A COMPARISON OF CHILDREN'S INTEREST IN AND ATTITUDE
TOWARDS READING MATERIAL WRITTEN IN STANDARD
AND BLACK ENGLISH FORMS

DISSERTATION
Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
School of The Ohio State University

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1971

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

My sincere appreciation is extended to the many people who contributed their valuable time, effort, concern and encouragement during this dissertation.

I am particularly grateful to my adviser, Dr. Alexander Frazier, for his patience, guidance and encouragement before and during this study.

My gratitude also goes to Dr. Charlotte S. Huck and Dr. Donald Bateman who graciously served on the Advisory Committee.

Special gratitude is due the principals and teachers who assisted in the collection of the data for the study.
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CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

Reading and developing language skills are the chief foundations for gaining knowledge. The ability to read is perhaps the single most important skill the school can teach a child; it is the fundamental tool of information transfer. When a child is able to read, not only is he able to better order the abstract ideas of his environment but he also increases his opportunities for experiencing success in this society. Today, however, many children in our schools are not learning to read.

Reports from metropolitan areas indicate that reading achievement for substantial numbers of "economically deprived" children is well below national norms. The magnitude and near universality of this fact is well documented. In discussing education for Black children in urban centers, Shaw writes:

Children from low-socio-economic areas also tend to fall farther and farther behind their peers in achievement. In one large district in New York, the average child (disadvantaged) was found to be retarded one year in reading in the third grade, almost two years in the sixth, and two and one-half in the eighth.1

The Coleman Report further substantiates this cumulative deficit effect. Coleman writes:

In the critical skills—verbal and reading ability—Negro students fall farther behind whites with each year of school completed. For example: in the metropolitan Northeast Negro students on the average begin the first grade with somewhat lower scores on standard achievement tests than white, are about 1.6 grades behind by sixth grade, and have fallen 3.3 grades behind white students by the twelfth grade.  

The evidence indicates a widening gap between the reading achievement of the Black child as he continues through school and that of other children. Pettigrew, through a review of research studies, notes the following results of discriminatory practices:

impairment of human relatedness...impairment of the individuals's acceptance and understanding of himself...the resulting confusion of self-identity and lowering of self-esteem...a generalized perception of the world as a hostile, threatening place...family disorganization.  

The child who lacks reading skills becomes a potential problem learner in every other phase of the school program and a prime candidate for poor discipline, participation in school disruptions, and eventually for dropping school. Without major changes in instructional materials and practices, a large percentage of Black children now entering school will become functionally illiterate young adults, in less than twelve years.

If schools expect to change this situation, to equip all children with the skills necessary to realize their potential and prevent a monumental waste of human potential, educators must reconsider present

---


materials and methods. They must encourage innovative approaches to material development and create instructional techniques that are more effective in attracting and interesting Black children in continuing academic activities. Realistic and meaningful materials and practices must reach failing Black children and prevent the continued build-up of an alienated student population.

Attempts to increase the urban child's skills include major efforts by the Detroit Public Schools and the Bank Street College of Education in conjunction with New York City Public Schools. In these experiments textbooks and materials were developed expressly for reading instruction in the two cities. Events in the textbooks reflected an urban setting, and illustrations represented a cross section of racial and ethnic groups. Stories were about subjects to which it was thought urban children could relate positively.

When children instructed from these materials were tested, they showed no significant differences in reading achievement from students who received instruction from other materials. Teachers in the program indicated, however, that Black students demonstrated increased interests in reading activities, and showed appreciably more positive attitudes about themselves.4 Despite the changes in setting and context, the dialogue in these books remained a variety of standard English which did not closely approximate the actual language usage of the urban Black youth.

4Millard H. Black, "Beginning Reading Programs for the Culturally Disadvantaged," in Perspectives in Reading: First Grade Reading Programs edited by James F. Kerfoot (International Reading Association, 1965), pp. 150-172.
An increasing number of educators and linguists believe a major factor in the failure of some urban Black children to learn to read is language difference. Linguists such as Dillard, Labov, Wolfram and Shuy, Wolfram and Riley have described some linguistic parameters of the speech of urban Black children. These indicate varying degrees of difference between the children's speech and standard English in vocabulary, grammar, and sound system. The language of the children either regularly included features not found in standard English or consistently excluded forms present in it.

These differences are more than mere one-to-one substitutions of words for standard ones. "That's a boss ride" is slang. "Boss" is a synonym for "fine" and "ride" for "automobile." While such sentences are common among the speech patterns of many urban Black children, they do not represent the basic grammatical contrasts referred to by the linguists. On the other hand, the statement, "John, he live in Gary, Indiana" is black English. The subject expression includes two references to the same person (in standard English, a double subject), and the "s" has been deleted from the verb (subject-verb disagreement in standard English). These differences were typically observed in the speech patterns of some urban Black children.

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While studying the language of Black children in Washington, D.C., Baratz found the following differences between their speech and standard English:  

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Variable</th>
<th>Standard</th>
<th>Black English</th>
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<tr>
<td>linking verb</td>
<td>He is going.</td>
<td>He____going.</td>
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<tr>
<td>possessive marker</td>
<td>John's cousin.</td>
<td>John____cousin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plural marker</td>
<td>I have five cents.</td>
<td>I got five cent ____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb form</td>
<td>I drank the milk.</td>
<td>I drank the milk.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past marker</td>
<td>Yesterday, we walked home.</td>
<td>Yesterday, we walk ___ home.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>negation</td>
<td>I don't have any.</td>
<td>I don't got none.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pronoun form</td>
<td>We have to do it.</td>
<td>Us got to do it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>be</td>
<td>He is here all the time.</td>
<td>He be here.</td>
</tr>
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Labov studied several phonological variables in the language of Black children in New York, including what he terms R-and L-lessness, simplification of consonant clusters, and weakening of final consonants. He found that inflectional rules governing the speech of these children allowed for the production of homonyms which speakers of standard English could not produce:

- God-guard
- fault-fought
- Paris-pass
- help-hep
- pass-past
- men-mend
- wine-wind
- pin-pen
- beer-beer
- cheer-chair
- moor-more
- oil-all

---


The linguists take as basic that all human beings develop language and that any verbal system used by a community is a well-ordered system within a predictable sound pattern. They argue that black English is no less precise than standard English and in some instances it might be even more precise. For example, ask a speaker of black English where his father is at this moment and the answer might be, "He at work." Ask him where his father is most days and he might answer, "He be at work." The first sentence indicates a temporary situation; the second a recurring one. No such distinction exists in standard English. The answer to both questions would be, "He is at work."

After considerable study of the grammatical and semantic function of the finite verb form "be," as in the sentence He be at work, Fasold and Wolfram reveal that

... one function of finite be has an "habitual" or "iterative" meaning for the Black speaker. There is no equivalent category in standard English and such a meaning can only be conveyed by a circumlocution (e.g., He is at work all the time). 8

Dillard discusses the verb form be as its meaning is contrasted in the sentences, "He there" and "He be there." He suggests "the difference signaled is not one of past or present action but of duration of the action," and concludes, as do the previous researchers,

that "speakers of standard English, including English teachers, do not have this category in their grammatical system." 9

Such data clearly document phonological and grammatical differences between standard English and the language of some urban Black children. Although it differs from standard English in many critical aspects, this language has been found to be a well-ordered, precise system of oral expression.

Many linguists believe such differences in linguistic orientation create confusion in both receptive communication (listening and reading) and expressive communications (speaking and writing). The teaching of reading should relate directly to the child's oral language facility and his desire to communicate. Instruction should be structured so that a child will learn the connection between written and oral language and will bring his power over oral language to bear on understanding written language, thereby facilitating his reading skill.

Many students of reading indicate general agreement with this position. Charles Fries suggests that "learning to read must begin with and build upon the language control already achieved by the pupils." 10

If children learn early that writing is an extension of speech—that printed materials contain meaningful ideas—they develop the receptive attitude toward the printed page so necessary in learning to


10 Charles Fries, "Linguistic Approaches to First Grade Reading Programs," in Perspectives in Reading: First Grade Reading Programs, edited by James F. Kerfoot (International Reading Assoc., 1965), p.48.
read. Strickland says:

...for children of all levels of language attainment no approach to reading seems to make as much sense at the very beginning as that of turning the child's own spoken language into graphic form.\(^{11}\)

For the child who speaks standard English, the instructional reading materials by design enhance his ability to make the vital connection between oral and written language. For kindergarten or first grade urban Black children who speak black English, the task could become complicated and confusing.

When a six- or seven-year-old urban Black child is expected to read using standard English materials, he must perform two acts: (1) learn a 'new' dialect and (2) learn to read. In acquiring the 'new' dialect (standard English) the child must adopt some 'new' speech habits and learn to operate exclusively within standard English rules. To achieve this, he must deny the existence and legitimacy of much of his own linguistic system. Kenneth Goodman believes this denial may be damaging to children. He writes:

In essence, the child who is made to accept another dialect for learning must accept the view that his own language is inferior. In a very real sense, since this is the language of his parents, his family, his community, he must reject his own culture and himself, as he is, in order to become something else.\(^{12}\)

The way children speak is such an integral part of who they are that to deprecate their speech is to deprecate them. The psychological


consequences of such acts must surely contribute to the development of negative self-concepts, leave permanent scars on children's personalities, and further alienate them from schools and society.

In learning to read standard English materials, the speaker of black English must master a print-to-sound decoding system for standard English and learn new syntactic patterns which could create learning problems for him. In addition to incorporating the decoding system for standard English into his linguistic scheme, he must devise a print-to-sound decoding system for those phonological items in his language that differ from standard English, using the standard English symbols. He must also create the necessary switching devices for making smooth transitions from one system to the other. Shuy suggests that "a speaker of any language will make linguistic adjustments... these adjustments may be in pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, or syntax." 13 The question is not whether children can perform the task, but at what cost? The lack of a consistent sound-symbol correspondence could result in retarding children's abilities to connect written and oral language.

The syntactic mismatch between the child's linguistic system and standard English materials also may cause difficulty in his learning to read. The difference in the use of "be," different rules governing negation, subject expression, verb form, zero copula, and others are syntactic contrasts which could interfere with a child's understanding.

While he will learn to read them eventually, the process will undoubtedly result in an information loss on his part, and a slowdown in his ability to develop the skills necessary for reading.

If such discrepancies could be removed and the language of written materials made to more closely approximate the child's oral expression, perhaps the black English speaker could develop a positive relationship between oral and written language. Possibly he could learn to read with fewer linguistic switches, encountering no more problems than his standard English speaking counterpart.

It has long been considered pedagogically sound to teach reading to middle-class white children from materials thought to closely approximate their oral language patterns. Might it not also be sound practice to adapt beginning reading materials to the language of other children? Instead of being ignored, or made a behavioral trait destined for eradication, black English would then be used to form the basis for a comprehensive experimental program to teach reading to inner-city youngsters who speak it.

Stauffer supports this position: "Written materials must convey meaning in much the same way as does the oral communication of six-year-olds."\(^{14}\) Sustakoski writes:

\[\ldots\text{if the child is to learn to recognize familiar experiences on the page and if he is to evoke the oral counterparts of familiar}\]

\(^{14}\text{Russell Stauffer, "A Language Experience Approach," in Perspectives in Reading: First Grade Reading Programs, edited by James F. Kerfoot (International Reading Association, 1965), p. 86.}\]
words and expressions, then the language of the reader must be natural language.15

Since meaning is signaled by a combination of vocabulary and grammar, such a statement suggests dialect-based instructional materials.

It is language we want children to learn to read. If the language in the textbook is unlike the natural speech of children, should we be surprised when they do not learn to read it with ease and understanding? The meanings intended by the written form in many cases are not signaled in the manner which some Black children have become accustomed to through oral expression. Such inconsistencies could confuse children and hamper their progress in learning to read.

William Stewart tells of the time a young "problem reader" from the inner-city happened across his black English translation of The Night Before Christmas.

It's the night before Christmas,
An here in our house,
It ain't nothing moving, not even no Mouse.
There go we-all stockings, hanging
High up off the floor,
So Santa Claus can fill them up
If he walk in through our door.16

Says Stewart:

Lenora was one of the "problem readers" of the public schools: she read school texts haltingly, with many mistakes, and with little ability to grasp the meaning of what she read. Yet when she began to read the


nonstandard version of the poem, her voice was steady, her word reading accurate, and her sentence intonation was natural. . . This unexpected success in reading so surprised Lenora that she began to discuss the experience with her little brother. They decided that there was something different about the text, but were unable to tell exactly what it was. To compare, I then had Lenora read the standard English version of the poem. . . when she did all the "problem reader" behaviors returned. \(^{17}\)

Stewart's point has significance for teaching reading. His translation closely approximated the grammar of Lenora's speech community, allowing her to make a single print-to-sound translation. Reading the standard version required her to make the standard-to-non-standard translation, and caused the return of the "problem reader" tendencies. A dialect based reading program would present grammatical patterns familiar to speakers of non-standard English and would permit them to the single print-to-sound translation. Perhaps children will learn to read with greater understanding if acquiring standard English and learning to read are treated as separate but related cognitive processes.

Although dialect-based reading materials may be linguistically justifiable and pedagogically sound, a number of serious considerations must be taken into account prior to widespread experimentation. One of these factors deals with orthography. Since urban Black children use speech sounds not present in standard English those who develop new materials must make an important decision. Do they create a new orthography which will represent the speech sounds ideally and possibly create a new problem of transition from the new to

\(^{17}\)Ibid., pp. 171-72.
traditional orthography, or do they use traditional orthography?

Wolfram and Fasold suggest the latter:

We have opted for standard orthography and conventional spelling. Conceivably this could lead to difficulty if black English pronunciation proves different enough from standard English, so that there is a serious mismatch between conventional orthography and the phonology of the dialect. However, research on black English phonology has indicated that conventional orthography is as adequate for black English as it is for standard English.18

A second factor has to do with applicability. Dialect-based instructional materials would be designed for specific populations of students. They are not meant to be used with all Black students and should not be used indiscriminantly, even within urban schools. These materials should be used only with those children who actually speak and use black English.

Another factor has to do with the acceptability of the materials by the parents and leaders in the speech community. According to Wolfram and Fasold, sociolinguistic research has shown that speakers of a non-prestigious dialect usually share the view of the general culture that their speech is not the speech of cultivation or literature. These speakers want their children to move into the general culture and believe having the stigmatized forms of language would prevent such movement. Wolfram says, "Even though the black English materials might be clearer and more natural to some, they may not be acceptable because of the presence of these stigmatized forms."19


19 ibid., p. 142.
The fourth factor deals with the acceptability of the materials by the academic community. Some educators and psychologists hold a normative view of language. To them there is a "correct" and "incorrect" way to speak. Many often dismiss the differences in the speech of some Black children as arising from an inaccurate and unworthy approximation of standard English.20 This dismissal is linguistically archaic and restrictive, reflecting its origin in racial prejudice. The current linguistic criterion is one of consistent grammatical structure; and, as already indicated, recent sociolinguistic studies have generated data concerning the internal consistency of the language of some urban Black children whose speech differs from standard English. Thus, members of the academic community have little support today for rejecting the value of experimentation with instructional reading materials written in black English.

The final factor, and probably the most important, is the interest children of the speech community show in black English materials. Regardless of the orthography used in such materials or what applicability is made of them, what attitudes parents and community leaders in the speech community have concerning black English materials, or how acceptable the materials are to the academic community, if children display little interest in black English materials,

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serious doubts will have to be raised concerning their potential usefulness.

**Statement of the Problem**

The linguistic system of many urban Black children differs in a number of identifiable features from that of standard English. These differences may interfere with a child's acquisition of basic reading skills, and therefore educators may be led to adjust instructional reading materials to fit the language of the child. Materials rewritten to more closely approximate the speech of the urban Black child might remove the linguistic interference. However, eventual success will depend upon acceptance by the target population of the materials and the interest they show in them.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the interest and attitude of Black children relative to reading material utilizing language patterns which more closely approximate the children's oral language than standard English. The study was designed to answer three basic questions:

**Q1:** Will Black children's interest in reading material written in black English differ significantly from their interest in standard English material?

**Q2:** Will Black children's attitudes towards reading material written in black English be significantly different from their attitude towards standard English materials?

**Q3:** What effect will sex, grade and age have on Black children's interest in and attitude towards black English reading material as compared to reading material written with standard English?
To provide insights that help answer these questions, eighteen hypotheses were tested in the study. All are stated in the null form.

**H1:** There will be no significant difference between the interest of third and fourth grade children in the standard versions of four children's stories as compared to the black versions.

**H2:** There will be no significant difference between the attitude of third and fourth grade children towards the standard versions of four children's stories as compared to the black versions.

**H3:** There will be no significant difference between the interest of girls as compared to boys in the black versions of four children's stories.

**H4:** There will be no significant difference between the attitude of girls as compared to boys towards the black versions of four children's stories.

**H5:** There will be no significant difference between the interest of girls as compared to boys in the standard versions of four children's stories.

**H6:** There will be no significant difference between the attitude of girls as compared to boys towards the standard versions of four children's stories.

**H7:** There will be no significant difference between the interest of third grade children as compared to fourth grade children in the black versions of four children's stories.

**H8:** There will be no significant difference between the attitude of third grade children as compared to fourth grade children towards the black versions of four children's stories.

**H9:** There will be no significant difference between the interest of third grade children as compared to fourth grade children in the standard versions of four children's stories.

**H10:** There will be no significant difference between the attitude of third grade children as compared to fourth grade children in the standard versions of four children's stories.
H11: There will be no significant difference between the interest of eight year old children in the standard versions of four children's stories as compared to the black versions.

H12: There will be no significant difference between the attitude of eight year old children towards the standard versions of four children's stories as compared to the black versions.

H13: There will be no significant difference between the interest of nine year old children in the standard versions of four children's stories as compared to the black versions.

H14: There will be no significant difference between the attitude of nine year old children towards the standard versions of four children's stories as compared to the black versions.

H15: There will be no significant difference between the interest of ten year old children in the standard versions of four children's stories as compared to the black versions.

H16: There will be no significant difference between the attitude of ten year old children towards the standard versions of four children's stories as compared to the black versions.

H17: There will be no significant difference between the interest of eleven year old children in the standard versions of four children's stories as compared to the black versions.

H18: There will be no significant difference between the attitude of eleven year old children towards the standard versions of four children's stories as compared to the black versions.

Design of the Study

The subjects for the study were 224 third and fourth grade children in two predominantly Black inner-city schools in Columbus, Ohio.
A language model was constructed from data provided by descriptive sociolinguistic studies of the speech of Black children in Washington, D.C., New York City, and Detroit.

Four children's books were selected to be read to the subjects. Each book was rewritten according to the guidelines of the language model. The result was two versions of every story, one written in standard English, the other in black English.

A modified semantic differential was constructed to secure a measure of each child's interest in and attitudes toward the literature.

The four standard English versions of the books were recorded on magnetic tape and constituted a presentation for one-half of the classes. The four black English versions of the books were recorded on another magnetic tape for presentation to one-half of the classes.

The standard English versions were played one story at a time to the subjects in one third grade, and one fourth grade in each school in their regular classroom groups. After each story, the subjects indicated their responses on the semantic differential. Identical procedures were followed with the remaining subjects, using the black English versions of the stories.

The subjects' responses were tabulated and compared to see if there were any significant differences between them. A one-way analysis of variance was employed to determine the significance of the difference between students' responses.
Definition of Terms

The following terms and definitions are used in this study:

1. Standard English -- the type of usage which is indicated in grammar books, dictionaries, and style manuals and which is presumably followed by educated speakers and writers.

2. Black English -- a variety of English spoken by many urban Blacks which regularly excludes some linguistic features of standard English, and consistently includes some forms not present in standard English.

3. Grammar -- a set of statements saying how a language works. It includes a description of the principles for combining words to form a grammatically sound sentence.

4. Interest -- the degree to which some urban Black elementary school children are receptive to literature written in standard and black English versions as measured by a semantic differential.

5. Attitude -- the disposition students express in terms of their positive or negative feelings for four children's stories.

Limitations of the Study

Any behavioral research is limited by a number of factors. Emmerling stated that

...The most apparent shortcoming of any behavioral research endeavor is the difficulty of clearly specifying all of the independent and dependent variables and the inability to control them. The researcher is confronted with a multiplicity of cause and effect relationships that are sometimes pyramided by chains
of interrelationships, all of which are compounded by the complex nature of the interaction and fluidity of the very parameters themselves.\textsuperscript{21} 

This observation applies to this study simply because children and the behavior exemplified by them will be under investigation in this study. No attempt was made to associate students' I.Q. or school achievement with their expressed interest in or attitude towards the four stories read in the study.

Another limiting factor of the study was that it involved only third and fourth grade Black students ages, eight, nine, ten and eleven in two inner-city schools in Columbus, Ohio. No attempt was made to compare these students' responses to the responses of older Black students at higher grade levels. This condition will possibly effect the external validity of the study in that results of the study will be generalizable only to the two schools from which the sample was drawn.

\textbf{Organization of the Remainder of the Study}

A survey of related research is presented and summarized in chapter two. An attempt was made to select samplings of the literature which further clarified the problem of this study.

In chapter three the research design is described. Included in this description are the subjects and the instruments used to collect data for the study. Procedures and techniques for collecting and analyzing the data are also discussed.

\textsuperscript{21}F.C. Emmerling, \emph{A Study of the Relationship Between Personality Characteristics of Classroom Teachers and Pupil Perception of These Teachers} (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Auburn University, 1961), p.15.
The fourth chapter presents an analysis of the data, and the final chapter contains a summary, conclusions and recommendations for further research.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH

Overview

This chapter is divided into four sections. Section one reviews a group of language studies that broke with traditional linguistic research procedure and introduced improved methodology which represented an integration of sound sociological and linguistic research techniques. In the second section descriptive studies of the speech of Negro speakers of non-standard English are reviewed. These studies document the existence of a Negro speech pattern and discuss some of its linguistic peculiarities. The studies attempting to describe the history or account for the origins of Negro dialect are reviewed in the third section. The last section reports on experimental studies using written material based on an analysis of children's oral language.

Non-Traditional Studies

Before 1959 few objective and reliable procedures for collecting and analyzing the speech of large numbers of individuals existed. The method most often used to collect data for language study was observation of individual children or adults. This process limited the degree to which generalizations could accurately be made on a broad scale. However, in 1959 a group of linguists, educators, and
psychologists developed a practical and useful method for analyzing children's speech based on the kind of analysis made possible by the discoveries of the structural and generative grammarians. This scheme has been used in several major studies that have provided information about the structure of children's oral language. The single most significant contribution of these studies has been to expand the scope of sociolinguistic investigation.

The studies reviewed in this section used the new scientific research techniques that signalled a sharp break with traditional linguistic research. Strickland1 studied the oral language of 575 randomly selected children from sixteen public schools in Bloomington, Indiana. She wanted to analyze the structure of the oral language samples collected from the informants and compare this with the language of reading textbooks. The oral language samples were obtained by having children come in groups of two and three to a testing room in the school for an interview. Students were encouraged to talk freely about anything, and the conversations were taped and transcribed. Twenty-five sentences from each child's language sample were then analyzed for syntactic structure of the sentences, frequency of occurrence of certain linguistic patterns, amount and kind of subordination, length of sentences, and flow of language.

Strickland's was the first major study to examine large numbers of children's language using this new procedure and was followed by

several others. Riling² investigated the oral and written language of 300 fourth and sixth grade children in Southeast Oklahoma, and compared her results with Strickland's. Riling's procedure for securing oral language samples differed from Strickland's although Riling followed Strickland's methodology closely. Informants were interviewed individually with the interviews taped as they told stories about pictures presented to them. The written language sample was secured as the respondents wrote about other pictures presented by the investigator in the students' regular classrooms. Like Strickland, Riling analyzed twenty-five sentences from each informants' language samples. She found that the oral language patterns used by the children in her sample were quite similar to those reported by Strickland.

Hocker³ studied the oral language of forty first grade children from two schools in Arizona. She utilized the same scheme as Strickland and Riling to analyze her language samples but collected the samples in a variety of contexts. Some of the settings included birthday parties, Sunday school, general play situations, and classroom show-and-tell. Consecutive utterances of the subjects were recorded by the examiner, using the stenographic method and the tape recorder where possible. She analyzed 2,500 sentences for language patterns, frequency of occurrence of the patterns, length of sentences, and


³Mary Elsa Hocker, Reading Materials for Children Based on Their Language Patterns of Syntax, Unpublished Master's Thesis (University of Arizona, 1963).
kind of vocabulary used. Hocker found that children's sentence length varied with different situations and that a child's speech in the presence of an adult contrasts with his speech in the presence of another child. She concluded that the type of oral language a child uses varies with the situation.

Loban's study differed considerably in emphasis and methodology from Strickland's. He conducted a longitudinal analysis of language used by kindergarden children in kindergarten and through the six years of elementary school. Among other things, Loban attempted to develop fundamental methods of analysis in the study of childrens' language.

Each year samples of speech, writing, and reading were collected from each of 338 children under controlled conditions. Loban secured his oral language samples in individual interviews with children. They were asked about playmates, games, television, and illness; they were shown a set of six pictures and encouraged to talk about the pictures. Their responses were recorded on an audograph and then transcribed into typewritten form for analysis.

Analysis of the language samples was conducted in terms of:
(1) its function, (2) classification of oral language style, (3) amount of subordination, (4) difficulties with conventions of usage and grammar, (5) vocabulary measured by word frequencies, and (6) vocabulary measured by diversity. Loban found that the children varied little in their use of the basic language patterns and that positive

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relationships existed between oral and written language, oral language and reading, and reading and written language. However, the major contribution of Loban's study is its use of scientific procedure to analyze large numbers of children's language.

One of the most comprehensive and noteworthy of the new studies was conducted by Labov. More than any other researcher his efforts sharpened the theoretical and methodological bases for sociolinguistic research. Using a survey by the Mobilization for Youth as his sociological model, he analyzed the speech of more than 100 randomly selected individuals from New York's Lower East Side. Five phonological variables (oh, eh, r, th, dh) isolated in four contextual styles (careful speech, casual speech, reading, and word lists) were correlated with the social stratification of the subjects.

Labov made several significant contributions to the study of linguistic correlates of social stratification. In the first place, he used sociologically sound methodology in selecting the informants for his sample. Next, his quantitative measurement of linguistic variables was considerably more extensive than any previous sociolinguistic research. He further attempted to define interview styles in linguistics through his efforts to isolate contextual styles on the basis of what he called "channel cues." Aside from combining sound sociological and linguistic research technique, Labov demonstrated that speech differences within a community were systematically correlated with social differences.

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A study employing much of Labov's methodology was conducted by Shuy, Wolfram, and Riley. They studied the speech of Negroes in Detroit, Michigan. Their study applied several new and different procedures for analyzing speech variations and extended Labov's insights on the linguistic variable to include the grammatical as well as the phonological dimension.

More than 700 Detroit residents, newcomers and natives of four major age groups, were randomly selected as subjects for the study, using modern sociological sampling technique. Individual interviews with the informants were tape recorded and transcribed phonetically by a linguist. The standardized questionnaire used in the interview procedure yielded at least three types of speech: (1) conversational speech, (2) the speech of single responses, and (3) reading style.

In addition, it also secured from each respondent his age, sex, race, birthplace, amount of education, and other sociological data, enabling the investigators to correlate sociological and linguistic data.

The Urban Language Study (ULS) was a project of the Center for Applied Linguistics. Its purpose was to provide teaching materials for standard English as a second dialect for Negro children in the Washington, D.C. area. This study, breaking with the traditional survey procedure for dialect study associated with linguistic Atlas techniques, undertook an in-depth study of the dialects of Negroes.

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in a single area. The ULS innovations in dialect study can perhaps be stated in terms of two procedures: (1) close attention to syntactic structures and (2) the use of younger informants, fourteen years of age and younger.

These studies illustrate the degree to which linguistic and sociological research technique have been integrated to expand linguistic research. They developed scientific methodology investigators can follow in identifying representative populations and collecting and analyzing data from large groups of individuals. The recent efforts of Anderson, Baratz, Wolfram, and others attest to the viability of the research methods introduced by investigators cited in this section.

The Descriptive Studies

Everyone speaks a dialect, a particular variety of language. This language facility is influenced by a number of factors including age, sex, education, occupation, social class, and regional and ethnic background. Troike suggests that "dialects arise by natural process beyond the reach of coercive methods to control, and are specific to particular social groups and particular areas." 8


in precisely the same manner; communication takes place when individ-
uals and groups share common phonetic, semantic, and grammatical
systems in the language. In this country however, there is a dialect
that is taught to all individuals, the standard dialect.

This standard dialect, called standard English, is said to
encompass the phonetic, semantic and grammatical systems used by the
majority of educated English-speaking Americans. However, studies
indicate that even this standard varies. The educated speech of
Boston, New York, Chicago, Charleston, and Atlanta differs in many
aspects but all versions are standard. Each is accepted as standard
regional speech.

Linguistic studies have shown that many people do not speak any
of the varieties of standard speech. These individuals are said to
speak a non-standard dialect. Although much is already known about
non-standard dialect, little scientific information is available
concerning its internal structure and rules governing its use.

In recent years efforts have been made to describe and analyze
non-standard dialects. One of the more popular has been the non-
standard dialect spoken by individuals of Afro-American descent. Many
linguists ask if it is possible to characterize a kind of speech as
"Black speech," or, more recently, "Black English." In other words,
is there a Black speech pattern? Do Blacks have a separate dialect
with its own phonological, grammatical, and lexical features? These
questions have resulted in several research efforts to support or deny
the existence of such a language system.
Shuy\textsuperscript{12} found that the characterization of Black speech as a
distinct variety of speech was confirmed by correct racial identifi-
cation, using taped samples, in over eighty per cent of the cases. The
fact that the lower the socio-economic status of the Black speaker
the more accurately his race was identified indicated that the speech
of the Black working class is socially marked.

Baratz\textsuperscript{13} asked a sample of Black and white children in the
Washington, D.C. area to listen to a tape recorded standard English
sentence and a non-standard sentence to identify the race of the
speakers. A high percentage of both Black and white children cor-
rectly identified the standard English sentence as being spoken by
a white man and the non-standard English sentence as being spoken by
a Black man.

Similarly, Bouchard\textsuperscript{14} asked eighteen fifth and sixth grade
students to listen to a tape recording with excerpts of conversations
by speakers of three dialects: lower-class Blacks, lower-class white
and middle-class white. Among other things, the children were to
determine the race of each speaker. It was predicted and confirmed
that the students would correctly make their choices based on the
linguistic stereotype.

\textsuperscript{12}Roger W. Shuy, "Subjective Judgments in Sociolinguistic Anal-
ysis," Monograph Series on Language and Linguistics edited by James E.

\textsuperscript{13}Joan C. Baratz, A Bi-Dialectal Test for Determining Language

\textsuperscript{14}Ellen L. Bouchard, Psycholinguistic Attitude Study (Ann Arbor,
Michigan: Center for Research on Language and Language Behavior,
1969).
McDavid\textsuperscript{15} sought to ascertain the accuracy with which subjects could identify the race and education of speakers whom they could not see. An instrument was constructed of pronunciations by speakers of specific regional and ethnic backgrounds to determine personal reactions to pronunciations. In individual interviews, 300 respondents reacted to the instruments. It was easier for respondents to detect differences between the speech of southern Blacks and Chicagoans than to detect speech differences between middle-class to lower-class Blacks and lower-class whites.

Labov\textsuperscript{16} found that many features of pronunciation, grammar, and lexicon are so closely associated with Black speakers as to identify the great majority of Black people in northern cities by their speech alone.

In another study Labov\textsuperscript{17} concluded that there is no single speech form and no linguistic markers that are common to all Black people. He further found that Black speakers of a non-standard dialect use linguistic structures that differ from standard English in a number of subtle and unexpected ways.

Evidence from the studies reviewed indicates that while a black speech pattern is not definite, certain aspects of the speech of some

\textsuperscript{15}Raven I. McDavid and William M. Austin, Communication Barriers to the Culturally Deprived (Chicago: Illinois Institute of Technology, 1966).


\textsuperscript{17}William Labov, "Contraction, Deletion and Inherent Variability of the English Copula," Language, XLV (December, 1969), pp. 715-762.
Black speakers differ so sharply from other speakers that individuals are consistently able to distinguish the Black speaker by using linguistic cues alone. This indicates a difference between the sound system of many Black speakers and others and may also suggest the presence of further linguistic variations. Several studies have attempted to deliniate some factors peculiar to the speech of many Blacks as well as compare it to white speech and/or standard English.

Williamson\textsuperscript{18} described the speech of some Black high school students in Memphis, Tennessee. She tape recorded individual and group interviews with eighteen students from three large high schools in predominantly Black neighborhoods. She found that (1) double negatives occurred in the student’s speech, (2) the non-standard statement pattern “it + be + subject” was present in some speech samples, (3) phonetic reduction in final consonant clusters occurred with some frequency, and (4) some students used sentence patterns with a zero copula. Williamson concluded that the phonetic system of her subjects was the same as that of southern standard speech, and that most grammatical patterns used by the students were found in standard or non-standard southern English.

Wolfram and Houston studied the speech of Black and white children to determine what differences existed in their linguistic systems. Wolfram\textsuperscript{19} studied speech samples from fifty children, an equal number of Black and white, between the ages of six and eight


from lower socio-economic backgrounds in Lexington, Mississippi. He found that: (1) in the speech of many Black informants there is categorical or near categorical absence of s with third person present tense forms, (2) the s possessive category is non-existent in the variety of English spoken by some Black children, and (3) the absence of copula in present tense is an important characteristic of Black speech. Wolfram concluded that there are definite differences between the speech of Blacks and whites and that these differences cannot be simply dismissed as "statistical skewing"; some of the differences are qualitative.

Houston recorded speech samples from twenty-two Black children between nine and twelve years of age in rural northern Florida. She found few major syntactic differences between black English and white English: the main ones were of the formation of negatives and questions, and the use of the verb "be" in the present tense. In negation, forms of "have" or "be" followed by a negative become "ain't" and the so-called double negative becomes standard black usage. In the formation of questions the black English speaker did not invert word order before forming wh- questions and did not need the "do" transformation to precede the wh- formation. Among phonological variables Houston found that the reduction of consonant clusters occurred and that plural endings in schwa "z" were lost.

The research of Labov\textsuperscript{21} and associates concerning the structure of the non-standard speech of Blacks and Puerto Ricans in New York is perhaps the single most exhaustive study of a non-standard speech community. This structural description of the non-standard vernacular of Black speakers included more detailed features of phonology and grammar than any preceding study and remains unequaled in comprehensiveness and depth.

During the five-month period some seventy-five individual and group interviews were taped for pre-adolescent, adolescent and adult Black speakers. Analysis was conducted in many aspects of the dialect samples. Some of his findings relative to the structural aspect of the language included:

1. the presence of a perfective auxiliary \textit{done}, as in \textit{he done told me}.

2. double modal (\textit{might could})

3. deletion of the reduced and contracted \textit{is} representing forms of \textit{is} as in \textit{he crazy}.

4. no third person singular \textit{s} or possessive suffix; \textit{it move for it moves; father coat for father's coat}.

5. the loss of final /l/ resulting in the colloquial future being identical with the colloquial present.

6. the verb forms of \textit{be} frequently not realized in sentences such as \textit{you tired} or \textit{he in the way} (absence of copule).

7. \textit{r}-lessness; the /r/ becoming a schwa or disappearing before vowels as well as consonants or pauses; \textit{Paris becomes pass; Carol becomes Cal}

8. *l*-lessness: when /l/ disappears, often replaced by a back unrounded glide, in many cases disappears completely; tall becomes toe; help becomes hep.

9. consonant cluster simplification: occurs with two groups of clusters, those that end in /t/ or /d/ and those that end in /s/ or /z/; past-pas; find-fin.

10. no distinction made between /i/ and /e/ before nasals; pen or pin; bin or been.

11. the if construction: embedded yes-no questions; I asked John if he knew becomes I asked John did he know.

This study by Labov of language in the setting of an adolescent peer group broke with the more traditional interview method of socio-linguists. Thus, he was able to describe both the functional and structural aspects of the non-standard vernacular.

Anderson\textsuperscript{22} analyzed speech samples collected from ten to twelve year old Black children from lower socio-economic neighborhoods in Baltimore. The speech samples were collected in three types of situations: playing games with peers, talking with an older white interviewer, and telling stories. He found several variations in the verb systems of standard English and "Baltimore non-standard Negro English." The non-standard speech was characterized by: (1) absence of a third person singular form of the finite verb in the present tense, (2) the absence of an auxiliary be/copula form in present tense with certain subjects, (3) the partial or complete loss of the auxiliary have in present relative, and (4) the existence of a single past tense form of the auxiliary be/copula.

\textsuperscript{22}Anderson, A Grammatical Overview.
Fasold analyzed data collected in the Detroit Dialect Study and the Urban Language Study of the Center for Applied Linguistics to study tenses and the form "be" in non-standard black speech. He observed that "be" in non-standard black speech turns up in those general environments in which we find the conjugated forms is, are, was, am, and were in standard English. "Be" occurs consistently before predicate nominals, adjectives, past participles, locatives and certain types of prepositional phrases, and in the temporary aspect construction "be + verb + ing"; but no conjugated forms can be substituted without changing the meaning. He noted that the meaning of "be" involves repeated but not continuous occurrence and that black English use of "be" is not the same as the vestigial use of subjunctive "be" in the speech of some standard English speakers.

After investigating the structure of the verb in a non-standard black dialect, Loflin found that identifiable relational entities in the auxiliary structure of non-standard black English enter into different sets of relationships from identifiable relational entities in the auxiliary structure of standard English. He noted that: (1) there is no agreement between subjects and verbal forms other than "be," (2) "ed" and unmarked verbs traditionally identified with standard English present tense may be neutralized, and (3) "be" functions as tense.


Labov drew upon data from long term studies of the non-standard dialects of Black speakers and made the following observations concerning the status of the copula and the auxiliary "be":
(1) whenever standard English can contract, black non-standard English can delete "is" and "are" and (2) whenever standard English cannot contract, black non-standard cannot delete "is" and "are."

Entwistle and Greenberger investigated differences in the speech of Black and white children who live in slum areas of Baltimore, using ninety-six stimulus words to obtain responses. Results supported the following conclusions: (1) there are far reaching differences in semantic structures between Black and white disadvantaged children and (2) in kindergarten and first grade it appears that word meaning and therefore the cognitive role of words is vastly different for Black and white children.

After examining a sampling of speech from Black children ages eight to fourteen in Washington, D.C., Loflin hypothesized that there are differences in the underlying semantic structure (deep structure) between non-standard black speech and other dialects of English.

The research reviewed in this section analyzed the non-standard speech of Blacks in terms of phonologic, semantic, and grammatical

William Labov, "Contraction, Deletion."

Doris R. Entwistle and Ellen Greenberger, Differences in the Language of Negro and White Grade School Children 1,2 (Baltimore, Maryland: John Hopkins University, 1968).

variation from standard English, and attempted to further validate the existence of a speech system peculiar to many Black speakers. Results of these studies suggest that black English is a well-ordered, consistent, highly-structured, highly-developed system of language that differs from standard English in several crucial aspects of phonology, grammar, and semantics.

*Studies of History and Origin of Black Dialect*

Some linguists maintain that the variation between black and standard English has historical origins. Stewart\(^{28}\) claims that black dialects are derived from a widespread slave creole. He substantiates this position by pointing out the close relationship found between eighteenth and nineteenth century black dialects and other New World creoles. Stewart suggests that present-day black dialect has resulted from a process which he calls "decreolization" (the loss of creole features).

Dillard\(^{29}\) argues for the concept of decreolization as a possible explanation for differences in black dialects and offers the notion of "relexification" to account for the great similarity between black and standard English. He believes that further linguistic research on the subject may "reveal that non-standard black dialects represent a divergence from Gullah in the direction of convergence with white non-standard dialects and with standard American English.

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\(^{29}\)Joey L. Dillard, "Non-Standard Negro Dialects--Convergence or Divergence?" *Florida FL Reporter*, VI (Fall, 1968), pp. 9-12.
Dalby\textsuperscript{30} asserts that the most prevalent aspect of the survival of African roots in black English is probably seen in the verb system. He points out that Coastal West African languages do not inflect verb stems to indicate person or tense; person is generally indicated by a subject prefix or pronoun, and tense or aspect is indicated by a number of monosyllabic markers, which are inserted between the subject prefix and the verb stem. Thus, African verbs are best thought of in terms of "continuative," "habitual," and "perspective" rather than "past," "present," and "future."

For example, in the black English sentence, "Dat man, he be walking," two African similarities can be found: the subject, and "be" is not inflected, it is a marker of continuation. If the "be" were omitted from the sentence, it would denote that the activity was taking place at that particular point in time, the present.

Perhaps this is the reason Loflin\textsuperscript{31} postulates a "habituation" category to remove the "structural ambiguity" in the speech of Black speakers of non-standard English.

Cohen and Labov\textsuperscript{32} suggest that the use of be to indicate generality, repeated action, or existential state and the use of done to indicate an intensive or perfective meaning are part of an aspectual system which is plainly distinct from tense.

\textsuperscript{30}D. Dalby, Black Through White, Patterns of Communication, Hans Wolf Memorial Lecture, Indiana University (1969).

\textsuperscript{31}Marvin D. Loflin, A Note on the Deep Structure.

Dillard supports Dalby's position. He points out similarities in the verb forms of black non-standard English and comparable verb forms in "Wes Kos," the pidgin English of Nigeria and the Cameroun, and in Sranan, the creole English of Surinam.

Long takes a close look at the dialect used in "Uncle Remus" and notes several similarities between it and the Niger-Congo languages. Listed among them are: (1) the suppression of all varieties of "r"; (2) deletion of prefixing elements; (3) contraction; and (4) the uninflected verb and genitive. He suggests that reasons for all these occurrences can be found in the Niger-Congo language.

Baratz, Stewart, and Dalby are among those providing other examples of black English which have some relationship with West African language. Some are:

1. absence of copula verb (This feature is seen in Bantu).
2. no distinction in gender for third person plural pronouns (This rule also is in Bantu).
3. Distinction between second person singular and second person plural (Dalby points out these forms are used in Sierra Leone Krio).
4. Use of specific phrases to announce beginnings of sentences (Swahili).

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35 Joan C. Baratz, "Teaching Reading."


37 D. Dalby, Black Through White.
In discussing the rich linguistic history of Afro-Americans, Taylor\(^{38}\) reminds us that Black people had a linguistic system when they came to America, and despite many assertions to the contrary, black English, the variety of English spoken or understood by many persons of Afro-American descent, is not a deficient use of standard English. It represents a logical linguistic evolution typical of people who have been exposed to many different languages.

Studies reviewed in this section thus far maintain that present-day black English is derived from a creole variety of English spoken by slaves and not from a British dialect. They suggest that two concepts, decreolization and relexification, account for the present status of black English, and that the verb systems of black English and other African languages have many structural similarities.

Several investigators have also attempted to account for specific differences between black and standard English by expanding the rules structure of standard English. Loflin\(^{39}\) postulates a habituative category to remove the structural ambiguity created by the differences in the use of "be." He suggests that if this "habituative" category proves to be theoretically sound, it will support the notion that dialects of English have different deep structures.

Smith\(^ {40}\) offers the phenomenon of "cross-code ambiguity" as one explanation of the persistence of such black English sentences as "The


\(^{39}\) Marvin D. Loflin, *A Note on the Deep Structure*.

man, he did it." In black English the string "The man did it" is felt to be ambiguous, referring either to "The man who did it" or as in standard English, "The man did it." The use of the pleonastic subject pronoun "he" removes the ambiguity. This process is analogous to the process in standard English whereby the ambiguous string "I see the men do it" is made unambiguous by using or deleting the clause marker "that."

As a result of his research in New York, Labov41 established a structural unit, the linguistic variable, to account for massive "free variation" in the phonology of the speech of the area. The linguistic variable is a class of variants, such as morphs or phones, which is ordered along a continuous dimension and whose position is determined by an independent linguistic or extra-linguistic variable.

Wolfram42 writes that the formation of the linguistic variable has important dividends for sociolinguistics in that it is the unit which serves as the basis for correlating linguistic with extra-linguistic or independent linguistic factors. The theoretical consequences of introducing this construct could be the enlargement of linguistic theory.

The views of Stewart, Darby, Loflin, Labov and others indicate the wide range of opinions held by scholars concerning the history and origin of black English. More systematic research about this phenomenon is necessary to provide bonafide data on which valid


assumptions can be made. Then significant research findings can form the basis of viable educational programs.

Experimental Studies

Relatively few studies have been conducted to find out what relationships may exist between the language of Black children and various methods and materials used in instruction. Ruddell\textsuperscript{43} designed a study to determine the effect material written with children's high and low frequency language patterns would have on their reading comprehension. He constructed six 254-word passages, three using high frequency and three using low frequency oral language patterns. Using a cloze procedure to obtain a reading comprehension score, the investigator tested 100 fourth grade children in Bloomington, Indiana. Ruddell concluded that reading comprehension is a function of the similarity of oral and written patterns of language structure.

Similarly, Tatham\textsuperscript{44} investigated the relationship between reading comprehension and material written with frequent and infrequent oral language patterns of children using second and fourth grade children. She found that second and fourth graders comprehend material written with frequent oral language patterns better than material written with infrequent oral language patterns. On the basis of this study she


\textsuperscript{44}Susan M. Tatham, Reading Comprehension of Material Written with Select Oral Language Patterns: A Study of Grades Two and Four, Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Wisconsin (1968).
concluded that knowledge of structure of language is an important factor in reading comprehension.

Nuruss[45] studied the relationship of syntactic structure and comprehension difficulty through oral reading errors made by second grade children in sentences of varied levels of syntactic complexity. Results of her study indicated that there was a relationship between the number of oral reading errors a child made and the syntactic complexity of the sentence being read.

Smith[46] investigated the relationship between syntactic complexity and reading difficulty. One hundred twenty students in grades four through twelve read passages that had been rewritten by fourth, eighth, and twelfth grade children, and skilled adults. The vocabulary and content were held constant but syntactic characteristics reflected the typical performance at the various grade and adult levels. Every fifth word was then deleted from each passage and the subjects were tested for comprehension. Results indicated that grades four, ten, and eleven differed significantly between the four levels of writing. Fourth, fifth, and sixth graders read fourth grade writing best, eleventh graders read it with least facility. Students in grades eight through twelve found eighth-grade writing easier to read than either the fourth grade writing or the more difficult passages.


Sauer\textsuperscript{47} studied fourth grade children's knowledge of grammatical structure and reading comprehension. She used sentences written in four basic sentence patterns for her study. The subjects read the sentences and answered questions based on the sentences. Outcomes of this study indicated that children's comprehension of the four basic sentence patterns differed significantly. She also found that knowledge of sentence patterns was significantly related to reading comprehension. She concluded that knowledge of structure of language is an important factor in reading comprehension.

An experimental project reported by Leaverton\textsuperscript{48} had developed reading material based on the assumption that grammatical differences create difficulty in the acquisition of basic reading skills.

Labeled the Psycholinguistic Reading Program, the aims of the project are: (1) to provide an effective approach to the teaching of beginning reading to Afro-American children whose language patterns differ in some basic aspects from those employed in traditional readers and (2) to help children maintain and further develop positive attitudes toward themselves, their school, and their community through reading materials.

The focus of the materials is on differences in verb usage existing between children's oral speech and the standard dialect. Each of the books in the series places emphasis on only one verb


pattern. Each book contains two versions of the same story, the "everyday talk" story and the corresponding "school talk" story. Books one through three appear in one edition; books four through seven are in two sets. Book eight has only one set of stories, which serves as a review of standard verb forms introduced in the series. The stories are about the children themselves, their community and ethnic group. The books are illustrated and contain blank pages for the children's own sentences, stories, and drawings.

The research cited in this section points out the importance of syntax in relation to reading comprehension. Findings from these studies indicate that syntactic complexity appears to be related to difficulty in reading comprehension. However, few studies have considered the effect of syntactic complexity in relation to children's interest in reading materials. Perhaps reading achievement is affected by syntactic complexity because children's interest is directly affected by syntactic complexity. That is, as the syntax of reading materials become more complex, and assuming that the complexity is a divergence from the linguistic system of the child, the child becomes less interested in the reading materials and thus comprehends less. At any rate, the relationship between syntactic divergence or complexity and children's reading interests is shown to be an area that requires further investigation.

Summary

The research presented in this chapter was divided into four sections and provided four major insights relevant to this research.
effort. The studies reviewed in section one illustrated the degree to which linguistic and sociological research technique have been integrated to expand the scope of linguistic research. Improvements in sampling procedures and new methods for collecting and analyzing data from large groups of individuals allow sociolinguists to make greater in-depth studies of non-standard languages.

The research reviewed in section two utilized the new research methodology and studied the non-standard speech of Blacks. These data from these studies suggested that the dialect of many Black speakers is different from standard English in several crucial aspects of syntax, phonology and semantics but is a well-ordered, well-developed, highly-structured system of language.

Studies concerned with the history and origin of Black dialects indicated the wide variety of opinions held by scholars concerning these dialects. They pointed out the need for more systematic research prior to making any broad generalizations regarding the history and origin of Black dialects.

The final group of studies emphasized the importance of syntax in relation to reading comprehension and suggested that syntactic complexity is related to difficulty in reading comprehension. They pointed out a need for more systematic research in the area of oral language and its relationship to reading.
CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

In this chapter, the first section deals with the subjects of the study and how they were selected. The second section describes the instrument developed for use in collecting data. The final section reviews the methods employed in collecting the data.

Subjects of the Study

The purpose of the study was to compare black elementary school childrens' interest in and attitude towards two versions of four children's books. The Columbus School Profile was used to identify twenty-one elementary schools with student enrollments that were at least ninety per cent black.¹ Two of the schools expressed interest in the study and agreed to participate in it. They are referred to in the study as School A and School B.

Description of the schools' communities.—Both school communities are characterized by low levels of economic competence. In Columbus the system-wide incidence of Aid to Dependent Children (ADC) recipients to school enrollment was thirteen percent for the 1969-70 school year. Approximately thirty of every 100 children attending Schools A and B come from families receiving some form of ADC.² Consequently, each

¹Howard O. Merriman, and others, The Columbus School Profile (Columbus, Ohio: Columbus City School District, 1970).

²Ibid.
of the schools qualifies for assistance under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act.

Many inhabitants of both school communities live in deteriorating, often over-crowded, absentee-owned housing, mostly multiple dwellings converted from large single homes or government-built, low-income housing projects.

The impact of widespread economic impoverishment in both communities is manifested in the retardation of basic skill development. For example, in reading vocabulary and reading comprehension, approximately three-fourths of the sixth grade students tested from Schools A and B in 1969 scored below the national norm. On the verbal and non-verbal aptitude tests, approximately one-half of the students tested scored below average.\textsuperscript{3} Because of these statistics, many children from the schools' communities are frequently described as educationally limited.

\textbf{Description of the subjects.--}The subjects chosen for this study were 224 third and fourth grade Black students enrolled in two schools in Columbus, Ohio. One hundred and one were third graders, fifty-two boys and forty-nine girls, and 123 were fourth graders, fifty-six boys and sixty-seven girls.

\textbf{Description of the instruments}

The materials used in the study were of two kinds. The first consists of two versions of four children's stories, and the second is a semantic differential instrument.

\textsuperscript{3}Ibid.
The four stories.--The four stories used in the study are (1) *Corduroy*, (2) *Tico and the Golden Wings*, (3) *Where the Wild Things Are*, and (4) *Stevie*. Their selection was based on the principles of book selection outlined by Huck and Kuhn; each book met their criteria of a well-written book for children.

The language model.--An urban language model was constructed from linguistic data reported by Baratz, Labov, Shuy and Wolfram and provided the basis for rewriting the children's books. Ten linguistic features were taken from these studies to represent a "cross-community summary" of some major grammatical differences between standard English and the speech of some Black children living in urban areas. The model was not representative of all the grammatical differences found between the two forms of English, but represented a set of linguistic features that can account for the internal consistency of a variety of speech different from standard English. The

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grammatical features that follow constitute the final version of the urban language model:

**Pronominal apposition.**--The term "pronominal apposition" refers to the use of a pronoun in apposition to the noun phrase to which it refers. Compare black English "John, he don't never be there" to standard English "John isn't there."

**Undifferentiated pronoun.**--The term "undifferentiated pronoun" refers to the use of the same pronoun form for a subject and an object and sometimes for possession as well in certain black English constructions. The pronominal form may be derived from either the standard English subject or object form. Compare black English "Them beautiful wings" to standard English "They are beautiful wings."

**Verb form.**--The term "verb form" refers to the use of a single form of a standard English irregular verb (usually the present tense) to represent present and past tense in certain black English constructions. Compare black English "He give me a nickle" to standard English "He gave me a nickel."

**Zero past marker.**--The term "zero past marker" refers to the absence of the past tense morphemes "d" or "ed" in certain black English constructions where standard English has such a construction. Compare black English "He walk home" to standard English "He walked home."

**Zero copula.**--The term "zero copula" refers to the absence of an explicit predating verb in certain black English constructions where standard English has such a verb (usually in the present tense).
Compare black English "He a teacher" to standard English "He is a teacher."

**Verb agreement.**--The term "verb agreement" refers to the use of verbs in some black English constructions with subjects that represent subject-verb disagreement in standard English sentences. Compare black English "Why was they running?" to standard English "Why were they running?" The black English third person singular has no obligatory morphological ending, so that "She works here" in standard English is expressed as "She work here" in black English.

**Zero possessive.**--The term "zero possessive" refers to the absence of an explicit suffix in noun-noun constructions where standard English has such a construction. Compare black English "My father friend" to standard English "My father's friend."

**Multiple negation.**--The term "multiple negation" refers to the use of two or more negative construction in certain black English sentences where standard English uses only one. Compare black English "He didn't do nothing" to standard English "He didn't do anything."

**Preposition addition.**--The term "preposition addition" refers to the use of prepositions to end certain black English constructions. Compare black English "Where he at?" to standard English "Where is he?"

**Indefinite article.**--The term "indefinite article" refers to the use of the standard English article "a" in certain black English constructions where standard English sentences use "an." Compare black English "He have a orange" to standard English "He has an orange."
Grammatical changes in stories.--The four children's stories were rewritten according to the linguistic guidelines of this model. Grammatical features in the standard versions of the story that could not be accounted for in black English were changed so as to reflect agreement with the model. Table 1 reveals that Corduroy contained the largest number of grammatical changes with ninety-nine. It was followed in order by Stevie with eighty-four changes; Tico and the Golden Wings with seventy-four changes; and Where the Wild Things Are with sixty-three. An average number of seventy-nine grammatical changes were made in each story.

To determine the frequency of changes in each story, the number of words in each story was ascertained and divided by the number of grammatical changes made in each story. These data are presented in Table 1. Where the Wild Things Are had the most changes, with a ratio of 5.36 words to each grammatical change. It was followed by Corduroy, with a ratio of 7.13 words to each change; Tico and the Golden Wings with 8.68 words per change; and Stevie, the least changed and longest story, with 11.01 words to each grammatical change. The average number of words to each grammatical change was 8.19.

The semantic differential instrument.--The second kind of material used in the study was a semantic differential instrument. A technique created by Charles E. Osgood for observing and measuring the psychological meaning of things, the semantic differential is not a test with a given number of items and specific score. It is an instrument by which subjects can indicate their interest in and attitude towards a particular experience, event, or material.
TABLE 1

Extent of Black English Grammatical Changes Made in Four Children's Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Grammatical Changes</th>
<th>Tico and the Golden Wings</th>
<th>Corduroy</th>
<th>Where the Wild Things Are</th>
<th>Stevie</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject Expression</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undifferentiated Pronoun</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb Form</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zero Past Marker</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zero Copula</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb Agreement</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zero Possessive</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple Negation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preposition Addition</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indefinite Article</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>74</strong></td>
<td><strong>99</strong></td>
<td><strong>63</strong></td>
<td><strong>84</strong></td>
<td><strong>320</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of Words in Four Children's Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>643</th>
<th>706</th>
<th>338</th>
<th>935</th>
<th>2622</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Number of Words to Each Grammatical Change

|                      | 8.68 | 7.13 | 5.36 | 11.01 | 8.19 |
The semantic differential consists of a number of scales, each of which is a bipolar adjective pair, selected from among a large number of such scales for varied research purposes. The bipolar adjective scales are usually seven-point rating scales. Each scale measures one, sometimes two, of the basic factors Osgood found to be behind the scales: evaluation, potency, and activity. Osgood writes that a semantic differential is

...a very general way of getting at a certain type of information, a highly generalizable technique of measurement which must be adapted to the requirements of each research problem to which it is applied. There are no standard concepts and no standard scales; rather, the concepts and scales used in a particular study depend upon the purposes of the research.7

The version of the semantic differential used in this study was constructed to measure two evaluative dimensions: children's interest in and attitude towards stories read to them in either a standard or black English version. Three bipolar adjective pairs—nice-awful, important-unimportant, and good-bad—were selected from among Osgood's original fifty scales and were placed on a five-step rating scale. The five steps were defined by the quantifiers "real" and "little" in both directions from a neutral origin represented by an expression that indicated not one or the other of the adjective pairs but a neutral feeling. For example, one adjective pair looked like this: real good, little good, not good or awful, little awful, real awful. The use of real and little as quantifiers in the

instrument was judged the most appropriate for the age and grade levels of the children in the study.

In addition to a measure of each child's interest in and attitude towards the four stories, the semantic differential instrument also collected each child's age, grade level and sex.

**Methods of Collecting Data**

The investigator recorded the standard English versions of the four stories on one magnetic tape in the following order: first, *Tico and the Golden Wings*; second, *Corduroy*; third, *Where the Wild Things Are*; and fourth, *Stevie*. The black English versions were recorded in the same order on another magnetic tape. Each tape constituted a presentation for the children in two third grade and two fourth grade classes; the standard English versions were played for two third and two fourth grade classes and the black English versions were played for two third and two fourth grade classes.

The four stories were played for each class in its regular classroom setting. After hearing a single story, each child rated it on the five-step semantic differential instrument; first in terms of his interest in the story, then in terms of his attitude towards it. In each case the child was asked to indicate choices from among three bipolar adjective pairs. The process was repeated until each of the four stories had been played and rated by each child.

**Techniques for Analysis**

*Scoring the instrument.*--A numerical value from one to five was assigned to every response of each child. For example, all "real nice" responses were given the value of one; "little nice" responses
were assigned a value of two; "not nice or awful" rated three; "little awful" received a value of four; and "real awful" received a value of five. The values of all responses to a particular story relative to the interest variable were added and a mean score found for that story. This procedure was followed for each story. The total scores were combined and represented a child's total interest score for four stories. The same procedure was followed to arrive at the total mean attitude score for each child.

Statistical procedures.—Kerlinger states that:

...If an experimental manipulation has been influential, then it shows up in differences between means above and beyond the differences that would arise by chance alone. And the between group variances should show the influence by becoming greater than could be expected by chance. ... An F-test, is significant, simply says that a relation exists. The relational factor is inferred from the significant differences between two, three, or more means. A statistical test like F says in a relatively indirect way that there is or is not a relation between the independent variable or variables and the dependent variables. 8

On the basis of this observation the analysis of variance was used to test hypotheses with regard to the significance of the differences between mean scores of the independent variables and the dependent variables. All hypotheses tested were accepted or rejected in terms of their significance at the .05 level of probability.

Summary

In this chapter the research design is described. Included in this description are the subjects, the instruments used to collect

data for the study, and the techniques used for collecting data. The subjects for the study were 224 third and fourth grade Black children from two schools in Columbus, Ohio.

A language model was constructed from data provided by descriptive sociolinguistic studies of the speech of some urban Black children. Four children's books were selected and rewritten according to the guidelines of the language model. The result was two versions of each story, one written in black English, the other in standard English. A modified semantic differential instrument was constructed to collect a measure of each child's interest in and attitude towards the two versions of the four stories.

Both versions of the stories were recorded on separate magnetic tapes and played for the children in the study. Their responses were tabulated, mean scores were found for each of the variables and were compared using the analysis of variance.
CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

This chapter reports the analysis of data from 224 third and fourth grade Black children collected on a semantic differential instrument in response to a standard and black English version of four children's stories. All hypotheses will be restated and mean scores presented for the dependent and independent variables. A one-way analysis of variance will be used to determine the significance of the difference between mean scores. These data will provide factual information on which hypotheses will be accepted or rejected at the .05 level of probability.

The hypotheses will be divided into four groups. The first will include those hypotheses concerned with total group performance. Group two will contain all hypotheses comparing children's interest and attitude with their sex. The third group of hypotheses will consist of those comparing children's interests, attitudes and grade placement. The final group of hypotheses include those comparing children's interest, attitudes and age.

**Hypotheses Comparing Total Group Performance**

Hypothesis 1.--There will be no significant difference between the interest of 224 third and fourth grade children in the black versions of four children's stories as compared to the standard versions.
The level of interest indicated by the 110 children responding to the black versions of four children's stories is expressed in a mean score of 5.94. The mean score for the 114 children indicating their degree of interest in the four standard versions is 5.40. (See Table 2.) When the mean scores were compared, an F ratio of 5.43 was obtained. (See Table 3.) This indicates that the difference between the means was significant at the .025 level.

Based on the analysis of data the null hypotheses is thus rejected. Therefore it can be said that the level of interest in the standard versions is significantly higher than the interest in the black versions.

**Hypothesis 2.**—There will be no significant difference between the attitude of 224 third and fourth grade children towards the black versions of four children's stories as compared to the standard versions.

Table 2 indicates a mean score of 6.28 was found for the 110 students indicating their attitude towards black versions of the stories and a mean score of 5.42 was obtained for the 114 students responding to the standard versions. When mean scores were compared, an F ratio of 12.56 was obtained. These data, as shown in Table 3, indicate that the difference between mean scores is significant at the .05 level.

Based on the analysis of data the null hypothesis as stated must be rejected. The 114 children who responded to the standard versions of the stories show a significantly more positive attitude
**TABLE 2**

Mean Interest and Attitude Scores of 224 Children on Black and Standard English Versions of Four Children's Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Interest</th>
<th>Attitude</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Black Versions</td>
<td>Standard Versions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample Size</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Score</td>
<td>5.94</td>
<td>5.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 3

Summary Table: Analysis of Variance Between Mean Interest and Attitude Scores of 224 Children on Black and Standard English Versions of Four Children's Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Interest</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Attitude</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sum of</td>
<td>DF</td>
<td>Mean Square</td>
<td>F Ratio</td>
<td>Sum of Squares</td>
<td>DF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Squares</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>16.4465</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.4465</td>
<td>5.4338&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>41.2275</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>671.9233</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>3.0267</td>
<td></td>
<td>728.5776</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTALS</td>
<td>688.3698</td>
<td>223</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>769.8049</td>
<td>223</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>Significant at the $P < .025$ level

<sup>b</sup>Significant at the $P < .005$ level
toward those stories than the 110 children who reacted to the black
versions expressed towards the black versions.

**Hypotheses Related to Sex**

**Hypothesis 3.**--There will be no significant difference between
the interest of girls as compared to boys in the black versions of
four children's stories.

A mean score of 5.99 is reported for the sixty-two girls
expressing their interest in the black versions of four children's
stories. A mean score of 6.20 is reported for the forty-eight boys.
(See Table 4.) When these two means were compared an F ratio of 1.33
was obtained. (See Table 5.) This indicates that the difference
between the means is not significant at the .05 level.

Based on the analysis of data the null hypothesis is accepted
as stated. The interest of girls and boys in the black English
versions of four children's stories did not differ significantly.

**Hypothesis 4.**--There will be no significant difference between
the attitude of girls as compared to boys towards the black English
versions of four children's stories.

A mean score of 6.13 is reported for the sixty-two girls who
expressed their attitude towards the black versions of four children's
stories. A mean score of 6.47 is reported for the forty-eight boys.
(See Table 4.)

An F ratio of 0.70 was obtained when these two mean scores were
compared, as shown in Table 5. This indicates that the two means
were not significantly different at the .05 level.
TABLE 4

Mean Interest and Attitude Scores of Girls and Boys on Black and Standard English Versions of Four Children's Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Black English Versions</th>
<th>Standard English Versions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample Size</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>62</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Score</td>
<td>5.99</td>
<td>6.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample Size</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Score</td>
<td>6.20</td>
<td>6.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 5
Summary Table: Analysis of Variance Between Mean Interest and Attitude Scores of Girls and Boys on Black and Standard English Versions of Four Children's Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Interest</th>
<th></th>
<th>Attitude</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sum of Squares</td>
<td>DF</td>
<td>Mean Square</td>
<td>F Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1.0998</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0998</td>
<td>0.338a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>350.6687</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>3.2469</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTALS</td>
<td>351.7685</td>
<td>109</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Standard English Versions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.1620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.1620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.0052b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.5597</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aAn F value of 4.00 is necessary for 108,1 degrees of freedom to denote significance at the P < .05 level.

bAn F value of 4.00 is necessary for 112,1 degrees of freedom to denote significance at the P < .05 level.
Based on these data the null hypothesis is accepted. No significant difference was found between girls and boys in attitude towards black versions of the stories.

Hypothesis 5.—There will be no significant difference between the interest of girls as compared to boys in the standard versions of four children's stories.

Table 4 reports a mean score of 5.50 for the fifty-seven girls and a mean score of 5.22 for the fifty-seven boys who expressed their interest in the standard versions of four children's stories. When the mean scores were compared, an F ratio of 1.00 was found, as shown in Table 5. This indicates that the difference between the means is not significant at the .05 level.

The null hypothesis is accepted. No significant difference is found between girls and boys in their interest in standard versions of the four stories.

Hypothesis 6.—There will be no significant difference between the attitude of girls as compared to boys towards the standard English versions of four children's stories.

A mean score of 5.62 was obtained for the fifty-seven girls and a mean score of 5.22 was found for the fifty-seven boys who indicated their attitude towards the standard English versions of four children's stories. (See Table 4.) When these two means were compared as reported in Table 5, the analysis of variance produced an F ratio of 1.95. This indicates that the difference between the means was not significant at the .05 level.
Based on the analysis of data, hypothesis 6 is accepted. The findings indicate no significant difference between the girls and boys in their attitude towards the standard English versions of the four stories.

**Hypotheses Related to Grade Placement**

**Hypothesis 7.**—There will be no significant difference between the interest of third grade children as compared to fourth grade children in the black English versions of four children's stories.

Table 6 reports a mean score of 5.98 for the fifty third grade children expressing their interest in the black English versions of the four stories and a mean score of 6.17 for the sixty fourth grade children.

Data in Table 7 show that an F ratio of 0.28 was found when the two means were compared. This indicates that the difference between the means is not significant at the .05 level.

**Hypothesis 7** is accepted as stated. The third and fourth grade children in this study do not differ significantly in their interest in the black English versions of the four stories.

**Hypothesis 8.**—There will be no significant difference between the attitude of third grade children as compared to fourth grade children towards the black English versions of four children's stories.

Table 6 shows a mean score of 6.27 for the attitude of third grade children and a mean score of 6.29 for the fourth grade children.

Based on the analysis of variance in Table 7, an F ratio of 0.00 was found when the means were compared. This indicates that the difference between the two means is not significant at the .05 level.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Black English Versions</th>
<th></th>
<th>Standard English Versions</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Grade</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample Size</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Score</td>
<td>5.98</td>
<td>6.27</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>5.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth Grade</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample Size</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Score</td>
<td>6.17</td>
<td>6.29</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>5.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 7

Summary Table: Analysis of Variance Between Interest and Attitude Scores of Third and Fourth Grade Children on Black and Standard English Versions of Four Children's Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Black English Versions</th>
<th></th>
<th>Standard English Versions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sum of Squares</td>
<td>DF</td>
<td>Mean Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>0.9232</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>350.8452</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>3.2486</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTALS</td>
<td>351.7683</td>
<td>109</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|                        | Interest               | Attitude               |                           |
|                        | Sum of Squares | DF | Mean Square | F Ratio | Sum of Squares | DF | Mean Square | F Ratio |
| Between Groups         | 3.7388     | 1  | 3.7388      | 1.7499b | 8.8038        | 1  | 8.8038      | 3.8282b |
| Within Groups          | 239.3026   | 112 | 2.1366      |          | 257.5662      | 112 | 2.2997      |          |
| TOTALS                 | 243.0413   | 113 |              |          | 266.3699      | 113 |              |          |

aAn F value of 4.00 is necessary for 108,1 degrees of freedom to denote significance at the P < .05 level.

bAn F value of 4.00 is necessary for 112,1 degrees of freedom to denote significance at the P < .05 level.
The null hypothesis is accepted. The findings indicate that the third and fourth grade children do not differ significantly in their attitude towards the black English versions of the four stories.

**Hypothesis 9.**—There will be no significant difference between the interest of third grade children as compared to fourth grade children in the standard English versions of four children's stories.

A mean score of 5.16 was obtained from the expression of interest in the standard English versions of the stories by fifty-one third grade children. The mean score for the sixty-three fourth grade children indicating interest in the standard English versions was 5.52. (See Table 6.)

Based on the analysis of variance presented in Table 7, an F ratio of 1.74 was found when the two mean scores were compared. This signifies that the difference between the means is not significant at the .05 level.

Based on these findings hypothesis 9 is accepted. The third and fourth grade children in this study do not differ significantly in their expression of interest in the standard English versions of the four children's stories.

**Hypothesis 10.**—There will be no significant difference between the attitude of third grade children as compared to fourth grade children in the standard English versions of four children's stories.

In Table 6 a mean score of 5.11 is reported for the third grade children and a mean score of 5.67 for the fourth grade children in expressing their attitude towards the standard English versions of the stories. When the two means were compared as reported in Table 7, an
F ratio of 3.82 was found. This reveals that the difference between the two means was not significant at the .05 level.

The null hypothesis is accepted. The third and fourth grade children do not differ significantly in their expressed attitude towards the standard English versions of the four stories.

Hypotheses Related to Age

Hypothesis 11.--There will be no significant difference between the interests of eight-year-old children in the black English versions of four children's stories as compared to the standard English versions.

Table 8 shows a total of ten eight-year-old children expressed their interest in the black English versions and thirteen eight-year-old children in the standard English versions. A mean score of 5.65 was obtained for the children responding to the black English versions and a mean of 4.66 for the children expressing interest in the standard English versions.

Based on the analysis of variance reported in Table 9, an F ratio of 2.02 was found when the mean scores were compared. This tells that the difference between the two means was not significant at the .05 level.

Hypothesis 11 is accepted. No significant difference was found among eight-year-olds in their expression of interest in black and standard English versions of the stories.

Hypothesis 12.--There will be no significant difference between the attitude of eight-year-old children towards the black English
**TABLE 8**

Mean Interest and Attitude Scores of Eight-Year-Old Children on Black and Standard English Versions of Four Children's Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Black English Versions</th>
<th></th>
<th>Standard English Versions</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
|                  | Interest | Attitude | Interest | Attitude |]
| Sample Size      | 10       | 10      | 13       | 13       |
| Mean Score       | 5.65     | 5.83    | 4.66     | 4.80     |
### TABLE 9

Summary Table: Analysis of Variance Between Mean Interest and Attitude Scores of Eight-Year-Old Children on Black and Standard English Versions of Four Children's Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Interest</th>
<th></th>
<th>Attitude</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sum of Squares</td>
<td>DF</td>
<td>Mean Square</td>
<td>F Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>5.5225</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.5225</td>
<td>2.0262&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>57.2357</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2.7255</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTALS</td>
<td>62.7582</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>An F value of 4.32 is necessary for 21,1 degrees of freedom to denote significance at the P < .05 level.
versions of four children's stories as compared to the standard English versions.

Table 8 shows a mean score of 5.83 for the ten eight-year-olds who indicated their attitude towards the black English versions of four stories, and a mean score of 4.80 for the thirteen eight-year-olds indicating their attitude towards the standard English versions.

It can be observed in Table 9 that when the two mean scores were compared, an F ratio of 2.03 was obtained. This indicates that the difference between the mean scores was not significant at the .05 level.

The null hypothesis is accepted as stated. The findings show no significant difference among these eight-year-old children in expressed attitude toward black and standard English versions of the four stories.

Hypothesis 12.-- There will be no significant difference between the interest of nine-year-old children in the black English versions of four children's stories as compared to the standard English versions.

Table 10 reveals a total of fifty-five nine-year-old children expressed their interest in the black English versions of the four stories and fifty-four in the standard English versions. A mean score of 5.92 is reported for the children expressing interest in the black English versions, and a mean score of 5.19 is reported for children expressing interest in the standard English versions.

When the mean scores were compared as reported in Table 11, an F ratio of 6.23 was obtained. This indicates that the difference between the two means is significant at the .05 level.
TABLE 10

Mean Interest and Attitude Scores of Nine-Year-Old Children on Black and Standard English Versions of Four Children's Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Black English Versions</th>
<th>Standard English Versions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample Size</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Score</td>
<td>5.92</td>
<td>6.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE II
Summary Table: Analysis of Variance Between Mean Interest and Attitude Scores of Nine-Year-Old Children on Black and Standard English Versions of Four Children's Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Interest</th>
<th></th>
<th>Attitude</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sum of Squares</td>
<td>DF</td>
<td>Mean Square</td>
<td>F Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>14.2701</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.2701</td>
<td>6.2336(^a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>244.9467</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>2.2892</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTALS</td>
<td>259.2166</td>
<td>108</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)Significant at the P < .025 level.

\(^b\)Significant at the P < .005 level.
The null hypothesis is rejected. The findings indicate that the nine-year-olds in this study expressed significantly greater interest in the standard than in the black English versions of the four stories.

Hypothesis 14: There will be no significant difference between the attitude of nine-year-old children towards the black English versions of four children's stories as compared to the standard English versions.

A mean score of 6.34 was found for the fifty-five nine-year-olds who responded to the black English versions of the stories, and a mean score of 5.29 was obtained for the fifty-four nine-year-olds who expressed their attitude towards the standard English versions. (See Table 10.)

In Table 11 the two mean scores are compared, using the analysis of variance. An F ratio of 9.65 was obtained which indicates that the difference between the means is significant at the .05 level.

Hypothesis 14 is rejected on the basis of the findings. The nine-year-olds in this study expressed a significantly more favorable attitude toward the standard English versions of the stories than toward the black English versions.

Hypothesis 15: There will be no significant difference between the interest of ten-year-old children in the black English versions of four children's stories as compared to the standard English versions.

As shown in Table 12 a total of thirty-nine ten-year-old children indicated their interest in the black English versions of
TABLE 12
Mean Interest and Attitude Scores of Ten-Year-Old Children on Black and Standard English Versions of Four Children's Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Black English Versions</th>
<th>Standard English Versions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample Size</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Score</td>
<td>6.39</td>
<td>6.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
four stories and thirty-seven indicated their interest in the standard English versions.

Children who responded to the black English versions of the stories obtained a mean score of 6.39. A mean score of 5.82 was found for the children who indicated their interest in the standard English versions.

The analysis of variance presented in Table 13 shows an F ratio of 1.82 was obtained when the means were compared. This indicates that the difference between the two means is not significant at the .05 level.

On the basis of these findings hypothesis 15 is accepted. The ten-year-old children in this study did not differ significantly in their expressed interest in the black English versions of the four stories as compared to the standard English versions.

Hypothesis 16.--There will be no significant difference between the attitude of ten-year-old children towards the black English versions of four children's stories as compared to the standard English versions.

Table 12 indicates that a mean score of 6.40 was obtained by the children who responded to the black English versions of the stories while the children who expressed their attitude towards the standard English versions obtained a mean score of 5.78. When these two means were compared using the analysis of variance, as reported in Table 13, an F ratio of 1.80 was found. This indicates that the difference between the means is not significant at the .05 level.
TABLE 13
Summary Table: Analysis of Variance Between Mean Interest and Attitude
Scores of Ten-Year-Old Children on Black and Standard
English Versions of Four Children's Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Interest</th>
<th>Attitude</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sum of Squares</td>
<td>DF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>6.1224</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>248.5514</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTALS</td>
<td>254.6738</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)An F ratio of 4.00 is necessary for 74,1 degrees of freedom to denote significance at the P < .05 level.
The null hypothesis is accepted as stated. The findings indicate no significant difference among ten-year-olds in attitude toward the two versions.

**Hypothesis 17.**—There will be no significant difference between the interest of eleven-year-old children in the black English versions of four children's stories as compared to the standard English versions.

Table 14 reports a total of six eleven-year-old children expressed their interest in the black versions of the stories and ten children expressed their interest in the standard versions. A mean score of 6.33 was found for the children who responded to the black English versions, and a mean score of 5.47 was obtained for the children who responded to the standard versions.

Based on the analysis of variance presented in Table 15, an F ratio of 1.90 was obtained when the two mean scores were compared. This indicates that the difference between the means was not significant at the .05 level.

Hypothesis 17 is accepted. No significant difference was found in the interest expressed by eleven-year-olds in the two versions.

**Hypothesis 18.**—There will be no significant difference between the attitude of eleven-year-old children towards the black English versions of four children's stories as compared to the standard English versions.

A mean score of 5.68 was obtained for the eleven-year-old children who responded to the black English versions of the stories,
TABLE 14

Mean Interest and Attitude Scores of Eleven-Year-Old Children on Black and Standard English Versions of Four Children's Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Black English Versions</th>
<th>Standard English Versions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample Size</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Score</td>
<td>6.33</td>
<td>5.68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 15
Summary Table: Analysis of Variance Between Mean Interest and Attitude Scores of Eleven-Year-Old Children on Black and Standard English Versions of Four Children's Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interest</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
<th>Attitude</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2.7950</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.7950</td>
<td>1.9001&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.0260</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.0260</td>
<td>0.0181&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>20.5943</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1.4710</td>
<td></td>
<td>20.1883</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1.4420</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTALS</td>
<td>23.3893</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20.2143</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> An F ratio of 4.60 is necessary for 14, 1 degrees of freedom to denote significance at the $P < .05$ level.
and a mean score of 5.60 was obtained for those responding to the
standard English versions. (See Table 14.)

When the two mean scores were compared using the analysis of
variance, an F ratio of 0.01 was obtained. This indicates that the
difference between the two mean scores was not significant at the .05
level. (See Table 15.)

Hypothesis 18 is accepted. The eleven-year-old children in this
study do not differ significantly in their expressed attitude toward
the two versions.

Summary

In this chapter the analysis of data was presented. Mean scores
for each variable in eighteen hypotheses were compared. The analysis
of variance was used to determine the significance of the difference
between mean scores.

For the purpose of analysis, hypotheses were arranged into four
groupings. The first group contained hypotheses pertaining to the
total performance of the children. The second group included hypotheses
related to sex. Group three consisted of hypotheses concerned with
grade placement and group four contained hypotheses relating to age.
Each hypothesis was accepted or rejected on the basis of its signifi-
cance at the .05 level of probability.

On the basis of the findings from the analysis of data, null
hypotheses 1, 2, 13 and 14 were rejected. The remaining fourteen
null hypotheses were accepted as stated.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS
FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate how Black children feel about reading material utilizing language patterns that more closely approximate the children's oral language than standard English. The study was designed to answer three questions:

1. Will Black children's interest in reading material written in black English differ significantly from their interest in standard English material?

2. Will Black children's attitudes towards reading material utilizing black English be significantly different from their attitude towards standard English materials?

3. What effect will sex, grade level, and age have on Black children's interest in and attitude towards black English reading material as compared to reading material written with standard English patterns?

Eighteen hypotheses were tested in the study. For the purpose of analysis, they were divided into four groups. The first group contained hypotheses pertaining to the total performance of the subjects. The second group included hypotheses related to sex. Group
three consisted of hypotheses concerned with grade level, and group
four contained hypotheses relating to age. Each hypothesis was
accepted or rejected on the basis of its significance at the .05 level
of probability.

The subjects for the study were 224 third and fourth grade
children in two predominantly Black elementary schools in Columbus,
Ohio.

A language model was constructed from data provided by descrip-
tive sociolinguistic studies of the non-standard speech of Black
children in New York City, Washington, D.C., and Detroit. Four chil-
dren's books were selected and rewritten according to the guidelines
of the language model. The result was two versions of each story,
one written in black English, the other in its original standard
English. A modified semantic differential instrument was constructed
to secure a measure of each child's interest in and attitude towards
the materials.

The four standard versions of the books were recorded on magnetic
tape and constituted a presentation for 114 of the children. The four
black English versions of the books were recorded on another magnetic
tape for presentation to the remaining 110 subjects. The black
English versions were played one story at a time to the subjects in
one third grade and one fourth grade in each school in their regular
classroom groups. After each story was played, the subjects indicated
their responses on the semantic differential instrument. Identical
procedures were followed with the remaining subjects, using the standard English versions of the stories.

The children's responses were tabulated and compared to see if there were any significant differences between them. A one-way analysis of variance was employed to determine the significance of the difference between students' responses.

On the basis of the findings from the analysis of the data, null hypotheses 1, 2, 13, and 14 were rejected. The remaining fourteen were accepted as stated.

Conclusions

Based on findings from the analysis of the data, three conclusions were drawn regarding the interests and attitudes of Black children relative to reading materials utilizing standard and black English forms. These conclusions provide direct responses to the questions under investigation in the study.

In regards to the first question concerning Black children's interest in standard and black English reading materials, the findings from the analysis of data revealed that children who expressed their interest in the standard English materials compiled a lower mean interest score than those children who expressed interest in black English materials. This indicated a higher level of interest in the standard English materials. A comparison of these different levels of interest in standard and black English materials revealed that the level of interest expressed in the standard English materials was significantly higher than the level of interest expressed in the black
English materials. Based on these findings, the investigator concludes that third and fourth grade Black children are significantly more interested in standard English reading materials than in black English reading materials.

The second question under investigation concerned the expressed attitudes of Black children toward standard and black English reading materials. The findings from the analysis of the data relative to children's attitudes show that those who expressed their attitude toward the standard English materials had a lower mean attitude score than those children who responded to the black English materials. This suggested a more positive attitude toward the standard English materials. A comparison of the expressed differences in attitude by the two groups of children toward the standard and black English materials revealed that a significantly more positive attitude was expressed toward the standard English materials. On the basis of these findings the investigator concludes that third and fourth grade Black children have significantly more positive attitudes toward standard English reading materials than toward black English reading materials.

The third question investigated in this study sought to determine the effect of sex, grade level, and age on children's interest and attitudes relative to reading materials written in standard and black English. In the case of sex, boys and girls indicated different levels of interest in and attitudes towards the two types of materials, but comparison of the differences revealed that they were
not significant. The same was also true regarding grade level. Third and fourth graders expressed different degrees of interest in and attitudes towards the two types of materials, but comparison of the differences revealed no statistical significance at the .05 level of probability. The findings relative to age were inconsistent. The interest and attitude of the eight, ten, and eleven-year-old children with respect to standard and black English materials were different but not significant at the .05 level. However, differences between the interest and attitudes of nine-year-olds were significant at the .05 level of probability. The nine-year-olds in the study were significantly more interested in and had a significantly more positive attitude toward the standard English versions of the materials. Based on these data the investigator concludes that differences in children's interest in and attitudes toward black and standard English reading materials are not significantly affected by their sex, grade level, or age.

However, while many of the data did not reveal significant differences between children's expressions of interest in and attitude toward the reading materials which were affected by sex, grade level, or age, the data did establish a definite trend. In each instance where children's responses to standard and black English materials were compared, the standard scores were lower, indicative of a higher level of interest in and a more positive attitude towards the standard English versions of the reading materials. Although not significantly higher or more positive, such a pattern in expressions of interest
and attitude relative to the two forms of materials is consistent with the expressions of the subjects which were significantly different. The significantly different responses were in the same direction as the pattern established by the non-significant responses: generally positive in terms of standard English materials, and negative toward the black English materials.

If the expressions of interests and attitudes of speakers of a non-standard dialect regarding black English materials reported in this study are indicative of the general receptivity toward such materials one can expect from non-standard speakers of English, the success of black English instructional materials becomes seriously questionable. No materials, regardless of their pedagogical soundness or linguistic relevance, can be expected to achieve optimum success if not positively regarded by those for whom instruction is intended. In the final analysis the individual determines the effectiveness of instructional materials. If he enjoyed and was receptive to innovative materials, positive learning would occur. On the other hand, little learning would take place if the child disapproved of the instructional materials. To realize maximum instructional benefit from black English reading materials, speakers of the non-standard dialect should exhibit a positive attitude and be generally receptive toward them. The individual who develops non-standard English materials should not only be aware of this condition but also understand that present school practices promote conditions which further renders dialect-based materials impractical for classroom instruction.
It appears that school has been extremely successful in developing and maintaining in Black children particular attitudes regarding "correct" language behavior. Apparently third and fourth graders are aware of differences in linguistic behavior, have learned the social consequences associated with non-standard usage, and take strong measures to disassociate themselves from the socially stigmatized forms of oral expression. The behavior of the children in the present study can be taken to be an example of these learned conditions relative to non-standard speech. When asked to indicate their interests and attitude with respect to black English materials, a significant number of children expressed a general disapproval of it although many of the speech patterns represented in the materials were present in the vernacular of their speech community.

Such a response suggests that they are aware of and have accepted the fact that the school generally rewards a particular mode of language behavior, standard English, and disapproves of non-standard English. This learned disapproval of one's own oral language habits, used regularly for communication purposes, in the immediate community, is only one of many illogical conditions involving the Black child and the school which materials developers must be aware of, understand, and consider in the development of instructional materials earmarked for use with the Black child.

The public schools in America historically have been institutions designed for and controlled by white people. Final decisions regarding all matters of importance associated with the operation of
the schools are made by whites. Except for token measures, Black people have been systematically excluded from decision-making processes regarding school planning, site acquisition, establishment of boundaries, curriculum development, materials acquisitions, and a host of other concerns. The Black American has been a recipient of school decisions whereas the white American has been both decider and recipient.

When this situation is related to reading materials, perhaps the same forces come into play. The Black is reacting to materials developed for him with little regard for his concerns. If one thing can be implied from the present study it is that educators who advocate the notion of dialect-based reading materials for the purpose of instructing Black children should consider an alternative approach which would be acceptable to the target population, for sound educational theory would suggest that children will learn best when they can relate positively to both the methods and materials of instruction.

**Recommendations for Further Research**

The recommendations forthcoming concern oral language and its relationship to reading. They are presented in the hope that empirical data will provide insights and direction in the development of new instructional reading materials.

The entire area of oral language and its relationship to reading is complex and relatively unexplored. Little systematic research exists on which broad generalization can be based concerning oral language as it relates to reading success or failure. Evidence is
needed to not only empirically establish whether a relationship exists but also to investigate the nature of such a relationship.

Three pertinent questions would suggest themselves as providing direction for research consideration. (1) To what extent must an individual have developed oral language prior to success in reading? (2) How can reading materials be designed to make more extensive use of an individual's linguistic competence? (3) What is the nature of the problems encountered by the non-standard English speaker when attempting to learn reading skills from standard English materials? Thus far there is much speculation among educators regarding these questions. Empirical data would provide needed direction in this socially sensitive area of academic concern.

The present study concentrated on only one aspect of language, grammar. No control at all was exerted on phonology, semantics, or lexical items. Studies show that the non-standard vernacular of Black speakers includes much variation in lexical items. Future research efforts should give adequate consideration to other aspects of language as well as grammar. A definite need has been established to determine the effect of grammatical and lexical changes on how Black children regard black English materials. Perhaps the lexical items will effect the meaning in such a way as to produce different responses from children. It seems reasonable to assume that the non-standard dialect will be more realistically represented if greater control is exerted on the grammatical, lexical and phonological aspects of the language. This represents an area which needs further consideration.
The final recommendation concerns the need of further definition of standard English. No one as yet has definitely decided what is meant by standard English. In view of the fact that it represents the linguistic norm from which "black speech" and other non-standard varieties are said to deviate, it seems reasonable to expect that scholars should provide a proper definition and description of the standard dialect as it is currently spoken. When this is done, they must further decide at what point enough variation qualifies other speech varieties to be identified as full-fledged dialects. In other words, research is necessary to define and describe standard English as a base for developing guidelines for determining the status of a full-fledged English dialect.
APPENDIX A

TYPESCRIPT OF STANDARD ENGLISH VERSIONS
OF FOUR CHILDREN'S STORIES
Tico and the Golden Wings
by Leo Lionni

Many years ago I knew a little bird whose name was Tico. He would sit on my shoulder and tell me all about the flowers, the ferns, and the tall trees. Once Tico told me this story about himself.

I don't know how it happened, but when I was young I had no wings. I sang like the other birds and I hopped like them, but I couldn't fly.

Luckily my friends loved me. They flew from tree to tree and in the evening they brought me berries and tender fruits gathered from the highest branches.

Often I asked myself, "Why can't I fly like the other birds? Why can't I, too, soar through the big blue sky over villages and treetops?"

And I dreamed that I had golden wings, strong enough to carry me over the snowcapped mountains far away.

One summer night I was awakened by a noise near by. A strange bird, pale as a pearl, was standing behind me. "I am the wishing bird," he said. "Make a wish and it will come true."

I remembered my dreams and with all my might I wished I had a pair of golden wings. Suddenly there was a flash of light and on my back there were wings, golden wings, shimmering in the moonlight. The wishing bird had vanished.

Cautiously I flapped my wings. And then I flew. I flew higher then the tallest tree. The flower patches below looked like stamps
scattered over the countryside and the river like a silver necklace lying in the meadows. I was happy and I flew well into the day.

But when my friends saw me swoop down from the sky, they frowned on me and said, "You think you are better than we are, don't you, with those golden wings. You wanted to be different." And off they flew without saying another word.

Why had they gone? Why were they angry? Was it bad to be different? I could fly as high as the eagle. Mine were the most beautiful wings in the world. But my friends had left me and I was very lonely.

One day I saw a man sitting in front of a hut. He was a basket-maker and there were baskets all around him. There were tears in his eyes. I flew onto a branch from where I could speak to him.

"Why are you sad?" I asked. "Oh, little bird, my child is sick and I am poor. I cannot buy the medicines that would make him well."

"How can I help him?" I thought. And suddenly I knew. "I will give him one of my feathers." "How can I thank you!" said the poor man happily. "You have saved my child. But look! Your wing!" Where the golden feather had been there was a real black feather, as soft as silk.

From that day, little by little, I gave my golden feathers away and black feathers appeared in their place. I bought many presents:

three new puppets for a poor puppeteer...
a spinning wheel to spin the yarn for an old woman's shawl...
a compass for a fisherman who got lost at sea...
And when I had given my last golden feathers to a beautiful bride, my wings were as black as India ink.

I flew to the big tree where my friends gathered for the night. Would they welcome me?

They chirped with joy. "Now you are just like us," they said. We all huddled close together. But I was so happy and excited I couldn't sleep. I remembered the basketmaker's son, the old woman, the puppeteer, and all the others I had helped with my feathers. "Now my wings are black," I thought, "and yet I am not like my friends. We are all different. Each for his own memories, and his own invisible golden dreams."
Corduroy is a bear who once lived in the toy department of a big store. Day after day he waited with all the other animals and dolls for somebody to come along and take him home.

The store was always filled with shoppers buying all sorts of things, but none ever seemed to want a small bear in green overalls. Then one morning a little girl stopped and looked straight into Corduroy's bright eyes. "Oh, Mommy!" she said. "Look! There's the very bear I've always wanted." "Not today, dear," her mother sighed. "I've spent too much already. Besides, he doesn't look new. He's lost the button to one of his shoulder straps."

Corduroy watched them sadly as they walked away. "I didn't know I'd lost a button," he said to himself. "Tonight I'll go and see if I can find it."

Late that evening, when all the shoppers had gone and the doors were shut and locked, Corduroy climbed carefully down from his shelf and began searching everywhere on the floor for his lost button. Suddenly he felt the floor moving under him! Quite by accident he had stepped onto an escalator--and up he went! "Could this be a mountain?" he wondered. "I think I've always wanted to climb a mountain."

He stepped off the escalator as it reached the next floor, and there, before his eyes, was a most amazing sight--tables and chairs and lamps and sofas, and rows and rows of beds. "This must be a palace!" Corduroy gasped. "I guess I've always wanted to live in a palace."
He wandered around admiring the furniture. "This must be a bed," he said. "I've always wanted to sleep in a bed." And up he crawled onto a large, thick mattress. All at once he saw something small and round. "Why, here's my button!" he cried. And he tried to pick it up. But, like all the other buttons on the mattress, it was tied down tight. He yanked and pulled with both paws until POP! Off came the button—and off the mattress Corduroy toppled, bang into a tall floor lamp. Over it fell with a crash!

Corduroy didn't know it, but there was someone else awake in the store. The night watchman was doing his rounds on the floor above. When he heard the crash he came dashing down the escalator. "Now who in the world did that!" he exclaimed. "Somebody must be hiding around here!"

He flashed his light under and over sofas and beds until he came to the biggest bed of all. And there he saw two fuzzy brown ears sticking up from under the cover. "Hello!" he said. "How did you get upstairs?" The watchman tucked Corduroy under his arm and carried him down the escalator and set him on the shelf in the toy department with the other animals and dolls.

Corduroy was just waking up when the first customers came into the store in the morning. And there, looking at him with a wide, warm smile, was the same little girl he'd seen only the day before.

"I'm Lisa," she said, "and you're going to be my very own bear. Last night I counted what I've saved in my piggy bank and my mother said I could bring you home."
"Shall I put him in a box for you?" the saleslady asked. "Oh, no thank you," Lisa answered. And she carried Corduroy home in her arms.

"She ran all the way up four flights of stairs, into her family's apartment, and straight into her own room. Corduroy blinked. There was a chair and a chest of drawers, and alongside a girl-size bed stood a little bed just the right size for him. The room was small, nothing like that enormous palace in the department store.

"This must be home," he said. "I know I've always wanted a home!" Lisa sat down with Corduroy on her lap and began to sew a button on his overalls. "I like you the way you are," she said, "but you'll be more comfortable with your shoulder strap fastened."

"You must be a friend," said Corduroy. "I've always wanted a friend." "Me too!" said Lisa, and gave him a big hug.
Where the Wild Things Are
by Maurice Sendak

The night Max wore his wolf suit and made mischief of one kind and another his mother called him 'WILD THING!' and Max said 'I'll EAT YOU UP!' so he was sent to bed without eating anything.

That very night in Max's room a forest grew and grew and grew until his ceiling hung with vines and the walls became the world all around and an ocean tumbled by with a private boat for Max and he sailed off through night and day and in and out of weeks and almost over a year to where the wild things are.

And when he came to the place where the wild things are they roared their terrible roars and gnashed their terrible teeth and rolled their terrible eyes and showed their terrible claws till Max said 'BE STILL!' And tamed them with the magic trick of staring into all their yellow eyes without blinking once and they were frightened and called him the most wild thing of all and made him king of all wild things.

"And now," cried Max, "let the wild rumpus start!" "Now stop!" Max said and sent the wild things off to bed without their supper. And Max the king of all wild things was lonely and wanted to be where someone loved him best of all.

Then all around from far away across the world he smelled good things to eat so he gave up being king of where the wild things are. But the wild things cried, "Oh please don't go--we'll eat you up--we love you so!" And Max said, "No!"
The wild things roared their terrible roars and gnashed their terrible teeth and rolled their terrible eyes and showed their terrible claws but Max stepped into his private boat and waved goodbye and sailed back over a year and in and out of weeks and through a day and into the night of his very own room where he found his supper waiting for him and it was still hot.
Stevie
by John Steptoe

One day my momma told me, "You know you're gonna have a little friend come stay with you." And I said, "Who is it?" And she said, "You know my friend Mrs. Mack? Well, she has to work all week and I'm gonna keep her little boy."

I asked, "For how long?" She said, "He'll stay all week and his mother will come pick him up on Saturdays."

The next day the doorbell rang. It was a lady and a kid. He was smaller than me. I ran to my mother. "Is that them?"

They went in the kitchen but I stayed out in the hall to listen.

The little boy's name was Steven but his mother kept calling him Stevie. My name is Robert but my momma don't call me Robertie. And so Steve moved in, with his old crybaby self. He always had to have his way. And he was greedy too. Everything he sees he wants. "Could I have somma that? Gimme this." Now!  

Since he was littler than me, while I went to school he used to stay home and play with my toys. I wished his mother would bring somma his toys over here to break up. I used to get so mad at my mother when I came home after school. "Momma, can't you watch him and tell him to leave my stuff alone?"

Then he used to like to get up on my bed to look out the window and leave his dirty footprints all over my bed. And my momma never said nothin' to him.

And on Saturdays when his mother comes to pick him up, he always tries to act cute just cause his mother is there.
He picked up my airplane and I told him not to bother it. He thought I wouldn't say nothin' to him in front of his mother.

I could never go anywhere without my mother sayin' "Take Stevie with you now." "But why I gotta take him everywhere I go?" I'd say. "Now if you were stayin' with someone you wouldn't want them to treat you mean," my mother told me.

"Why don't you and Stevie try to play nice?" Yeah, but I always been nice to him with his old spoiled self. He's always gotta have his way anyway. I had to take him to play with me and my friends. "Is that your brother, Bobby?" they'd ask me. "No."

"Is that your cousin?" "No! He's just my friend and he's stayin' at my house and my mother made me bring him."

"Ha, ha. You gotta baby-sit! Bobby the baby-sitter!"

"Aw, be quiet. Come on, Steve. See! Why you gotta make all my friends laugh for?" "Ha, ha. Bobby the baby-sitter," my friends said.

"Hey, come on, y'all, let's go play in the park. You comin', Bobby?" one of my friends said.

"Naw, my momma said he can't go in the park cause the last time he went he fell and hurt his knee, with his old stupid self." And then they left.

"You see? You see! I can't even play with my friends. Man! Come on."

"I'm sorry, Robert. You don't like me, Robert! I'm sorry," Stevie said.

"Aw, be quiet. That's okay," I told him.
One time when my daddy has havin' company I was just sittin' behind the couch just listenin' to them talk and make jokes and drink beer. And I wasn't makin' no noise. They didn't even know I was there! Then here comes Stevie with his old loud self. Then when my father heard him, he yelled at me and told me to go upstairs.

Just cause of Stevie.

Sometimes people get on your nerves and they don't mean it or nothin' but they just bother you. Why I gotta put up with him? My momma only had one kid. I used to have a lot of fun before old stupid came to live with us.

One Saturday Steve's mother and father came to my house to pick him up like always. But they said that they were gonna move away and that Stevie wasn't gonna come back anymore.

So then he left. The next mornin' I got up to watch cartoons and I fixed two bowls of corn flakes. Then I just remembered that Stevie wasn't here.

Sometimes we had a lot of fun runnin' in and out of the house. Well, I guess my bed will stay clean from now on. But that wasn't so bad. He couldn't help it cause he was stupid.

I remember the time I ate the last piece of cake in the bread-box and blamed it on him.

We used to play Cowboys and Indians on the stoop.

I remember when I was doin' my homework I used to try to teach him what I had learned. He could write his name pretty good for his age.
I remember the time we played boogie man and we hid under the covers with Daddy's flashlight.

And that time we was playin' in the park under the bushes and we found these two dead rats and one was brown and one was black.

And him and me and my friends used to cook mickies or marshmallows in the park.

We used to have some good times together. I think he liked my momma better than his own, cause he used to call his mother "Mother" and he called my momma "Mommy."

Aw, no! I let my corn flakes get soggy thinkin' about him. He was a nice little guy. He was kinda like a little brother. Little Stevie.
APPENDIX B

TYPESCRIPT OF BLACK ENGLISH VERSIONS
OF FOUR CHILDREN'S STORIES
Tico and the Golden Wings
by Leo Leonni

Many years ago I knew a little bird whose name was Tico. He would sit on my shoulder and tell me all about the flowers, the ferns, and the tall trees. Once Tico told me this story about himself.

I don't know how it happen, but when I was young I didn't have no wings. I sung like the other birds and I hop like them, but I couldn't fly.

Luckily my friends, they love me. They flew from tree to tree and in the evening they brung me berries and tender fruits they gather from the highest branches.

Often I ask myself, "Why can't I fly like them other birds? Why can't I too soar through the big blue sky over villages and treetops?" And I dream one time I had golden wings, strong enough to carry me over the snowcapped mountains far away.

One summer night I was woke up by a noise nearby. A strange bird, pale as a pearl, he was standing behind me. "I'm the wishing bird," he say, "make a wish and it come true." I remember my dreams and with all my might I wish I had a pair of golden wings. Suddenly there was a flash of light and on my back there was wings, golden wings, shimmering in the moonlight. Then the wishing bird, he vanish.

Cautiously I flap my wings and then I flew. I flew higher than the tallest tree. The flower patches below look like stamps scattered over the countryside and the river, it look like a silver necklace laying in the meadows. I was happy and I flew well into the day. But when my friends seen me swoop down from the sky, they frown at me and
say, "you think you better than us don't you, with them golden wings? You want to be different." And off they flew without saying another word.

Why had they gone? Why was they angry? Is it bad to be different? I could fly high as a eagle. My wings the most beautiful wings in the world. But my friends, they left me and I was very lonely.

One day I seen a man sitting in front of a hut. He was a basketmaker and there was baskets all around him. There was tears in his eyes. I flew onto a branch so I could speak to him, "Why you sad?" I ask. "Oh, little bird my child she sick and I'm poor. I can't buy no medicines that make him well. "How can I help him?" I thought. And suddenly I knew. "I give him one of my feathers." "How can I thank you?" say the poor man happily. "You save my child. But look! Your wing!" Where the golden feather was there was a real black feather, soft as silk. From that day, little by little I give my golden feathers away and black feathers come in their place. I bought many presents: three new puppets for a poor puppeteer...

...a spinning wheel to spin the yarn for a old woman shawl...

...a compass for a fisherman who got lost at sea...

And when I give my last golden feathers to a beautiful bride, my wings was black as India ink. I flew to the big tree where my friends gather for the night. Would they welcome me? They chirp with joy. "Now you just like us," they say. We all huddle close together. But I be so happy and excited I couldn't sleep. I remember the basketmaker son, the old woman, the puppeteer, and all them others I help
with my feathers. "Now my wings black," I thought, "and yet I'm not like none of my friends." "We all different. Each for his own memories, and his own invisible golden dreams."
Corduroy
by Don Freeman

Corduroy, he a bear who once live in the toy department of a big store. Day after day he wait with all them other animals and dolls for somebody to come along and take him home.

The store always be fill with shoppers who be buying all sorts of things but none never seem to want a small bear in green overalls. Then one morning a little girl, she stop and look straight into Corduroy bright eyes. "Oh, Mommy!" she say. "Look! There the very bear I been always wanting."

"Not today, dear." Her mother sigh. "I spent too much already. Besides, he don't look new and he lost the button to one of his shoulder straps."

Corduroy, he watch them sadly as they walk away. "I didn't know I lost no button," he say to hisself. "Tonight I'll go see can I find it."

Later that evening, when all the shoppers had gone and the doors was shut and lock, Corduroy, he climb carefully down from off his shelf and begin searching everywhere on the floor for his lost button. Suddenly he felt the floor moving under him! Quite by accident he had step onto a escalator and up he went! "Could this be a mountain?" he wonder. "I think I been always wanting to climb a mountain."

He step off the escalator as it reach the next floor, and there, before his eyes, was a most amazing sight--tables and chairs and lamps and sofas, and rows and rows of beds. "This must be a palace!" Corduroy gasp. "I guess I always been wanting to live in a palace."
Corduroy, he wander around admiring the furniture. "This must be a bed," he say. I always been wanting to sleep in a bed." And Corduroy, he crawl up onto a large, thick mattress. All at once he seen something small and round. 'Why here my button.' he cry. And he try to pick it up. But, like all them other buttons on the mattress, it was tied down tight. He yank and pull with both paws until POP! Off the button came--and Corduroy, he topple off the mattress, bang into a tall floor lamp and over it fell with a crash!

Corduroy, he didn't know it, but there was someone else awake in the store. The night watchman, he was going his rounds on the floor up above. When he heard the crash he come dashing down the escalator. "Now who in the world did that!" he exclaim. "Somebody must be hiding around here!"

He flash his light under and over sofas and beds until he come to the biggest bed of all. And there he seen two fuzzy brown ears sticking up from under the cover. "Hello!" he say. "How you get upstairs?" The watchman, he tuck Corduroy under his arm and carry him down the escalator and sit him on the shelf in the toy department with them other animals and dolls.

Corduroy, he was just waking up when the first customers come into the store in the morning. And there, looking at him with a wide, warm smile was the same little girl he seen only day before. "I'm Lisa," she say, "and you going be my very own bear. Last night I count what I save in my piggy bank and my mother, she say I could bring you home."
"Shall I put him in a box for you?" the saleslady ask. "Oh, no thank you," Lisa answer. And she carry Corduroy home in her arms.

She run all the way up four flights of stairs, into her family apartment, and straight into her own room. Corduroy, he blinked. There was a chair and a chest of drawers, and alongside a girl-size bed stood a little bed just the right size for him. The room, it was small, nothing like that enormous palace in the department store.

"This must be home," he say. "I know I always been wanting a home!" Lisa, she sit down with Corduroy on her lap and begin to sew a button on his overalls. "I like you the way you is," she say, "but you be more comfortable with your shoulder strap fasten."

"You must be a friend," say Corduroy. "I always been wanting a friend." "Me too!" say Lisa, and she give him a big hug.
Where the Wild Things Are
by Maurice Sendak

The night Max wore his wolf suit and made mischief of one kind and another his mother, she call him "wild thing!" and Max, he say "I eat you up!" so he was sent to bed without eating nothing.

That very night in Max room a forest grew and grew and grew until his ceiling hung with vines and the walls, they become the world all around and a ocean, it tumble by with a private boat for Max and he sail off through night and day and in and out of weeks and almost over a year to where the wild things are at. And when he come to the place where the wild things are at, they roar they terrible roars and gnash they terrible teeth and roll they terrible eyes and show they terrible claws till Max he say "Be Still!!" and tame them with the magic trick of staring into all they yellow eyes without blinking once and they was frighten and call him the wildest thing of all and made him king of all wild things.

"And now," cry Max, "let the wild rumpus start!!" "Now stop!!" Max say and he sent the wild things off to bed without they supper. And Max the king of all the wild things he was lonely and want to be where someone love him best of all.

Then all around from far away across the world he smell good things to eat so he give up being king of where the wild things are at. But the wild things they cry, "Oh please don't go--we eat you up--we love you so!!" And Max he say "No!!"
The wild things they roar they terrible roars and gnash they
terrible teeth and roll they terrible eyes and show they terriible
claws but Max he step into his private boat and he wave good-bye
and sail back over a year and in and out of weeks and through a day
and into the night of his very own room where he found his supper
waiting for him and it was still hot.
Stevie
by John Steptoe

One day my momma, she told me "You know you gonna have a little friend come stay with you." And I say, "Who is it?" And she say, "You know my friend Mrs. Mack? Well, she have to work all week and I'm gonna keep her little boy." I ask, "For how long?" She say, "He stay all week and his momma come pick him up on Saturdays."

The next day the doorbell rung. It was a lady and a kid. He was smaller than me. I run to my momma. "Is that them?" They went in the kitchen but I stay out in the hall to listen.

The little boy, he name Steven but his momma, she call him Stevie. My name Robert but my momma, she don't call me Robertie. And so Steve, he move in, with his old crybaby self. He always have to have his way. And he greedy too. Everything he seen he want. "Could I have somma that? Gimme this." Man!

Since he was littler than me, while I went to school he use to stay home and play with my toys. I wish his momma bring somma his toys over here to break up.

I use to get so mad with my momma when I come home after school. "Momma, can't you watch him and tell him to leave my stuff alone?"

Then he use to like to get up on my bed to look out the window and leave his dirty footprints all over my bed. And my momma, she didn't never say nothin' to him. And on Saturdays when his momma come to pick him up, he always try to act cute just cause his momma there.
daddy heard him, he yell at me and told me to go upstairs. Just cause of Stevie.

Some times people get on your nerves and they don't mean it or nothin' but they just bother you. Why I gotta put up with him? My momma, she only have one kid. I use to have a lot of fun before old stupid come to live with us.

One Saturday Steve momma and daddy come to my house to pick him up like always. But they say they gonna move away and that Stevie, he wasn't gonna come back home. So then he left.

The next mornin' I got up to watch cartoons and I fix two bowls of cornflakes. Then I just remember that Stevie he wasn't here.

Sometimes we had a lot of fun runnin' in and out of the house. Well, I guess my bed stay clean from now on. But that wasn't so bad. He couldn't help it cause he stupid. I remember the time I ate the last piece of cake in the breadbox and blame it on him. We use to play cowboys and Indians on the stoop.

I remember when I was doin' my homework I use to try to teach him what I learns. He write his name pretty good for his age. I remember the time we play boogie man and we hid under the covers with daddy flashlight.

And that time we was playin' in the park under the bushes and we found these two dead rats and one was brown and one was black. And him and me and my friends use to cook mickies or marshmallows in the park.

We use to have some good times together. I think he like my momma better than his own, cause he use to call his momma "Mother"
He pick up my airplane and I told him not to bother it. He thought I wouldn't say nothin' to him in front of his momma. I couldn't never go nowhere without my momma sayin', "Take Stevie with you now."

But why I gotta take him everywhere I go?" I say. "Now if you was stayin' with someone you wouldn't want them to treat you mean," my momma told me. "Why don't you and Stevie try to play nice?" Yeah, but I always be nice to him with his old spoiled self. He always gotta have his way anyway. I have to take him out to play with me and my friends. "That your brother Bobby?" they ask me. "No."

"That your cousin?" "No." He just my friend and he stayin' at my house and my momma, she made be bring him." "Ha, ha. You gotta babysit! Bobby the babysitter!" "Aw, be quiet. Come on, Steve. See! Why you gotta make all my friends laugh for?" "Ha, ha. Bobby the babysitter," my friends say. "Hey, come on, y'all, let's go play in the park. You comin', Bobby?" one of my friends say. "Naw, my momma she say he can't go in no park cause the last time he went he fell and hurt his knee, with his old stupid self." And then they left.


One time when my daddy was havin' company I was just sittin' behind the couch just listenin' to them talk and make jokes and drink beer. And I wasn't makin' no noise. They didn't even know I was there! Then here come Stevie with his old loud self! Then when my
and he call my momma 'Mommy'. Aw no! I let my cornflakes get soggy thinkin' about him.

He a nice little guy. He kinda like a little brother. Little Stevie.
APPENDIX C

SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL INSTRUMENT
CIRCLE YOUR AGE. . . . . . . . 8 9 10 11
CIRCLE YOUR GRADE. . . . . . . . 3 4
CIRCLE YOUR SEX. . . . . . . . BOY GIRL

Make one (1) choice from each row that will tell how much you liked the story?

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Make one (1) choice from each row that will tell what you think about the way the story sounded?

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