

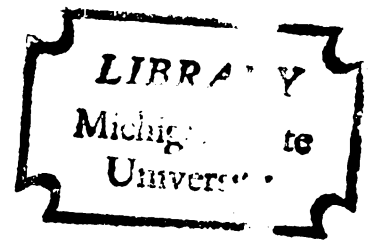
A STUDY OF THE COMPARATIVE INFLUENCE OF LEARNING
WRITING CONVENTIONS UPON THE EXPRESSIVE
LITERACY OF AVERAGE ABILITY BLUE
AND WHITE COLLAR CHILDREN

Thesis for the Degree of Ph.D.

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

M. ROBERT GRAHAM

1971



This is to certify that the

thesis entitled

A STUDY OF THE COMPARATIVE INFLUENCE OF LEARNING
WRITING CONVENTIONS UPON THE EXPRESSIVE
LITERACY OF AVERAGE ABILITY BLUE
AND WHITE COLLAR CHILDREN

presented by

Marben Robert Graham

**has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for**

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ABSTRACT

A STUDY OF THE COMPARATIVE INFLUENCE OF LEARNING WRITING CONVENTIONS UPON THE EXPRESSIVE LITERACY OF AVERAGE ABILITY BLUE AND WHITE COLLAR CHILDREN

by

Marben Robert Graham

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of teaching dialect related writing skills to Black Blue Collar children in the fourth, seventh, and eleventh grades for whom these forms represent identifiable oral, social dialect differences in comparison with similar White Blue Collar students and White White Collar students. Four theoretical questions were raised:

1. Do Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar children differ in their Expressive Literacy production and Graphic Literacy convention use?
2. Do male and female children of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar parents differ in their Expressive Literacy production and Graphic Literacy convention use?
3. Do the variables of male and female interact with those of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar to create differences in Expressive Literacy production and Graphic Literacy convention use?
4. Is ability to use Graphic Literacy conventions related to the ability to produce Expressive Literacy?

Procedure

To provide the answers for the four theoretical questions of the study eight operational hypotheses were developed and tested at the three grade levels. The data to be compared consisted of one paper by each of 144 students rewritten after six daily writings given in response to audio-visual experiences.

Frequency counts for thirteen variables of the Graphic Literacy Scale were made by the researcher. The writings were read by two readers and rated on an Expressive Literacy Scale developed in the Madaus-Rippey fashion of yes-no answers.

Efforts were made to control extraneous variables which could affect the results. The writers at all three grade levels were given the same directions, wrote over a period of seven days and were exposed to the same stimulus. The final cells were balanced for number, race, sex, and social class. All papers were typed, alphabetized, spelling corrected, and names masked from the readers.

A 2 x 3 analysis of variance, linear correlation, and difference of correlation statistics were used to test the hypotheses. A multiple regression statistic was used to assist interpretation.

Results

It was concluded that error entered the reader correlations but that the error was Type II, making it more difficult to achieve statistical significance where such significance existed. The Expressive Literacy scores may therefore be considered conservative ones.

The results were:

1. The study concluded that there were no differences in the abilities of the three social classes to produce Expressive Literacy. One difference was found between Black and White children in the seventh grade, but the difference was attributed to a sampling artifact rather than to race.
2. There were significant ($p < .05$) differences in Graphic Literacy convention use at each grade level. Phonologic related differences occurred in the seventh and eleventh grades, structural in the eleventh, and verb in the fourth. In each case the frequency of deviations was in the direction of the Black Blue Collar students.
3. No differences were found in male and female Expressive Literacy production, Graphic Literacy convention use or in their interaction with the three social classes.
4. In the case of six of the twelve variables tested at each of three grade levels Black students achieved significantly higher correlations of Graphic Literacy use to Expressive Literacy production than did White students. In four cases the correlation was negative, in two, positive.
5. The clustered strength of these variables to predict Expressive Literacy was significant as a negative predictor for fourth grade White students on the strength of syntactic variables. It was also significant for eleventh grade Black students both in negative prediction, syntactic variables and in positive prediction, phonologic variables.

Conclusions

1. Under the conditions of this study male and female Black and White children of the three social classes studied did not differ in their ability to produce Expressive language.
2. Syntactic problems created more interference with Expressive writing than did race related phonologic or verb variables.
3. Some race related phonologic and verb variables had a capacity for predicting positive Expressive writing for Black students.
4. A greatly reduced occurrence of race related variables in writing as compared to speaking suggests that there was a press to write a "standard" English as early as the fourth grade. The press had equal results upon all classes although for possibly different reasons.
5. A common student writing problem was found in syntax. This may be an encounter between thought maturation and the process of writing, syntactic error perhaps serving as a measure of thought maturation.

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By

Marben Robert Graham

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1971

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CHAPTER I: THE PROBLEM

Introduction to the Problem

Recent field studies have defined the significant features which separate the nonstandard socioeconomic varieties from what has often been called a "standard" version of spoken American English. Sound, structure, and semantic language differences are usually the variables described. "The traditional view is that the nonstandard or substandard form of speech used by children is an imperfect copy of standard English, marred by a number of careless and ignorant errors. Dialectologists have been arguing against this view for many years, but current textbooks . . . show that the underlying assumptions about nonstandard English remain unchanged."¹ The defects of such assumptions are causing serious educational problems.

As each new immigrant group has been assimilated into American culture the schools have taken on the task of teaching the second and third generations a standard English. It was an accepted assumption that everyone learned English in school. The situation today has, however, changed.

Labov points to a major problem in teaching standard school English in urban ghettos.² Black students seem to speak a variety

¹William Labov, The Study of Nonstandard English (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1970), p. 1.

²Ibid., p. 4.

of English further removed from standard school English than most other nonstandard varieties. The city dialect is for the most part an unconscious, abstract pattern which differs noticeably from the teacher's standard school variety. For this reason Black nonstandard city children frequently respond inappropriately to the teacher's stimulus.

"Even if a teacher comes from the same background as his students, he will find that his grammar has changed, that he no longer has firm intuitions about whether he can say Nobody don't know nothing about it, instead of Nobody knows nothing about it."³ This interference caused by the difference between the standard and nonstandard variety is augmented by the student's production-perception capacity. The child frequently can perceive more than he can produce in language. He may also, as in rote or mimic production, produce more than he understands.

Labov speaking of school-Negro dialect notes that Negro children become aware of racial differences early, and that Negro teenagers associate standard English with negative values. This awareness he relates to a lack of verbal responsiveness which is evidenced in lower tested language scores.⁴

The end result of the classroom standard-nonstandard language distance is communication static which results in misunderstanding, frustration, and stunted language growth. Verbal intelligence is exercised and grows through language use.

James Britton, speaking on the "Role of Language Learning in the Elementary School" says:

³Ibid., p. 10.

⁴William Labov, "The Non-Standard Vernacular of the Negro Community--Some Practical Suggestions" (Columbia University, New York, 1967), p. 8.

A child learns to speak not simply by imitation, but again (using this favourite word of mine) by improvisation. It soon becomes clear that he is applying a system. He doesn't know a system exists, and he's certainly never tried to learn it. But he is, in fact, acquiring it in the course of his speaking--a fact we can deduce by the errors he makes in applying it. I heard a small girl once say to her mother, "We better cross here, bettern't we?" If you know your Chomsky, you'll know that the transformations by which you derive that negative tag of "bettern't we," are very, very complex. Well, the child's got them dead right: it just happens that "better" isn't the kind of word that ought to be submitted to that particular transformation.⁵

When the classroom doesn't promote language use and growth, it impedes learning. Leonard Greenbaum, assistant director of the University of Michigan's Phoenix Project, makes a case for classroom acceptance of nonstandard dialects. "What is needed is the willingness to teach within the dialect environment, with the addition of the vocabulary as needed for a particular subject matter. The special vocabulary belongs not to the standard dialect but to the subject matter. . . . The inability to change the dialect of many students means that the teacher either continues the educational process with those students, regardless of dialect, or stops the process."⁶ James Sledd comes down somewhat harder on bi-dialect proponents. "Obligatory bi-dialectalism for minorities is only another mode of exploitation. . . . It is unnecessary for communication, since the ability to understand dialects is easily attained, as the Black child shows when she translates her teacher's prissy White model 'his hat' into 'he hat.'"⁷

⁵James Britton, "The Role of Language in Learning in the Elementary School," Reason and Change in Elementary Education (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education, February, 1968), p. 63.

⁶Leonard Greenbaum, "I'd Rather You Made Less Noise, Darling," The English Record, Vol. XX, No. 2, (December, 1969), p. 18.

⁷James Sledd, "Bi-Dialectalism: The Linguistics of White Supremacy," English Journal, Vol. LVIII, No. 9, (December, 1969), p. 1314.

Another important facet of language learning is underlined by Walter M. MacGinitie in his Encyclopedia of Educational Research article, "Language Development." He notes that, ". . . tests of verbal ability are the prime predictors of academic achievement. . . . The dependence of school achievement on verbal ability not only substantiates the importance of language in school but makes clear the school's vital responsibility to foster the development of language skills. . . . Obvious problems for school achievement come when the home teaches a different dialect or even a different language from that used in school. In such cases the language or dialect may be supported by peer-group or community values."⁸

Community and state groups interested in educational budgets and curriculum are now pressing for more precise knowledge. As John Maxwell's Mr. Novatney explains to his faculty, "The Board of Education's analysis led to a conclusion that the people want evidence of better education before they'll give us more money. The Board has asked us to begin to apply to the instructional process some of the modes that are used in industry and the military."⁹ The "modes used in industry and the military" include behavioral objectives and their operational definitions. These definitions frequently become formalized test statements based on the outdated concepts of standard English, a procedure which proceeds from a racial bias.

⁸Walter M. MacGinitie, "Language Development," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, Fourth Edition, (London: The Macmillan Company, 1969), p. 686.

⁹John Maxwell and Anthony Tovatt (eds.), On Writing Behavioral Objectives for English (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1970), p. 4.

The sides in the battle for language competence may at first seem clear, the development of language skill over its regression. But the nature of a victory and the strategy to that end are at the moment clouded with socioeconomic and racial-ethnic issues. Efforts to teach "standard" English so that its use will flow from the school into daily life have not been successful. Some educators now propose special language programs beginning at an early age. Others disagree. "Teachers face daily the contradiction that to serve the school and the curriculum is to hurt the students. As an English teacher, I came to realize that my particular curriculum when it 'takes'--tends toward the production of alienated, anxious, phony people."¹⁰

Need

A writer must as a matter of definition come to accept certain graphic, written conventions of language, whether he writes for self or to communication with others. To these graphic skills some composition rhetoricians would make additions: ". . . the discovery of the New English: a human being given freedom to make his own statement out of the rich, bloomin', buzzin' world of his perception can produce complexities and meaning that count for him and surprise his readers and listeners."¹¹ Speaking for the rejected low-ability student Holbrook says, "Any revolution in the education of backward children, then, centres round English--largely imaginative English in the context of

¹⁰ Barbara Bailey Kessel, "Free, Classless, and Urbane?" College English, Vol. XXXI, No. 6, (March, 1970), p. 533.

¹¹ Ken Macrorie, "Roundtable Review," Research in the Teaching of English, Vol. III, No. 2, (Fall, 1969), p. 235.

affectionate sympathy, in the context of teaching-as-an-art, and in conditions in which one may come close to and work with the individual animula, the child spirit."¹²

There is an implication of conflict between learning the conventions of standard school English and the interests of the "individual animula." Speaking from a personal knowledge of writing and its demands Ralph Ellison has said of his and his peoples' natural dialect, ". . . within the bonds of their oral culture they possess a great virtuosity with the music, the poetry, of words. The question is, how can you get this skill into the main stream of the language, because it is, without a doubt there. . . . If you can show me how I can cling to that which is real to me, while teaching me a way into the larger society, then I will not only drop my defenses and my hostility, but I will sing your praises and I will help you make the desert bear fruit."¹³

What happens to children as they learn to write? Does conformity to "standard" graphic forms exact any greater toll upon the expressive language of Blue Collar children than it does upon White Collar children? Specifically the study was concerned with race related graphic forms. Do male and female Blue Collar and White Collar children differ in their expressive and graphic productions? Can these differences, where they are found, be explained?

¹²David Holbrook, English for the Rejected (London: Cambridge University Press, 1965), p. 9.

¹³Ralph Ellison as quoted in Thomas J. Creswell, "The Twenty Billion Dollar Misunderstanding," Social Dialects and Language Learning (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965), p. 71.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to investigate the possibility of a differential influence of learning standard school English forms upon the expressive language production of average Black and White Blue Collar and White White Collar students. The expressive language productions of Black and White Blue Collar and White White Collar students were first compared for differences. The same students were also compared in their use of certain standard school forms which gave an indication of being race related. Differences in sex as well as interaction relationships were also contrasted. Lastly correlations between the standard school forms and expressive writing were developed and compared for those variables which indicated differential learnings. In this way the study expected to discover the relationship of learning standard English forms upon student expressive writing. Specifically the study sought answers to these questions:

1. Do Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar children differ in their Expressive Literacy production and Graphic Literacy convention use?
2. Do male and female children of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar parents differ in their Expressive Literacy production and Graphic Literacy convention use?
3. Do the variables of male and female interact with those of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar to create differences in Expressive Literacy production and Graphic Literacy convention use?
4. Is ability to use Graphic Literacy conventions related to the ability to produce Expressive Literacy?

Theory

Should any part of the first question be answered positively then evidence will be gained to support the position that race and or socioeconomic class dialect does influence written language production. There is long history of linguistic evidence to support the position that there are distinguishing socioeconomic spoken dialect features. To some extent this has also been done with written English. The expectation is for race and socioeconomic differences.

Should the second question receive a positive answer then evidence will be gained to support the position that sex and class role expectations operate differently to influence language production. The direction of the influence is suggested by Shuy's findings that lower socioeconomic women are more sensitive than men to the double negative and similar nonstandardisms.¹⁴

A recent study in the American Educational Research Journal suggests the direction of interaction influence raised in question three. "The . . . study suggests that features observed in the normal speech of nonstandard speakers may differentially affect performance on an echoic repetition task by imposing some interference in the response which can be noted at the point of a sentence production. It further is suggested that points of structural divergence between nonstandard dialects and the standard language may play a role in performance on other tasks requiring production of the language employed in the schools

¹⁴Roger W. Shuy, "A Study of Social Dialects in Detroit" (Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 1969), p. 17.

in teaching and in testing."¹⁵ Interactions are expected to register differences which favor females and White Collar students.

Should class or sex differences be found in answering the first three questions then question four seeks to discover the strength of relationship between learning conventions of English and Expressive production. It is possible that for nonstandard dialects the learning of convention will lower Expressive production.

Should question four receive a positive answer then there is reason to believe that acquisition of Graphic Literacy skills most likely contributes to an interference in learning Expressiveness. The point and direction of this influence is suggested by Shuy's findings. Because women are more sensitive to several nonstandardisms, their gains in Graphic skills should be more obvious and their Expressive scores lower.

Summary

Through reader ratings and frequency counts two concepts of composition were measured to gain evidence to answer the study's questions. Also the dimensions of male and female, sub-Blue Collar language environments, were comparatively and interactively investigated for their differences.

In this chapter the problem, need, purpose and theory of the study have been presented. Chapter II offers a review of the literature; Chapter III contains a description of the research design; Chapter IV presents an analysis of the results; and Chapter V gives a summary of the study and its conclusions.

¹⁵Catherine Garvey and Paul McFarlane, "A Measure of Standard English Proficiency of Inner-City Children," American Educational Research Journal, Vol. VII, No. 1, (January, 1970), p. 39.

CHAPTER II: RELATED STUDIES

Introduction

To put to test a proposition based on the assumption that standard English is taught in the public schools and that its teaching may have a degenerative effect upon the written language production of nonstandard users presents one problem of justification and two others of composition evaluation and social dialect identification. The literature concerning the history of teaching and evaluating written composition and the identification of social dialect and its effect upon oral and written composition are reviewed in this chapter. Conclusions will be drawn from this survey of the literature with implications for the study's evaluation problems.

The History of Composition Teaching

The teaching of the English vernacular in American schools stemmed from and was in reaction to classical language training. Benjamin Franklin's "Proposals Relating to the Education of Youth in Philadelphia" led eventually to vernacular education and the collapse of the Latin grammar school.

However, Judy concludes that in, ". . . 1850 English was a minor subject in secondary school curriculum, and composition, when taught, usually consisted of monthly or bimonthly essays written on abstract or philosophical subjects with little or no formal instruction. . . . By 1890, however, English had become established as one of the major constituents

in the high school curriculum; composition was perhaps the most widely discussed school subject and composition teaching had assumed a shape which has been largely unchanged up to the present."¹

He has documented this change and notes that in the latter half of the nineteenth century the high schools committed themselves to the preparation of students for college and in this way colleges came to have some control over high school English. The acceptance of English increased with the increased cry against classical studies and for more practical subjects.

College entrance compositions, first required by Princeton in 1870, were read not as much for content as for correctness of form. "English, which had begun as a practical subject for the non-college bound, was by the end of the century to be regarded as an important college preparatory subject, with its content selected by criteria established for the college preparatory students, rather than for the 'ordinary' students for whom it had originally been intended."²

Speaking of two Harvard examination board chairmen Judy points out,

Neither Briggs nor Hill was interested in what the boys had to say; they had created an examination where the writer did not have to say anything, provided he said it well. They consistently separated form and content and regarded the "laws of sentence structure" and correct expression as independently teachable. Where the teacher of object lessons spoke of expression as a natural by-product of fruitful thought, Briggs and Hill placed the forms of expression prior to thought and relegated instruction in the rudiments to the secondary schools. If the student could be taught to express himself properly in school, the colleges would help him find something to say.³

¹Stephen Judy, "The Teaching of English Composition in American Schools" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Northwestern University, 1967), p. 1.

²Ibid., pp. 78-79.

³Ibid., p. 194.

Independent of the college influence on curriculum two approaches to English instruction developed during the same half century: those who placed thought first and those who placed structure first.

If we compare Stark on the one hand, and Bouton and Harrington on the other, we can begin to see two approaches to English developing, both derived from a common philosophy, but utilizing different conceptions of composition and rhetoric. Bouton and Harrington, like Russell and the object teachers, place thought and its development at the center of instruction. Stark, like most of the other writers I have discussed, turns to the structure of language, to philology, literary criticism, and scientific language study, and works his way back to "thinking." All three, however, have "advanced" beyond their respective predecessors by incorporating the study of literature into their programs.⁴

In 1892 the English Conference of the National Education Association's Committee of Ten gave formal approval to the more traditional aspects of teaching composition. "In theory, the Conference gave the teacher a blank check to devise a method of teaching composition. But a number of limitations on the teacher's freedom were implied by the report. First, of course, the Conference had clearly expressed its concern for correctness, which the teacher was to emphasize throughout the course."⁵

By condemning the practice of more than one course in English, college bound, technical or scientific, and terminal, the committee, by implication, recommended that all students subscribe to a college entrance requirement dominated English curriculum. In composition this meant writing a critical essay. In evaluating the composition matters of correctness were of first consideration, the rules of rhetoric second. In addition, in recommending a four year English curriculum in high school the committee emphasized the importance of English as a discipline among disciplines rather than as a process.

⁴Ibid., p. 234.

⁵Ibid., p. 331.

The associationist learning theory, which helped in large measure to bring about some reform in the methods and content of the English course, had superimposed on it older, discipline-centered ideas about teaching. Even the Committee of Ten, for example, emphasized that English was to be considered of disciplinary value equal to any subject. During the century teachers began to demand actual writing practice, but reduced such practice to mental discipline by driving at "fundamentals." Exercises like the correction of false syntax, which had been developed as a mainstay of "memorization" texts like those of Murray and Kirkham, became exercises in correction of "specimens of bad English" and were reinterpreted in the second half of the century to be part of actual practice. Rhetoric and composition theory, too, were to be practically oriented; rules, it was universally claimed, would never teach a student to write, and rhetoric was to be subordinated to composition. But rhetoric continued to focus on the form of compositions rather than on the "art" of composing; rules were renamed "principles" but continued to possess their Platonist, absolute qualities; and compositions became vehicles for testing rule mastery.⁶

The issue was not settled in 1892. The NEA, NCTE Hosis Committee reacted strongly to the college entrance curriculum in 1917 and stressed in its Reorganization of English in Secondary Schools:

1. English has personal and social ends more important than the minor college preparatory function.
2. Articulation between elementary and high school is more important than between high school and college.
3. It is a mistake to regard English as merely a formal subject. The implication of such a view is that skill is the sole end sought and that this may be attained by drills upon technique quite apart from an interesting or valuable content. . . . The content of both literature and composition is, first of all, the body of fact, interpretation, and imaginative conception to be expressed, and second, that small body of principles of technique and consciousness of which actually enables children and young people to improve their use of the vernacular.⁷

⁶Ibid., p. 341.

⁷James Fleming Hosis (chm.), "Reorganization of English in Secondary Schools," Report by the National Joint Committee on English Representing the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, Bulletin No. 2, in U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletins 1-15, 1917 (Washington, D. C.: Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, 1917), p. 18.

4. English is unique in its relationship to mental development and the life process and as such only as much technique should be taught as can be used.

5. English is social and is acquired in a social context.

The Hosis Committee's emphasis on process had little influence upon English teaching for in 1929 grammar drill was still the most common language work in the junior high school.

Hatfield chaired an NCTE committee which published An Experience Curriculum in English in 1935. The curriculum was based on "well-selected experiences" clustered under headings of Literature, Reading, Creative Expression, Communication, Corrective Teaching, and Electives. The report stressed functional grammar, those items which posed difficulties for adults and students. In a special section the report defined "good English" as that which is, "appropriate to the purpose of the speaker, true to the language as it is, and comfortable to speaker and listener."⁸

In 1952 the NCTE Commission on the English Curriculum listed:

. . . five basic concepts which are, or should be, the foundation of the current attitude toward any teaching of the English language today:

1. Language changes constantly.
2. Change is normal . . . not corruption but improvement.
3. Spoken language is the language.
4. Correctness rests upon usage.
5. All usage is relative.⁹

⁸W. Wilbur Hatfield (chm.), An Experience Curriculum in English, A Report of the Curriculum Commission of the National Council of Teachers of English (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1935), p. 241.

⁹National Council of Teachers of English, Commission on the English Curriculum, The English Language Arts, NCTE Curriculum Series, Vol. I (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952), pp. 274-79.

In addition the Commission pointed to a concern which has become the focus of this study.

Competence in language then means more than a conformity to correct usage, possession of an elaborate vocabulary, a pleasing voice, or approved diction, more than the ability to interpret a poem or pursue a pattern of reasoning to a logical conclusion. Each individual needs the desire and ability to say what he has to say; a recognition of language as a social instrument of great value; an understanding of the difficulties of communication; and a sense of responsibility for what he says or writes.

Writing, in addition to the many difficulties which it shares with speech, demands skill in handwriting or typing, spelling, punctuation and capitalization, and in meeting the misunderstanding of an absent and often unknown audience--skills more difficult, more meticulous, and less likely to be mastered without classroom help than those of speaking.¹⁰

Squire and Applebee studied 168 high schools selected for their state or national reputations in 1966. Results showed that 15.7 percent of classroom time went to composition and 13.5 percent to language. Teachers, ". . . have come to depend enormously on the process of teaching writing by correction--on instruction after the fact and after the act. . . . it is nearly always concerned with correcting errors of mechanics or expression and infrequently with errors in judgment."¹¹

While organized professional criticism has since 1917 pointed to the negative or at least superfluous concern with "correctness," the process of teaching writing by negative correction and concern for correctness has persisted.

To this day it is clear that there is a distance between theory and practice in the teaching of composition.

¹⁰Ibid., pp. 302-03.

¹¹Squire and Applebee as quoted in Richard Braddock, "English Composition," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, Fourth Edition, (London: The Macmillan Company, 1969), p. 449.

Evaluating Composition

The four main reviews of research in composition evaluation, Sherwin,¹² Searles and Carlsen,¹³ and two by Braddock,¹⁴ ¹⁵ agree that the task is a difficult one. Searles and Carlsen analyzed this difficulty.

The problem of evaluating growth in language development involves a complex of variables that makes exact measurement extremely difficult. The language act grows out of the experience of the individual, the situation in which the act is performed, and the skill of the individual in the situation. In turn the situation is itself changed by the act of communication itself. Inadequate expression may be the result of lack of skill in the situation, or it may result from the inadequacy of the ideas that are being expressed. The constant interaction between these two impedes interpretation of results of most evaluative situations.¹⁶

Sherwin approached the critique of research in his chapter, "Increasing Skill in Writing," by first surveying the condition of writing instruction and then examining three ways teachers attacked the problem of growth in writing skill. His analysis of investigations of writing instruction pointed out a strong tendency by the investigators to rely on error counts and error analysis. Errors were found to have a high frequency and strong persistence. Grammatical knowledge, linguistics, and frequency of writing had little effect on writing ability. Better teaching had a positive effect.¹⁷

¹²J. Stephen Sherwin, Four Problems in Teaching English: A Critique of Research (Scranton: International Textbook Company, 1969), p. 109.

¹³John R. Searles and G. Robert Carlsen, "English," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, Third Edition, (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1960), p. 464.

¹⁴Richard Braddock, Richard Lloyd-Jones, and Lowell Schoer, Research in Written Composition (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963), p. 5.

¹⁵Braddock, "English Composition," op. cit., pp. 443-81.

¹⁶Searles and Carlsen, loc. cit.

¹⁷Sherwin, loc. cit.

Braddock found composition research to be of limited value, ". . . some terms are being defined usefully, a number of procedures are being refined, but the field as a whole is laced with dreams, prejudices and makeshift operations."¹⁸ As an end to improved research he identified and discussed four variables pertinent to the rating of compositions, the writer, the assignment, the rater, and the colleague (coraters).

In a chapter on "The State of Knowledge about Composition" he summarized the environmental, instructional, and rhetorical factors influencing composition. Almost nothing has been proved about the last two factors. But for environment there is some evidence relating writer experience, sex, socioeconomic and psychological factors to "better" compositions.

Evaluations of composition differ in their purpose, structural form, reliability and validity. It is possible to identify nine nonexclusive methods: wholistic grades, reader rating scales, composition scales, objective tests, frequency counts, syntactic analysis, computer analysis, analysis of expressive language, and combinations of these.

Wholistic Grades Wholistic measures, usually alphabetical or numerical, are difficult to control for variability from reader to reader or for a single reader over a period of time. In a comprehensive study of the judgment of writing ability Diederich concluded, "It was disturbing to find that 94 percent of the papers received either seven, eight, or nine of the nine possible grades, that no paper received less than five

¹⁸Braddock, Lloyd-Jones, and Schoer, loc. cit.

different grades, and that the median correlation between readers was .31."¹⁹ While frequently low in reliability wholistic grades have high validity and lend themselves to predictive purposes. Smith found that under certain conditions agreement among expert judges was possible and reliable.²⁰

Rating Scales Diederich, who used wholistic scores, then worked from the comments made by his readers to the development of "five schools" of thought which emphasized: I Ideas, II Form, III Flavor, IV Mechanics, and V Wording. These he used to control variability.

Follman and Anderson²¹ compared five evaluation systems including Diederich's scale, to clarify the relationship between teacher judgment and the use of a scale. One system was wholistic, the "Everyman's Scale," which directed the judge to use your own judgment. The study indicated that the "Everyman's Scale" had unexpected high reliability and suggested, ". . . the unreliability usually obtained in the evaluation of essays occurs primarily because raters are to a considerable degree heterogeneous in academic backgrounds which are likely to produce different attitudes and values which operate significantly in their evaluation of essays."²² The raters in this study had in fact highly homogeneous backgrounds. The

¹⁹Paul B. Diederich et al., "Factors in Judgments of Writing Ability," Research Bulletin (Princeton, New Jersey: Educational Testing Service, August, 1961), Abstract.

²⁰Vernon H. Smith, "Measuring Teacher Judgment in the Evaluation of Written Composition," Research in the Teaching of English, Vol. III, No. 2, (Fall, 1969), p. 181.

²¹John C. Follman and James A. Anderson, "An Investigation of the Reliability of Five Procedures for Grading English Themes," Research in the Teaching of English, Vol. I, No. 2, (Fall, 1967), p. 190.

²²Ibid., p. 198.

authors suggest the use of "sensitizing" rating scales where the readers are heterogeneous.

After reviewing the research available in 1965, Armstrong selected six sets of criteria and reduced them to four categories for use as an objective and valid measure of the quality of the written composition of fifth-grade students. The categories were: Ideas, Organization, Style, and Presentation.²³ His readers were elementary school teachers and the criteria was typical of rating scales in general. Armstrong found reason to question its validity and noted a need for more precise but simplified indices.

Scannell and Marshall²⁴ reported that even when raters are given instructions to grade an essay examination on the basis of content only, papers with errors were assigned lower grades than papers without.

Composition Scales Early in this century composition scales were developed in an effort to improve grading systems by placing equally ranked and spaced compositions on a continuum. The ranks were determined by a wholistic grade derived in part from content and in part from mechanics. These scales were eventually judged low in reliability as it was difficult to match a given composition's qualities with those of the scale.²⁵

²³Robert David Armstrong, "An Objective Measure of the Quality of the Written Composition of Fifth-Grade Pupils" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of California, 1965), p. 41.

²⁴Dale P. Scannell and Jon C. Marshall, "The Effect of Selected Composition Errors on Grades Assigned to Essay Examinations," American Educational Research Journal, Vol. III, No. 3, (March, 1966), p. 125.

²⁵Henry C. Meckel, "Research on Teaching Composition and Literature," in N. L. Gage, ed., Handbook of Research on Teaching (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1963), p. 987.

Frequency Counts As an alternative to rating compositions Braddock²⁶ suggests frequency counts, which have a potential for objective definition in contrast to the low reliability of raters using ambiguous rating scales. He considers these counts to be "frustrating" yet capable of becoming "one of the most important types." Strength lies in their objectivity; "frustration" rests in the investigators failure to define precisely, and the frequency counts inability to measure rare events that happen only once. Braddock cautions, ". . . before conducting a frequency count or using the results of one, a person should determine what his purpose is and then ascertain that the compositions used are appropriately controlled or sampled according to topic, mode of discourse, and characteristics of the writers."²⁷ As alternatives to error counting he suggested frequency counts which correlate the response item with another variable, or a rank ordering of frequency, or the use of the error quotient, that is errors divided by the total opportunity.

Traditionally frequency counts have been concerned with errors, and the difficulty with error counts is that some errors increase with the subject's maturity while others decrease. Errors are also sensitive to regional dialects and vary from region to region.²⁸

Syntactic Analysis From the 1930's when the subordination ratio was the accepted syntactic basis until the more recent linguistic based communication, phonologic, and T-unit counts, researchers have sought a sentence maturity-composition maturity ratio. There hasn't been much

²⁶Braddock, Lloyd-Jones, and Schoer, op. cit., p. 41.

²⁷Ibid., p. 17.

²⁸Ibid.

success and Braddock noted, ". . . it is beginning to look as though quantity and quality of syntactic development are far from synonymous."²⁹

Objective Tests Objective tests, both multiple-choice and interlinear, have been used with success as "predictors of success in future composition classes." They are criticized for their low validity. (A student doesn't use his own words and ideas.)

Computer Analysis Page and Paulus³⁰ succeeded in their effort to simulate human ratings on a computer. Using thirty indicators much in the style of frequency and error counts, the researchers were able to correlate the items, misspellings, uncommon words, length of words, number of commas, parentheses, etc., at .62 with pooled human judgments. The analysis has been criticized for correlating well with the human grading of essays which is something humans do not do reliably, as already noted.³¹ This process does hold promise for the machine analysis of essays for evaluation of student ability and prediction of success in freshman composition courses which stress conventional values.

Analysis of Expressive Language David Holbrook has emphasized subjective aspects of composition in opposition to the more frequently discussed empirical ones. He sees in composition a writer's efforts to control the world by "exercising the abstracting intellect over it."

²⁹Ibid., p. 453.

³⁰Ellis B. Page and Dieter H. Paulus, An Analysis of Essays by Computer (Washington, D. C.: Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, April, 1968).

³¹Don H. Coombs, "Roundtable Review," Research in the Teaching of English, Vol. III, No. 2, (Fall, 1969), p. 222.

Literacy is gratefully entered into by most individuals because it brings great satisfactions, enlarges perception, and helps to bring order and beauty to the inner world. There are also other natural processes in adult and child, upon which education depends: . . . One is that the child needs to work symbolically with great energy on "inward" problems, to develop his capacities to deal with the world, to get on with other people, and to establish his identity. . . . Language, particularly in its subjective aspects, plays a large part in this; . . .³²

By symbolic or abstract control he has in mind more than intellectual awareness.

In this book I shall use the term "the poetic function." By this I mean the capacity to explore and perceive, to come to terms with, speak of, and deal with experience by the exercise of the whole mind and all kinds of apprehensions, not only intellectual ones. This poetic function, I consider, is neglected too much in all education and not least in the education of children deficient in intellect. I want to try to establish in this book that nourishing what I call the poetic function is certainly the most important work with less able children, and that the most efficient work a teacher of backward children can do is the free, informal, imaginative and often pleasurable and rewarding work of creative English, towards literacy and insight into personal and external reality. . . . I also wanted to imply that what I say here about "backward" teaching is true of all education.³³

Holbrook develops his points much as a psychoanalyst does through reference to specific written behavior supported in interpretative detail from the student's personal life. His methods have been criticized because such material is difficult to apply to other specific students and because of its dependence upon intimate knowledge of the student.

Combined Systems A successful combination of systems for a special purpose is reported in an ETS study conducted by Godshalk and others.³⁴

³²David Holbrook, The Exploring World (London: Cambridge University Press, 1967), p. 4.

³³David Holbrook, English for the Rejected (London: Cambridge University Press, 1965), pp. 10-11.

³⁴Fred I. Godshalk, Frances Swineford, and William E. Coffman, The Measurement of Writing Ability (New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1966), p. 39.

Noyes suggests in the introduction that a breakthrough in the measurement of writing ability appropriate for use by college admissions officers and advisors has been achieved. Five themes, written by each of 646 students, and rated on a three-point scale were correlated with the student's scores on eight objective tests. Most themes were read by five judges and thus controlled for rater variance and inconsistency. The report concluded:

1) The reliability of essay scores is primarily a function of the number of different essays and the number of different readings included. 2) When objective questions specifically designed to measure writing skills are evaluated against a reliable criterion of writing skills, they prove to be highly valid. 3) The most effective predictor of a reliable direct measure of writing ability is one which includes essay questions³⁵ or interlinear exercises in combination with objective questions.

Madaus and Rippey reported on the development of seven criterion reference scales used to help graders, ". . . identify the incidence of specific writing behaviors on the part of students."³⁶ Variables under study were: 1) Punctuation, 2) Usage, 3) Sense of Audience and Purpose, 4) Organization, 5) Use of Detail, 6) Attitude, 7) Topic and Concluding Criterion Score. The organization of the scale is unique in that the rater is asked direct yes or no questions concerning student writing behaviors. "Does the subject use capital letters correctly? Can you, the reader, state the purpose of the author?" In this way the scale combines elements of both frequency counts and reader ratings. The authors did not claim that the scales measured global writing ability or that they were comprehensive. Using four of these criteria which seemed to measure comparable concepts in the STEP Test the authors

³⁵Ibid.

³⁶George F. Madaus and Robert M. Rippey, "Zeroing in on the STEP Writing Test: What Does It Tell the Teacher?" Journal of Educational Measurement, Vol. III, No. 1, (Spring, 1968), p. 19.

concluded, 1) The ability to produce good writing appears only moderately related to the ability to manipulate previously given material on STEP, and 2) the total writing score from STEP does not relate strongly to any of the individual essay-evaluating criteria but does agree moderately with their combined score.³⁷

Judy³⁸ presented another combination grading plan which avoided vague "wholistic" evaluation by identifying five categories of descriptive essays. Each category was rated from 1 (absence of the characteristic) to 5 (presence of the desired characteristic). The categories were: 1) Organization and Structure, 2) "Locational" Details, 3-4) Characterizing and Classifying Details, 5) Sentence Structure. Each category was given operational definition through sample themes arranged much like the old composition scales but on the basis of more definite criteria in the Rippey style. Each theme was rated and ranked in the five areas on the basis of the criteria for each area. A wholistic grade was derived by adding scores. In summary Judy noted, on the positive side, that the scheme evaluated, and at the same time gave the teacher and student a definite why. He also noted that the process was time consuming.

To assist in the evaluation of the language arts program of the District of Columbia, Dailey developed a Language Facility Test for evaluating the preschool program. The test is, ". . . relatively insensitive to the sex or cultural group of the examiner. The subject is asked to tell a story about each of three pictures of the series. Each story

³⁷Ibid., p. 22.

³⁸Stephen Judy, "A Guide to the Evaluation of Descriptive Essays," Papers on Composition (Evanston, Illinois: The Curriculum Center in English, Northwestern University, 1966), p. 6.

or description is then scored on a nine point scale . . . completely independent of vocabulary, information, and grammar."³⁹ The Story Score Scale ranges from 0: No response, to 5: More than one sentence, but no interpretation of movement or action, to 9: A good story with imagination and creativity. A second measure of obtained "frequency of 24 types of major errors in pronunciation or usage," gives promise with refinement of usefulness in measuring aspects of dialects.

Social Dialect Identification

An understanding of the contributions which a knowledge of social dialects can make to the study of composition is clouded by two issues. First, Negro dialect or Black English has been viewed by some as a deficit or deficient form of standard English. For the most part the language deficit proponents have attributed this to genetic factors (race differences in mean intellectual capacity) or ecological factors (noisy environment).

Stewart counter argues,

. . . were a difference in intellectual performance to be found between two populations in almost any other part of the world, it would be considered a matter of course to explore first the possibility that the apparent intellectual disparity might merely reflect cultural differences between the two groups through a bias in the measurement techniques toward one or the other culture. In the United States, on the other hand, only the scantiest consideration has been given to the same possibility--that being "white" and "Negro" might involve correlations with more-or-less different American subcultures, and that cultural differences might therefore be responsible for the intellectual performance disparity between the two ethnic groups.⁴⁰

³⁹John T. Dailey, "An Evaluation of the Language Arts Program of the District of Columbia" (George Washington University, Washington, D. C., 1965), p. 2.

⁴⁰William A. Stewart, "On the Use of Negro Dialect in the Teaching of Reading," in Joan Baratz and Roger W. Shuy, eds., Teaching Black Children to Read (Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1969), p. 165.

Dillard has summarized and interpreted this conflict. "Linguists (and anthropologists) have been virtually unanimous in rejecting such a theory. [deficit] (The really shocking thing . . . has been the emotional--almost religious--appeal which the deficit theories have had from other large segments of the academic, white liberal, and even black middle class communities.)"⁴¹

Cazden was more cautious in her analysis of the issue noting:

At the present time, we cannot completely resolve the difference-deficiency issue. . . . Children who are socially disadvantaged on such objective criteria as income and educational level of their parents do tend to be deficient on many measures of verbal skills. But the concept of subcultural relativity is nevertheless relevant. We must be sure that developmental scales of language development do not distort our assessment of children who speak a nonstandard dialect. We must be equally sure that studies of language function do not simply reflect the predilection of the investigators. In short, subcultural relativity provides an essential perspective for objective analysis and for any program of planned change.⁴²

As Dillard noted most linguists accept the language difference position; however, within the field of linguistics a second clouding issue spreads the linguists across a spectrum ranging from those who see dialect in the tradition of the regional geographic "isoglos approach" to the "Black English has an entirely different history approach."

Dillard has defined these poles.

Isoglos: For an advocate of this point of view Negro dialect and white dialect can differ no more than New York dialect and Boston dialect . . . recent publications have tended to minimize differences between Negro dialect and white dialect--even to assert that Negro dialect is actually identical to the white dialect of a given region.

⁴¹J. L. Dillard, "Books," College English, Vol. XXXI, No. 7, (April, 1970), p. 733.

⁴²Courtney B. Cazden, "Subcultural Differences in Child Language: An Inter-Disciplinary Review," Merrill Palmer Quarterly of Behavior and Development, Vol. XII, No. 3, (1966), p. 213.

Different History: Negro dialect (Black English) has an almost entirely different history from that of American white English, having gone through stages of pidginization (West African pidgin English) in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, creolization in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, and decreolization (partial merger with other varieties of English--which might as well, for the purposes of argument, be conceived of as "regional" varieties) in the late nineteenth and twentieth centuries.⁴³

Toward the center of the linguistic spectrum are positioned researchers like Labov who in analyzing the data on reading failure for urban ghetto and suburban children said, "These findings lead us to conclude that the principle problem in reading failure is not dialect or grammatical differences but rather a cultural conflict between the vernacular culture and the schoolroom. . . . some of this conflict proceeds from the pluralistic ignorance which prevails in the classroom: the teacher does not know that the students' dialect is different from his own, and the students do not know just how the teacher's system differs from theirs."⁴⁴

Oral Dialect Composition is close to speech. Strickland has pointed out, "Writing is one of the language arts, and it is highly dependent for its growth on the growth in the other language arts. The quality of writing is closely related to the quality of speech."⁴⁵

Putnam and O'Hern did a phonetic descriptive analysis of 84% of the population of a Washington, D. C., alley to determine the social significance of dialect as a mark of social status. They found systematic phonetic differences between the alley dialect and standard English. The

⁴³Dillard, op. cit., p. 734.

⁴⁴William Labov, The Study of Non-Standard English (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1970), p. 43.

⁴⁵Ruth G. Strickland, "Evaluating Children's Composition," Elementary English, Vol. XXXVII, No. 5, (May, 1960), p. 322.

significance of these differences was born out by a panel of untrained judges who were able to rate the social status of the speakers with 64% accuracy. The researchers concluded, "Persons who grow to adulthood as members of an underprivileged social group may carry a mark of their origin through life and suffer from the various forms of discrimination which society imposes as members of the lower socio-economic classes."⁴⁶

Loban's⁴⁷ study of childhood language is unique because it traces the speech development of the same Oakland, California, area children from kindergarten through high school. Of three hundred thirty-eight original subjects, two hundred and twenty were intact at the ninth grade. Each subject was interviewed once a year and his responses recorded.

Some pupils have difficulties in speaking standard English as it is typically used by most Americans. This is not a problem of regional language variation but rather one of social class dialect.

Dialects are differing ways of speaking a language. Vocabulary, syntax, and pronunciation differ from one dialect to another, yet the differences are not so great that persons using different dialects cannot communicate.

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Whereas regional differences in language are usually acceptable and in many respects delightful, social class dialects offer a difficult problem to American schools in which equality of opportunity for all pupils is accepted as an aim. Economic and social lines have always been difficult to cross, and language is one of the strongest barriers to a fluid society in which human worth is to count for more than fortunate birth. It is a sociological fact that all speech communities tend to feel hostility or disdain for those who do not use their language. "He doesn't talk like us" is a way to say "He is not one of us."⁴⁸

⁴⁶G. N. Putnam and Edna M. O'Hern, "The Status Significance of an Isolated Urban Dialect" (Language dissertation No. 53), Language, Vol. XXXI, No. 4, (1955), whole Part II.

⁴⁷Walter Loban, Problems in Oral English (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966), p. 1.

⁴⁸Ibid., p. 47.

He identified nonstandard oral usage problems for both standard and nonstandard students. Among his conclusions concerning the differences between high socio-economic Caucasians, low socio-economic Caucasians, Negro, and a random group are:

1. The subjects speaking standard English do not have trouble with usage, but rather have problems restricted to matters of clarity and precision. These Loban calls problems of coherence.
2. The subjects speaking a social class dialect have difficulties with usage problems, especially verbs. Through schooling dramatic improvement is made in agreement, auxillary verb use, and omission problems, but the verb "to be" persists as a problem. Eight of the ten problems of this group are usage problems. Many word beginnings and endings continue to be dropped. This category represented Negro subjects, but Loban believes the results would hold for Orientals, Hawaiians (Pidgin), Spanish-speaking, Cajun, and Appalachian subjects.
3. All subjects did well in some categories like modification with adjectives and adverbs. However, conjunctions were limited across groups to and and but.
4. As the subjects began to use more complex speech at about grade five, their difficulties with coherence increased.
5. The social class or Negro group spends much of its energy in confronting problems which Caucasian groups never face. Not only do they have more serious problems of coherence, but they must also contend with usage.⁴⁹

⁴⁹Ibid., p. 49.

Williamson⁵⁰ found that for Memphis high school Negroes verb structure deviations were the most obvious feature of substandard dialect; and that /d/ replaced /ð/ in this and that.

McDavid and Austin⁵¹ concluded from a Chicago study that vocabulary reflects cultural experience while grammar reflects social and educational advantages. They also found it easier to distinguish between the speech of White Chicagoans and Southern Negroes than to distinguish between the speech of middle class and lower class Negroes.

Labov⁵² concluded from his work with New York City speech that there are stages in the acquisition of standard English and that these stages have relevance for the classroom. He first described the linguistic behavior of a sampling of the city's adults. Then he studied the fifty-eight children of the informants and compared their competence in standard English as established by the adult norms. For each age level he then figured the percent of conformity.

<u>AGE</u>	<u>% CONFORMITY</u>
8-11	52%
12-13	50%
14-15	57%
16-17	62%
18-19	64%
20-39	84%

⁵⁰Juanita Williamson, "Report on a Proposed Study of the Speech of Negro High School Students in Memphis," in Roger W. Shuy, ed., Social Dialects and Language Learning (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965), p. 23.

⁵¹Raven I. McDavid, "American Social Dialects," College English, Vol. XXVI, No. 4, (January, 1965), p. 258.

⁵²William Labov, "Stages in the Acquisition of Standard English," in Roger W. Shuy, ed., Social Dialects and Language Learning (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965), pp. 77-103.

From this and other evidence he has constructed a six stage model for the acquisition of the full range of spoken English.

1. The Basic Grammar: The mastery of the main body of grammatical rules and the lexicon of spoken English.
2. The Vernacular: In the years from five to twelve the child learns the dialect of his immediate group of friends and associates.
3. Social Perception: He becomes aware of the dialect characteristics of his friends.
4. Stylistic Variation: Now he learns to modify his speech in the direction of the prestige standard.
5. The Consistent Standard: For mobility the lower class person must learn to consistently use the standard speech.
6. The Full Range: Not one of the informants raised in New York was able to achieve complete consistency in the prestige form.

The range of differences in acquisition of the prestige pattern he attributed to isolation from opportunity to hear the form, to structural interference from the vernacular, and to a conflict of value systems.

Cazden's⁵³ inter-disciplinary review of data relevant to the question, "Is the concept of cultural relativity valid in a 'culturally different and culturally deprived' context?" concluded that the most frequent structural differences between nonstandard dialects and standard English were in verb usage, agreement with subject, "to be" deviations, present for past; and then in the forms of the pronoun; double negative; and use of got and ain't. She felt it was "probably true" that there is a correlation

⁵³Cazden, op. cit.

between deviation from standard English and impoverishment, but that the causes lie in historical and sociological factors. On the "important" finding that ethnic background and social class have different effects she quoted Lesser's observation:

Apparently, different mediators are associated with social-class and ethnic-group conditions. . . . The importance of the mediators associated with ethnicity is to provide differential impacts upon the development of mental abilities, while the importance of mediators associated with social class is to provide pervasive (and not differential) effects upon the various mental abilities. This conclusion allows selection among several explanations offered to interpret cultural influences upon intellectual activity.⁵⁴

On the issue of stimulation-reinforcement she concludes that,

. . . once true language begins to develop there is no clear evidence that any specific kind of adult response, verbal or non-verbal, aids the child's progress. Natural observations and the few existing manipulative studies are consistent with the hypothesis that it is the amount and richness of language stimulation available in the context of face-to-face interaction which is most important. Differential access to such stimulation by children from different subcultural groups can be explained by differences in the conditions of their lives, . . .⁵⁵

These conditions she defines from the research as variety of family activity, range of objects as referents, active participation with more verbally mature individuals, and range of personal contacts.⁵⁶ With these conditions in mind Cazden suggests that, "a child's language development should be evaluated in terms of his progress toward the norms for his particular speech community."⁵⁷

She concludes: we know little about dialect differences but that there is the expectation of knowledge in ongoing research; we know most

⁵⁴Lesser as quoted in Cazden, Ibid., p. 192.

⁵⁵Ibid., p. 202.

⁵⁶Ibid., pp. 195-96.

⁵⁷Ibid., p. 204.

about language development and the evidence is that "retardation among lower-class children is extensive;" we know little about differences in language function and basic research is needed on the ways of categorizing language function in natural speech and of analyzing the use of language as mediation.⁵⁸

Research since Cazden has born out her expectations of knowledge about dialect differences. As Baratz points out, however, this knowledge has led to disagreement over grammar construction.

All the linguists studying Negro non-standard English agree that these differences are systematized structured rules within the vernacular; they agree that these differences can interfere with the learning of standard English but they do not always agree as to the precise nature of these different rules. . . . No one would disagree that standard English has a grammatical structure and uniqueness and many descriptions of that structure have been written. Yet it is probably true that no two linguists would agree in all details on how to write that grammar.⁵⁹

Shuy notes that the copula and auxiliary have been the most fruitful areas of study. He also mentions frequency distribution differences between racial and social groups in multiple negation, pronominal apposition, r-deletion, l-deletion, consonant-cluster reduction, and devoicing of word-final stop consonants.⁶⁰

Shuy has drawn clear lines for the correlation of grammatical patterns and social-racial stratification: The particular feature must be

⁵⁸Ibid., p. 213.

⁵⁹Joan C. Baratz, "Linguistic and Cultural Factors in Teaching Reading to Ghetto Children," in Eldonna L. Everetts, ed., Aspects of Reading (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1970), p. 50.

⁶⁰Roger W. Shuy, "A Linguistic Background for Developing Beginning Reading Materials for Black Children," in Joan C. Baratz and Roger W. Shuy, eds., Teaching Black Children to Read (Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1969), pp. 121-22.

expected to occur in the discourse, and it must be readily quantifiable.⁶¹ As language correlates he chose multiple negation, pronominal apposition, and cluster reduction as his variables. "In the first place, for some time now educators have focused on them as 'stigmatized' features of American English. An impressionistic association of these features with social stratification thus nominates them to be investigated for their actual correlation with the social variables of status, age, sex, and race. They also meet the requirement of sufficient occurrence in the corpora. Further more these features can be readily quantified."⁶² He concluded that there was a close correlation between the relative frequency of these three features and his variables of social status, age, sex, and race.

Labov among others has noted the copula as an important distinguisher of Negro dialect.

One of the most well-known characteristics of this [Negro] dialect of English is the absence of the copula in the present before predicate nouns and adjectives, locatives and comitative phrases, and the parallel absence of the forms of to be in the auxiliary unit be...ing:

He a friend.	He over there.
He tired.	He with us.
	He working with us. ⁶³

Loflin has confirmed this observation and made an argument that there are deep structure semantic differences in sentences containing the verb

⁶¹Roger W. Shuy, "A Study of Social Dialects in Detroit" (Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 1969), p. 6.

⁶²Ibid.

⁶³William Labov and Paul Cohen, "Systematic Relations of Standard and Non-Standard Rules in the Grammars of Negro Speakers" (Columbia University, New York City, 1967), p. 6.

"be" which lead to structural ambiguity.⁶⁴

Labov,⁶⁵ Baratz,⁶⁶ and Shuy⁶⁷ have found that the third person singular marker of the verb is simplified consistently in the Negro dialect while it is retained in the equivalent White social dialect. "The third person singular marker //-s// does not exist in the particular grammar being used here (Negro)."⁶⁸

Baratz⁶⁹ and Labov⁷⁰ have both related the absence of the possessive pronoun and the terminal t/d and "ed" suffix reduction to Negro dialect.

Baratz has pulled the literature of differences together and noted: "The Negro ghetto child is speaking a significantly different language from that of his middle class teachers. Most of his middle class teachers have wrongly viewed his language as pathological, disordered, 'lazy speech.' This failure to recognize the interference from the child's different

⁶⁴Marvin D. Loflin, "A Note on the Deep Structure of Nonstandard English in Washington, D. C." (Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, D. C., 1966), p. 1.

⁶⁵William Labov, "Some Sources of Reading Problems for Negro Speakers of Non-Standard English," in Joan C. Baratz and Roger W. Shuy, eds., Teaching Black Children to Read (Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1969), pp. 59-60.

⁶⁶Joan C. Baratz, "Teaching Reading in an Urban Negro School System," in Joan C. Baratz and Roger W. Shuy, eds., Teaching Black Children to Read (Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1969), p. 98.

⁶⁷Shuy, "A Linguistic Background for Developing Beginning Reading Materials for Black Children," op. cit., p. 129.

⁶⁸Labov, "Some Sources of Reading Problems for Negro Speakers of Non-Standard English," loc. cit.

⁶⁹Baratz, "Teaching Reading in an Urban Negro School System," loc. cit.

⁷⁰Labov, "Some Sources of Reading Problems for Negro Speakers of Non-Standard English," op. cit., p. 51.

linguistic system, and consequent negative teacher attitudes towards the child and his language, leads directly to reading difficulties and subsequent school failure."⁷¹

She summarizes the differences in distributions, patterns, and syntax found by other researchers:

VARIABLE	STANDARD ENGLISH	NEGRO NON-STANDARD
Linking verb	He <u>is</u> going.	He <u>goin'</u> .
Possessive marker	John' <u>s</u> cousin.	John <u>cousin</u> .
Plural marker	I have five cents <u>.</u>	I got five cent <u>.</u>
Subject expression	John <u>lives</u> in New York.	John <u>he live</u> in New York.
Verb form	I <u>drank</u> the milk.	I <u>drunk</u> the milk.
Past marker	Yesterday he <u>walked</u> home.	Yesterday he <u>walk</u> home.
Verb agreement	He <u>runs</u> home.	He <u>run</u> home.
	She <u>has</u> a bicycle.	She <u>have</u> a bicycle.
Future form	I <u>will go</u> home.	I' <u>ma go</u> home.
"If" construction	I asked <u>if he did</u> <u>it</u> .	I aks <u>did he do it</u> .
Negation	I <u>don't</u> have <u>any</u> .	I <u>don't</u> got <u>none</u> .
	He <u>didn't</u> go.	He <u>ain't</u> go.
Indefinite article	I want <u>an</u> apple.	I want <u>a</u> apple.
Pronoun form	<u>We</u> have to do it.	<u>Us</u> got to do it.
	<u>His</u> book	<u>He</u> book
Preposition	He is over <u>at</u> his friend's house.	He over <u>to</u> his friend house.
	He teaches <u>at</u> Francis Pool.	He teach <u>Francis</u> Pool.
Be	Statement: He <u>is</u> <u>here all the time</u> .	Statement: He <u>be</u> <u>here</u> .
Do	Contradiction: No he <u>isn't</u> .	Contradiction: No he <u>don't</u> . ⁷²

Written Dialect Learning to write English composition is quite distinct from speech. Handwriting, spelling, vocabulary, grammar, usage, rhetoric, creative writing, practical writing and modes of discourse are

⁷¹Baratz, "Linguistic and Cultural Factors in Teaching Reading to Ghetto Children," op. cit., p. 49.

⁷²Ibid., p. 50.

variables which Braddock relates to the general topic English Composition.⁷³

The dialect features just discussed were found in oral language and may or may not be found frequently in composition. Labov suggests four points of oral language and written language congruence worthy of study.

- a. Forms of agreement of the verbs be, have, do, say.
- b. Forms of the possessive: attributive nouns and pronouns.
- c. The points where negative concord occurs--especially whether the negative appears with both subject indefinites in the preverbal position as in Nobody don't know.
- d. The duplication of place adverbs, as in I wanna get down back on that.⁷⁴

He has also indicated that some differences are easy to reduce to standard English while others are not.

There are many syntactic rules by which non-standard Negro English differs from standard English. Some, like the optional deletion of the copula in He with us, are commonplace and are easily converted to the standard form by speakers. But many other syntactic differences are governed by deep-seated and abstract rules. Embedded yes-no questions such as I asked Alvin if he knew appear as I asked Alvin did he know. In this case we are dealing with two alternate realizations of an underlying "Question" element: the use of if with declarative order, as opposed to no if with the inverted order of auxiliary and subject. This non-standard form is surprisingly regular and resistant to conversion to the standard form.⁷⁵

An early and widely quoted study of social class and standard English writing relationships was reported by Fries in his American English Grammar.⁷⁶

The study was an analysis of some three thousand letters sent to government agencies during World War II. Fries concluded that "Vulgar English" was

⁷³Braddock, "English Composition," op. cit., p. 443.

⁷⁴Labov, The Study of Non-Standard English, op. cit., pp. 62-63.

⁷⁵William Labov, "The Non-Standard Vernacular of the Negro Community--Some Practical Suggestions" (Columbia University, New York City, 1967), p. 3.

⁷⁶Charles C. Fries, American English Grammar (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1940).

characterized by both an impoverishment of grammatical structure and vocabulary. He noted also that it used less of the resources of the language.

Miller developed a Mechanics of English scale which in part avoided the dialect related items mentioned by most language researchers. He used the Mechanics of English sections in two popular language arts texts in use in his school districts.

I. Punctuation (omission or misuse)

- A. Period ending sentences
- B. Question mark ending sentences
- C. Abbreviations (Mr., Mrs., and Ia.)
- D. After an initial
- E. Question mark at the close of a question
- F. Comma between the name of a city and the state
- G. Comma in a series
- H. Comma in a date

II. Capitalization (omission or misuse)

- A. First word in a sentence
- B. First and last name
- C. Name of city, state, school, day, month and some titles
- D. Holidays
- E. The word I⁷⁷

Parts III, IV, and V covered material related to dialect differences.

Two recent studies of Negro dialect were based upon the underlying theory that the dialect studied (Alabama Negro) had a system of its own and that this system could be described in deviations from standard English.

D. G. Briggs⁷⁸ studied deviations found in the papers of selected Birmingham, Alabama, high school students. She used Loban's categories

⁷⁷ Raymond L. Miller, "An Evaluation of an Experimental Written Composition Program for Second Grade" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Nebraska, 1967), pp. 69-70.

⁷⁸ Delores Griffin Briggs, "Deviations From Standard English in Papers of Selected Alabama Negro High School Students" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Alabama, 1968), Abstract.

(Verb Problems, Pronoun Problems, Syntactic Problems, and Other Problems) with the addition of two for spelling and vocabulary. Only in spelling and vocabulary did the students in the higher grades show a regular decrease in deviations per 1000 words. Total deviations (minus spelling and vocabulary) were almost consistent from grade to grade. They were also consistently higher than Loban's totals.

O. D. Briggs, working with Alabama Junior College students, found that the students had higher group and deviational means than Loban's ninth grade students (with the exception of pronouns). He attributed this to the fact that his students wrote to a formal abstract topic, in longer T-Units with greater chance for deviation, but cautioned:

. . . it seems likely that the increased deviations in many of the categories for the college level Alabama students consisted of omitted or substituted inflectional endings which may have been passed over as being "poorly articulated" in Loban's study.

It appears evident from the irregular occurrence of many of the deviations (i.e., the informants use both they were and they was or he walk and he walked) that the writers are either misspelling some forms quite often or that they are doing some dialect shifting (they have been exposed to and have partially assimilated the standard forms and they use these forms much of the time; the assimilation process is not complete or stable, however, and the dialectal nonstandard forms keep slipping in).⁷⁹

Houston⁸⁰ compared the five areas of written compositions of fourth-grade Head-Start pupils with non-Head-Start pupils and found sentence quantity favoring the total "non" group and "non" group boys. Only the low-intelligence Head-Start group gained in sentence quantity.

⁷⁹Olin Dewitt Briggs, "A Study of Deviations From Standard English in Papers of Negro Freshmen at an Alabama College" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Alabama, 1968), Abstract.

⁸⁰David Ree Houston, "A Comparison of Written Compositions of Head-Start Pupils with Non-Head-Start Pupils" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, North Texas State University, 1969), Abstract.

Summary

In this chapter was reviewed the general concern of teachers for teaching "standard" English; the literature concerning the evaluation of written composition; and the literature concerning the identification of social dialect and its influence upon oral and written composition.

It can be concluded that at least since 1890 the teaching of composition in the public schools has remained basically unchanged. And that this teaching is characterized by concern for rules of correctness, college entrance, and a distance between professional statement and classroom practice. The assumption that a standard English is taught in public schools seems warranted.

Composition evaluation is a difficult, incomplete practice. For the most part it has been concerned with the counting and identification of errors, broad concepts of "goodness" and prediction of college success. Successful composition evaluation should control the writer, assignment, rater and corater variables. Frequency counts represented in precise ratio figures offer the greatest potential for objectivity if properly defined. Precisely defined dialect differences lend themselves easily to frequency counts, but for the more subjective aspects of expressive language a Madaus-Rippey yes or no question seems to offer the best potential for precise definition and objective evaluation.

Issues of the difference or deficiency of Black English and the context of linguistic study, either isogloss or different language, confuse the understanding of dialect identification. This study, while related to such concerns, does not seek answers to the basic theoretical issues.

Oral language dialect features are closely related to class and race. For lower class Negro speakers the problems of controlling standard dialect are more difficult than for White speakers. Problems with standard English seem to be centered in verb, copula, auxiliary usage, forms of the pronoun, double negatives, agreement, pronominal apposition, and the past conditional question.

To be successful in developing class, sex, and grammar correlations a feature must occur frequently in the discourse and be identifiable. Cazden has pointed out that evaluation of a feature should be in terms of the child's speech community. It seems reasonable to assume that continued evaluation of composition in terms of norms that are not those of the student population will place the students in a position detrimental to their language growth. And that the negative influence of this concern for form might easily be expected to register in stunted expressive language growth.

Of the oral dialect features which research has related to class and race four are pointed out as giving the greatest expectation of oral-written language congruence: verb agreement form, possessive form, negative concord, and duplication of class adverbs. The few studies which have reported oral-written language dialect correlations emphasize the persistence of nonstandard differences in written discourse, even into junior college.

This survey indicates a need for a study of the relationships of teaching dialect related writing skills to children for whom these standard forms represent identifiable oral social dialect differences in comparison with more standard speaking children.

CHAPTER III: RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction

The research procedure was designed to provide answers for the four questions of the study and to control or randomize extraneous variables. To obtain empirical answers to the questions, eight operational hypotheses were developed. To test these hypotheses it was necessary to draw a sample population, define concepts, develop instruments, and arrange procedures for the collection and analysis of data. This chapter contains a description of the development of these operations as well as a report of the statistical procedures used to test the operational hypotheses.

Theoretical Questions

The research reviewed in Chapter II indicated a need for a study of the relationships of teaching dialect related writing skills to Black Blue Collar children for whom these forms represent identifiable oral-social dialect differences in comparison with White Blue Collar and White Collar children. It also indicated that it is reasonable to assume that prolonged evaluation of student composition in terms of language norms that are contrary to those of the student's dialect might place the students in a position detrimental to their language growth and that this negative influence might easily be expected to register in stunted expressive language growth.

More specifically these expectations as phrased in Chapter I were:

1. Do Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar children differ in their Expressive Literacy production and Graphic Literacy convention use?
2. Do male and female children of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar parents differ in their Expressive Literacy production and Graphic Literacy convention use?
3. Do the variables of male and female interact with those of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar to create differences in Expressive Literacy production and Graphic Literacy convention use?
4. Is ability to use Graphic Literacy conventions related to the ability to produce Expressive Literacy?

Operational Hypotheses

For research design purposes these four theoretical questions were phrased into operational hypotheses. The eight operational hypotheses developed from the questions were categorized for ease and clarity of presentation, analysis, and discussion. The first three hypotheses deal with Expressive Literacy questions. The second three deal with Graphic Literacy questions and the last two with Expressive-Graphic Literacy relationships. The hypotheses for Expressive Literacy were:

Hypothesis One No differences will be found between the use of expressive language at each of the three grade levels as measured by the Expressive Literacy Scale for children of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar parents.

Hypothesis Two No differences will be found between the use of expressive language at each of the three grade levels as measured by the Expressive Literacy Scale for male and female children of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar parents.

Hypothesis Three The variables of male and female will not interact with those of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar at the three grade levels to create differences in Expressive Literacy production.

A second set of hypotheses developed from the study's first three questions tested conditions of no difference between the variables of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar, between male and female, and the interaction of sex variables with social class at the three grade levels on the thirteen measures of the Graphic Literacy Scale. These Graphic Literacy measures were presented in clusters of variables about phonologic, sentence structure, and verb concepts. The concepts were drawn from the race related variables discussed in Chapter II. The Graphic Literacy hypotheses were:

Hypothesis Four No differences will be found between the use of Graphic Literacy conventions at each of the three grade levels as measured by the Graphic Literacy Scores for children of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar parents.

Hypothesis Five No differences will be found between the use of Graphic Literacy conventions at each of the three grade levels as measured by the Graphic Literacy Scores for male and female children of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar parents.

Hypothesis Six The variables of male and female will not interact with those of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar at the three grade levels to create differences in Graphic Literacy convention use.

A third set of hypotheses were developed from question four. Because question four seeks to establish a relationship between Graphic Literacy use and Expressive Literacy production, only those dimensions and interactions of sex and class which demonstrated a statistically significant difference were subjected to final analysis.

Hypothesis Seven The degree of linear correlation between the Graphic Literacy Scores and the Expressive Literacy Scale for males as compared to females is zero.

Hypothesis Eight The degree of linear correlation between the Graphic Literacy Scores and the Expressive Literacy Scale as compared for the three social classes is zero.

These two hypotheses were based upon the assumption that the dimensions of sex and class have the possibility of demonstrable correlational differences. This proved to be an unwarranted assumption under the conditions of this study. In the testing of the first six hypotheses none of the dimensions of sex were found to have difference or interaction. And only in the racial conditions of class (Black Blue Collar and White--both Blue and White Collar) were there statistical differences. (Chapter IV, Tables 4, 14, 15, 34, 35, 42)

A decision not to submit hypothesis seven to correlational analysis seemed warranted. In the case of hypothesis eight the discovered differences were between the Black and White race factors.

A decision not to test the difference of correlation coefficients between the three classes seemed justified. The test in hypothesis eight became:

Hypothesis Eight The degree of linear correlation between the Graphic Literacy Scores and the Expressive Literacy Scale for Black students (Black Blue Collar) as compared to White students (White Blue Collar and White Collar) is zero.

Population

The population for this study came from integrated fourth, seventh, and eleventh grade classes in the Pontiac Public Schools. Forty-eight average students at each grade level were randomly selected from pools which met the study's definitional data of Blue Collar and White Collar, male and female, and Black and White. Of these, 16 students were socioeconomic White Collar and 32 students socioeconomic Blue Collar at each grade level. The Blue Collar groups were divided into cells of eight each of Black, White, male, and female. The White Collar dialect students were divided into two cells of eight male and female White students.

The decision to limit the standard group to White students was motivated by the fact that within the population schools a sufficient number of White Collar Black students were not available. The decision was justified by Shuy's conclusions: "It is only possible to assign social class 'labels' (e.g. upper middle class, lower middle class, etc.) to the divisions of the social level scores in an arbitrary way. The only positive use of the scores is as indicators of relative social status, so that at one end of the scale is upper class, and at the

other end, lower class. Where the divisions can be made in between, and how many can be made, or whether they can be made at all is an open question."¹

One focus of the study was to highlight the contrast between socioeconomically White Collar and Blue Collar English, both Graphic and Expressive. Within this context the decision to limit the White Collar English cells to White students seems justified.

An additional highlight to the contrast between Blue Collar and White Collar classes occurred in the fourth grade when it was not possible to generate enough White Collar students in the four fourth grade classes of the elementary school chosen for the study. Another class in a second elementary school in a more economically favored part of town was used to gather the fourth grade White Collar papers.

Forty-eight students were used at each grade level. Twenty-four were male and twenty-four female. Sixteen were Black Blue Collar, sixteen were White Blue Collar, and sixteen were White Collar. Two elementary schools, two junior highs, and one high school were used. Five fourth grade, four seventh grade, and four eleventh grade classes were taught. In the seventh grade it was necessary to select two Black Blue Collar boys and one White Collar girl from the trial procedures group.

Definitions Any student who met the school's definition for the grade level was considered to be in that grade. Black, White, male,

¹Roger W. Shuy, "A Study of Social Dialects in Detroit" (Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 1969), p. 12.

and female designations were those used in the student's CA 39 or CA 60 folder. Where data was lacking, personal interview was used.

The average ability designation was established from a suggestion by Fader and McNeil² which logically seems to offer less opportunity for bias than traditional intelligence tests. One of the first six composition periods (about 20 minutes) was devoted to the assignment of a "tin can" paper. The students were asked, "Write down as many uses for a tin can as you can invent." The assignment was illustrated with a similar group board exercise on "corn cob" uses.

The extremities of fluid verbal ability were excluded by this exercise. Average range for the fourth grade was between five and 19 uses of a tin can. For the seventh grade it was between seven and 63, and for the eleventh grade it was between nine and 106. Except for the fourth grade where 120 Blue Collar students were taught, there were real problems in finding enough Black boys to fill the cells. The available Black boys thus became the practical limits to the verbal fluency cut off points. All students used in the study fit within the average range as defined. In addition sections in the high school were chosen from the general English track in preference to college bound or remedial.

Justification for the social classification was established in Chapter II. Loban,³ among others, noted that high socioeconomic

²Daniel N. Fader and Elton B. McNeil, Hooked on Books: Program & Proof (New York: Berkley Publishing Corporation, 1968), p. 210.

³Walter Loban, Problem in Oral English (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966), p. 49.

Caucasians did not have trouble with usage while students speaking social class dialects had trouble with usage.

The population was broken into two social classes, Blue Collar and White Collar. This classification system is the same as one used in the Pontiac-Detroit area by TALUS--the Transportation and Land Use Study.⁴

Within the logic of this study the Blue Collar TALUS definition became the operational definition of nonstandard user of English and White Collar became an operational definition of standard user of English.

The TALUS profile used a dichotomized White Collar/Blue Collar class definition rather than the four-fold classifications used by the Bureau of Census and the Department of Labor. Its definition also differs from the White Collar/Blue Collar distinctions used in the Michigan Manpower Study. TALUS has done this as, ". . . a dramatic indicator of the changing roles being created by the technological revolution . . . (and to make) white collar growth relatively slow."⁵ This is done by placing Service Workers in the Blue Collar category. Such a decision seems defensible in this study as the service workers in the Pontiac area are basically lower wage earners and speakers of nonstandard varieties of English. The Dictionary of Occupational

⁴A Profile of Southeastern Michigan, TALUS Data Report of the Detroit Regional Transportation and Land Use Study (Detroit, Michigan: Southeast Michigan Council of Governments, 1968), p. 8.

⁵K. Dhanda and L. Polk, Project 210, Technical Paper #1, "Relative Growth of Blue Collar and White Collar Jobs in the Detroit Region, 1960-2000," TALUS Data, Detroit, Michigan, 1968, p. 1.

Titles,⁶ U. S. Department of Labor, lists the service occupations: Domestic; Food and Beverage Preparation; Lodging Service Occupations; Barbering, Cosmetology and Related Services; Amusement and Recreation; Personal Service; Apparel; Protective Services; and Building Services.

"The Manpower Report of the President, by the United States Department of Labor, has four major occupational groups: (1) White-Collar Workers; (2) Blue-Collar Workers; (3) Service Workers; (4) Farm Workers.

"The White-Collar occupation group includes the occupations of; (1) professional, technical and kindred workers, (2) managers, officials and proprietors (excluding farm).

"The Blue-Collar occupation group includes the occupations of; (1) craftsmen, foremen and kindred workers, (2) operative and kindred workers, (3) laborers (excluding farm and mine).

"The Service Workers occupation group includes the occupations of; (1) private household workers, (2) service workers (excluding private household workers).

"The Farm Workers occupation group includes the occupations of; (1) farmers and farm managers, (2) farm laborers and foremen."⁷

By compressing the Service Workers into the Blue Collar group this study's definition of Blue Collar comes to include in its definition the occupations of; (1) craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers, (2) operative and kindred workers, (3) laborers (excluding farm and mine), (4) private household workers, (5) service workers. There were no farm workers' children involved in the study.

⁶U. S. Department of Labor, Dictionary of Occupational Titles 1965, Vol. II: Occupational Classification, Third Edition. (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Labor, 1965), p. 1.

⁷Dhanda and Polk, loc. cit.

Instruments

The study posed two problems of instrumentation. An Expressive Literacy Scale was used to measure the natural expressive talents of a writer as he gave verbal order to his internal and external perceptions. A second instrument, Graphic Literacy Scale (a set of thirteen variables), was used to measure the productive use of standard writing forms which the literature has related to socio-race dialect.

Expressive Literacy For the most part composition evaluation has been confined to wholistic statements of "goodness" based on either impression or on criterion developed more from tradition than from empirical data. The Expressive Literacy instrument was developed to measure the use of subjective language in Holbrook's sense of literacy as ". . . insight into personal external reality,"⁸ and as symbolic work with ". . . inward problems . . . his (the student's) capacities to deal with the world, to get on with other people, and to establish his identity."⁹

Questions concerning student writing were developed in the Madaus-Ripsey¹⁰ yes-no style from the writings of Holbrook¹¹ and Macrorie.¹²

⁸David Holbrook, English for the Rejected (London: Cambridge University Press, 1964), pp. 10-11.

⁹David Holbrook, The Exploring World (London: Cambridge University Press, 1967), p. 4.

¹⁰George F. Madaus and Robert M. Ripsey, "Zeroing in on the STEP Writing Test: What Does It Tell the Teacher?" Journal of Educational Measurement, Vol. III, No. 1, (Spring, 1968).

¹¹Holbrook, English for the Rejected, op. cit.

¹²Ken Macrorie, telling writing (New York: Hayden Book Company, Inc., 1970), pp. 18-24.

The first form of the scale was pretested with a class of graduate students in a measurement class using a selection (Theme 12) from the Illinois Association of Teachers of English publication, "Evaluating Ninth-Grade Themes."¹³ The ten most reliable questions were given operational definition from student writing collected for but not used in the present study. These questions with their operational definitions were used on a random sample of papers selected for the study by another class of graduate students in an English method's class. A correlation of .16 between readers was found. The major complaint dealt with the overlapping of concepts and the lack of preciseness in definitions.

All questions developed from Holbrook's concepts of controlling internal and external reality were then taken from the scale and "Chapter Three" of telling writing became the theoretical basis for the scales' thirteen questions. Definitions and examples are in Appendix B and C.

Two readers, one Black and one White, one a junior high school teacher and one a senior high school teacher, were hired from the Pontiac system. The readers were trained to use the scale independently in an hour and a half session. In each case the readers were asked to defend their choice of rating by referring to specifics in the trial papers. The resulting correlation was an unacceptable .20.

In a second training session the researcher presented his ratings of the same papers to the readers in a group session. In each case he

¹³Illinois Association of Teachers of English, "Evaluating Ninth-Grade Themes," Illinois English Bulletin, Vol. XL, No. 7, (March, 1953), pp. 22-23.

referred to specifics in the papers to justify the rating. The readers tended to agree with the researcher and when they disagreed it was a parallel disagreement with the two readers disagreeing with the researcher.

The readers then read ten papers with a correlation of .77. During the final training session the readers maintained a correlation of .65.

Graphic Literacy Braddock¹⁴ has suggested that frequency counts have a potential for objective definition. The difficulty with such counts is the need for precise definition. His suggestion also points out that the purpose of evaluation needs to be determined and controls for extraneous variables be introduced. As an alternative of simple error counts he suggests the frequency counts be correlated with other variables or expressed in an error quotient, errors divided by total opportunity.

The Graphic Literacy skills measured in this study are those which have been found to correlate with social-racial dialect. They can be subsumed into three main categories, phonologic, syntactic, and verbal.

Phonologic Variables Labov¹⁵ in discussing race related problems in reading mentions five phonologic problem areas: 1) r-lessness, 2) l-lessness, 3) simplification of consonant clusters, 4) weakening of final consonants, and 5) other variables. Because the study sought to discount spelling as a deterrent to writing by actively helping children spell their words, several of the categories were not used although most

¹⁴Richard Braddock, Richard Lloyd-Jones, and Lowell Schoer, Research in Written Composition (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963), p. 41.

¹⁵William Labov, "Some Sources of Reading Problems for Negro Speakers of Non-Standard English," in Joan C. Baratz and Roger W. Shuy, eds., Teaching Black Children to Read (Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1969), pp. 40-46.

help was asked for in the fourth grade with rarely used nouns. A count of weakened final consonants indicated a sizable proportion of the d and s consonants were omitted. The -t consonant did not occur enough to use (2). Following Labov's report of differential reduction according to grammatical status the data was analyzed into -d for both root words (an -d) and verbs (bake -d or done for did). This latter category was made up of negative past tense markers.

The -s category was broken down into root words (like wa -s for was), plural nouns (boy -s were), the third person of the verb (he get -s), and 's for possession (papa bear -s chair).

The counts for the -s root words were too insufficient (3) to use and were therefore dropped. The -d root words were also relatively few in number (19), however, they supported the expected direction of the -d verb in indicating Black English. These 19 (all of them were an -d for and) were added to the -d verb category and counted as simply phonologic -d.

The phonologic variables which were used were: -s plural nouns, -s possessive, -s third person verb, -d (verb plus an -d).

The scores were presented in number of deviations per 100 chances. One (1) deviation in five (5) chances was reported as 20 per hundred.

Verb Variables Loban,¹⁶ Labov,¹⁷ and others have noted that social class dialects can be distinguished by verb use. Loban has found that through schooling dramatic improvement can be made in auxiliary verb

¹⁶Loban, loc. cit.

¹⁷Labov, op. cit., pp. 51-52.

use and omissions, while the "be" verb persists as a problem. The verb variables used for the Graphic Literacy Scores were -past tense, -auxiliary, and -copula.

It should be noted that the verb -past tense and phonologic -d catagories intersect in part. At the time of the experimental design the relationship of either or both to race and composition was not known. Subsequently the phonologic -d was discarded for the more fruitful -past tense. This was especially necessary to conduct the multiple regression correlations to discover if Graphic Literacy variables clustered to predict Expressive Literacy.

The phonologic and verb deviations from standard textbook forms were presented in number of deviations per 100 chances of opportunity scores.

Sentence Variables McDavid and Austin¹⁸ have noted that grammar reflects social and educational advantage. Within this light it seemed reasonable to measure and compare syntactic differences in sentence structure. If two groups are equated for social and educational factors then any differences in syntax might be assumed to reside in differential social-cultural syntactic conflicts with the standard school syntax.

The T-unit as developed by Hunt¹⁹ was used as the basic unit. Garbles, as defined by Hunt,²⁰ were included in a second variable called fragments which also included intelligible but unrelated sentence segments.

¹⁸Raven I. McDavid, "American Social Dialects," College English, Vol. XXVI, No. 4, (January, 1965), p. 258.

¹⁹Kellogg W. Hunt, Grammatical Structures Written at Three Grade Levels, NCTE Committee on Research Report No. 3 (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965), pp. 20-53.

²⁰Ibid., p. 6.

In addition to fragments, run-on sentences, -end punctuation, and -capitalization were measured. All four variables were reported in occurrence per 100 T-units.

Shuy²¹ chose pronominal apposition (My brother he go to town.) and the double negative as two of his three variables for measuring social dialect. Baratz²² suggested the "past conditional question" (I ask did he do it. replaces, I asked if he did it.) is a firm indicator of Black English or dialect. These three constructions were measured, but the total frequency of each was so small (apposition, 3; double negative, 10; and "if," 1) that they were summed into one variable called Black sentences and reported in chances per T-unit.

Data Collection

The data was collected from fourth, seventh, and eleventh grade classes on the last day of a seven day treatment (See Appendix A) designed to generate the most thoughtfully expressive writing possible. Each day the class was given an audio-visual experience followed by a discussion and then a 30-45 minute writing period. The researcher, who taught the lesson, and the regular teacher circulated about the class helping students on request with spelling. In the fourth grade important words were frequently placed on the board during the discussion period. The requests for help decreased with age. Papers were

²¹Roger W. Shuy, "A Linguistic Background for Developing Beginning Reading Materials for Black Children," in Joan C. Baratz and Roger W. Shuy, eds., Teaching Black Children to Read (Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1969), pp. 121-22.

²²Joan C. Baratz, "Linguistic and Cultural Factors in Teaching Reading to Ghetto Children," in Eldonna L. Evertts, ed., Aspects of Reading (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1970), p. 50.

collected from the students at the end of each writing period. On the seventh day all papers were returned to the students, and they were given instructions to select and write about one of five topics.

DIRECTIONS

Read your papers. Your assignment is to find the writing which you think will interest me the most. You may wish to:

1. Write or rewrite a story,
2. Tell me a personal experience,
3. Start with something concrete, and make an imaginative jump to ? ,
4. Explain to me what your reactions to the past six days have been,
5. Put together the sentences and ideas which you think I will be most interested in reading.

DO ONLY ONE.

Fourth grade Blue Collar students reacted quite differently to the last day's assignment than did White Collar fourth graders and seventh and eleventh graders. Where the fourth grade Blue Collar students had applied themselves diligently for up to 45 minutes of writing on the first six days, they treated the last day like something of a party day, writing a shorter time.

Eleventh grade students reversed the pattern. A few wrote well each day but no one consistently and rarely a class in unison. On the last day by far the longest and most intense writing was produced.

Several deviations from the initial plans were made necessary by the nature of the populations under study. All of the fourth grades in one elementary school (four) received the treatment, but it was not possible to generate more than four or five of the sixteen members of the White Collar cells. A fifth class in a more favorable economic

area of Pontiac then received the treatment and the sixteen White Collar members were selected from this classroom.

Three students, two Blue Collar Black males and one White Collar female from the pre-data collecting trial session were used to complete cell sizes in the seventh grade section. These students received essentially the same treatment as the data collection groups. The papers were selected randomly by alphabetical position from the pool of papers. They met all other definitional criteria.

Four classes of eleventh grade general English students made up the high school population. Three tracks, college, general, and remedial are used in the school. The "tin can" or verbal fluency test was also used with all classes.²³ Although there were sufficient numbers to fill the eleventh grade cell sizes, on the last day three Black boys did not write. The researcher returned the next day and had them write in as close an approximation of procedure as could be made.

The papers used in the final body for analysis were selected on a random alphabetical basis from lists of students who qualified for cell definitions. The papers were typed with spelling corrected. The Graphic Literacy Scale ratings were made by the researcher. The Expressive Literacy Scale ratings were by two readers from the Pontiac system.

Statistical Procedures Correlation and 2 x 2 analysis of variance were used to check the agreement between the two readers. The variables in the first six hypotheses were compared by the use of a 2 x 3 analysis of variance. The last two hypotheses, where the ANOVA

²³Fader and McNeil, loc. cit.

indicated a need for investigation, were measured by correlation and compared by significance of correlation statistics. Such testing procedures made it possible to accept or reject the hypotheses on an individual variable basis.

There was also sufficient suggestion that the variables might act in consort to warrant the development of a multiple regression correlation of clustered Graphic Literacy variables to Expressive Literacy Scores. This resulted in a measure of the strength of Graphic Literacy Scores to predict high or low Expressive Literacy. A multiple regression statistic was therefore used to assist in the interpretation of findings found in Chapter V.

Summary

To provide the answers for the four theoretical questions of the study eight operational hypotheses were developed. The data to be compared consisted of one paper by each of 144 students rewritten after six daily writings given in response to audio-visual experiences.

Frequency counts for the Graphic Literacy Scales were made by the researcher. The writings were read by two readers and rated on an Expressive Literacy Scale developed in the Madaus-Riphey fashion of yes-no answers.

Efforts were made to control extraneous variables which could affect the results. All writers were given the same directions, wrote over a period of seven days and were exposed to the same stimulus. The final cells were balanced for number, race, sex, and socio-class.

All papers were typed, spelling corrected, alphabetized, and names masked from the readers. Two readers were used and their scores added to reduce the variability.

Through the use of type-token measures and the yes-no questions the variables were precisely defined and measured. The items used were those for which the literature indicated the greatest expected frequency and ease of measurement.

CHAPTER IV: ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter presents the statistical tests of the agreement of the two readers using the Expressive Literacy Scale and the tests of the three sets of hypotheses obtained from the study's four questions: Expressive Literacy hypotheses, Graphic Literacy hypotheses, Expressive Literacy and Graphic Literacy relationships.

The hypotheses are presented in three clusters relating to the study's questions. The Graphic Literacy hypotheses are further subdivided into components of phonology, sentence structure, and verb.

The data used was developed in accordance with the procedures presented in Chapter III. A discussion of the implications of the analysis are presented in Chapter V.

Reader Agreement

The two readers used for the Expressive Literacy Scale ratings were teachers in the Pontiac schools. Both were female, one White, one Black. One taught in a senior the other in a junior high school.

All 144 of the study's papers were typed and read by the readers in alphabetical order without sex, age, or class designations.

In the final pretraining session the readers read with a consistent correlation of .65. Over the 144 papers of the study their correlation was .47. (Table 1)

TABLE 1
CORRELATION OF BLACK AND WHITE
READERS ON 144 PAPERS

Readers	
White	$\bar{X} = 2.82$
Black	$\bar{Y} = 2.61$
Correlation	$r_{x.y} = 0.47$

To check upon the possibility that the race of the reader might have influenced the readings, the readers and papers were compared in a 2 x 2 analysis of variance. (Table 2 and 2.1)

TABLE 2
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR 2 X 2 DATA MATRIX
COMPARING BLACK AND WHITE READERS
ON BLACK AND WHITE PAPERS

Readers	White Scores	Black Scores	Row Total
White	$\bar{X} = 2.96$	$\bar{X} = 2.54$	5.50
	s.d. = 1.10	s.d. = 1.30	
	N = 96	N = 48	
Black	$\bar{X} = 2.83$	$\bar{X} = 2.17$	5.00
	s.d. = 1.16	s.d. = 0.97	
	N = 96	N = 48	
Column Total	5.79	4.71	

TABLE 2.1
SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR
BLACK AND WHITE READERS BY
BLACK AND WHITE PAPERS

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	4.00	1	4.00	3.089
Column	18.78	1	18.78	14.501*
Row x Column	1.00	1	1.00	0.772
Error	367.75	284	1.29	

$$*p. < .01 \quad F_{.01} (1,284) = 6.75$$

A statistically significant result (Table 2.1) was obtained between the Black and White Expressive Literacy Scores. The White papers were favored. This result does not indicate a difference between readers but rather an agreement. No significant result was found between the readers (Row) or in the reader by race interaction (Row x Column). The reader's ratings were accepted as valid.

The reader correlations posed another problem. The error which influenced the decreased correlations was judged to be Type II error leading to conservative conditions of rejecting the null hypothesis. Garrett comments on error, ". . . the wisest course when significance is doubtful or uncertain--is to demand more evidence."¹

¹Henry E. Garrett, Statistics in Psychology and Education, Fifth Edition, (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1965), p. 222.

Hypothesis Testing, Expressive Literacy

The first three questions of the study were developed into sets of operational hypotheses for Expressive Literacy and Graphic Literacy.

The questions were:

1. Do Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar children differ in their Expressive Literacy production and Graphic Literacy convention use?
2. Do male and female children of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar parents differ in their Expressive Literacy production and Graphic Literacy convention use?
3. Do the variables of male and female interact with those of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar to create differences in Expressive Literacy production and Graphic Literacy convention use?

Three Expressive Literacy related hypotheses were developed from these questions. Information regarding these hypotheses was obtained from a 2 x 3 analysis of variance comparing the male, female variables by the Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar variables at the three grade levels. These hypotheses, the data used to test the hypotheses, a summary table of the data's relationship to the hypotheses and an analysis of Expressive Literacy follow.

The Expressive Literacy related hypotheses developed from the questions were:

Hypothesis One No differences will be found between the use of expressive language at each of the three grade levels as measured by the Expressive Literacy Scale for children of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar parents.

TABLE 3

FOURTH GRADE EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCORES COMPARED IN A 2 X 3
DATA MATRIX, SEX BY THREE SOCIOECONOMIC VARIABLES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 3.62$	$\bar{X} = 4.25$	$\bar{X} = 4.25$	12.12
	s.d. = 0.92	s.d. = 1.75	s.d. = 1.58	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 4.25$	$\bar{X} = 4.87$	$\bar{X} = 5.12$	14.25
	s.d. = 1.58	s.d. = 1.46	s.d. = 1.46	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	7.87	9.12	9.37	

TABLE 3.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FOURTH GRADE
EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCORES

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	6.02	1	6.02	2.745
Column	5.17	2	2.58	1.178
Row x Column	0.17	2	0.08	0.038
Error	92.13	42	2.193	

TABLE 4

SEVENTH GRADE EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCORES COMPARED IN A 2 X 3
DATA MATRIX, SEX BY THREE SOCIOECONOMIC VARIABLES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 3.12$	$\bar{X} = 6.12$	$\bar{X} = 6.12$	15.37
	s.d. = 0.99	s.d. = 1.36	s.d. = 1.89	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 5.12$	$\bar{X} = 6.37$	$\bar{X} = 5.62$	17.12
	s.d. = 2.03	s.d. = 1.41	s.d. = 2.13	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	8.25	12.50	11.75	

TABLE 4.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SEVENTH GRADE
EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCORES

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	4.08	1	4.08	1.438
Column	41.17	2	20.58	7.249*
Row x Column	13.17	2	6.58	2.319
Error	119.25	42	2.839	

*p. < .01 $F_{.01}(2,42) = 5.16$

TABLE 5

ELEVENTH GRADE EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCORES COMPARED IN A 2 X 3
DATA MATRIX, SEX BY THREE SOCIOECONOMIC VARIABLES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 6.62$	$\bar{X} = 6.37$	$\bar{X} = 6.25$	19.25
	s.d. = 1.19	s.d. = 1.60	s.d. = 1.28	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 5.37$	$\bar{X} = 6.62$	$\bar{X} = 6.25$	18.25
	s.d. = 1.41	s.d. = 1.69	s.d. = 1.67	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	12.00	13.00	12.50	

TABLE 5.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ELEVENTH GRADE
EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCORES

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	1.33	1	1.33	0.605
Column	2.00	2	1.00	0.454
Row x Column	5.17	2	2.58	1.173
Error	92.50	42	2.202	

TABLE 6
SUMMARY OF EXPRESSIVE LITERACY HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis	Content	Grade	Table	Decision
One	A condition of no difference exists between the three social classes.	4	3	Accepted
		7	4	Rejected*
		11	5	Accepted
Two	A condition of no difference exists between the male and female.	4	3	Accepted
		7	4	Accepted
		11	5	Accepted
Three	A condition of no difference exists between the interaction of male-female and the three social classes.	4	3	Accepted
		7	4	Accepted
		11	5	Accepted

*p. < .01 $F_{.01}(2,42) = 5.16$

Hypothesis Two No differences will be found between the use of expressive language at each of the three grade levels as measured by the Expressive Literacy Scale for male and female children of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar parents.

Hypothesis Three The variables of male and female will not interact with those of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar at the three grade levels to create differences in Expressive Literacy production.

Analysis, Expressive Literacy Hypothesis one was accepted for the fourth and eleventh grades; there was no difference. (Tables 3 and 5) The data rejected hypothesis one in the seventh grade. (Table 4) Inspection of the three column totals indicates that the difference results from a low Black Blue Collar score.

Hypothesis two (sex variables) and hypothesis three (interaction) were accepted. The expected differences between sexes and interaction of sex with socioeconomic variables did not materialize.

Hypothesis Testing, Graphic Literacy

The second set of null hypotheses developed from the study's first three questions tested conditions of no difference between the variables of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar, between male and female and the interaction of sex variables with social class at the three grade levels on the thirteen measures of the Graphic Literacy Scale.

After the statement of hypotheses four, five, and six, the data obtained from a 2 x 3 analysis of variance comparing the variables at the three grade levels is presented in table form. To facilitate an understanding of the multiple concepts the data is organized into groups based upon the Graphic Literacy components of phonology, sentence structure and verb. After each component data presentation a summary table is included and the data analyzed.

Hypothesis Four No differences will be found between the use of Graphic Literacy conventions at each of the three grade levels as measured by the Graphic Literacy Scores for children of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar parents.

Hypothesis Five No differences will be found between the use of Graphic Literacy conventions at each of the three grade levels as measured by the Graphic Literacy Scores for male and female children of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar parents.

Hypothesis Six The variables of male and female will not interact with those of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar at the three grade levels to create differences in Graphic Literacy convention use.

The thirteen separate measures were organized into three concept clusters which the research indicated as having a race relationship: phonologic, sentence structure, and verb variables.

Phonologic Variables The research indicated that some Black-White phonologic differences are plainly marked and easy to observe. It suggested that these differences can lead to problems of understanding. This study selected four letter consequences in writing of these phonologic differences: -s on plural nouns, -s on the possessive, -s on the third person of a verb, and -d. These deviations were reported in a deviation per 100 chances ratio.

Analysis, Phonologic Variables A comparison of the four phonologic variables at the three grade levels developed two statistically significant differences: the -d in the seventh grade and the -s on plural nouns in the eleventh. In both cases the column totals indicated that the deviations favored White classes (Blue and White Collar) over Black (Blue Collar).

TABLE 7

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -S PLURAL, FOURTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 12$	$\bar{X} = 6$	$\bar{X} = 0$	19
	s.d. = 25	s.d. = 18	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 11$	$\bar{X} = 4$	$\bar{X} = 0$	15
	s.d. = 19	s.d. = 7	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	24	10	0	

TABLE 7.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FOURTH GRADE
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -S PLURAL

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	0.082
Column	0.11	2	0.06	2.485
Row x Column	0.00	2	0.00	0.027
Error	0.96	42	0.023	

TABLE 8

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -S POSSESSIVE, FOURTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 9$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	9
	s.d. = 25	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 1	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	0
	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	9	0	0	

TABLE 8.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FOURTH GRADE
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -S POSSESSIVE

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.01	1	0.01	1.114
Column	0.02	2	0.01	0.943
Row x Column	0.02	2	0.01	0.943
Error	0.45	42	0.010	

TABLE 9

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -S THIRD PERSON, FOURTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 4$	$\bar{X} = 1$	$\bar{X} = 0$	5
	s.d. = 11	s.d. = 4	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 1$	1
	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 4	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	4	1	1	

TABLE 9.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FOURTH GRADE
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -S THIRD PERSON

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	0.818
Column	0.00	2	0.00	0.364
Row x Column	0.00	2	0.00	1.091
Error	0.10	42	0.002	

TABLE 10

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -D, FOURTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 15$	$\bar{X} = 13$	$\bar{X} = 0$	27
	s.d. = 27	s.d. = 35	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 24$	$\bar{X} = 16$	$\bar{X} = 0$	40
	s.d. = 33	s.d. = 32	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	39	29	0	

TABLE 10.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FOURTH GRADE
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -D

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.02	1	0.02	0.305
Column	0.32	2	0.16	2.367
Row x Column	0.02	2	0.01	0.113
Error	2.87	42	0.068	

TABLE 11

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -S PLURAL, SEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 2$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	2
	s.d. = 5	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 4$	$\bar{X} = 2$	$\bar{X} = 1$	7
	s.d. = 7	s.d. = 7	s.d. = 4	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	6	2	1	

TABLE 11.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SEVENTH GRADE
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -S PLURAL

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	1.436
Column	0.01	2	0.00	1.167
Row x Column	0.00	2	0.00	0.090
Error	0.10	42	0.002	

TABLE 12

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -S POSSESSIVE, SEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	0
	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 2$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	2
	s.d. = 4	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	2	0	0	

TABLE 12.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SEVENTH GRADE
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -S POSSESSIVE

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	1.874
Column	0.00	2	0.00	1.874
Row x Column	0.00	2	0.00	1.874
Error	0.01	42	0.000	

TABLE 13

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -S THIRD PERSON, SEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 1$	$\bar{X} = 0$	1
	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 4	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 15$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	15
	s.d. = 35	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	15	1	0	

TABLE 13.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SEVENTH GRADE
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -S THIRD PERSON

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.03	1	0.03	1.247
Column	0.06	2	0.03	1.371
Row x Column	0.07	2	0.03	1.619
Error	0.85	42	0.020	

TABLE 14

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -D, SEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 4$	$\bar{X} = 4$	$\bar{X} = 0$	8
	s.d. = 7	s.d. = 7	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 7$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	7
	s.d. = 10	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 1	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	11	4	0	

TABLE 14.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SEVENTH GRADE
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -D

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	0.037
Column	0.02	2	0.01	3.336*
Row x Column	0.01	2	0.00	0.112
Error	0.15	42	0.004	

*p. < .05 $F_{.05}(2,42) = 3.20$

TABLE 15

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -S PLURAL, ELEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 4$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	4
	s.d. = 10	s.d. = 1	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 4$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	4
	s.d. = 5	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	8	0	0	

TABLE 15.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ELEVENTH GRADE
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -S PLURAL

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	0.033
Column	0.02	2	0.01	3.611*
Row x Column	0.00	2	0.00	0.011
Error	0.10	42	0.002	

*p. < .05 $F_{.05}(2,42) = 3.20$

TABLE 16

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -S POSSESSIVE, ELEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 1$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	1
	s.d. = 4	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	0
	s.d. = 1	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	2	0	0	

TABLE 16.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ELEVENTH GRADE
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -S POSSESSIVE

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	0.310
Column	0.00	2	0.00	1.690
Row x Column	0.00	2	0.00	0.310
Error	0.01	42	0.000	

TABLE 17

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -S THIRD PERSON, ELEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 1$	$\bar{X} = 1$	$\bar{X} = 1$	4
	s.d. = 4	s.d. = 4	s.d. = 4	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 2$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	2
	s.d. = 4	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	3	1	1	

TABLE 17.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ELEVENTH GRADE
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -S THIRD PERSON

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	0.722
Column	0.00	2	0.00	0.422
Row x Column	0.00	2	0.00	0.422
Error	0.04	42	0.001	

TABLE 18

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -D, ELEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 13$	$\bar{X} = 1$	$\bar{X} = 3$	17
	s.d. = 35	s.d. = 2	s.d. = 5	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 12$	$\bar{X} = 3$	$\bar{X} = 1$	16
	s.d. = 15	s.d. = 5	s.d. = 4	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	25	3	4	

TABLE 18.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ELEVENTH GRADE
 PHONOLOGIC VARIABLE, -D

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	0.001
Column	0.12	2	0.06	2.470
Row x Column	0.00	2	0.00	0.050
Error	1.06	42	0.025	

TABLE 19

SUMMARY OF GRAPHIC LITERACY HYPOTHESES RELATING TO PHONOLOGY

Hypothesis	Content	Grade	Table	Decision
Four	A condition of no difference in the use of the four measures of phonology exists between the three social classes.	4	7-8 9-10	Accepted
		7	11-12 13-14	Rejected*
		11	15-16 17-18	Rejected**
Five	A condition of no difference in the use of the four measures of phonology exists between male and female.	4	7-8 9-10	Accepted
		7	11-12 13-14	Accepted
		11	15-16 17-18	Accepted
Six	A condition of no difference in the use of the four measures of phonology exists as they interact with sex and social class variables.	4	7-8 9-10	Accepted
		7	11-12 13-14	Accepted
		11	15-16 17-18	Accepted

*p. < .05 F_{.05} (2,42) = 3.20 (-d, Table 14)

**p. < .05 F_{.05} (2,42) = 3.20 (-s plural noun, Table 15)

The -d variable existed as a trouble spot for Black students in all three grades although it reached a significant level only in the seventh. Fourth grade White Blue Collar students also experienced some difficulty. White Collar students had no difficulty. The occurrence is relatively frequent, 20 deviations per 100 chances at its

highest for fourth grade Black students and 12 deviations for eleventh grade Black students. The -s plural noun follows a similar pattern with less frequent occurrence ratio, 4 per 100 in the eleventh grade where significance was achieved and 12 per 100 in the fourth grade.

Hypothesis four relating to a no difference between social classes for each of the thirteen variables was accepted in the fourth grade, and accepted for twelve of the thirteen variables in both the seventh and eleventh grades.

Hypothesis five relating to a condition of no difference between male and female variables was accepted for the phonologic variables at all of the three grade levels.

Hypothesis six relating to a condition of no difference between male and female variables as they interact with those of social class was accepted for the phonologic variables at all of the three grade levels.

Sentence Structure Variables The research indicated that some Black-White oral language differences are marked in larger than phonologic structural units. Among these units were standard Black sentences using double negative, past conditional question, and pronominal apposition. The basic unit of comparing these scores became an occurrence per 100 T-unit ratio. Both the T-unit and a fragment category are reported. In speech, intonation signals thought unit relationships; in writing this meaning is carried in part by sentence opening and closing conventions. To check upon the possibility of differential social and sex thought expression structures as related to these conventions, deviations from the standard in occurrence per 100 T-units were compared.

TABLE 20

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, T-UNITS, FOURTH GRADE,
 WORDS PER T-UNIT

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
	$\bar{X} = 12.31$	$\bar{X} = 9.32$	$\bar{X} = 9.36$	31.00
Male	s.d. = 8.68	s.d. = 3.26	s.d. = 2.49	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
	$\bar{X} = 9.10$	$\bar{X} = 9.10$	$\bar{X} = 9.71$	27.91
Female	s.d. = 2.06	s.d. = 1.13	s.d. = 1.51	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	21.41	18.42	19.07	

TABLE 20.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FOURTH GRADE
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, T-UNITS

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	12.71	1	12.71	0.763
Column	19.75	2	9.87	0.592
Row x Column	29.26	2	14.63	0.878
Error	699.99	42	16.666	

TABLE 21

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, FRAGMENTS, FOURTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 T-UNITS

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 7$	$\bar{X} = 1$	$\bar{X} = 4$	12
	s.d. = 18	s.d. = 4	s.d. = 11	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 9$	$\bar{X} = 4$	$\bar{X} = 4$	16
	s.d. = 11	s.d. = 5	s.d. = 7	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	15	5	7	

TABLE 21.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FOURTH GRADE
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, FRAGMENTS

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	0.266
Column	0.02	2	0.01	1.096
Row x Column	0.00	2	0.00	0.068
Error	0.45	42	0.011	

TABLE 22

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, -CAPITALS, FOURTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 T-UNITS

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 16$	$\bar{X} = 26$	$\bar{X} = 15$	57
	s.d. = 31	s.d. = 32	s.d. = 27	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 15$	$\bar{X} = 9$	$\bar{X} = 9$	32
	s.d. = 18	s.d. = 21	s.d. = 15	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	31	35	24	

TABLE 22.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FOURTH GRADE
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, -CAPITALS

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.08	1	0.08	1.338
Column	0.03	2	0.01	0.211
Row x Column	0.06	2	0.03	0.445
Error	2.61	42	0.062	

TABLE 23

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, -END PUNCTUATION, FOURTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 T-UNITS

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 15$	$\bar{X} = 24$	$\bar{X} = 1$	40
	s.d. = 18	s.d. = 36	s.d. = 4	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 12$	$\bar{X} = 10$	$\bar{X} = 2$	25
	s.d. = 28	s.d. = 11	s.d. = 5	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	27	34	4	

TABLE 23.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FOURTH GRADE
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, -END PUNCTUATION

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.03	1	0.03	0.717
Column	0.20	2	0.10	2.395
Row x Column	0.05	2	0.02	0.583
Error	1.76	42	0.042	

TABLE 24

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, RUN-ONS, FOURTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 T-UNITS

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 16$	$\bar{X} = 17$	$\bar{X} = 16$	50
	s.d. = 28	s.d. = 25	s.d. = 28	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 6$	$\bar{X} = 19$	$\bar{X} = 10$	35
	s.d. = 11	s.d. = 16	s.d. = 12	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	22	36	26	

TABLE 24.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FOURTH GRADE
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, RUN-ONS

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.03	1	0.03	0.656
Column	0.04	2	0.02	0.442
Row x Column	0.03	2	0.01	0.287
Error	1.92	42	0.046	

TABLE 25

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, BLACK SENTENCES, FOURTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 T-UNITS

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	0
	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 1$	$\bar{X} = 0$	1
	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 4	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	0	1	0	

TABLE 25.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FOURTH GRADE
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, BLACK SENTENCES

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	1.000
Column	0.00	2	0.00	1.000
Row x Column	0.00	2	0.00	1.000
Error	0.01	42	0.000	

TABLE 26

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, T-UNITS, SEVENTH GRADE,
 WORDS PER T-UNIT

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 13.44$	$\bar{X} = 10.47$	$\bar{X} = 12.81$	36.72
	s.d. = 5.67	s.d. = 2.24	s.d. = 3.27	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 13.26$	$\bar{X} = 10.39$	$\bar{X} = 10.71$	34.36
	s.d. = 5.85	s.d. = 1.90	s.d. = 3.79	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	20.70	20.86	23.52	

TABLE 26.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SEVENTH GRADE
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, T-UNITS

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	7.44	1	7.44	0.446
Column	68.33	2	34.16	2.048
Row x Column	10.35	2	5.18	0.310
Error	700.48	42	16.678	

TABLE 27

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, FRAGMENTS, SEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 T-UNITS

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 4$	$\bar{X} = 7$	$\bar{X} = 9$	20
	s.d. = 7	s.d. = 7	s.d. = 8	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 9$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 4$	13
	s.d. = 16	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 7	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	12	7	13	

TABLE 27.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SEVENTH GRADE
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, FRAGMENTS

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.01	1	0.01	0.844
Column	0.01	2	0.00	0.422
Row x Column	0.03	2	0.02	2.078
Error	0.35	42	0.008	

TABLE 28

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, -CAPITALS, SEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 T-UNITS

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 136$	$\bar{X} = 11$	$\bar{X} = 3$	150
	s.d. = 341	s.d. = 24	s.d. = 5	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 9$	$\bar{X} = 1$	$\bar{X} = 4$	14
	s.d. = 11	s.d. = 4	s.d. = 7	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	145	12	7	

TABLE 28.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SEVENTH GRADE
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, -CAPITALS

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	2.49	1	2.49	1.276
Column	4.89	2	2.45	1.252
Row x Column	4.05	2	2.02	1.036
Error	82.10	42	1.955	

TABLE 29

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, -END PUNCTUATION, SEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 T-UNITS

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 4$	$\bar{X} = 5$	$\bar{X} = 1$	10
	s.d. = 7	s.d. = 9	s.d. = 4	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 12$	$\bar{X} = 1$	$\bar{X} = 0$	14
	s.d. = 21	s.d. = 4	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	16	6	1	

TABLE 29.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SEVENTH GRADE
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, -END PUNCTUATION

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	0.191
Column	0.05	2	0.02	2.383
Row x Column	0.03	2	0.02	1.787
Error	0.41	42	0.010	

TABLE 30

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, RUN-ONS, SEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 T-UNITS

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 16$	$\bar{X} = 14$	$\bar{X} = 4$	34
	s.d. = 32	s.d. = 18	s.d. = 10	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 6$	$\bar{X} = 12$	$\bar{X} = 10$	29
	s.d. = 5	s.d. = 21	s.d. = 14	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	22	26	14	

TABLE 30.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SEVENTH GRADE
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, RUN-ONS

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	0.117
Column	0.03	2	0.02	0.437
Row x Column	0.05	2	0.02	0.722
Error	1.45	42	0.034	

TABLE 31

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, BLACK SENTENCES, SEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 T-UNITS

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 9$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	9
	s.d. = 17	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 2$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	2
	s.d. = 5	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	11	0	0	

TABLE 31.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SEVENTH GRADE
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, BLACK SENTENCES

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.01	1	0.01	0.978
Column	0.03	2	0.02	3.168
Row x Column	0.01	2	0.01	0.978
Error	0.22	42	0.0005	

TABLE 32

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, T-UNITS, ELEVENTH GRADE,
 WORDS PER T-UNIT

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 15.02$	$\bar{X} = 11.34$	$\bar{X} = 18.41$	44.77
	s.d. = 5.29	s.d. = 3.12	s.d. = 16.36	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 13.31$	$\bar{X} = 10.29$	$\bar{X} = 12.80$	36.40
	s.d. = 7.28	s.d. = 2.85	s.d. = 3.11	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	28.34	21.62	31.21	

TABLE 32.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ELEVENTH GRADE
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, T-UNITS

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	93.52	1	93.52	1.492
Column	193.66	2	96.83	1.544
Row x Column	48.62	2	24.31	0.388
Error	2633.44	42	62.701	

TABLE 33

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, FRAGMENTS, ELEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 T-UNITS

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 12$	$\bar{X} = 1$	$\bar{X} = 4$	16
	s.d. = 16	s.d. = 2	s.d. = 5	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 7$	$\bar{X} = 4$	$\bar{X} = 7$	18
	s.d. = 10	s.d. = 5	s.d. = 12	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	19	5	11	

TABLE 33.1

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ELEVENTH GRADE
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, FRAGMENTS

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	0.058
Column	0.04	2	0.02	2.127
Row x Column	0.02	2	0.01	0.960
Error	0.39	42	0.009	

TABLE 34

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, -CAPITALS, ELEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 T-UNITS

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 14$	$\bar{X} = 4$	$\bar{X} = 1$	19
	s.d. = 23	s.d. = 7	s.d. = 4	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 29$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 1$	30
	s.d. = 46	s.d. = 1	s.d. = 4	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	42	4	2	

TABLE 34.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ELEVENTH GRADE
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, -CAPITALS

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.02	1	0.02	0.369
Column	0.41	2	0.20	4.439*
Row x Column	0.08	2	0.04	0.860
Error	1.92	42	0.046	

*p. < .05 $F_{.05} (2,42) = 3.20$

TABLE 35

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, -END PUNCTUATION, ELEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 T-UNITS

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 15$	$\bar{X} = 4$	$\bar{X} = 5$	24
	s.d. = 21	s.d. = 5	s.d. = 8	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 20$	$\bar{X} = 2$	$\bar{X} = 2$	24
	s.d. = 25	s.d. = 4	s.d. = 5	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	35	5	7	

TABLE 35.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ELEVENTH GRADE
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, -END PUNCTUATION

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	0.001
Column	0.22	2	0.11	5.445*
Row x Column	0.01	2	0.01	0.356
Error	0.84	42	0.020	

*p. < .01 $F_{.01}(2,42) = 5.16$

TABLE 36

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, RUN-ONS, ELEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 T-UNITS

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 7$	$\bar{X} = 5$	$\bar{X} = 1$	14
	s.d. = 7	s.d. = 11	s.d. = 4	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 9$	$\bar{X} = 2$	$\bar{X} = 2$	14
	s.d. = 11	s.d. = 3	s.d. = 5	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	16	8	4	

TABLE 36.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ELEVENTH GRADE
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, RUN-ONS

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	0.000
Column	0.03	2	0.02	3.090
Row x Column	0.00	2	0.00	0.441
Error	0.23	42	0.005	

TABLE 37

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, BLACK SENTENCES, ELEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 T-UNITS

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 1$	1
	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 2	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 2$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	2
	s.d. = 4	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	2	0	0	

TABLE 37.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ELEVENTH GRADE
 SENTENCE STRUCTURE, BLACK SENTENCES

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	1.138
Column	0.00	2	0.00	1.809
Row x Column	0.00	2	0.00	3.152
Error	0.01	42	0.000	

TABLE 38

SUMMARY OF GRAPHIC LITERACY HYPOTHESES
RELATING TO SENTENCE STRUCTURE

Hypothesis	Content	Grade	Table	Decision
Four	A condition of no difference in the use of the six measures of sentence structure exists between the three social classes.	4	20-21 22-23 24-25	Accepted
		7	26-27 28-29 30-31	Accepted
		11	32-33 34-35 36-37	Rejected*
Five	A condition of no difference in the use of the six measures of sentence structure between male and female.	4	20-21 22-23 24-25	Accepted
		7	26-27 28-29 30-31	Accepted
		11	32-33 34-35 36-37	Accepted
Six	A condition of no difference in the use of the six measures of sentence structure exists as they interact with sex and social class variables.	4	20-21 22-23 24-25	Accepted
		7	26-27 28-29 30-31	Accepted
		11	32-33 34-35 36-37	Accepted

*p. < .05 $F_{.05} (2,42) = 3.20$ (capitalization, Table 34)

*p. < .01 $F_{.01} (2,42) = 5.16$ (end punctuation, Table 35)

This resulted in six sentence structure variables: T-units, fragments, -capitals, -end punctuation, run-ons, and Black sentences (double negative, pronominal apposition, and past conditional question) reported at the study's three grade levels.

The Black sentence variable was made by collapsing the three structures, double negative, pronominal apposition, and the past conditional question into one concept.

Analysis, Sentence Structure Variables A comparison of the six sentence variables at the three grade levels developed two statistically significant differences: capitalization and end punctuation deviations between classes in the eleventh grade. (Tables 34 and 35) In both cases the column totals indicated that the deviations favored White classes (Blue and White Collar) over Black (Blue Collar). Minus capitalization was significant with an average 21 deviations per 100 chances and negative end punctuation at an average 17 per 100 chances.

The strength of the student press to write standard English sentences is seen most clearly in the Black sentence category. All of the research indicated a high correlation between the double negative, pronominal apposition, and the past conditional question and race. Even when all three items were summed the largest average cell size was 5.5 per 100 chances. The correlation still has a racial bias, however.

Hypothesis four relating to a no difference between social classes for each of the thirteen variables was accepted for the fourth and seventh grades. In the eleventh grade it was accepted on eleven of the thirteen variables.

Hypothesis five relating to a condition of no difference between male and female variables was accepted for the sentence structure variables at all of the three grade levels.

Hypothesis six relating to a condition of no difference between male and female variables as they interact with those of social class was accepted for the sentence structure variables at all of the three grade levels.

Verb Variables The research indicated that some Black-White oral language differences are clearly marked in verb structure. Among these were the past tense, minus copula, and auxiliary form deviations. These three variables were reported in deviations from the standard per 100 chances of occurrence ratios.

Analysis, Verb Variables The comparison of the three verb variables at the three grade levels developed one statistically significant F score, negative past tense marker in the seventh grade. (Table 42) The column totals indicated that the difference was between the Black Blue Collar cell (19) and the White Blue Collar (2) and White Collar (2) cells.

The negative copula which is closely linked to Black speech did not register as a class or race related item. The highest mean negative copula frequency was a 7.5 per 100 chances achieved by fourth grade White Collar students.

Hypothesis four, class differences, was accepted at all grade levels with the one exception, -past tense, seventh grade.

Hypothesis five and six, sex and interactional differences, were accepted at all grade levels.

TABLE 39

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 VERB VARIABLE, -PAST TENSE, FOURTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 10$	$\bar{X} = 10$	$\bar{X} = 0$	20
	s.d. = 17	s.d. = 21	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 14$	$\bar{X} = 9$	$\bar{X} = 1$	24
	s.d. = 15	s.d. = 10	s.d. = 4	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	24	19	1	

TABLE 39.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FOURTH GRADE
 VERB VARIABLE, -PAST TENSE

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	0.107
Column	0.11	2	0.06	3.185
Row x Column	0.01	2	0.00	0.143
Error	0.74	42	0.018	

TABLE 40

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 VERB VARIABLE, -AUXILIARY, FOURTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 15$	$\bar{X} = 29$	$\bar{X} = 2$	46
	s.d. = 28	s.d. = 45	s.d. = 7	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 2$	$\bar{X} = 16$	$\bar{X} = 9$	27
	s.d. = 7	s.d. = 35	s.d. = 16	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	17	45	11	

TABLE 40.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FOURTH GRADE
 VERB VARIABLE, -AUXILIARY

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.05	1	0.05	0.638
Column	0.26	2	0.13	1.755
Row x Column	0.09	2	0.05	0.638
Error	3.09	42	0.073	

TABLE 41

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 VERB VARIABLE, -COPULA, FOURTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 2$	2
	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 7	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 13$	$\bar{X} = 1$	$\bar{X} = 13$	26
	s.d. = 35	s.d. = 4	s.d. = 35	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	13	1	15	

TABLE 41.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FOURTH GRADE
 VERB VARIABLE, -COPULA

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.08	1	0.08	1.761
Column	0.04	2	0.02	0.502
Row x Column	0.03	2	0.01	0.327
Error	1.79	42	0.043	

TABLE 42

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 VERB VARIABLE, -PAST TENSE, SEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 6$	$\bar{X} = 2$	$\bar{X} = 1$	10
	s.d. = 9	s.d. = 7	s.d. = 4	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 12$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	13
	s.d. = 13	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 1	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	19	2	2	

TABLE 42.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SEVENTH GRADE
 VERB VARIABLE, -PAST TENSE

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	0.230
Column	0.07	2	0.04	7.082*
Row x Column	0.02	2	0.01	1.645
Error	0.22	42	0.005	

*p. < .01 $F_{.01}(2,42) = 5.16$

TABLE 43

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 VERB VARIABLE, -AUXILIARY, SEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 2$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 13$	15
	s.d. = 7	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 35	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 10$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 2$	12
	s.d. = 17	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 7	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	12	0	15	

TABLE 43.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SEVENTH GRADE
 VERB VARIABLE, -AUXILIARY

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	0.031
Column	0.05	2	0.03	0.948
Row x Column	0.06	2	0.03	1.131
Error	1.14	42	0.027	

TABLE 44

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 VERB VARIABLE, -COPULA, SEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	0
Male	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 1$	$\bar{X} = 0$	1
Female	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 4	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	0	1	0	

TABLE 44.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SEVENTH GRADE
 VERB VARIABLE, -COPULA

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	1.000
Column	0.00	2	0.00	1.000
Row x Column	0.00	2	0.00	1.000
Error	0.01	42	0.000	

TABLE 45

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 VERB VARIABLE, -PAST TENSE, ELEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 5$	$\bar{X} = 2$	$\bar{X} = 5$	12
	s.d. = 11	s.d. = 4	s.d. = 8	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 10$	$\bar{X} = 1$	$\bar{X} = 0$	12
	s.d. = 12	s.d. = 4	s.d. = 1	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	15	3	5	

TABLE 45.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ELEVENTH GRADE
 VERB VARIABLE, -PAST TENSE

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.00	1	0.00	0.000
Column	0.03	2	0.02	2.940
Row x Column	0.02	2	0.01	1.775
Error	0.23	42	0.006	

TABLE 46

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 VERB VARIABLE, -AUXILIARY, ELEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 13$	$\bar{X} = 7$	$\bar{X} = 5$	25
	s.d. = 35	s.d. = 21	s.d. = 8	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 11$	$\bar{X} = 6$	$\bar{X} = 1$	19
	s.d. = 21	s.d. = 11	s.d. = 4	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	24	14	6	

TABLE 46.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ELEVENTH GRADE
 VERB VARIABLE, -AUXILIARY

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.01	1	0.01	0.135
Column	0.06	2	0.03	0.796
Row x Column	0.00	2	0.00	0.022
Error	1.63	42	0.039	

TABLE 47

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR A 2 X 3 DATA MATRIX:
 VERB VARIABLE, -COPULA, ELEVENTH GRADE,
 OCCURRENCE PER 100 CHANCES

Sex	Black Blue Collar	White Blue Collar	White Collar	Row Total
Male	$\bar{X} = 2$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 0$	2
	s.d. = 7	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 0	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Female	$\bar{X} = 7$	$\bar{X} = 0$	$\bar{X} = 2$	10
	s.d. = 18	s.d. = 0	s.d. = 7	
	N = 8	N = 8	N = 8	
Column Total	10	0	2	

TABLE 47.1

SUMMARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ELEVENTH GRADE
 VERB VARIABLE, -COPULA

Source of Variance	Ss	df	MS	F
Row	0.01	1	0.01	1.105
Column	0.02	2	0.01	1.596
Row x Column	0.00	2	0.00	0.368
Error	0.28	42	0.007	

TABLE 48

SUMMARY OF GRAPHIC LITERACY HYPOTHESES
RELATING TO VERB VARIABLES

Hypothesis	Content	Grade	Table	Decision
Four	A condition of no difference in the use of the three verb variables exists between the three social classes.	4	39-40-41	Accepted
		7	42-43-44	Rejected*
		11	45-46-47	Accepted
Five	A condition of no difference in the use of the three verb variables exists between male and female.	4	39-40-41	Accepted
		7	42-43-44	Accepted
		11	45-46-47	Accepted
Six	A condition of no difference in the use of the three verb variables exists as they interact with sex and social class variables.	4	39-40-41	Accepted
		7	42-43-44	Accepted
		11	45-46-47	Accepted

*p. < .01 $F_{.01}(2,42) = 5.16$ (negative past tense, Table 42)

Analysis, Graphic Literacy Thirteen racially related variables representing concepts of phonology, syntax, and verbness were tested at three grade levels for differences of social class, sex, and sex-social class interaction. In only five of the 117 opportunities were significances found: phonologic -d, seventh grade and -s plural, eleventh grade; syntax -capitals and -end punctuation, eleventh grade; and verb -past tense, seventh grade. In all cases the differences were between Black and White students.

Hypothesis Testing, Expressive-Graphic Relationships

A third set of hypotheses were developed from question four, "Is ability to use Graphic Literacy conventions related to the ability to produce Expressive Literacy?" The expectation was for sex and social class differences which would be compounded through interaction.

Hypothesis Seven The degree of linear correlation between the Graphic Literacy Scores and the Expressive Literacy Scale for males as compared to females is zero.

Hypothesis Eight The degree of linear correlation between the Graphic Literacy Scores and the Expressive Literacy Scale for Black students (Black Blue Collar) as compared to White students (White Blue Collar and White Collar) is zero.

A decision was made to accept hypothesis seven without submitting it to correlational analysis. It was justified by the data which indicated conditions of no difference between sex and sex-social class interactions at all grade levels.

Correlations were developed between twelve of the thirteen Graphic Literacy Scores and the Expressive Literacy Scale for Black and White students at each grade level. (Tables 50, 51, 52) The phonologic variable -d was not used because it was a partial duplication of count with the verb variable, -past marker. The -verb past was chosen because its F score was higher than the phonologic -d. (Tables 14, 42) A difference of correlations test² was used to measure the differences between correlations for each variable.

²William L. Hays, Statistics for Psychologists (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965), pp. 530-32.

TABLE 49

SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESIS SEVEN--THE INFLUENCE OF GRAPHIC LITERACY
CONVENTION USE UPON EXPRESSIVE LANGUAGE PRODUCTION

Content	Grade	Table	Decision
A condition of no difference between the correlation of Graphic Literacy Scores to the Expressive Literacy Scale for male and female students.	4	3	
		7-10	
		20-25	
		39-41	
	7	4	Not submitted to correlational analysis as sex was not found to exert influence in hypotheses two, three, five, and six.
		11-14	
		26-31	
		42-44	
	11	5	
		15-18	
		32-37	
		45-47	

Analysis, Expressive-Graphic Relationships Twelve racially related Graphic Literacy variables as correlated to Expressive Literacy were compared at three grade levels for differences of correlation between Black and White students. In six of the 36 comparisons statistically significant comparisons were found. Four of the differences were in sentence structure and two were phonologic. In all cases the Black mean was higher. All with the exception of -s possessive and fragments in the seventh grade were negatively correlated to Expressive Literacy.

Fourth Grade Hypothesis eight was accepted for eleven of the twelve variables at the fourth grade level. It was rejected for the condition of -end punctuation. (Table 50) Under this condition the Black mean exceeded the White mean. The difference resulted in a "z" score significant at the .04 level.

TABLE 50

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE CORRELATION OF GRAPHIC LITERACY VARIABLES
TO EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCORE WITH SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS
FOR FOURTH GRADE BLACK AND WHITE STUDENTS

Variable	Black m	White m	Black r	White r	z	Sig. Level
Phonology						
-third person	19.0	7.0	.346	-.003	-1.510	.07
-s possessive	4.0	0.1	.013	-.311	0.054	.49
-s plural	11.0	2.0	.219	.132	0.936	.18
Sentence						
T-units	10.7	9.4	.070	-.072	0.293	.39
fragments	7.0	3.0	-.298	-.038	-1.289	-.11
run-ons	11.0	15.0	-.318	.018	-1.381	-.09
-end punctuation	13.0	9.0	-.406	-.237	-1.805	.04*
-capitals	15.0	14.0	-.136	-.156	-0.571	-.71
Black sentences	0.0	0.3	.000	.163		
Verb						
-past tense	11.0	5.0	.106	.088	0.445	.33
-auxiliary	8.0	14.0	-.127	-.489	0.533	.30
-copula	6.0	4.0	.013	-.025	0.054	.49

*Significant at .05 level.

TABLE 51

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE CORRELATION OF GRAPHIC LITERACY VARIABLES
TO EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCORE WITH SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS
FOR SEVENTH GRADE BLACK AND WHITE STUDENTS

Variable	Black $\bar{m}$	White $\bar{m}$	Black r	White r	z	Sig. Level
Phonology						
-third person	5.0	1.0	-.291	-.129	-1.255	-.11
- <u>s</u> possessive	0.8	0.0	.386	.000	1.709	.045*
- <u>s</u> plural	3.0	0.9	.142	.040	0.592	.28
Sentence						
T-units	13.3	9.0	.094	.281	0.394	.35
fragments	6.0	5.0	.449	.124	2.028	.02*
run-ons	11.0	10.0	-.180	-.008	-0.764	-.23
-end punctuation	8.0	1.0	-.014	.059	-0.058	-.49
-capitals	72.0	4.0	-.309	-.053	-1.339	.10
Black sentences	5.0	0.0	-.089	.000	-0.373	.36
Verb						
-past tense	9.0	1.0	-.315	-.001	-1.369	.09
-auxiliary	6.0	3.0	-.171	-.203	-0.722	.24
-copula	0.0	0.3	.000	.103		

*Significant at .05 level.

TABLE 52

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE CORRELATION OF GRAPHIC LITERACY VARIABLES
TO EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCORE WITH SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS
FOR ELEVENTH GRADE BLACK AND WHITE STUDENTS

Variable	Black m	White m	Black r	White r	z	Sig. Level
Phonology						
-third person	12.0	1.0	.235	.080	-1.003	.16
-s possessive	0.8	0.0	.179	.000	0.760	.23
-s plural	4.0	0.0	-.389	.198	-1.721	-.043*
Sentence						
T-units	14.1	13.2	.042	-.231	0.176	.44
fragments	9.0	4.0	.185	.129	0.793	.22
run-ons	8.0	2.0	-.377	.151	-1.663	-.049*
-end punctuation	17.0	3.0	-.208	-.023	-0.886	-.18
-capitals	21.0	1.0	-.418	.130	-1.868	-.032*
Black sentences	1.0	0.1	-.230	-.046	-0.982	.17
Verb						
-past tense	7.0	2.0	.143	-.050	0.604	.28
-auxiliary	11.0	5.0	.050	-.159	0.209	-.43
-copula	5.0	0.6	-.107	.076	-0.449	-.33

*Significant at .05 level.

TABLE 53

SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESIS EIGHT--THE INFLUENCE OF GRAPHIC LITERACY
CONVENTION USE UPON EXPRESSIVE LANGUAGE PRODUCTION

Content	Grade	Table	Decision
A condition of no difference between the correlation of Graphic Literacy Scores to the Expressive Literacy Scale for Black and White students	4	50-52	Rejected* (one of 12)
	7	53	Rejected** (two of 12)
	11	56-57	Rejected*** (three of 12)

*-end punctuation p. < .04

Six variables predict negative Expressive Literacy for White students, p. < .05.

**-_s possessive p. < .045

fragments p. < .02

***-_s plural p. < .043

run-ons p. < .049

-capitals p. < .032

Two variables predict positive Expressive Literacy, two predict negative Expressive Literacy for Black students, p. < .05.

Seventh Grade Hypothesis eight was accepted for ten of the twelve variables at the seventh grade level. (Table 51) In the case of the -_s possessive and fragment variables, "z" scores of comparison between the strengths of correlation for Black and White students were significant beyond the .05 level.

In both cases the correlation was a positive one with the frequency means for number of deviations favoring the Black students.

Eleventh Grade Hypothesis eight was accepted for nine of the twelve variables at the eleventh grade level. (Table 52) In the case of the -_s plural, run-ons, and -capital variables, "z" scores of comparison

between the strengths of correlation for Black and White students were significant beyond the .05 level. In each case the higher frequency of deviations was in the direction of the Black students and the correlation to expressiveness negative.

Summary

In this chapter the tests of reader agreement and the data generated to test the study's three sets of hypotheses were presented and analyzed.

It was concluded that error entered the reader correlations but that the error was Type II, making it more difficult to achieve statistical significance where such significance existed. The Expressive Literacy Scores may therefore be considered conservative ones. Three sets of data, Expressive Literacy, Graphic Literacy, and Expressive-Graphic relationships, dealing with the comparative and interactive relationships of socioeconomic class and sex, were also presented.

The data which resulted from the statistical tests of the study's eight hypotheses was presented in three clusters relating to the study's three questions, Expressive Literacy hypotheses, Graphic Literacy hypotheses, and Expressive-Graphic Literacy relationships. The Graphic Literacy variables were subdivided into phonologic, sentence structure, and verb components.

Decisions on the eight hypotheses were:

1. Hypothesis one was rejected in the seventh grade where Black-White Expressive Literacy differences were found. It was accepted at the fourth and eleventh grade levels.
2. Hypotheses two and three were accepted without qualification when conditions of no difference for sex and sex-social class interactions were found for Expressive Literacy Scores.

TABLE 54

SUMMARY OF THE EXPRESSIVE LITERACY HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis:	One			Two			Three		
Statement:	No difference between classes			No difference between sexes			No difference sex and class		
Grade:	4	7	11	4	7	11	4	7	11
	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

3. Hypothesis four was rejected for five of the 39 Graphic Literacy conditions submitted to comparison. It was accepted for the remaining 34.
4. Hypotheses five and six were accepted without qualification when conditions of no difference for sex and sex-social class interactions were found for Graphic Literacy Scores.
5. Hypothesis seven which tested the male-female differences in correlation of Graphic to Expressive Literacy was accepted without statistical test. This decision was made because of the no difference conditions found between sex and sex-social class interaction in testing hypotheses five and six.
6. Hypothesis eight was rejected for six of the 36 conditions which compared Black student correlations of Graphic Literacy Scores to Expressive Literacy with White student correlations. It was accepted for the remaining 30.

TABLE 55

SUMMARY OF THE GRAPHIC LITERACY HYPOTHESES

[illegible]

TABLE 56

SUMMARY OF EXPRESSIVE-GRAPHIC DIFFERENCE OF CORRELATIONS

Hypothesis:	Seven			Eight		
Statement:	No difference between sexes			No difference between races		
Grade:	4	7	11	4	7	11
Phonology						
-s third person	Accepted without test			.07	-.11	.16
-s possessive				.49	.045*	.23
-s plural				.18	.28	-.043*
Sentence						
T-units				.39	.35	.44
fragments				-.11	.02*	.22
run-ons	Accepted without test			-.09	-.23	-.049*
-end punctuation				.04*	-.49	-.18
-capitals				-.71	.10	-.032*
Black sentences				.00	.36	.17
Verb						
-past tense	Accepted without test			.33	.09	.28
-auxiliary				.30	.24	-.43
-copula				.49	.00	-.33

*Significant at .05 level.

CHAPTER V: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

This chapter summarizes the basic questions which initiated the study, the research foundations upon which it rested, the design, conclusions, a discussion of results, and a pointing out of the study's research implications.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of teaching dialect related writing skills to Black Blue Collar students in the fourth, seventh, and eleventh grades for whom these forms represent identifiable oral, social dialect differences in comparison with White Blue Collar and White Collar students.

At least since 1890 the teaching of composition in the public schools has remained basically unchanged. This teaching is characterized by concern for rules of correctness, college entrance, and a distance between professional statement and classroom practice. The study was based on an assumption that a standard English is taught in public schools.

Composition evaluation is a difficult, incomplete practice, but dialect differences lend themselves easily to frequency counts, and for the more subjective aspects of Expressive language a Madaus-Rippey yes or no question seemed to offer the best potential for precise definition and objective evaluation.

Issues of the difference or deficiency, of Black English, of bi-dialectalism and the context of linguistic study, either isogloss or different language, confuse the understanding of dialect identification. This study, while related to such concerns, does not seek answers to the basic theoretical issues.

It seems reasonable to assume that continued evaluation of composition in terms of norms that are not those of the student population will place the students in a position detrimental to their language growth, and that the negative influence of this concern for form might easily be expected to register in stunted Expressive language growth.

The study's four theoretical questions were:

1. Do Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar children differ in their Expressive Literacy production and Graphic Literacy convention use?
2. Do male and female children of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar parents differ in their Expressive Literacy production and Graphic Literacy convention use?
3. Do the variables of male and female interact with those of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar to create differences in Expressive Literacy production and Graphic Literacy convention use?
4. Is ability to use Graphic Literacy convention related to the ability to produce Expressive Literacy?

To provide the answers for the four theoretical questions, eight operational hypotheses were developed and tested at the three grade

levels. The data to be compared consisted of one paper by each of 144 students, rewritten after six daily writings given in response to audio-visual experiences.

Frequency counts for thirteen variables of the Graphic Literacy Scale were made by the researcher. The writings were read by two readers and rated on an Expressive Literacy Scale developed in the Madaus-Rippey fashion of yes-no answers.

Efforts were made to control extraneous variables which could affect the results. The writers at all three grade levels were given the same directions, wrote over a period of seven days and were exposed to the same stimulus. The final cells were balanced for number, race, sex, and social class. All papers were typed, alphabetized, spelling corrected, and names masked from the readers.

A 2 x 3 analysis of variance, linear correlation, and difference of correlation statistics were used to test the hypotheses. To assist in the interpretation of results multiple regression correlations were run to find the clustered strength of the Graphic Literacy variables to predict Expressive Literacy.

The results of the hypotheses tests were:

1. Hypothesis one was rejected in the seventh grade where Black-White Expressive Literacy differences were found. It was accepted at the fourth and eleventh grade levels.
2. Hypotheses two and three were accepted without qualification when conditions of no difference for sex and sex-social class interactions were found for Expressive Literacy Scores.

3. Hypothesis four was rejected for five of the 39 Graphic Literacy conditions submitted to comparison. It was accepted for the remaining 34.
4. Hypotheses five and six were accepted without qualification when conditions of no difference for sex and sex-social class interactions were found for Graphic Literacy Scores.
5. Hypothesis seven which tested the male-female differences in correlation of Graphic to Expressive Literacy was accepted without statistical test. This decision was made because of the no difference conditions found between sex and sex-social class interaction in testing hypotheses five and six.
6. Hypothesis eight was rejected for six of the 36 conditions which compared Black student correlations of Graphic Literacy Scores to Expressive Literacy with White student correlations. It was accepted for the remaining 30.

Discussion

The one finding of Expressive Literacy Scale difference occurred in the seventh grade between the Black Blue Collar students and the White Blue Collar and White Collar students. Black students received lower ($p. < .01$) Expressive Literacy Scores than White students. (Table 4)¹

The seventh grade Graphic Literacy variables compared for hypotheses four, five, and six indicated significant differences between Black and White students for the -d and -past tense variables. These two concepts

¹The tables of reference are included for the convenience of the reader.

TABLE 57

CLUSTERED CORRELATION OF GRAPHIC LITERACY VARIABLES TO
EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCORE WITH SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS
FOR SEVENTH GRADE BLACK STUDENTS

Variable	Black $\bar{m}$	White $\bar{m}$	F ratio*	Sig. Level	r
fragments	.06	.05	3.54	N.S.	+.44
- <u>s</u> possessive	.008	.00	2.87	N.S.	+.38
-capitals	.07	.04	2.21	N.S.	-.30
-past tense	.09	.01	2.13	N.S.	-.31
run-ons	.11	.10	2.00	N.S.	-.18
-third person	.05	.01	1.83	N.S.	-.29
Black sentences	.05	.00	1.73	N.S.	-.08
T-units	13.35	11.09	1.53	N.S.	+.09
-auxiliary	.06	.03	1.20	N.S.	-.17
-end punctuation	.08	.01	0.96	N.S.	-.01
- <u>s</u> plural	.03	.009	0.84	N.S.	+.142
-copula	.00	.003	0.57	N.S.	.00

*F ratio for each variable includes interaction with all those above it.

intersect and therefore measure some of the same aspects. (Tables 14 and 42) When the seventh grade Graphic Literacy variables were compared by comparison of correlations, -s possessive and fragments were found to be significantly stronger in their relationship to Expressive Literacy for Black students than for White students. (Table 51) Both correlations, however, were positive and therefore not related to the low Expressive Scores.

TABLE 58

CLUSTERED CORRELATION OF GRAPHIC LITERACY VARIABLES TO
EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCORE WITH SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS
FOR SEVENTH GRADE WHITE STUDENTS

Variable	Black $\bar{m}$	White $\bar{m}$	F ratio*	Sig. Level	r
T-unit	13.35	11.09	2.57	N.S.	+.281
-auxiliary	.06	.03	1.77	N.S.	-.203
-third person	.05	.01	1.37	N.S.	-.129
-end punctuation	.08	.01	1.37	N.S.	+.059
-s plural	.03	.009	1.23	N.S.	+.04
-copula	.00	.003	1.13	N.S.	+.10
-capitals	.07	.04	1.06	N.S.	-.05
fragments	.06	.05	1.02	N.S.	+.12
run-ons	.11	.10	0.89	N.S.	-.008
-past tense	.09	.01	0.77	N.S.	-.001
-s possessive	.008	.00	0.67	N.S.	.00
Black sentences	.05	.00	0.58	N.S.	.00

*F ratio for each variable includes interaction with all those above it.

In a further check upon the cause of the lower seventh grade Black Expressive Literacy Scores, a multiple regression correlation was run to see if the Graphic Literacy variables clustered to predict Expressive Scores. In the case of both Black and White seventh grade students the variables did not cluster. (Tables 57 and 58)

These three correlational indices suggest that the seventh grade Black population differed from the White population in some nonrandom

way and that this systematic bias was not the use of dialect related language, verbal fluency, school age, or social class. The Expressive Literacy statistical nonsignificance at both the fourth and eleventh grade suggests, although does not rule out, that race is not a factor. The single instance of phonologic difference is also supportive. (Tables 3 and 5) Some factor such as family mobility, number of years residence outside Oakland County, teacher attitude, or counselor placement apparently influenced the results.

A second finding, the failure to find sex differences and sex-social class interaction, was unexpected. (Tables 3, 4, 5) Much writing research has found upper and middle class girls to be better writers. Shuy² found Negro girls to be sensitive to the double negative. The failure may have resulted from insensitivity on the part of the Expressive Literacy instrument, from an equal distribution of Expressive ability, or from counter-acting unrecognized nonrandom error. The Expressive Literacy instrument seemed capable in registering seventh grade differences. In addition, the Graphic Literacy variables comparing sex and sex-social class also indicated a condition of no difference. (Tables 19, 38, 48) It can be concluded that under the conditions of this study that there are no discernible sex and sex-social class Expressive or Graphic Literacy differences.

In a third finding an unexpectedly low number of distinctions resulted from the Graphic Literacy comparisons. The Graphic Literacy variables were selected for their high correlation to race and in only

²Roger W. Shuy, "A Study of Social Dialects in Detroit" (Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 1969), p. 17.

five of 39 race comparisons were they found to be significantly related to Black writing. This was especially true for the Black sentence category (Tables 50, 51, 52) where three strong indicators of spoken dialect were reduced to one variable. In addition, in only six of 36 difference of correlations were significances found; and of these only four were negatively correlated.

The press to write a standard English was well established by the fourth grade. For the most part children were faced with similar problems in learning to put ideas on paper. In all categories the occurrence of racially related variables was infrequent although mean totals consistently favored Black students.

As a general rule (Tables 50, 51, 52) Black Blue Collar students encountered more phonologic, sentence, and verb problems than did White Blue Collar students, who in turn had more problems than did White Collar students. The assumption, based upon a historical survey of teacher attitude toward English, that a standard rule oriented English is taught in the schools, received empirical support in this study. The rule orientation should it influence Expressive writing seems to do so with equal strength across social class and sex lines.

When the Black-White populations were tested for clustered influence of Graphic variables upon Expressive Scores, the White fourth grade students were able to cluster seven variables into significant predictors of Expressive Literacy Scores. (Table 60)

Five of the significant variables dealt with sentence structure: -end punctuation, fragments, -capitals, T-units, and Black sentences. The first four had a negative correlation, the more deviations and the longer the T-unit, the lower the Expressive Score.

TABLE 59

CLUSTERED CORRELATION OF GRAPHIC LITERACY VARIABLES TO
EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCORE WITH SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS
FOR FOURTH GRADE BLACK STUDENTS

Variable	Black $\bar{m}$	White $\bar{m}$	F ratio*	Sig. Level	r
-end punctuation	.13	.09	2.75	N.S.	-.40
-capitals	.15	.14	2.31	N.S.	-.13
run-ons	.11	.15	1.94	N.S.	-.31
- <u>s</u> possessive	.04	.001	1.53	N.S.	+.01
-auxiliary	.08	.14	1.32	N.S.	-.12
T-units	10.70	9.37	1.11	N.S.	+.07
- <u>s</u> plural	.11	.02	0.91	N.S.	+.219
-third person	.19	.07	0.75	N.S.	+.34
fragments	.07	.03	0.63	N.S.	-.29
-past tense	.11	.05	0.56	N.S.	+.10
-capitals	.06	.04	0.56	N.S.	+.01
Black sentences	.00	.003	0.39	N.S.	.00

*F ratio for each variable includes interaction with all those above it.

The positive Black sentence correlation for White students appeared to result as an artifice from the use of a double negative by one expressive White writer.

In addition -s possessive had a negative correlation with Expression. The frequency of the White -s possessive was one and therefore the weight of its correlation is questioned.

TABLE 60

CLUSTERED CORRELATION OF GRAPHIC LITERACY VARIABLES TO
EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCORE WITH SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS
FOR FOURTH GRADE WHITE STUDENTS

Variable	Black $\bar{m}$	White $\bar{m}$	F ratio*	Sig. Level	r
-auxiliary	.08	.14	9.43	.01	-.48
- <u>s</u> possessive	.04	.001	6.99	.01	-.31
-end punctuation	.13	.09	5.82	.01	-.23
fragments	.07	.03	4.52	.01	-.03
Black sentences	.00	.003	3.78	.05	+.16
-capitals	.15	.14	3.21	.05	-.15
T-units	10.70	9.37	2.71	.05	-.07
- <u>s</u> plural	.11	.02	2.33	N.S.	+.13
-third person	.19	.07	2.11	N.S.	-.003
-copula	.06	.04	1.84	N.S.	-.02
-past tense	.11	.05	1.60	N.S.	+.08
run-ons	.11	.15	1.40	N.S.	+.01

*F ratio for each variable includes interaction with all those above it.

The generalization for fourth grade White students that the longer the sentence the more the sentence error and the lower the Expressive Score indicates that a language growth period may have existed for these students with a resultant negative influence on the Expressive Score.

This line of reasoning is also supported by the eleventh grade findings. Analysis of variance indicated no Expressive Literacy

differences (Table 5) but significant Black-White differences in the use of -s plural, -end punctuation, and -capitals. Black means were higher. (Tables 15, 34, 35) When the variables were measured for difference of correlation to Expressive Literacy, Black students had significant correlations for -s plural, run-ons, and -capitals. (Table 52) The correlations were negative.

When the eleventh grade Black-White populations were measured for clustered influence of Graphic variables upon Expressive Scores, conditions of significance were not found for the White population. (Table 62)

The Black students clustered five variables into significant ($p < .05$) predictors of Expressive Literacy. (Table 61) Three of the variables dealt with sentence structure and were correlated negatively; -capitals, run-ons, and Black sentences. (-capitals was not significant by itself but contributed to significance in union with run-ons.) Two variables, -s third person and -s possessive were phonologic and positively correlated to Expressiveness.

Eleventh grade Black students appeared to be facing syntactic problems in achieving Expressiveness. The race related phonologic variables were not Expressive problems. The clustering is similar to, not the same as, the fourth grade White students and it indicates two areas of possible study: dialect as a factor in expression and syntax as related to communication complexity.

Labov has commented upon stigmatized oral language use, "Someone who uses a stigmatized form 20 to 30 percent of the time will be heard

TABLE 61

CLUSTERED CORRELATION OF GRAPHIC LITERACY VARIABLES TO
EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCORE WITH SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS
FOR ELEVENTH GRADE BLACK STUDENTS

Variable	Black $\bar{m}$	White $\bar{m}$	F ratio*	Sig. Level	r
-capitals	.21	.01	2.95	N.S.	-.41
run-ons	.08	.02	3.93	.05	-.37
-third person	.12	.01	4.07	.05	+.23
- <u>s</u> possessive	.008	.00	3.84	.05	+.17
Black sentences	.01	.001	3.30	.05	-.23
-past tense	.07	.02	2.61	N.S.	+.143
fragments	.09	.04	2.23	N.S.	+.185
T-units	14.16	13.20	1.96	N.S.	+.185
- <u>s</u> plural	.04	.00	1.91	N.S.	-.389
-end punctuation	.17	.03	2.87	N.S.	-.208
-auxiliary	.11	.05	2.66	N.S.	+.05
-copula	.05	.006	0.37	N.S.	-.10

*F ratio for each variable includes interaction with all those above it.

as using this form all of the time."³ The percentages for use of written significant negative correlated variables were: Black students -end punctuation, fourth, 13%; -s plural, eleventh, 4%; run-ons,

³William Labov, "Some Sources of Reading Problems for Negro Speakers of Non-Standard English," in Joan C. Baratz and Roger W. Shuy, eds., Teaching Black Children to Read (Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1969), p. 34.

TABLE 62

CLUSTERED CORRELATION OF GRAPHIC LITERACY VARIABLES TO
EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCORE WITH SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS
FOR ELEVENTH GRADE WHITE STUDENTS

Variable	Black $\bar{m}$	White $\bar{m}$	F ratio*	Sig. Level	r
T-unit	14.16	13.20	1.69	N.S.	-.23
-s plural	.04	.01	1.33	N.S.	+.19
-auxiliary	.11	.05	1.05	N.S.	-.15
fragments	.09	.04	0.88	N.S.	+.12
-end punctuation	.17	.03	0.75	N.S.	-.02
Black sentences	.01	.001	0.65	N.S.	-.04
-third person	.12	.01	0.62	N.S.	.08
run-ons	.08	.02	0.56	N.S.	.15
-copula	.05	.006	0.48	N.S.	+.07
-past tense	.07	.02	0.41	N.S.	-.05
-capitals	.21	.01	0.36	N.S.	+.13
-s possessive	.008	.00	0.31	N.S.	+.19

*F ratio for each variable includes interaction with all those above it.

eleventh, 8%; and -capitals, eleventh, 21%.⁴ The frequency of these totals was exceeded on several occasions but the problem wasn't restricted to one race; fourth grade -third person, Black 19% and White 7%. Or the variable was race related and failed by reason of variability; seventh grade -capitals, Black 72% and White 4% but the Black

⁴Syntactic percents are based on deviation per T-unit. Phonologic and verb percents are based on chance of occurrence.

male s.d. = 341. (Table 28) The type of variable would seem to be of more importance for indicating stigmatized writing than its race relatedness or frequency.

Conclusions

The study's first question, "Do Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar children differ in their Expressive Literacy production and Graphic Literacy convention use?" was answered:

1. There is no difference in the Expressive Literacy production of the study's fourth and eleventh grade classes. The Black-White student difference which occurred in the seventh grade was attributed to a sampling artifice rather than to class or racial differences.
2. There are significant ($p < .05$) differences in Graphic Literacy convention use at each grade level. Phonologic related differences occurred in the seventh and eleventh grades, structural in the eleventh, and verb in the fourth. In each case the frequency of deviations was in the direction of the Black Blue Collar students. The frequency was lower than expected.

The study's second question, "Do male and female children of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar parents differ in their Expressive Literacy production and Graphic Literacy convention use?" was answered:

1. There is no difference in the Expressive Literacy production of male and female children of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar parents.

2. There is no difference in the Graphic Literacy convention use of male and female children of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar parents.

The study's third question, "Do the variables of male and female interact with those of Black Blue Collar, White Blue Collar, and White Collar to create differences in Expressive Literacy production and Graphic Literacy convention use?" was answered:

1. There is no difference in the Expressive Literacy production as a result of interaction between sex and class variables.
2. There is no difference in the Graphic Literacy convention use as a result of interaction between sex and class variables.

The study's fourth question, "Is ability to use Graphic Literacy conventions related to the ability to produce Expressive Literacy?" was answered:

1. Yes, in the case of six of the twelve variables tested at each of three grade levels Black students achieved significantly higher correlations of Graphic Literacy use to Expressive Literacy production than did White students. In four cases the correlation was negative, in two, positive. The frequency was lower than expected.
2. The clustered strength of these variables to predict Expressive Literacy was significant as a negative predictor for fourth grade White students on the strength of syntactic variables. It was also significant for eleventh grade Black students both in negative prediction, syntactic variables; and positive, phonologic variables.

Suggestions for Further Research

The results of this study suggest a need for replication with these changes: control for the sample selection day, control for teacher variables, control for student extra school educational experiences, control for the reader's work period, and better control of spelling variables.

The sample collection procedures generated a feeling that different age groups respond to similar writing situations in different ways. The fourth grade students responded to the last day almost as they would to the day before a vacation while the eleventh graders put out their best effort.

The teachers who taught the classes on a regular basis definitely set a classroom atmosphere which influenced the collection technique. Student anticipations of the reader helped mold his writing. One hour a day for seven days did not seem to counteract these expectations.

One of the reasons given to explain the seventh grade Black difference was the possibility that a systematic bias like the years of education outside Oakland County was operating. Controls should be made for such educational experience. As a rule there were fewer Black boys available in the classroom than any other group. There is no explanation for this.

The two readers had some difficulty reaching agreement. When they worked together with the researcher and discussed their problems with interpreting the scale the agreement was high. This agreement continued even after discussion stopped. When the readers worked independently their agreement drifted apart. Stricter controls should be placed on the reading situation.

There were some suggestions that by spending so much time helping the younger children spell, an opposite effect might have been achieved; the students became over conscious of spelling.

Suggestions for the Classroom

Two broad suggestions for the classroom can be drawn from this study. Apparently there is a cultural press to write a standard English. The press exists as early as the fourth grade and exerts its influence with equal results upon Blue Collar and White Collar, Black and White, male and female students. Students for the most part seem concerned with generating Standard as opposed to Expressive English. The first suggestion is that the classroom teacher reduce or perhaps stop reinforcing the press to learn Graphic skills. Society external to the classroom will quite likely provide that motivation. The teacher can reserve his reinforcement for the neglected Expressive skills. The readers, even with conscious effort, found it difficult to concentrate on the Expressive Scale to the exclusion of "errors." Reading for and producing Expressive writing has been sadly neglected. Several of the more Expressive pieces came about from unexpected personal encounters between the teacher and a student which resulted in the student letting rip a piece of writing in spite of himself. The suggestion is for encouragement of this encounter with meaning. Students strive for language control and lack a motivation or reason to write rather than a motivation to careful language.

A second suggestion can be drawn from the fourth grade White and eleventh grade Black student correlation of syntactic problems with lowered Expressiveness. There is in this correlation a suggestion of

conflict between self expression and syntax. To encourage Expressive growth is to encourage encounter with syntactic error. To the extent that the teacher can find self-reward not discouragement in error he will encourage expression, for growth in expression is paralleled by syntactic problems. If the teacher is to encourage growth he must accept syntactic error.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

TEACHING PROTOCOLS

The teaching protocols include a list of the films used, the daily sequencing of the audio-visual material, and the final writing assignments. Slide Show #1 was made from Holt, Rinehart and Winston reading series, Sounds of Language, edited by Bill Martin.

APPENDIX A

PROTOCOL 1

FILMS USED IN THE CLASSROOM

THE BLUE DASHIKI Encyclopedia Britannica 1969 color sound 14 min

CLAY (ORIGIN OF THE SPECIES) McGraw-Hill 1964 b/w sound 8 min

GLASS McGraw-Hill 1958 color sound 11 min

HAIKU Stanton Films 1969 color sound 14 min

"MAGIC MOMENTS" SERIES Encyclopedia Britannica 1970 color sound
3-8 min

CLAP (Unit 2) 5 min

JOIN HANDS, LET GO! (Unit 5) 8 min

WHAT IF? (Unit 1) 3 min

RHINOCEROS McGraw-Hill 1964 color sound 11 min

"SHORT STORIES SHOWCASE" SERIES Encyclopedia Britannica 1969 to date
color sound 16-28 min

BARTLEBY 28 min

DR. HEIDEGGER'S EXPERIMENT 22 min

THE LADY OR THE TIGER? 16 min

THE LOTTERY 18 min

THE STRING BEAN McGraw-Hill 1964 color sound 11 min

TOYS National Film Board of Canada 1967 color sound 8 min

PROTOCOL 2

DAILY SCHEDULE

FOURTH GRADE

October 12	<u>The Blue Dashiki</u>
13	Slide Show #1
14	<u>Clap or Join Hands, Let Go!</u>
15	<u>Clay (Origin of the Species)</u>
16	<u>What if?</u> and "Tin Can" Test
19	<u>Toys</u>
20	Final Writing

SEVENTH GRADE

October 22	<u>The Lady or the Tiger?</u>
23	Slide Show #1
26	<u>The Blue Dashiki</u>
27	<u>Glass</u>
28	<u>What if?</u> and "Tin Can" Test
29	<u>The String Bean</u>
30	Final Writing

ELEVENTH GRADE

November 1	<u>The Lady or the Tiger?</u>
2	<u>Bartleby or Rhinoceros</u>
3	<u>Haiku</u>
4	<u>The Lottery</u>
5	<u>What if?</u> and "Tin Can" Test
8	<u>Dr. Heidegger's Experiment</u>
9	Final Writing

PROTOCOL 3

WRITING DIRECTIONS

Read your papers. Your assignment is to find the writing which you think will interest me the most. You may wish to:

1. Write or rewrite a story,
2. Tell me a personal experience,
3. Start with something concrete, and make an imaginative jump to ? ,
4. ~~Ex~~plain to me what your reactions to the past six days have been,
5. Put together the sentences and ideas which you think I will be most interested in reading.

DO ONLY ONE.

APPENDIX B

EXPRESSIVE LITERACY DEFINITIONS

APPENDIX B

EXPRESSIVE LITERACY DEFINITIONS

The people who wrote the papers you are to read are beginning writers. They need to learn many skills, but they have also written many sentences that are good in Ken Macrorie's sense of goodness. "They . . . ring true and stay in the reader's ear." This scale is an effort to measure the characteristics of good writing which Macrorie discusses.

Good writing is economical. You may find that a sentence will possess several characteristics. In this case check the appropriate number of yes boxes. The scale measures only the occurrence of a characteristic, frequency is not measured.

CHARACTERISTICS

1. THE WRITER SPEAKS HONESTLY WITH CANDOR.

I don't plan on getting married. My parents have a bad marriage and so do both my sisters. I wouldn't want to be tied down to a husband and a bunch of squalling brats. I've been tied down all my life and when I'm free, I'm going to stay that way.

The first necessity of good writing is a truth which relates the writer's experience, his world, to that of his words.

2. THE WRITER USES ONCENESS, PERSONAL ANECDOTE, AN INSTANCE OF REALITY FROM WHICH HE SPEAKS.

Every year when summer vacation comes around you say to yourself, This year I'm going to do something but like always you never get around to it. Over the Halloween holidays I found out I was a night man. I like the night. For quite a few nights I slipped out of the house at 1 or 3 o'clock in the morning and went waxing windows, smoking and smashing pumpkins. I had more fun than I had in the whole year.

Because he has given his reader a once that matters, this writer has said something more than the incident itself. He rates points for honesty and "onceness."

3. THE WRITING IS CLEAR IN ITS DEVELOPMENT.

One day the rabbit was gone. My sister looked and looked for it. Finally she thought the dog got it. So she looked in the dog house. And guess what she saw. The dog and rabbit fast asleep.

One statement follows another in a clear development and complication to an end. The tension ends in a surprise.

4. THE WRITING IS VIGOROUS.

The word dull bothered me because the girl said that it was too easy. She didn't know if we knew it or not. She was dull! She dull! Cause she don't like that word.

In this example the writer unconsciously underlines the agitation of her thought by shortening the length of her statements from 14, to 9, to 3, to 2 words. The final comment comes like an apology after the thrust of her thought. This selection rates points for vigor, honesty, and surprise.

School was out. Two boys on bikes come racing down the sidewalk about 20 miles per hour. The boys knocked a woman over and then a man. Her books fell all over the sidewalk. The man's glasses fell into the street. The boys went across the street without looking both ways.

The details of the second example are ordered down the page so that we see the scene clearly, feel the vigor of the movement and are given a moment of insight into the naiveness of the thoughtless act with the final echo of school morality, "without looking both ways." It rates points for vigor, clarity, and surprise.

5. THE WRITING IS RHYTHMIC.

She has two children, boy and girl, two dogs, boy and girl, and two cats, boy and girl.

I was standing on the slope watching the speedway.
There goes Dennis Day, here comes Arthur Pilgrim, thundering round the track. (Holbrook)

The first example presents a pattern of words which has a rhythm of its own while at the same time it lacks the vigor of the "She dull" example. The second example from English for the Rejected has both rhythm and a vigor of motion.

6. THE WRITING IS FRESH.

Lady and the Tiger

If I was the lady I would point to the door with a tiger. Because if I was the princess and I couldn't marry him I would let him die. But if I was him I'd open the other door.

The freshness of this example comes almost unknowingly to the writer as he tries on consecutively the roles of princess and lover. It is at once both honest and fresh.

7. THE WRITING SURPRISES THE READER WITH WORDS OR IDEAS.

The hand's finger nails shot alcohol when it stuck people. It stuck the old man and he was drunk....Then the hand stuck the old lady. Then she was drunk too. Then the hand went upstairs and locked the door. And they lived happily ever after.

In this selection the conventional development of the science fiction tension is relieved with a surprise conclusion. It is both clear and surprising.

I'm glad the clock on the wall is round instead of square.

"Square" achieves the same surprise effect in the second selection, it sets the reader wondering.

The roughness of the wild ocean waters
Came splashing over my feet
As I walked along the rocky beach.

In this poem the surprise is in the reverse of the sensation of roughness from the bottom of the feet to the top.

8. THE AUTHOR (OR HIS CHARACTER) SPEAKS IN AN AUTHENTIC VOICE.

Earnest Watson, Ha! He wears glasses for the first thing.

The writer is unpretentious. His words come almost literally from himself. He rates points for honesty, vigor and voice.

9. THE LANGUAGE IS METAPHORIC.

The darkroom so very quiet
The stillness keeps me awake
And never lets me sleep.

This is an honest and surprising use of metaphor from a boy who had spent the writing period in what seemed a trance. Or in another poem:

The white flakes of snow on the land
In the light of the moon
Keep the earth alive.

or more prosaically:

My life is like a match.

10. THE WRITING IS LIGHT, HUMOROUS.

When my dog Samantha was over my grandmother's house, my grandmother screamed at her and she growled right back and my grandmother said, "She told me didn't she?"

This author rates points for both humor and the authentic voice of her character.

APPENDIX C

EXPRESSIVE-GRAPHIC LITERACY SCALES AND EXAMPLES

At each grade level the lowest and highest rated papers and two from the mean are presented to illustrate the range of writing. The race, rating, and score (parenthesis) are given after the papers alphabetical number. Also included are the rating scales from each reader and the Graphic Literacy Scale rating in percent of opportunity for phonology and verb, and in error per 100 T-units for sentence.

APPENDIX C

EXPRESSIVE-GRAPHIC LITERACY SCALES

FOURTH GRADE EXAMPLES

Paper 54	Black	low	(1)
Paper 56	White	mean	(3)
Paper 61	White	mean	(3)
Paper 90	White	high	(8)

GRAPHIC LITERACY SCALE

Paper 54

PHONOLOGY	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-s third person	He run__ home.		He runs__ home.	<u>0</u>
-s possessive	John__ cousin.		John's__ cousin.	<u>0</u>
-s plural	I got five cent__.		I have five cents__.	<u>10</u>
-d	Yesterday he walk__ home.		Yesterday he walked__ home.	<u>10</u>
SENTENCE	EXAMPLE			TOTAL
T-unit	What I will do/I will keep the ball/ and I will tell the teacher./			<u>8.4</u>
	T = 3 words = 15 T-unit = 5 wds. average			
fragments	They put on they coat/ <u>and then they</u> / then a girl came./			<u>10</u>
run-ons	I liked the movie <u>you</u> are very nice.			<u>10</u>
-end punctuation	I liked the movie__ You are very nice.			<u>10</u>
-capitals	I liked the movie. <u>y</u> ou are very nice.			<u>20</u>
Black sentences	pronominal apposition: John <u>he</u> live in New York.			<u>0</u>
	double negative: I <u>don't</u> got <u>none</u> .			<u>0</u>
	past condition: I ask <u>did he do it</u> .			<u>0</u>
VERB	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-past tense	I <u>drunk</u> the milk.		I <u>drank</u> the milk.	<u>20</u>
-auxiliary	He __ goin'.		He <u>is</u> going.	<u>20</u>
-copula	That __ the man I want.		That <u>is</u> the man I want.	<u>0</u>

The princess loved the man she didnt want him killed. she was jealous of the lady that stand in the door.

She knew that the lady that stand in the door. The man that open the other door got killed. but the man that opened the door where the lady stand choose the right door.

The money

Once I was going to the store and I found a wallet it had 20 dollar in it

And i gave it to my mother.

She spend it on some clothes and a pair of shoes And i seen the girl who had lost the wallet and she was crying because she going

Once this girl was going to the cleaner.

EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCALE

Paper 56

Do you find evidence in this paper that:

1. The writer speaks with candor.
2. The writer uses "onceness" anecdote.
3. The writing is clear.
4. The writing is vigorous.
5. The writing is rhythmic.
6. The writing is fresh.
7. The writing surprises with words or ideas.
8. The author (character) speaks in an authentic voice.
9. The language is metaphoric.
10. The writing is light, humorous.

Reader	
1	2
X	
	X
X	
TOTAL 3	

GRAPHIC LITERACY SCALE

Paper 56

PHONOLOGY	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-s third person	He run__ home.		He runs__ home.	<u>0</u>
-s possessive	John__ cousin.		John's__ cousin.	<u>0</u>
-s plural	I got five cent__.		I have five cents__.	<u>0</u>
-d	Yesterday he walk__ home.		Yesterday he walked__ home.	<u>0</u>
SENTENCE	EXAMPLE			TOTAL
T-unit	What I will do/I will keep the ball/ and I will tell the teacher./			<u>7.7</u>
	T = 3 words = 15 T-unit = 5 wds. average			
fragments	They put on they coat/ <u>and then they</u> / then a girl came./			<u>0</u>
run-ons	I liked the movie <u>you</u> are very nice.			<u>30</u>
-end punctuation	I liked the movie__ You are very nice.			<u>0</u>
-capitals	I liked the movie. <u>y</u> ou are very nice.			<u>10</u>
Black sentences	pronominal apposition: John <u>he</u> live in New York.			<u>0</u>
	double negative: I <u>don't</u> got <u>none</u> .			<u>0</u>
	past condition: I ask <u>did he do it</u> .			<u>0</u>
VERB	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-past tense	I <u>drunk</u> the milk.		I <u>drank</u> the milk.	<u>0</u>
-auxiliary	He __ goin'.		He <u>is</u> going.	<u>0</u>
-copula	That __ the man I want.		That <u>is</u> the man I want.	<u>0</u>

The Haunted grave yard

Once I went out on devil's night, and I went in the grave yard.
My friend looked around he saw a open coffin and we went to the coffin.
My friend looked in the coffin somebody had pushed my friend in. And
then a devil came and picked up my friend he took my friend and took
him to a old house and killed him.

EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCALE

Paper 61

Do you find evidence in this paper that:

1. The writer speaks with candor.
2. The writer uses "onceness" anecdote.
3. The writing is clear.
4. The writing is vigorous.
5. The writing is rhythmic.
6. The writing is fresh.
7. The writing surprises with words or ideas.
8. The author (character) speaks in an authentic voice.
9. The language is metaphoric.
10. The writing is light, humorous.

Reader	
1	2
X	
	X
	X
TOTAL	
3	

GRAPHIC LITERACY SCALE

Paper 61

PHONOLOGY	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-s third person	He run_ home.		He runs_ home.	<u>0</u>
-s possessive	John__ cousin.		John's_ cousin.	<u>0</u>
-s plural	I got five cent_.		I have five cents_.	<u>0</u>
-d	Yesterday he walk__ home.		Yesterday he walked_ home.	<u>0</u>
SENTENCE	EXAMPLE			TOTAL
T-unit	What I will do/I will keep the ball/ and I will tell the teacher./			<u>6.1</u>
	T = 3 words = 15 T-unit = 5 wds. average			
fragments	They put on they coat/ <u>and then they</u> / then a girl came./			<u>0</u>
run-ons	I liked the movie <u>you</u> are very nice.			<u>0</u>
-end punctuation	I liked the movie_ You are very nice.			<u>10</u>
-capitals	I liked the movie. <u>y</u> ou are very nice.			<u>30</u>
Black sentences	pronominal apposition: John <u>he</u> live in New York.			<u>0</u>
	double negative: I <u>don't</u> got <u>none</u> .			<u>0</u>
	past condition: I ask <u>did he do it</u> .			<u>0</u>
VERB	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-past tense	I <u>drunk</u> the milk.		I <u>drank</u> the milk.	<u>0</u>
-auxiliary	He __ goin'.		He <u>is</u> going.	<u>0</u>
-copula	That __ the man I want.		That <u>is</u> the man I want.	<u>0</u>

The glass

the people made some glass and they made bottles and lamps and they made little bottles and lamps covers. and they made some candles and they made holders for them and they made shades for the wall and they were pretty

EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCALE

Paper 90

Do you find evidence in this paper that:

	Reader	
	1	2
1. The writer speaks with candor.		X
2. The writer uses "onceness" anecdote.	X	X
3. The writing is clear.	X	X
4. The writing is vigorous.		
5. The writing is rhythmic.		
6. The writing is fresh.		
7. The writing surprises with words or ideas.	X	
8. The author (character) speaks in an authentic voice.	X	X
9. The language is metaphoric.		
10. The writing is light, humorous.		
TOTAL	8	

GRAPHIC LITERACY SCALE

Paper 90

PHONOLOGY	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-s third person	He run_ home.		He runs_ home.	<u>0</u>
-s possessive	John__ cousin.		John's_ cousin.	<u>0</u>
-s plural	I got five cent_.		I have five cents_.	<u>0</u>
-d	Yesterday he walk__ home.		Yesterday he walked_ home.	<u>0</u>
SENTENCE	EXAMPLE			TOTAL
T-unit	What I will do/I will keep the ball/ and I will tell the teacher./			<u>10.9</u>
	T = 3 words = 15 T-unit = 5 wds. average			
fragments	They put on they coat/ <u>and then they</u> / then a girl came./			<u>0</u>
run-ons	I liked the movie_ you are very nice.			<u>0</u>
-end punctuation	I liked the movie_ You are very nice.			<u>10</u>
-capitals	I liked the movie. _you are very nice.			<u>40</u>
Black sentences	pronominal apposition: John <u>he</u> live in New York.			<u>0</u>
	double negative: I <u>don't</u> got <u>none</u> .			<u>0</u>
	past condition: I ask <u>did he do it</u> .			<u>0</u>
VERB	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-past tense	I <u>drunk</u> the milk.		I <u>drank</u> the milk.	<u>0</u>
-auxiliary	He __ goin'.		He <u>is</u> going.	<u>0</u>
-copula	That __ the man I want.		That <u>is</u> the man I want.	<u>0</u>

My Surprise Ending

When I raked the yard today guess what happened to me? Well I raked a little bit of leaves up yesterday and went into the house to get a drink, And when I came out the leaves were all scattered around? So i started to rake them up again. I got half of them raked up again when the wind blew again and the leaves scattered all around again. So i thought, oh well I'll rake them up again. So I raked them all up till, the wind again. But instead of blowing sideways they blew up in my face. And that was my surprise ending?

APPENDIX C

EXPRESSIVE-GRAPHIC LITERACY SCALES

SEVENTH GRADE EXAMPLES

Paper 21	Black	low	(2)
Paper 53	Black	low	(2)
Paper 91	Black	mean	(5)
Paper 41	White	high	(11)

EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCALE

Paper 21

Do you find evidence in this paper that:

	Reader	
	1	2
1. The writer speaks with candor.		
2. The writer uses "onceness" anecdote.		
3. The writing is clear.		X
4. The writing is vigorous.		
5. The writing is rhythmic.		
6. The writing is fresh.		
7. The writing surprises with words or ideas.		
8. The author (character) speaks in an authentic voice.	X	
9. The language is metaphoric.		
10. The writing is light, humorous.		
TOTAL	2	

GRAPHIC LITERACY SCALE

Paper 21

PHONOLOGY	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-s third person	He run_ home.		He runs_ home.	<u>0</u>
-s possessive	John__ cousin.		John's_ cousin.	<u>0</u>
-s plural	I got five cent_.		I have five cents_.	<u>0</u>
-d	Yesterday he walk__ home.		Yesterday he walked_ home.	<u>20</u>
SENTENCE	EXAMPLE			TOTAL
T-unit	What I will do/I will keep the ball/ and I will tell the teacher./			<u>9.5</u>
	T = 3 words = 15 T-unit = 5 wds. average			
fragments	They put on they coat/ <u>and then they</u> / then a girl came./			<u>0</u>
run-ons	I liked the movie <u>you</u> are very nice.			<u>30</u>
-end punctuation	I liked the movie_ You are very nice.			<u>10</u>
-capitals	I liked the movie. <u>y</u> ou are very nice.			<u>0</u>
Black sentences	pronominal apposition: John <u>he</u> live in New York.			<u>0</u>
	double negative: I <u>don't</u> got <u>none</u> .			<u>0</u>
	past condition: I ask <u>did he do it</u> .			<u>0</u>
VERB	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-past tense	I <u>drunk</u> the milk.		I <u>drank</u> the milk.	<u>20</u>
-auxiliary	He __ goin'.		He <u>is</u> going.	<u>0</u>
-copula	That __ the man I want.		That <u>is</u> the man I want.	<u>0</u>

The String bean

The string bean was put into the soil and it started to grow when you put the water and the next day the string bean was going good and then it got bigger every day then she put it out in the hall and the sun was shining on the plant and the plant was moving a little I guess it was glad to see the sun because the sun helps it grow then the old lady look after the plant every day and every day she would take it were ever she go one day she look out the window and she saw a

EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCALE

Paper 53

Do you find evidence in this paper that:

	Reader	
	1	2
1. The writer speaks with candor.		
2. The writer uses "onceness" anecdote.		
3. The writing is clear.	X	X
4. The writing is vigorous.		
5. The writing is rhythmic.		
6. The writing is fresh.		
7. The writing surprises with words or ideas.		
8. The author (character) speaks in an authentic voice.		
9. The language is metaphoric.		
10. The writing is light, humorous.		
TOTAL	2	

GRAPHIC LITERACY SCALE

Paper 53

PHONOLOGY	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-s third person	He run_ home.		He runs_ home.	<u>0</u>
-s possessive	John__ cousin.		John's_ cousin.	<u>0</u>
-s plural	I got five cent_.		I have five cents_.	<u>0</u>
-d	Yesterday he walk__ home.		Yesterday he walked_ home.	<u>0</u>
SENTENCE	EXAMPLE			TOTAL
T-unit	What I will do/I will keep the ball/ and I will tell the teacher./			<u>11</u>
	T = 3 words = 15 T-unit = 5 wds. average			
fragments	They put on they coat/ <u>and then they/</u> then a girl came./			<u>0</u>
run-ons	I liked the movie <u>you</u> are very nice.			<u>0</u>
-end punctuation	I liked the movie_ You are very nice.			<u>0</u>
-capitals	I liked the movie. <u>y</u> ou are very nice.			<u>98</u>
Black sentences	pronominal apposition: John <u>he</u> live in New York.			<u>0</u>
	double negative: I <u>don't</u> got <u>none</u> .			<u>0</u>
	past condition: I ask <u>did he do it</u> .			<u>0</u>
VERB	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-past tense	I <u>drunk</u> the milk.		I <u>drank</u> the milk.	<u>0</u>
-auxiliary	He __ goin'.		He <u>is</u> going.	<u>0</u>
-copula	That __ the man I want.		That <u>is</u> the man I want.	<u>0</u>

The blue dashiki

The Story Was About A Boy Who Wanted A Blue Dashiki But Didn't Have Enough Money So He Helped An Old Lady And She Gave Him a Quarter And He Started Doing Odd Jobs In Stores Car Washes And Jobs For People So After a While He Got Enough Money To Buy a Blue Dashiki.

EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCALE

Paper 91

Do you find evidence in this paper that:

1. The writer speaks with candor.
2. The writer uses "onceness" anecdote.
3. The writing is clear.
4. The writing is vigorous.
5. The writing is rhythmic.
6. The writing is fresh.
7. The writing surprises with words or ideas.
8. The author (character) speaks in an authentic voice.
9. The language is metaphoric.
10. The writing is light, humorous.

Reader
1 2

	X
	X
X	X
	X
TOTAL	
5	

GRAPHIC LITERACY SCALE

Paper 91

PHONOLOGY	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-s third person	He run_ home.		He runs_ home.	<u>0</u>
-s possessive	John__ cousin.		John's_ cousin.	<u>0</u>
-s plural	I got five cent_.		I have five cents_.	<u>0</u>
-d	Yesterday he walk__ home.		Yesterday he walked_ home.	<u>10</u>
SENTENCE	EXAMPLE			TOTAL
T-unit	What I will do/I will keep the ball/ and I will tell the teacher./			<u>9.3</u>
	T = 3 words = 15 T-unit = 5 wds. average			
fragments	They put on they coat/ <u>and then they</u> / then a girl came./			<u>0</u>
run-ons	I liked the movie <u>you</u> are very nice.			<u>10</u>
-end punctuation	I liked the movie_ You are very nice.			<u>0</u>
-capitals	I liked the movie. <u>y</u> ou are very nice.			<u>20</u>
Black sentences	pronominal apposition: John <u>he</u> live in New York.			<u>0</u>
	double negative: I <u>don't</u> got <u>none</u> .			<u>0</u>
	past condition: I ask <u>did he do it</u> .			<u>0</u>
VERB	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-past tense	I <u>drunk</u> the milk.		I <u>drank</u> the milk.	<u>20</u>
-auxiliary	He __ goin'.		He <u>is</u> going.	<u>0</u>
-copula	That __ the man I want.		That <u>is</u> the man I want.	<u>0</u>

Well I was suppose to be keeping some money for someone and I lost it and I didnt tell them. They asked me "were is my money" and I said it is suppose to be were I keep the rest of my and they said well it isn't and I said I wonder were it is at because I knew that I had lost it so I was all scared and then she said I'm not going to you any more money for me.

EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCALE

Paper 41

Do you find evidence in this paper that:

1. The writer speaks with candor.
2. The writer uses "onceness" anecdote.
3. The writing is clear.
4. The writing is vigorous.
5. The writing is rhythmic.
6. The writing is fresh.
7. The writing surprises with words or ideas.
8. The author (character) speaks in an authentic voice.
9. The language is metaphoric.
10. The writing is light, humorous.

Reader	
1	2
X	
X	
X	
	X
X	X
X	X
X	X
	X
TOTAL 11	

GRAPHIC LITERACY SCALE

Paper 41

PHONOLOGY	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-s third person	He run__ home.		He runs__ home.	<u>0</u>
-s possessive	John__ cousin.		John's__ cousin.	<u>0</u>
-s plural	I got five cent__.		I have five cents__.	<u>0</u>
-d	Yesterday he walk__ home.		Yesterday he walked__ home.	<u>0</u>
SENTENCE	EXAMPLE			TOTAL
T-unit	What I will do/I will keep the ball/ and I will tell the teacher./			<u>15.1</u>
	T = 3 words = 15 T-unit = 5 wds. average			
fragments	They put on they coat/ <u>and then they</u> / then a girl came./			<u>20</u>
run-ons	I liked the movie__ you are very nice.			<u>30</u>
-end punctuation	I liked the movie__ You are very nice.			<u>0</u>
-capitals	I liked the movie. __ you are very nice.			<u>0</u>
Black sentences	pronominal apposition: John <u>he</u> live in New York.			<u>0</u>
	double negative: I <u>don't</u> got <u>none</u> .			<u>0</u>
	past condition: I ask <u>did he do it</u> .			<u>0</u>
VERB	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-past tense	I <u>drunk</u> the milk.		I <u>drank</u> the milk.	<u>0</u>
-auxiliary	He __ goin'.		He <u>is</u> going.	<u>0</u>
-copula	That __ the man I want.		That <u>is</u> the man I want.	<u>0</u>

The Bad things of Life

The bad things in life are not needed by me. Like a kid sister a spoiled brat and is a nosy person and most of all she always follows me around.

One time we were at a gas station and she followed me into the men's room and I didn't even know it until I closed the door. Because she screamed that I was killing her blanket in the door. When I got back to the car they were putting bandaids on it.

The second worst thing in life is school, the worst is homework, which I forget to do every night and then the next day I get a swat by the paddle.

One of the worst things in life is getting the measles or the chicken pox on the first day of summer vacation.

APPENDIX C

EXPRESSIVE-GRAPHIC LITERACY SCALES

ELEVENTH GRADE EXAMPLES

Paper	29	Black	low	(3)
Paper	81	Black	mean	(7)
Paper	121	Black	mean	(7)
Paper	92	White	high	(12)
Paper	39	White	high	(12)

EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCALE

Paper 29

Do you find evidence in this paper that:

1. The writer speaks with candor.
2. The writer uses "onceness" anecdote.
3. The writing is clear.
4. The writing is vigorous.
5. The writing is rhythmic.
6. The writing is fresh.
7. The writing surprises with words or ideas.
8. The author (character) speaks in an authentic voice.
9. The language is metaphoric.
10. The writing is light, humorous.

Reader	
1	2
X	
	X
X	
TOTAL	
3	

GRAPHIC LITERACY SCALE

Paper 29

PHONOLOGY	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-s third person	He run_ home.		He runs_ home.	<u>0</u>
-s possessive	John__ cousin.		John's_ cousin.	<u>0</u>
-s plural	I got five cent_.		I have five cents_.	<u>10</u>
-d	Yesterday he walk__ home.		Yesterday he walked_ home.	<u>0</u>
SENTENCE	EXAMPLE			TOTAL
T-unit	What I will do/I will keep the ball/ and I will tell the teacher./			<u>7.1</u>
	T = 3 words = 15 T-unit = 5 wds. average			
fragments	They put on they coat/ <u>and then they/</u> then a girl came./			<u>0</u>
run-ons	I liked the movie <u>you</u> are very nice.			<u>30</u>
-end punctuation	I liked the movie_ You are very nice.			<u>30</u>
-capitals	I liked the movie. <u>y</u> ou are very nice.			<u>0</u>
Black sentences	pronominal apposition: John <u>he</u> live in New York.			<u>0</u>
	double negative: I <u>don't</u> got <u>none</u> .			<u>0</u>
	past condition: I ask <u>did he do it</u> .			<u>0</u>
VERB	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-past tense	I <u>drunk</u> the milk.		I <u>drank</u> the milk.	<u>2</u>
-auxiliary	He __ goin'.		He <u>is</u> going.	<u>20</u>
-copula	That __ the man I want.		That <u>is</u> the man I want.	<u>10</u>

The Boy & Girl Who Sang to Each Other

Once long time ago an fifteen year old boy named Sylvan was in love with this young lady named Sylvia. Sylvia Sylvan grew up together and were in Kindergarten together Sylvia never knew Sylvan was in love with her until one night he sang this song "Can you Remember" he had a lovely voice this was how the song went. Can you Remember when we were babies we were always together when we were in Kindergarten but now that your grown so girl you left me alone so didnt I promise you that this is to what I'll do so girl I love you Dont you know I love you yeh I love you Dont you Know I love you yeh Can you Remember when we were in Kindergarten and our love had no end "No end" Sunny Skys are blue so this is to what I'll do girl I'll love you. And she looked him in the eye and said Sylvan I've listened to you now you listen I Remember I remember when I was a little girl I never ever ever wore curls I wore nothing but an old Shaggy Shaggy I never ever tried to look my best now when you look at me all your love come running through I changed and showing all my love, all of my love is growing. And he said yeh and your legs were little but now they are big instead of wearing pony tails you wore a little red wig. Your lip are big you've got some kissable lips I love the way you walk and you wiggle your hips Now when I look at you all my love come running through you've changed and its showing all my love is growing.

EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCALE

Paper 81

Do you find evidence in this paper that:

1. The writer speaks with candor.
2. The writer uses "onceness" anecdote.
3. The writing is clear.
4. The writing is vigorous.
5. The writing is rhythmic.
6. The writing is fresh.
7. The writing surprises with words or ideas.
8. The author (character) speaks in an authentic voice.
9. The language is metaphoric.
10. The writing is light, humorous.

Reader	
1	2
X	X
X	X
	X
X	X
TOTAL	
7	

GRAPHIC LITERACY SCALE

Paper 81

PHONOLOGY	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-s third person	He run_ home.		He runs_ home.	<u>0</u>
-s possessive	John__ cousin.		John's_ cousin.	<u>0</u>
-s plural	I got five cent_.		I have five cents_.	<u>0</u>
-d	Yesterday he walk__ home.		Yesterday he walked_ home.	<u>100</u>
SENTENCE	EXAMPLE			TOTAL
T-unit	What I will do/I will keep the ball/ and I will tell the teacher./			<u>8.5</u>
	T = 3 words = 15 T-unit = 5 wds. average			
fragments	They put on they coat/ <u>and then they/</u> then a girl came./			<u>0</u>
run-ons	I liked the movie <u>you</u> are very nice.			<u>20</u>
-end punctuation	I liked the movie_ You are very nice.			<u>10</u>
-capitals	I liked the movie. <u>you</u> are very nice.			<u>10</u>
Black sentences	pronominal apposition: John <u>he</u> live in New York.			<u>0</u>
	double negative: I <u>don't</u> got <u>none</u> .			<u>0</u>
	past condition: I ask <u>did he do it</u> .			<u>0</u>
VERB	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-past tense	I <u>drunk</u> the milk.		I <u>drank</u> the milk.	<u>30</u>
-auxiliary	He __ goin'.		He <u>is</u> going.	<u>100</u>
-copula	That __ the man I want.		That <u>is</u> the man I want.	<u>0</u>

School is a big rag I Hate school.

some people come to learn some come to see the girls and friends.

I come to go to wrestling practice and, pop, popcorn in after
school

I like seven days you were here I thought it was interesting.

I like movies you show the class.

I thought the was fun seeing how many words you can get out of,
TIN CAN, and that movie about the raffle. and I like the music on
the movie the rhinoceros.

EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCALE

Paper 121

Do you find evidence in this paper that:

1. The writer speaks with candor.
2. The writer uses "onceness" anecdote.
3. The writing is clear.
4. The writing is vigorous.
5. The writing is rhythmic.
6. The writing is fresh.
7. The writing surprises with words or ideas.
8. The author (character) speaks in an authentic voice.
9. The language is metaphoric.
10. The writing is light, humorous.

Reader	
1	2
X	X
X	X
	X
X	X
TOTAL	
7	

GRAPHIC LITERACY SCALE

Paper 121

PHONOLOGY	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-s third person	He run_ home.		He runs_ home.	<u>0</u>
-s possessive	John__ cousin.		John's_ cousin.	<u>0</u>
-s plural	I got five cent_.		I have five cents_.	<u>0</u>
-d	Yesterday he walk__ home.		Yesterday he walked_ home.	<u>10</u>
SENTENCE	EXAMPLE			TOTAL
T-unit	What I will do/I will keep the ball/ and I will tell the teacher./			<u>17.6</u>
	T = 3 words = 15 T-unit = 5 wds. average			
fragments	They put on they coat/ <u>and then they</u> / then a girl came./			<u>30</u>
run-ons	I liked the movie <u>you</u> are very nice.			<u>0</u>
-end punctuation	I liked the movie_ You are very nice.			<u>0</u>
-capitals	I liked the movie. <u>you</u> are very nice.			<u>0</u>
Black sentences	pronominal apposition: John <u>he</u> live in New York.			<u>0</u>
	double negative: I <u>don't</u> got <u>none</u> .			<u>0</u>
	past condition: I ask <u>did he do it</u> .			<u>0</u>
VERB	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-past tense	I <u>drunk</u> the milk.		I <u>drank</u> the milk.	<u>20</u>
-auxiliary	He __ goin'.		He <u>is</u> going.	<u>0</u>
-copula	That __ the man I want.		That <u>is</u> the man I want.	<u>0</u>

1. Rewriting a Story. The first one-

I think in the first time the man come to pick the right door. I thought in both doors was a tiger. But when they showed the other door I was surprise.

And when the second man, the one the lady like so much. I think she lead him to the tiger because she was jealous of the other woman a I think she would want to see him eaten by the tiger than to be with the other lady. But about the last part of the film, I think they should of added a little more to it. Like show us who was first to come out of the door. Oh, the way the door came open I guess it was the tiger. But in the other case it could of been the girl.

EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCALE

Paper 92

Do you find evidence in this paper that:

	Reader	
	1	2
1. The writer speaks with candor.		
2. The writer uses "onceness" anecdote.		
3. The writing is clear.	X	X
4. The writing is vigorous.		
5. The writing is rhythmic.	X	X
6. The writing is fresh.	X	X
7. The writing surprises with words or ideas.	X	X
8. The author (character) speaks in an authentic voice.	X	
9. The language is metaphoric.	X	
10. The writing is light, humorous.	X	X
TOTAL	12	

GRAPHIC LITERACY SCALE

Paper 92

PHONOLOGY	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-s third person	He run_ home.		He runs_ home.	<u>0</u>
-s possessive	John__ cousin.		John's_ cousin.	<u>0</u>
-s plural	I got five cent_.		I have five cents_.	<u>0</u>
-d	Yesterday he walk__ home.		Yesterday he walked_ home.	<u>0</u>
SENTENCE	EXAMPLE			TOTAL
T-unit	What I will do/I will keep the ball/ and I will tell the teacher./			<u>13.2</u>
	T = 3 words = 15 T-unit = 5 wds. average			
fragments	They put on they coat/ <u>and then they/</u> then a girl came./			<u>3</u>
run-ons	I liked the movie <u>you</u> are very nice.			<u>3</u>
-end punctuation	I liked the movie_ You are very nice.			<u>0</u>
-capitals	I liked the movie. <u>y</u> ou are very nice.			<u>3</u>
Black sentences	pronominal apposition: John <u>he</u> live in New York.			<u>0</u>
	double negative: I <u>don't</u> got <u>none</u> .			<u>0</u>
	past condition: I ask <u>did he do it</u> .			<u>0</u>
VERB	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-past tense	I <u>drunk</u> the milk.		I <u>drank</u> the milk.	<u>0</u>
-auxiliary	He __ goin'.		He <u>is</u> going.	<u>0</u>
-copula	That __ the man I want.		That <u>is</u> the man I want.	<u>0</u>

It all started 2 years ago when I wanted to go somewhere to go. I went through many magazines and paper folders on different places to go. Finally I chose Alaska. I chose Alaska because there is snow there just about all of the time and it is very beautiful in the summertime also. But most of all I went to see the animals there, especially the "PENGUIN". The penguin fascinates me. So when I arrived, we worked on making us an igloo after it was complete I took a walk with one of the friends I had met in my short time there. His name was Walter and he was a walrus. We hadn't gone very far when we spotted something in the snow. I turned to Walter and said lets go see what it is.

So we went over there and they were tracks in the snow, but these tracks were unusual in that they were 8 ft. across and 11 ft. long. (highly unusual). So we decided to follow them, but they seemed endless. Up this hill, down this hill, around this corner. Well they went on for quite a ways.

Then all of a sudden they just stopped, right in the middle of nowhere as if whatever or whoever was lifted off his feet.

Well we soon found out he was not lifted off of his feet because we heard a noise from one of the trees above, we looked up and there was this thing coming at us. It was the biggest, the ugliest, the homeliest looking thing that I had ever seen. It was a giant Penguin and by now he was chasing us. Well he caught up to us and we are in a cave right now being prepared for a most delightful dish, Walrus and me.

Well I really couldn't tell you how it was because I am in a most difficult place to tell anything for I have been eaten up by that big ugly creature. But I must say the guy sure does have good taste in picking me for one of his meals. But before I end this incredibly strange story, take these words of advice. If you are ever in Alaska and a giant, ugly, 10 ft. penguin just happens to drop in from nowhere and invites you for supper. Take it from me don't go.

EXPRESSIVE LITERACY SCALE

Paper 39

Do you find evidence in this paper that:

1. The writer speaks with candor.
2. The writer uses "onceness" anecdote.
3. The writing is clear.
4. The writing is vigorous.
5. The writing is rhythmic.
6. The writing is fresh.
7. The writing surprises with words or ideas.
8. The author (character) speaks in an authentic voice.
9. The language is metaphoric.
10. The writing is light, humorous.

Reader	
1	2
X	
	X
X	X
X	
	X
X	X
X	
X	X
	X
TOTAL	
12	

GRAPHIC LITERACY SCALE

Paper 39

PHONOLOGY	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-s third person	He run_ home.		He runs_ home.	<u>0</u>
-s possessive	John__ cousin.		John's_ cousin.	<u>0</u>
-s plural	I got five cent_.		I have five cents_.	<u>0</u>
-d	Yesterday he walk__ home.		Yesterday he walked_ home.	<u>1</u>
SENTENCE	EXAMPLE			TOTAL
T-unit	What I will do/I will keep the ball/ and I will tell the teacher./			<u>4.1</u>
	T = 3 words = 15 T-unit = 5 wds. average			
fragments	They put on they coat/ <u>and then they/</u> then a girl came./			<u>1</u>
run-ons	I liked the movie <u>you</u> are very nice.			<u>1</u>
-end punctuation	I liked the movie_ You are very nice.			<u>0</u>
-capitals	I liked the movie. <u>y</u> ou are very nice.			<u>1</u>
Black sentences	pronominal apposition: John <u>he</u> live in New York.			<u>0</u>
	double negative: I <u>don't</u> got <u>none</u> .			<u>0</u>
	past condition: I ask <u>did he do it</u> .			<u>0</u>
VERB	This	for	Standard	TOTAL
-past tense	I <u>drunk</u> the milk.		I <u>drank</u> the milk.	<u>0</u>
-auxiliary	He __ goin'.		He <u>is</u> going.	<u>0</u>
-copula	That __ the man I want.		That <u>is</u> the man I want.	<u>0</u>

Personal Experience (I think it would interest you to know)

I am going to do two things

1. Write or rewrite a story.
2. Tell me a personal experience.

1. Write or rewrite a story.

Girl looking at skeleton hand (personal experience)

The reason I picked this strip is not because of my personal experience, but a friends.

He was walking down a road near my house, Doris Road, and he spotted something in the woods. He couldn't figure out what it was. So, he walked up to it. He saw it was a man laying on a big piece of cardboard, like what a refrigerator comes in, with his brains beat out.

He ran to a phone and called the police. They found it was an insurance man. And the kid said, "Well at least they were nice enough to lay him on something."

2. Tell me a personal experience.

The reason I picked this is because when you put that down I thought of my own personal experience.

One day my Mom and dad were up North and my brother and I were home alone. It was a real nice day and a lot of people, mostly kids, were over riding their horses including me.

This one girl named Mary Segula, daughter of Doctor Segula, was walking her horse around. She decided she wanted to take her horse way back in the field to let him eat some grass. And she did. But there was only one thing wrong that I noticed she had a long rope, about 10 ft., and a slip knot around her hand. She had been told many times before to take the slip knot off. She just wouldn't listen. I told her again and she took it off. The reason she had it on was because she didn't have enough power to hold him back.

She took it off and walked down the path. But, she put it back on!

She was letting her horse eat and about a half an hour later a car went down the path, and the horse was scared of cars.

It was a real loud and noisy car. She was sitting there and the people pushed down on the gas real hard.

The horse took off running. You could see in the field where she was running along behind him then POW! down she went.

The horse was running as fast as he could and her behind him. Her hair got caught on a board and ripped a hunk of her skull out.

She was coming down the driveway real fast then P-O-W! The girl hit a brick then the corner of the barn. She looked like a dummy being drug.

The horse finally fell on the cement. I went up to my house and called an ambulance. They came and got her. She died when she got to the hospital.

Her arm was pulled out of socket and she had a great big rope .
burn on her hand.

It was awful!

It was a lesson to me. Never tie myself to a horse.

Our family bought the horse. This girl now owns it and they
are the best couple.

The reason I picked this was because her hand looked like that
skeleton hand and I looked like that girl.

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