t after unvoiced consonants as in passed, d after voiced consonants as in robbed, and -əd after t or d as in added). In nonstandard English t and d are deleted after many consonants and consonant clusters. The result is that in spoken Black English many past tense forms are identical with the stem (present), e.g., passed is pronounced pass, worked is pronounced work.

(In addition there are many differences between standard and non-standard Black English in irregular past tense formation. Quite typically the past participle of standard English is used as the past tense, e.g., They drunk the beer. These features of Black English will not be taken up in the lesson, however.)

- C. The negative transformation.
 - 1. Standard English.
 - a. The negative transformation consists of putting the negative <u>not</u> after the auxiliary verb.

I can speak English. -----> I can not speak English.

b. If the sentence that is to be made negative does not contain an auxiliary verb, the auxiliary do must be used in the negative sentence.

I speak English. ----> I do not speak English.

- c. The negative transformation cannot be applied to sentences that already contain a negative.
- 2. Nonstandard Black English.
 - a. The negative transformation is performed as in standard English by putting <u>not</u> (or a reduced form of <u>not</u>) after an auxiliary.
 - b. The negative form of the verb <u>be</u> is <u>ain't</u> (an archaic form that nonstandard Black English shares with many other nonstandard English dialects). <u>Ain't</u> is often used as negation rather than the <u>do not</u> of standard, e.g., <u>I ain't care</u>. Since generally speaking the third person singular is unmarked, <u>don't</u> is used quite regularly in the third person (rather than standard <u>doesn't</u>).



c. The negative transformation can be applied to sentences that already contain one or several negatives.

The general negation rule of standard English is that there can be only one negative attached to the first indefinite element in the sentence. Nonstandard Black English attaches the negative to all indefinite elements of the sentence, e.g., standard English: Nobody will do anything for anybody. Nonstandard Black English: Nobody won't do nothing for nobody.

- II. Treatment A (Overt contrast of standard English with nonstandard Black English)
 - The possessive forms can be elicited by questions like: Whose pencil is this? Whose notebook is this? If the children answer This is Mary pencil, This is John notebook, point out that this is Everyday talk, that School talk is Mary's pencil, John's notebook.

Ask the children to reply to questions like Whose . . . is this?-first in Everyday talk, then in School talk. Ask individual children to decide themselves whether they want to reply in Everyday talk or School talk and then ask another child or the class to tell you whether the reply was Everyday talk or School talk.

В. The past tense formation can be practiced by making up a story in the general present (habitual action) and then turning it into the past.

E.g., What do I usually do after dinner? I wash my hands, I walk to the kitchen, I help my mommy. I pick up my things. I stack the dishes. I watch television. I talk to my brothers and sisters.

Note that the story should contain as many regular verbs--verbs with -ed past tenses--as possible. Then ask children to retell the story as something that happened yesterday, e.g., Yesterday-as usual--I washed my hands, I helped in the kitchen, etc. If the forms without -ed are used, point out that in School talk we must use the $-\underline{ed}$ $(\underline{d}, \underline{t}, \underline{\partial d})$ at the end of the word to indicate that something happened in the past. In Everyday talk the t, d are often absent.

Use a pattern drill in which you ask the children to change actions from general present into the past. Cue past with expressions like yesterday, last month. You can ask children to give the past forms first in Everyday talk and then in School talk. For example:

Teacher: I work hard. Yesterday . . . (Everyday talk)

Children: Yesterday I work hard.

Teacher: (School talk)
Children: Yesterday I worked hard.

Teacher: I help my mommy. Yesterday . . . (Everyday talk)

Children: Yesterday I help my mommy.

Teacher: (School talk)

Children: Yesterday I helped my mommy.



Introduce the use of am not, are not, isn't. C. 1. Ask questions that will lead to negative answers:

> Is our principal at home? No he isn't. No it isn't. Is it winter now? No I am not. Are you home now? No I am not. Are you playing now? No I am not. Are you reading now? No they are not. Are your brothers at home now? Are all the teachers on vacation

> No they are not. now?

If the form ain't is used, point out that this is not School talk. Ask more questions of the above type. Use again the technique of asking children to answer first in Everyday talk then in School talk. Ask individual children to make up their minds to answer either in Everyday or School talk. Then ask other children to identify the answer as either Everyday talk or School talk and to turn Everyday talk into School talk (or vice versa).

Use questions requiring negative replies with do not, does not: 2.

> Do we speak French? No we do not speak French. Do we work a lot in school? No we don't. Do you understand Spanish? No I do not. Does X understand Spanish? Yes he does. But does Y understand Spanish? No he doesn't.

Replies with <u>ain't</u> + verb may not occur. If they don't, there is of course no need to elicit them. The main nonstandard use will probably be the use of don't instead of does not. Whenever nonstandard replies occur, point them out as Everyday talk. Model the reply in School talk and ask the children to repeat both the Everyday talk and the School talk reply. For example:

Teacher: Does X speak Spanish? Everyday talk.

Children: No he don't. Teacher: School talk. Children: No he doesn't.

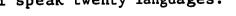
Practice general negation pattern. 3.

> E.g., organize a game in which pupils make statements about themselves. Some statements are true, others may be false. Other pupils contradict if they think the statement is false. You can start the game by being the first person making the statement about herself:

Teacher:

Pupil:

Yes you are a teacher. I am a teacher. No you aren't a hundred years I am a hundred years old. old. No you don't speak twenty I speak twenty languages.



languages.



I know everything.
I can read and write.
I can run 100 yards in 5 seconds.

No you don't know everything. Yes you can read and write. No you can't run 100 yards in 5 seconds.

Negative patterns can also be practiced in a game in which pupils simply repeat true statements but turn statements which are false into the negative.

Teacher:

Everybody has a mommy. Everybody lives two hundred years.

Everybody has a billion dollars. We work 15 hours every day.

We work all day and all night.
We sleep during the day and we work at night.
We eat breakfast in the morning.
We eat dinner in the morning.

Pupils:

Yes everybody has a mommy.
Nobody lives two hundred years.
(Everybody does not live two hundred years.)
Nobody has a billion dollars.

We don't work 15 hours every day.
We don't work all day and all night.
We don't sleep during the day and we don't work at night.
Yes we eat breakfast in the morning.
No we don't eat dinner in the morning.

In the above pattern drill, nonstandard negatives will most likely be used by some children. Point out that they are Everyday talk, not School talk. In order to contrast Everyday talk and School talk you can use the technique of playing the above game first in Everyday talk then in School talk. Or you can ask children to identify Everyday talk replies and to turn them into School talk (and vice versa).

III. Treatment B (No overt contrast of standard and nonstandard)

In all exercises the same type of drills which are used in Treatment A can be utilized without the contrasts of standard and nonstandard.

- A. Elicit use of the possessive with questions: Whose . . . is this?

 To whom does . . . belong? Simply practice in School talk and point out that forms without -s are not School talk.
- B. Practice putting a story into the past. Ask children to turn sentences from general present to the past upon cues like <u>yesterday</u>, <u>last month</u>, etc.
- C. 1. Elicit am not, is not, are not with questions. Model standard answers first.
 - 2. Elicit do not, does not with questions. Model standard answers.
 - 3. Elicit negative answers with the same games suggested for Treatment A. Model standard replies. Simply label nonstandard as



Everyday talk. If Everyday talk replies occur, simply model the standard English reply and ask for repetition by the class and then by individuals.



G. Contrast I am, you are, he is, they are.

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APPENDIX B: ATTITUDE MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT

Each of five speakers spoke one standard (S) and one nonstandard (NS) item. Phonetic transcription is used for the presentation of words containing critical features of nonstandard Black dialect.

- S 1. John left for the meeting some time ago, but I think I'll wait until I really know what time it starts.
- NS 2. Look [a ma] go to the [sto] an' get [tiz čail] some clothes. Why [ont ču] make that call for me while [am] gone?
- S 3. Reverend Jones is a Methodist minister who lives in our community and helps people when they are in trouble. His church is on Frontage Road at number 754.
- NS 4. [šo] is [kol] today. [næə] one of the cars would [im] start.
- S 5. Guess what! I was going to the store yesterday when I saw John Smith's son. You won't believe this, but that child has lost ten pounds at least.
- NS 6. The people [neks do] took [de] drivin' [tesez sæ orde]. They [ækst] me to go [wif əm] an' since I [wədən] doin' [nʌfɪn], I went. [de 0od də tesez] away when [e] finished.
- S 7. It sure is a shame that none of the people I wanted to see at the festival are singing Friday night. They're all singing Saturday.
- NS 8. [də denəs heps] people whose [tif] hurt. His office is in the shoppin' [senə] and his telephone [nəmbə] is [fo far sem], two thousand.
- S 9. I wasn't pleased with the tests we took Saturday. They were much too long. So just ask John to throw them away with their answer sheets, and we'll take some more tomorrow.
- NS 10. John been went to [də] meetin'. I ain't goin' till you find out what time it really starts.

APPENDIX C: CRITERION INSTRUMENTS

SDTA*: Auditory Discrimination Test A

- 1. a. It sure is cold today. (S)
 - b. [šo] is cold today. (NS)
- 2. a. The [nəmbə] is [fo fai sɛbm], [əlɛbm] hundred. (NS)
 - b. The number is four five seven, eleven hundred. (S)
- 3. a. Do your [tif] hurt [wif] the braces on? (NS)
 - b. Do your teeth hurt with the braces on? (S)
- 4. a. Did they take their driving tests? (S)
 - b. Did they take they drivin' [tesəz]? (NS)
- 5. a. [næə wən əvəm] came to the meetin' [sæ 'ərde]. (NS)
 - b. Not one of them came to the meeting Saturday. (S)
- 6. a. We're through with these extra papers so throw them away. (S)
 - b. We [θu wit] these extra papers so [θοθm] away. (NS)
- 7. a. The door to the grocery store had posters on it. (S)
 - b. The [do] to the grocery [sto] had posters on it. (NS)
- 8. a. They [ækst] me to go. (NS)
 - b. They asked me to go. (S)
- 9. a. The [dɛnəs wənə] go to the shoppin' [sɛnə]. (NS)
 - b. The dentist wants to go to the shopping center. (S)
- 10. a. Help yourself to some coffee and doughnuts. (S)
 - b. [hep yasef] to some coffee and doughnuts. (NS)

SDTB: Auditory Discrimination Test B

- 1. a. I spent about ten dollars. (S)
 - b. I spent around about ten dollars. (NS)
- 2. a. Too bad we can't have nothing. (NS)
 - b. Too bad we can't have anything. (S)
- 3. a. John might could do it. (NS)
 - b. John might do it. (S)
- 4. a. He walks fast and talks a lot. (S)
 - b. He walk fast and talk a lot. (NS)
- 5. a. Don't this suppose to be in the box? (NS)
 - b. Isn't this supposed to be in the box? (S)



^{*}Phonetic transcription is used for the presentation of words containing critical features of nonstandard Black dialect.

- 6. a. My uncle Jack works all the time. (S)
 b. My uncle Jack he be working all the time. (NS)
 7. a. I dranked it all up before she came. (NS)
- b. I drank it all up before she came. (S)
- 8. a. Bonnie's pencil is on the teacher's desk. (S) b. Bonnie pencil on the teacher desk. (NS)
- 9. a. My brother he went to the store. (NS)b. My brother went to the store. (S)
- a. Why did he do that? (S)
 b. Why he do that? (NS)
- 11. a. Some of the women liked it. (S)
 b. Some of the womens liked it. (NS)
- 12. a. I'm going to go home. (S)
 b. Ah mo go home. (NS)
- 13. a. Is this the door to the closet? (S)
 b. Dis here the door to the closet? (NS)
- 14. a. Bobby ain't come yet. (NS)
 b. Bobby hasn't come yet. (S)
- 15. a. He's been gone a long time. (S) b. He been went to the store. (NS)
- 16. a. They teacher went to they house for dinner. (NS) b. Their teacher went to their house for dinner. (S)
- 17. a. Are you going to make that call for me? (S) b. You go make that call for me? (NS)



WSDT: Standard/Nonstandard Written Discrimination Test

are st	of the following sentences are left blank. Two possible completions aggested. One completion is in School talk and the other in Everyday Put S after the completion which is in School talk and E after the etion in Everyday talk. Example: My friend sick. ain't E is not S
	My friend and I, we working hard in school. a. be b. are
	My teacher smart. a. she [] b. is []
	After school we very tired. a. be [] b. are []
	When I get out of school, I very hungry. a. is b. am
	My friend John many friends. a. has b. he have
	After school I my homework. a. does b. do
7.	Do you know what your teacher after school? a. do b. does
8.	My mommy always breakfast in the morning. a. fixes b. fix



9.	The mailman us letters every day.
	a. he bring
	b. brings
10.	My teacher always understands what I $_$.
	a. say
	b. says
11.	We always understand what our teacher
	a. say 🗌
	b. says
12.	Have you found pencil?
	a. your sister
	b. your sister's
13.	Last night we television.
	a. watch 🗌
	b. watched
14.	Sometimes when I get out of school I don't do
	a. anything
	b. nothing
15.	In our class nobody speak French.
	a. cannot [
	b. can

ADT: Auditory Discrimination Test

If the two words said by the teacher are the same, place an X in the first square (the one under Same). If they are different, place an X in the second square (the one under Different).

		Same	Different
1.	helped/help		
2.	bore/bored		
3.	helped/helped		
4.	learns/learn		
5.	doesn't/does		
6.	watch/watch		
7.	Mary's/Mary		
8.	sell/sell		
9.	watches/watch		
10.	plays/play		
11.	George/George		
12.	belongs/belong		
13.	pick/pick		
14.	George/Georges		
15.	watch/watched		
16.	doesn't/doesn't		
17.	pick/picked		
18.	sells/sell		



WIT: Word Identification Test

Circle the word that the teacher says.

Examiner:

1.	watches	1.	watch	wash	watches
2.	George's	2.	George's	George	jar
3.	passed	3.	pas ₆	passed	post
4.	talk	4.	talk	talks	talked
5.	worked	5.	work	wor	worked
6.	eats	6.	eat	heed	eats
7.	John's	7.	John's	John	Joe
8.	says	8.	say	send	says
9.	feel	9.	feels	feel	felt
10.	learn	10.	learns	learn	learned
11.	parked	11.	park	parker	parked
12.	prepares	12.	prepare	prepares	prepared
13.	enter	13.	enter	entered	enters
14.	doesn't	14.	does	dozen	doesn't
15.	added	15.	add	added	at



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SLIT: Sound/Letter Identification Test

The teacher will say a word. Circle the letter that makes the sound that you hear at the end of the word.

Examiner:

1.	helped	1.	ď	t	p
2.	speaks	2.	s	k	t
3.	hit	3.	t	d	h
4.	washes	4.	sh	Z	ch
5.	earned	5.	t	d	n
6.	George's	6.	z	į	g
7.	helps	7.	P	8	1
8.	attempt	8.	d	m	t
9.	spits	9.	t	8	P
10.	blamed	10.	m	1	d



APPENDIX D: ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLES

Table 1
Analysis of Variance, Kindergarten Experiment

Test and source	Sum of squares	D.F.	Mean square	F
NWSST				
Mean	37602.84335	1	37602.83984	686.80542
Teacher	223.21998	2	111.60999	2.03853
Treatment	40.63420	2	20.31709	0.37109
Sex	47.95940	1	47.95940	0.87597
Te ^a x Tr ^b	79.03838	4	19.75958	0.36090
Te x S ^C	63.02100	2	31.51050	0.57553
Tr x S	14.64902	2	7.32451	0.13378
Te x Tr x S	193.23099	4	48.30774	0.88233
Error	2628.01667	48	54.75034	
NWSST ₁				
Mean	8059.29649	1	8059.29297	890.59814
Teacher	1.44262	2	0.72131	0.07971
Treatment	2,47345	2	1.23673	0.13667
Sex	11.58765	1	11.58765	1.28050
Te x Tr	29.09371	4	7.27343	0.80376
Te x S	23.00577	2	11.50288	1.27113
Tr x S	7.00158	2	3.50079	0.38686
Te x Tr x S	32.63508	4	8.15877	0.90159
Error	434.36667	48	9.04930	
SDTC				
Mean	1247.93306	1	1247.93286	253.39787
Teacher	37.46376	2	18.73187	3.80358 *
Treatment	0.66869	2	0.33435	0.06789
Sex	7.23368	1	7.23368	1.46883
Te x Tr	23.43775	4	5.85944	1.18978
Te x S	4.74839	2	2.37419	0.48209
Tr x S	0.12655	2	0.06327	0.01285
Te x Tr x S	31.47522	4	7.86880	1.59779
Error	201.91667	41	4.92480	



Table 1 (continued)

Test and	.	D 57	Moon savere	F
source	Sum of squares	D.F.	Mean square	
s/nsq				
Mean	100.87368	1	100.87367	530.49097
Teacher	1.88178	2	0.94089	4.94811*
Treatment	0.99327	2	0.49663	2.61177†
Sex	0.04829	1	0.04829	0.25394
Te x Tr	0.57864	4	0.14466	0.76076
Te x S	1.05794	2	0.52897	2.78184*
Tr x S	0.58579	2	0.29289	1.54032
Te x Tr x S	0.61440	4	0.15360	0.80778
Error	8.36667	44	0.19015	
ADT				
Von	6561.84738	1	6561.84375	554.42896
Mean	297.15619	2	148.57800	12.55379**
Teacher	4.38587	2	2.19293	0.18529
Treatment	37.33370	ī	37.33369	3.15443 ^{**}
Sex	92.34487	4	23.08621	1.95062
Te x Tr Te x S	61.22022	2	30.61011	2.58634 [†]
Tr x S	29.90265	2	14.95132	1.26328
	69.96912	4	17.49228	1.47797
Te x Tr x S Error	497.08333	42	11.83531	
SLIT				
Vonn	2313.42373	1	2313.42358	364.12769
Mean	71.25167	1 2	35.62582	5.60742 ^k
feacher Treatment	2.33613	2	1.16807	0.18335
·	0.60150	1	0.60150	0.09468
Sex	28.13244	4	7.03311	1.10699
Te x Tr	9.18644	2	4.59322	0.72296
Te x S Tr x S	10.62698	2	5.31349	0.83633
	29.31727	4	7.32932	1.15362
Te x Tr x S Error	285.90000	45	6.35333	

a_{Te} = Teacher



 $b_{Tr} = Treatment$

^cs = Sex

^{*}p < .05

^{**&}lt;sub>p</sub> < .01

 $t_p < .10$

Table 2
Analysis of Variance, Third-Grade Experiment

Test and					
source	Sum of squares	D.F.	Mean square	<u>F</u>	
NWSST					
Mean	75282.35593	1	75282.31250	3045.91772	
Teacher	59.49558	2	29.74779	1.20359	
Treatment	88.24914	2	44.12456	1.78528	
Te ^a x Tr ^b	62.01200	4	15.50300	0.62725	
Error	1532.38056	62	24.71581		
NWSST ₁					
Mean	14268.46147	1	14268.46094	2753.85400	
Teacher	3.50537	2	1.75269	0.33827	
Treatment	17.45783	2	8.72891	1.68470	
Te x Tr	18,65807	4	4.66452	0.90027	
Error	321.23889	62	5.18127		
SDTA					
Mean	1359.16829	1	1359.16821	484.83325	
Teacher	2.40426	2	1.20213	0.42881	
Treatment	11.42246	2	5.71123	2.03727	
Te x Tr	7.54250	4	1.88563	0.67263	
Error	140.16865	50	2.80337		
SDTB					
Mean	4763.96622	1	4763.96484	635.49976	
Teacher	10.43189	2	5.21595	0.69579	
Treatment	15.17268	2	7.58634	1.01200	
Te x Tr	33.53031	4	8.38258	1.11821	
Error	404.80595	54	7.49641		
/ SDT					
Mean	6745.83980	1	6745.83594	817.85962	
Teacher	22.15825	2	11.07912	1.34322	
Treatment	9.59666	2	4.79833	0.58175	
Te x Tr	23.00172	4	5.75043	0.69718	
Error	519.63413	63	8.24816		
S/NSQ					
Mean	131.00693	1	131.00693	548.08765	
Teacher	1.68763	2	0.84382	3.53023	
Treatment	0.03383	2	0.01692	0.07077	
Te x Tr	0.67945	4	0.16986	0.71064	
Error	14.58056	61	0.23903		



Table 2 (continued)

Test and	Cur of commen	D.F.	Mean square	F	
source	Sum of squares	<u> </u>	Mean square		
ADT					
Nean	15627.36825	1	15627.36719	1039.35986	
Teacher	77.44737	2	38.72368	2.57547	
Treatment	1.35075	2	0.67538	0.04492	
Te x Tr	65.89498	4	16.47374	1.09565	
Error	932.20556	62	15.03557		
WIT					
Mean	4957.62214	1	4957.62109	2844.73926	
Teacher	9.45792	2	4.72896	2.71353 [†]	
Treatment	2.03652	2	1.01826	0.58429	
Te x Tr	6.82021	4	1.70505	0.58429	
Error	106.30675	61	1.74273		
SLIT					
Mean	12750.62939	1	12750.62891	3505.11255	
Teacher	3.00508	2	1.50254	0.41305	
Treatment	16.06532	2	8.03266	2.20816	
Te x Tr	9.99308	4	2.49827	0.68677	
Error	225.53889	62	3.63772		

^aTe = Teacher

 $b_{Tr} = Treatment$

^{*}p < .05

[†]p < .10

APPENDIX E

Third-Grade Experiment: Mean Scores by Sex

	Gi: (N =	rls 37)			Significance of difference
Test	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D.	between means
NWSST	33.67	4.79	32.94	5.28	NS
NWSST,	14.61	2.07	14.31	2.48	NS
SDTA	5.33	1.70	1.75	1.60	NS
SDTB	9.85	2.48	8.27	2.82	p < .05
WSDT	9.84	2.91	9.89	2.81	NS
S/NSQ	1.37	0.49	1.46	0.51	NS
ADT	15.56	3.80	14.66	4.07	ns .
WIT	8.49	1.25	8.42	1.46	NS
SLIT .	14.42	0.73	12.91	2.42	p < .01

