THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

A STUDY OF ORAL VOCABULARY SCORES AND READING VOCABULARY SCORES OF THIRD GRADE EDUCATIONALLY DISADVANTAGED STUDENTS

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

BY

ELBERT LEWIS JONES

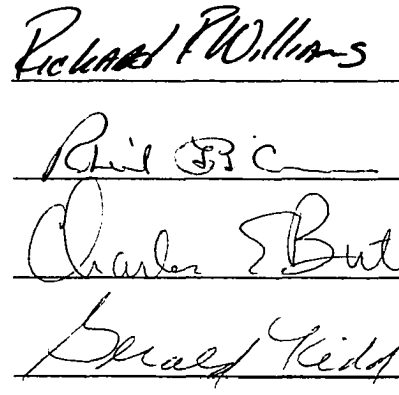
Norman, Oklahoma

1977

Downloaded from SHAREOK. Persistent Handle URL: https://hdl.handle.net/11244/4342

A STUDY OF ORAL VOCABULARY SCORES AND
READING VOCABULARY SCORES OF THIRD GRADE
EDUCATIONALLY DISADVANTAGED STUDENTS

APPROVED BY



DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer wishes to thank a number of people for their encouragements, support, contributions and guidance in the graduate program and in conducting the investigation. A special debt of gratitude is extended to Dr. Richard P. Williams, who while chairing this doctoral study, gave generously of his time, patience, and knowledge. Dr. Williams' unfailing interest and guidance was invaluable in the development of this research report.

I wish to thank Dr. Robert Bibens whose guidance through the doctoral program has been greatly appreciated.

Gratitude is sincerely expressed to Dr. Charles Butler, who facilitated my acquisition of valuable knowledge.

Dr. Gerald Kidd merits a sincere expression of thanks for his counsel and encouragement through the graduate program.

Appreciation is expressed to Dr. Ronald Schnee, for statistical counsel.

I also extend a special acknowledgement to Mrs. Maxie Wood, senior research assistant, and the elementary principals, who assisted in the collection of data. Without their cooperation and efforts, the collection of data would have been impossible.

Eternal gratitude is expressed to my wife, Judy, for her typing of the manuscript and for her loving support, I am forever indebted.

Finally, for their patience and understanding, I am deeply grateful to my children, Keisha, Elbert, Lapeania, and Karen.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
LIST OF TABLES	vi
FIGURES	vii
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM	1
Introduction	1
Rationale of the Study	4
The Statement of the Problem	5
Significance of the Problem	5
Objectives of the Study	10
Statement of the Null Hypotheses	11
Definition of Terms	11
Assumptions	13
Limitations of the Study	13
Organization of the Dissertation	14
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	16
Related Research Studies	16
Research Studies Related to Language Facility and Reading Ability	16
Types of Vocabulary	18
Language Development: General	19
Language Development: Universal Aspects and Individual Variations	21
Vocabulary Development in the Language Experience Approach	31
Description of the Disadvantaged Child	37
Educational Needs of the Disadvantaged Child	42
Some Effects of Social Class and Race on Children's Language	43
Socioeconomic Status vs. Academic Achievement	46
Summary	50
III. DESIGN AND PROCEDURES	55
Population and Sample	55

Chapter

Page

Procedure..... 57
Instruments Utilized..... 58
Statistical Procedure..... 65
Summary..... 65

IV. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA..... 67

Summary of Findings..... 73

V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS..... 75

Summary..... 75
Conclusions..... 78
Recommendations..... 79

BIBLIOGRAPHY..... 80

APPENDIX A..... 87

APPENDIX B..... 92

LIST OF TABLES

Table | Page

1. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlation Coefficient of Oral Vocabulary and Reading Vocabulary Scores..... 68

2. Means Scores, Standard Deviations, and Cell Sizes for Oral Vocabulary Scores by Socioeconomic Status and Race..... 69

3. Analysis of Variance Showing F Scores by Ethnic Groups, Socioeconomic Status, and Interaction..... 70

FIGURE

Figure | Page

1. Graph of Mean Oral Vocabulary Scores by Ethnic Origin and Socioeconomic Status..... 72

A STUDY OF ORAL VOCABULARY SCORES AND READING VOCABULARY SCORES OF THIRD GRADE EDUCATIONALLY DISADVANTAGED STUDENTS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM

Introduction

The education of educationally disadvantaged children has emerged during the past few years as a major concern of the teaching profession and, indeed, of the nation. Hundreds of public school systems and institutions of higher education have developed compensatory educational programs and practices to "compensate" for the observed educational handicaps of educationally disadvantaged children. A body of literature has begun to emerge, a number of books, hundreds of articles, and thousands of published and unpublished reports and other documents. Educational and governmental leaders issue frequent pronouncements on the urgent need to provide compensatory educational services for the educationally disadvantaged children; professional conferences have been held on the problem and issues involved; and implementing legislation has proceeded on both the state and federal levels. This widespread concern for the education of the educationally disadvantaged children emerged during the 1960's.

From the problems and issues involving educationally disadvantaged children, Glazer[1] indicated that the history and social research convinced him that there are deep and enduring differences between various ethnic groups, in their vocabulary ability as they related to educational achievement in reading and in the broader cultural characteristics in which these differences are rooted. He notes that these differences cannot be simply associated with the immediate conditions as being those of levels of poverty and exploitation, or prejudice and discrimination.

Templin[2] found a significant difference between children of upper and lower socioeconomic groups on tests of articulation, the difference being in favor of the higher socioeconomic group. Her data indicated that children of the lower socioeconomic groups take about one year longer to reach essentially mature articulation than do those of the upper group.

Cohen[3] stated that educationally disadvantaged children cannot succeed as easily in a verbal culture when they must function as if they were nonverbal. They cannot achieve optimally in a school program that assumes patterns of auditory development that they have not yet acquired. When these cultural deprivations are accentuated by concomitant or resultant factors of oral language patterns, economic oppression, and racial prejudice, the culturally different

---

[1] N. Glazer. "Ethnic Groups and Education: Towards the Tolerance of Difference," The Journal of Negro Education, 1969, 38, 187-195.

[2] Mildred C. Templin. "Norms on Screening Test of Articulation for Ages Three Through Eight," Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders, Vol. 18, December, 1963, pp. 323-331.

[3] S. Alan Cohen. Teach Them All to Read. N.Y., N.Y.: Random House, Inc., 1969, p. 18.

children of lower socioeconomic minorities operate at a severe disadvantage.

Currently, children's oral language development is the object of many research studies. It is known that children who will progress well in reading will enter the third grade with the ability to use and respond to oral language. This ability is apparently the result of listening to and speaking the language used within the family, school, and neighborhood.[1]

However, Giles[2], has noted that there is a rather large group of children who cannot progress well in reading. These are the educationally disadvantaged children for whom compensatory education programs are designed. There are several studies which suggests children from educationally disadvantaged backgrounds are less able to make use of conventional verbal symbols in representing and interpreting their feelings, their experiences, and the objects in their environment. It is important to note that the apparent deficiency is in the use of such conventional verbal symbols. Research has left little doubt that an environment meager in stimulation, and often damaging in terms of emotional well-being, can slow or (twist) a child's development, including oral language development.

The literature is replete with research dealing with the relationships between oral language and reading. A review of the literature revealed that there is a relationship between oral language and reading, but many methods for teaching reading do not

---

[1]Daniel A. Artie and Douglas E. Giles, A Comparison of the Oral Language Development of Head Start Pupils with Non-Head Start Pupils. ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 010 848.

[2]Ibid. p. 6.

adequately complement this relationship. A large group of children continues to have difficulty in learning to read.

Rationale of the Study. In the review of the literature, there were no findings of research studies dealing with third grade educationally disadvantaged students in a comparison of oral vocabulary and reading vocabulary. According to Russell[1], the reading vocabulary will surpass the speaking vocabulary in the fourth and fifth grades for those children progressing well in reading. When achievement scores in reading were compared in a study of the basal reader, individualized instruction, and language experience approaches in San Diego County, California, the language experience approach was found to be as effective as the other two approaches in the primary grades.[2] In the National First Grade Studies, the language experience approach was found to be an effective means of teaching beginning reading.[3]

Staffer and Hammond found that the pupils taught with the language experience approach developed greater facility in written communication.[4] Kendrick and Bennett also found the language

---

[1] David H. Russell, Children Learn to Read (Boston: Ginn and Co., 1961), p. 266.

[2] R. V. Allen, "More Ways than One," Childhood Education, XXXVIII, (Nov., 1961), p. 108-111.

[3] Allen, p. 112.

[4] Russell G. Staffer and W. Dorsey Hammond, "The Effectiveness of Language Arts and Basic Reader Approaches to First Grade Reading Instruction," The Reading Teacher, XX (May, 1967), 740-746.

experience approach to be effective through the second grade.[1] Vilsek, Cleland, and Bilka noted that pupils taught with the language experience approach through the second grade could demonstrate superiority in comprehension of concepts and in reading in the content areas of science, social studies and arithmetic. They felt that the diversity of reading diets probably contributed to this superiority.[2]

I. THE STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problems with which this study was concerned are:

1. Will significant differences occur between the reading vocabulary scores and oral vocabulary scores of third grade educationally disadvantaged students when scores are compared?

2. Will significant differences exist between the oral vocabulary facility and ethnic origin of third grade educationally disadvantaged?

3. Will significant differences exist between the oral vocabulary facility and socioeconomic status of third grade educationally disadvantaged?

Significance of the problem. Jaggars and Cullinan[3] noted

---

[1]William M. Kendrick and Clayton L. Bennett, "A Comparative Study of Two First Grade Language Arts Programs - Extended into Second Grades," The Reading Teacher, XX (May, 1967), 747-755.

[2]Elain C. Vilsek, Donald L. Cleland, and Loisanne Bilka, "Coordinating and Integrating Language Arts Instruction," The Reading Teacher, XXI (October, 1967), p. 10.

[3]Angela M. Jaggar and Bernice E. Cullinan, "Relating Reading to Language in Initial Reading Instruction," Black Dialects and Reading. National Council of Teachers (Urbana, Illinois: ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, 1974), p. 13.

that there is a relationship between oral language and reading, but many approaches and methods for teaching reading do not adequately complement this relationship. Even with the development of compensatory programs and many new materials and approaches, large groups of children continue to have difficulty in learning to read. Children whose language differs from those for whom conventional reading materials were developed present a unique challenge. The solutions to the problems associated with teaching them to read lie in a re-examination of the basic relationship between reading and language.

Attitudes, motivation, and developmental level all affect the child's success in learning to read. But the key factor for education lies in developing approaches that exploit what is known about the nature of the reading process and the role of the child's language in that process. According to Jaggar[1], no complete theory of reading yet explicates the relationship between oral language and learning to read, but there are sufficient theoretical formulations and empirical data to establish some guidelines for teachers in the development of reading programs appropriate for children.

Strickland noted that language competence is a major factor in learning to read. This premise is supported by numerous studies that show a strong relationship between language development and reading achievement. Research data show that children whose language reflects well-developed sentence structure and vocabulary are the ones who are proficient in reading. The issue that arises is

---

[1]Jaggar p. 14.

what is meant by language competence and, most particularly, to what extent must a child be competent in language in order to learn to read. Because measures of vocabulary and grammatical complexity have been based on standard English norms, an illogical jump in reasoning has led many people to assume that educationally disadvantaged children who use vocabulary and grammatical structures different from the standard English norms are less competent in language, and that this is the cause of their poorer reading performance. Strickland indicated that the educationally disadvantaged child learns the basic vocabulary, sound system, and grammar of his social environs just like any other child. Evidence is mounting that the educationally disadvantaged English speaker is also a competent user of language---but a competent user of a different variety of language. If all children, then, are competent users of language, it is reasonable to assume, that by school age, children's language is adequate for learning to read.[1]

Goodman described the reading process as a language based process. Goodman[2] noted that the reader uses his stored knowledge of spoken language to process the phonological, morphological, and syntactic components in the written language into meaningful messages.

---

[1]Ruth G. Strickland. The Language of Elementary School Children: Its Relationship to the Language of Reading Textbooks and the Quality of Reading of Selected Children, Bulletin of the School of Education, 38: 4, Bloomington: Indiana University, July 1962.

[2]Kenneth S. Goodman. "Dialect Barriers to Reading Comprehension," Elementary English 42: (Dec., 1965), 853-860.

In beginning reading, as the child decodes the written language into some form of what Carroll calls "covert speech," he is searching for correspondences between the language he has just deciphered and the language already in his oral speech system. According to Goodman, if the child finds correspondence, then comprehension results, as long as the thoughts conveyed are within the conceptual experience of the child. The fact that language, as a system, underlies both speech and writing makes it possible to communicate through printed symbols.

Fries[1] noted that learning to read will be facilitated by the extent to which the written language corresponds to the child's spoken language. He pointed out that for the native speaker, the process of learning to read:

> is not the learning of a new language code; it is not the learning of a new or different set of language signals. It is not the learning of new grammatical structures. These are all matters of the language signals which he has on the whole already learned so well that he is not conscious of their use.

Fries[2] concluded that reading is rather the application of the child's (unconscious) knowledge of his language code to the deciphering of the graphic symbolization of language. Since reading is in large measure dependent upon the child's knowledge of the underlying structure of his oral language, problems in decoding and comprehending may arise for any child if the language structure

---

[1]Charles Carpenter Fries. Linguistics and Reading, New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1962. p. 83.

[2]Ibid. p. 97.

of the reading material differs to any great degree from the structure of his native language.

Ruddell[1] noted that the structure of the child's language, then, is an important variable in reading comprehension. He has shown, for example, that reading comprehension is higher for materials written in language patterns similar to the child's oral patterns than for materials written in less frequently used oral patterns. Both conclude that reading comprehension is a function of the similarity between oral and written patterns of language.

In beginning reading, Tatham found that it is important to use written material that corresponds closely to the child's oral language. She noted that although the mature reader can adapt to reading materials which are structurally different from his oral language, the problems that the beginning reader must grasp are that written language is a representation of spoken language and that reading is a matter of recoding the written symbols into the kind of message usually conveyed by the oral form of the language. Tatham found that although the standard English speaking children learn to read from materials that language, in general she found a reasonably close correspondence in conventional initial reading materials.[2]

---

[1]Robert B. Ruddell. "The Effect of Oral and Written Patterns of Language Structure on Reading Comprehension," The Reading Teacher 18: (January, 1965), 270-275.

[2]Susan Masland Tatham. "Reading Comprehension of Materials Written with Selected Oral Language: A Study at Grades Two and Four" Reading Research Quarterly 5: (Spring, 1970), 402-426.

Tatham[1] concluded that to the extent the educationally disadvantaged English speaking child's language differs further from the conventional initial reading materials, he will be at a further disadvantage in the recoding process. The teacher who understands the structures underlying the educationally disadvantaged child and standard English can recognize whatever receptive compentence the student demonstrates for standard English structures. The instructor guides the child in his oral reading, even in educationally disadvantaged English forms. He can display how the student grasped the meaning by making the correspondence between his own speech forms and the written standard English forms. According to Tatham, this does not alter the principle that the closer initial reading materials are to the child's oral language the more the task of learning to read will be facilitated for the child.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of the study were:

1. To contribute knowledge in the area of reading research related to third grade educationally disadvantaged students.

2. To compare the degree of relationship between the oral vocabulary and reading vocabulary scores of third grade educationally disadvantaged students.

3. To determine if a significant relationship exists between:

   a. students' oral vocabulary scores and reading vocabulary scores.

   b. students' oral vocabulary scores and ethnic origin.

   c. students' oral vocabulary scores and socioeconomic status.

---

[1] Tatham p. 425.

Statement of the Null Hypotheses. The following null hypotheses were tested in the study:

Ho_1 There is no relationship between the oral vocabulary of third grade educationally disadvantaged students as measured by the Dailey Language Facility Test and that student's reading vocabulary as measured by the Gates McGinitie Reading Test.

Ho_2 There is no difference in the oral vocabulary as measured by the Dailey Language Facility Test of high and low socioeconomic third grade educationally disadvantaged students.

Ho_3 There is no difference in the oral vocabulary of third grade educationally disadvantaged students as measured by the Dailey Language Facility Test of Black students and Caucasian students.

Ho_4 There is no difference in the oral vocabulary as measured by the Dailey Language Facility Test of third grade educationally disadvantaged Black students and third grade educationally disadvantaged students of Native American and/or Chicano heritage.

Ho_5 There is no difference in the oral vocabulary as measured by the Dailey Language Facility Test of third grade educationally disadvantaged Caucasian students and of third grade educationally disadvantaged Native American and/or Chicano heritage.

Ho_6 There is no interaction of socioeconomic status and ethnic background on third grade educationally disadvantaged student's oral language as measured by the Dailey Language Facility Test.

II. DEFINITION OF TERMS

1. A.F.D.C. - A child for which welfare aid is drawn under Title IV of the Social Security Act.[1]

2. Disadvantaged Child - One who is not prepared to cope with the middle class public school curriculum.

---

[1]Oklahoma State Department of Education, Title I Regulations and Guidelines for Local Educational Agencies: 1975-76, p. 1.

3. Educationally Disadvantaged Child - One who scores at the forty percentile or below on a standardized achievement test or whose achievement level is one year or more below grade expectation.
4. Ethnic Origin - Designating of any nationality, as distinguished by customs and characteristics of language.
5. Language Experience - Integrates the teaching of reading with the other language arts as children listen, speak, write, and read about their personal experiences and ideas.
6. Language Facility - The ability to use oral language independently of vocabulary, information, pronunciation and grammar.
7. Language Patterns - The oral speech of a child that determines the content.
8. Middle Class - The social class between the aristocracy or very wealthy and the proletariat.
9. Orshanksy Index - Uses the A.F.D.C., United States Census, and free lunch program data to determine poverty mean.
10. Socioeconomic Status - A level indicative of the social and economic achievement of individuals or groups determined by a composite score on Hollingshead's Two Factor Index of Social Position.[1]
11. Title I School - A project set forth for educationally and socially disadvantaged children residing in a project area composed

---

[1]Wesley Leon Bewley, "The Effects of Family Structure on Socioeconomic Status, and Pupil Gender Upon Children's Reading Readiness Scores" (Doctoral dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1975).

of school attendance areas having a high concentration of children from low income families.[1]

12. U.S. Census - An official enumeration of the population of the United States with details as to age, sex, and marital status.[2]

Assumptions

1. The scores obtained on the Metropolitan Achievement Test were assumed to be valid for each student.

2. The scores obtained on the Gates McGinitie Reading Test were assumed to be valid for each student.

3. The scores obtained on the Dailey Language Facility Test were assumed to be a valid indicator.

4. The scores obtained on the Two Factor Index of Social Position were assumed to be valid indicators of socioeconomic status.

5. The evaluation and generalizations derived from this study were assumed to be valid only when applied to the school district included in the study or to school districts with populations compatable.

III. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Several limitations were considered when examining the data contained in this study.

---

[1] Oklahoma State Department of Education, Title I Regulations and Guidelines for Local Educational Agencies: 1975-76, p. 4.

[2] U.S. Bureau of Census, Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1970, p. 82.

1. The students were limited to two hundred and three educationally disadvantaged third grade students with a chronological age of eight or nine.

2. The students were limited to the Oklahoma City Public System District I-89. The racial composition was Black, White, American Indian and Chicano.

3. The Study was limited to schools which were designated as Title I buildings during the school year 1976-77.

4. The study was limited by reliability and validity of instruments used.

5. The Metropolitan Achievement Test was used as a screening device.

6. The Dailey Language Facility Test was used to measure the oral vocabulary.

7. The Gates MacGinitie Test was used to measure the reading vocabulary.

8. Hollingshead's Two Factor Index of Social Position was used to measure the socioeconomic status.

9. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and the multiple Analysis of Variance were used to test the hypotheses in the study.

IV. ORGANIZATION OF THE DISSERTATION

A review of the literature pertinent to this study is included in Chapter II.

A review of the related literature as it relates to oral language facility and reading ability consisted of studies which involved various types of vocabulary, language development, and effects

of social class and race on children's language, development, and socioeconomic status.

Specific topics included are:

1. Research studies related to oral language facility and reading ability.

2. Types of vocabulary.

3. Language development: general.

4. Language development: universal aspects and individual variation.

5. Vocabulary development in the language experience approach.

6. Description of the disadvantaged child.

7. Some effects of social class and race on children's language.

8. Socioeconomic status vs. academic achievement.

Chapter III presents the design and procedures of the study. Specific topics include:

1. Population and Sample.

2. Procedure.

3. Instruments Utilized.

4. Statistical Procedure.

5. Summary.

Chapter IV presents the analysis of data which includes a summary of findings.

Chapter V is concerned with the summary, conclusions, and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The problem of this study as stated in Chapter I, was to determine whether there were significant differences in the relationship between the student's oral vocabulary to that student's reading vocabulary, and the differences between oral vocabularies of high and low socioeconomic students and students of different ethnic backgrounds of educationally disadvantaged students.

RELATED RESEARCH STUDIES

The related research studies reviewed consist of the following areas: (1) Research studies related to oral language facility and reading ability, (2) Types of vocabulary, (3) Language development: General, (4) Language development: Universal Aspects and Individual Variation, (5) Vocabulary development in the language experience approach, (6) Description of the disadvantaged child, (7) Some effects of social class and race on children's language, and (8) Socioeconomic status vs. academic achievement.

I. RESEARCH STUDIES RELATED TO ORAL LANGUAGE FACILITY AND READING ABILITY

Those investigators who have found a relationship between oral language and reading include, among others, Loban, Bougere, and Brittain. Each attempted to measure various aspects of oral language performance and compare their findings to reading success.

Each investigation reported some correlation. For example, Bougere[1] looked at aspects of oral language to determine their predictive power on children's reading achievement at the end of first grade. While she found that none of her measures of oral language maturity could substantially predict reading success, she did discern that the Metropolitan Reading Readiness Test's predictive power could be increased by adding oral language factors of vocabulary range and of syntactic maturity.

Brittain[2] conducted a more restricted investigation of the relationship between reading success and language control. Using a revision of Berko's test of morphology (studying the use of inflectional endings), she compared these scores with reading achievement on a standardized test. A positive relationship was reported for both first and second grade subjects.

Comparing the high and low extremes of language proficiency in a longitudinal study beginning with kindergarten children, Loban[3] found a significant difference in factor of the high language ability group in all six grade levels studied. The two groups were selected on the basis of a vocabulary component test and teacher ratings of language ability. He concluded that those

---

[1] M. B. Bougere. Factors in Oral Language Related to First Grade Achievement. Chicago, Ill.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 069 553, 1968.

[2] M. M. Brittain. "Inflectional Performance and Early Reading Achievement." Reading Research Quarterly, Vol. 8 (Fall 1970), pp. 34-48.

[3] W. D. Loban. The Language of Elementary School Children. NCTE Research Reports, Vol. 1. Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963.

children who rank high in general language ability, rank high in reading. Those who rank low in general language ability, rank low in reading.

These studies support, although not directly, the idea that greater linguistic sophistication facilitates reading achievement. Recent investigations of the reading process applying psycholinguistic analyses indicate that children learn to read in ways similar to those in which they acquire oral language. Goodman[1] described reading as a "psycholinguistic guessing game" in which the reader predicts which words will occur on the basis of clues provided in the text and his or her own knowledge about the language system. With this interrelationship in mind, oral language ability may be considered a basis for developing reading skills.

II. TYPES OF VOCABULARY

In discussing children's vocabularies, it is again necessary to look at the four dimensions of the language arts. According to Russell, children have more than one type of vocabulary. A child's listening vocabulary is composed of those words which he can understand when others use them although he may not use them in his own speech or recognize them in print. A child has a speaking vocabulary which is composed of those words which he can use in his oral language. As a child learns to read, he associates a meaning with the printed form. As a child learns to write and spell, he acquires a writing vocabulary. In the early elementary years the listening

---

[1] K. S. Goodman. "Reading: A Psycholinguistic Guessing Game." Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading, R. Ruddell and H. Singer, Eds., (Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1970), pp. 250-71.

vocabulary is the largest, the speaking vocabulary is the next, then reading, then the writing vocabulary last.[1]

In the language experience approach, the listening, speaking, reading, and writing vocabularies are extended through activities with group and individual word blanks, through literature experiences, and through writing and speaking activities. In the elementary school concern with reading and writing has overshadowed the teaching of listening and speaking. In vocabulary instruction, stress must be placed on listening and speaking as well as on written language.

III. LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT: GENERAL

Cohan[2] investigated the influence of reading literature to children; however, she was interested in the effect of this program on vocabulary and reading achievement, rather than on a dialect addition. A carefully selected group of children's literature was divided into three levels of difficulty so participating teachers could begin with simpler stories. A manual containing suggested activities to accompany each selection and story reading techniques was distributed to each teacher. These activities included discussion, dramatization, additional related reading, extending illustrative material, children's own illustrations, explanations by the teacher of words and references, and possible field trips or construction experiences.

---

[1]David H. Russell, Children Learn to Read (Boston: Ginn and Co., 1961), p. 266.

[2]D. Cohan, "Effect of Literature on Vocabulary and Reading." Elementary English, Vol. 45 (1968), pp. 209-13.

When compared with a control group receiving no treatment effects the subjects of the experimental literature program made highly significant gains in vocabulary, word recognition, and reading comprehension. The quality of vocabulary, as measured by level of difficulty on the Rinsland list, came near but did not reach significance.

The combined evidence of Cohen's and Strickland's research provided a strong impetus to bring literature to children as an aid to their language growth. Further support may be drawn from Chomsky's[1] report. She found a positive relationship between a child's linguistic stage and his or her score on Huck's Taking Inventory of Children's Literary Background. She concluded, "exposure to the more complex language available from reading does seem to be congruent with increased knowledge of the language."

Other sources for language input may be derived from adult contact in the form of conversations. Cazden[2] attempted to determine which type of adult response assisted language development. One group of children received deliberate expansions of their speech. Both experimental treatments resulted in significant growth when compared to the control group. However, extensions proved more beneficial than expansions.

---

[1] C. Chomsky, "Stages in Language Development and Reading Exposure." Harvard Educational Review, Vol. 42 (Feb. 1972), pp. 1-33.

[2] C. B. Cazden. Child Language and Education. N.Y., N.Y.: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1972, pp. 16-24.

IV. LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

UNIVERSAL ASPECTS AND INDIVIDUAL VARIATION

Nelson[1] noted that universal aspects of language development and individual variations of language have been observed at the very earliest stages of development. It is the ages at which children begin to use recognizable words and structures varies widely. According to Nelson, there is also some evidence that the surface form of these early structures can vary although these differences have not been carefully documented and described. Nelson[2] indicated that some children have been found to begin language production by primarily using single words that are clearly articulated while others use phrases that are difficult to comprehend.

In addition, the function of the language usage appears to be different from the two groups. The single word producers appear to use language to name things in the environment while the latter group uses language to express needs and feelings. In analyzing the data in this study, it appears that the differences found may be due to the birth order of the child or differences in the linguistic styles of the mothers in their verbal interactions with their children. These differences in mother's styles may be due to the fact that the child is a first or latter child or to the mother's level of education. In any case, how these differences in the earliest productions of language can effect the course of later development is not clear. Both groups of

---

[1]Katherine Nelson. Presyntactical Strategies for Learning to Talk. Unpublished Paper presented at Biennial Meeting, Society for Research in Child Development, Minn., Minn., 1971.

[2]Ibid. pp. 5-9.

children use language for both functions. They differ only in proportion of usage. An intriguing possibility is that these differences are early indicators of different conceptualizations about the use of language. These conceptualizations could, logically, strongly influence the course of later development, and could do so especially in those situations where language usage is removed from the usual direct speaker-listener communication as it is in reading.[1]

Bloom[2] reported that despite these variations in the phonological form and use of early utterances, the sequence of development of structures that has been found reflects both the universal functions of language and the child's ability to capture the universals in his language use. At the very earliest stages of development, when he is primarily producing one word utterances, the child uses language in accompaniment to an action in a particular situation to declare, either descriptively or emphatically, to demand and to question. The situation and action help to make clear the meaning of these utterances and, in addition, he uses a purely linguistic device, intonation and stress which also clarifies the meaning of these utterances. He may be describing relationships in these one word utterances, but the listener must rely on the situation to interpret the relationship the child wishes to express.

---

[1]Nelson pp. 14 - 16.

[2]Lois Bloom. Language Development: Form and Function in Emerging Grammars. (Cambridge: M.T.T. Press, 1970), p. 37.

Menyuk[1] found that when a child achieves the two word utterance, he can describe relationships more precisely by using certain lexical items in a particular order and by also using intonation and stress. He not only has a "topic" of conversation but he also has a "comment" and this "comment" modifies the "topic."

Hockett[2] contended that several factors about these early developments should be noted. First, the child uses some linguistic conventions, intonation and stress, in addition to content words to define meaning even at a very early stage. Second, the meanings he conveys fulfill some basic functions of language: to declare, to question and to demand. Third, each convention he adds allows the child to convey meanings to his utterances that are increasingly precise and the child does this with increasing independence from the situation per-se. That is, those aspects of human language which may make it unique to talk about things that are displaced in time and space, to hypothesize, and to invent are increasingly evident in children's utterances.

Brown and Hanlon[3] observed that from the stage at which the child is using one and two word utterances until he reaches some

---

[1]Paula Menyuk. Aspects of Language Acquisition and Implications for Later Language Development. Paper presented at Curriculum office Conference on Primary Schools English, Melbourne, Australia, August 30-Sept. 3, 1971, Published in English in Australia, No. 19, Feb., 1972.

[2]Charles F. Hockett. The Problems of Universals in Language. In J. Greenberg (Ed.) Universal Language, (Cambridge M.T.T. Press, 1963), p. 78.

[3]R. Brown and C. Hanlon. Deviational Complexity and Order of Acquisition in Child Speech. Paper presented at Carnegie-Mellon Symposium on Cognitive Psychology, Pittsburgh, 1968.

leveling off stage of grammatical development he continues to add structures to his grammar. The order in which the child adds these structures is dependent on several factors. Structures which involve the addition of items are acquired before those which involve the movement of items. Thus, for example, negative structure rules are used before question structure rules. Structures which are simpler in derivation are acquired before those that are more complex. Thus, for example, negative sentences are used in their full grammatical form before negative question sentences.

Cazden[1] found that rules which operate on a small domain are acquired before those which operate on a large domain. Thus, number agreement is evidenced within a noun phrase before it is evidenced within sentences, and in the latter before it is evidenced across sentences. Rules which describe concrete relationships are acquired before those which describe abstract relationships. Thus, for example, prepositional phrases which describe place are used before those which describe time. Increasing complexity or sophistication in language production cannot be merely equated with increasing sentence length or gross language output, although, both, on the average, increase with age during the preschool period. It can be observed, even in the few instances given, that complexity is a multi-faceted influence on the sequence of acquisition of the grammar of the language. It consists of types of operations required, number of operations required, the domain of the application of rules and the concreteness of relationships

---

[1]Courtney Cazden. "The Acquisition of Noun and Verb Inflections." Child Development, 39, 43 - 448, 1968.

expressed by structures. These facets overlap so that several are operating simultaneously.

Cazden pointed out that the child's ability to add structures to his grammar indicates that he is able to make generalizations about the language he hears, abstract the parameters of these generalizations and store these in memory as structural descriptions or rules. For example, he makes generalizations about what composes a negative, or imperative or declarative, or question sentence. At different stages of development he makes different generalizations about the composition of these sentence types. The generalizations he does make are dependent on both those aspects which are most important and salient to him and the level of analysis he can achieve because of the limitations of his own memory and cognitive capacities.[1]

Slobin[2] concluded that it is the case that the sequence of acquisition of various types of structural descriptions is very similar for children within the same language community during these early stages of development. In so far as the data is available it also appears to be similar for children from widely different language communities, although, probably very similar cultures.

Greenberg[3] concluded that it would be reasonable to find universal aspects in this early developmental period since children

---

[1] Cazden pp. 452-53.

[2] D. I. Slobin. Grammatical Development in Several Languages with Special Attention to Soviet Research. In Beurer and W. Weksel (Eds.) (Cambridge, M.T.T., Press, 1968), p. 24.

[3] Joseph Greenberg. (Ed.) Universal of Language. (Cambridge, M.T.T., Press, 1963), pp. 42-44.

do not differ widely in their neurophysiological capacities if they are physically and intellectually normal, since there are universal categories and relationships which are expressed in many languages, and since the uses of language during this early period seem to be quite similar for children from similar cultures.

Greenberg[1] noted that by the time the child enters school he has a vocabulary of two to three thousand words or more. He uses all the major syntactic categories of sentence, subject and predicate, verb, noun, pronoun, determiner, adjective, adverb and preposition. He can generate declarative, imperative, negative and question sentence types and he can generate them in the active and passive. He uses markers of number, place, time, manner and possession. He can conjoin and embed sentences and thus, theoretically has achieved the ability to create indefinitely long sentences. He can express the logical notions of actor-action-object, of negative, of conjunction, of cause and effect and of equality. Although this has been accomplished by the end of the pre-school period, the child continues to develop his linguistic skills and he does so for some time to come. These further developments are important because they lead to much greater precision in language use than was achieved during the early stages of development, and they allow the child to hypothesize and conceptualize about his experiences in a much more complete manner than he did previously.

---

[1]Ibid. p. 20.

Greenberg[1] noted that although the child at the end of the pre-school period can generate new sentences by embedding one into the other, the contexts and forms in which he does this are quite limited. He embeds sentences with only certain verbs and only at the end of other sentences. For example, he produces sentences such as "The old man was mean and he hit the boy" but not sentences such as "The mean old man hit the boy." His tense markers are limited and he rarely expands the verb. For example, he produces "I was playing" but not "I have been playing." He persists in trying to maintain the subject + verb + object order, and therefore, does not use structures which disturb this order or intervene for too great a length of time between the occurrence of the subject and the verb.

Greenberg[2] found that the most important linguistic development from kindergarten on is the acquisition of more and more complete descriptions of relationships within and between sentences. These more complex descriptions require the addition of properties to the definition of words and these properties are syntactic and semantic. At the kindergarten stage the child's knowledge of these properties become more marked during the later stages of this early development.

Shipley, Smith, and Gleitman[2] found that during the developmental period from about eighteen months to two years the child

---

[1]Ibid. p. 29.

[2]Ibid. p. 31.

[3]E. F. Shipley, C. S. Smith, and L. R. Gleitman. A Study in the Acquisition of Language. ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 063 580.

radically alters the content of his grammar as evidenced by his language production. The nature of his analysis of the linguistic data he hears seems to change also, although there is a gread deal about the structures in the language that he appears to understand before he produces them in his own sentences. The exact differences between comprehension and production at various stages of development have not been described. When the child is producing one and two word utterances there is some indication that he only comprehends the meaning of the words and relationships expressed in his own utterances.

According to Shipley, Smith, and Gleitman, comprehension and production are closely related. However, the more advanced children at this same early stage of development (those producing two and three rather than one and two word utterances) can comprehend sentences that are more complex than those they produce.[1]

Perhaps it is the case that those children who initially exhibit greater distance between what they produce and what they understand continue to do so at an ever increasing rate as they mature because they are capable of a deep analysis of the structure of a sentence as compared to those children whose comprehension and production of structures are more closely tied together. Thus, Shipley, Smith, and Gleitman noted that the former children more quickly acquire more complicated structures. According to them, this is a very speculative comment, and there is at present, no data to support it. Nevertheless, the reseachers contend that although the sequence of acquisition is similar for children within

---

[1] Ibid.

the same linguistic community, different children acquire structures at different rates.

O'Donnell, Griffin, and Norris suggested that it is possible, also, that different children approach asymptote in terms of acquisition of new structures at different levels of analysis of the structure of sentences. By the time the child enters kindergarten he seems to understand some quite complicated structures that he never uses or only uses rarely, but there are limits to this understanding as well as limits to the structure of utterances that are produced. Structures which involve transformational operations that disturb the subject-verb-object order are difficult for him to interpret and these structures continue to be difficult for some time. It is the case that the child entering kindergarten produces conjoined sentences that express logical relationships, but he comprehends and uses conjunctions which do not place many restrictions on conjoined elements ("and") or those which relfect concrete cause and effect relationships ("because"). He rarely uses and doesn't completely comprehend the conditional ("if," "so") or antithetic relationships ("but").[1]

Katz and Brent reported that children express and understand casual relationships before the temporal ("when" and "while"), the temporal simultaneous before the temporal sequential (before and after), and the temporal relationships before the antithetic. At a still later stage of development he comprehends some structures in which the subject is separated from the verb by the object ("I

---

[1]R. C. O'Donnel, W. J. Griffin, and R. C. Norris. Syntax of Kindergarten and Elementary School Children. Champaign, Ill: National Council of Teachers of English, Research Report No. 8, 1967.

promised him to go"), but different children vary widely in this ability perhaps depending on their cognitive development and language experience.[1]

Kohlberg and Gilligan contend that it is the case that some structures of this type are not comprehended by adults in the community. Coincidentally, it has been found that almost fifty percent of American adults never reach adolescence in the Piagetian cognitive sense. Thus, different structures may be "available" to different children at various stages of development, and also, there are some structures that may never become available to certain children in their sentence analyses.[2]

It is possible that individual differences in the level of language analysis that is achieved at the time of entering school may result in differences in performance in the acquisition of reading and writing skills. Although there is no conclusive data which indicates that this is so, it intuitively seems to be a logical assumption. There are, after all, a great many similarities between the two language systems to be acquired not only in that there are rules for sentence formation which are similar in both systems, but also, in that acquisition of the two language systems both require the capacity to generalize, abstract and store information that is hierarchically structured as sentence, phrase, word and segment. The fact that no data is available on the relationship between these two processes may be due to the ways in which

---

[1]E. W. Katz and S. B. Brent. Understanding Connectives. J. of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 7, 501-509, 1968.

[2]L. Kohlberg and C. Gilligan. The Adolescent as a Philosopher: The Discovery of the Self in a Post Conventional World. Doedalus, 100, 1051 1086, 1971.

language development has been measured in the studies that have been attempted to examine these relationships rather than to there being no correlation between these two kinds of language performance.

Research studies pertaining to Language Development Universal Aspects and individual variation, noted that there are both universal trends and individual variations that can be observed in the child's acquisition of language. The universal trends reveal themselves as fairly fixed sequences in the acquisition of basic structures of the language. They are probably the product of the constraints imposed by maturation of the neurophysiological and cognitive capacities of the child, the functions of language, and the structure of the system he is acquiring. The individual variations reveal themselves as differences in the rate at which various structures are acquired by children and the different levels of analysis of the language that are reached. These differences are probably due to particular language experiences and/or intellectual capacities.

V. VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT IN THE LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE APPROACH

Through the language that was taught, children are able to understand and express verbally and in writing concepts and relations that were beyond the purview of the conventional primary curriculum. This acceleration is made possible, according to the publishers, through the intensive use of a "high-utility vocabulary." DeBoer found that the total vocabulary for the first three grades consists of one thousand words. The basic lists is called a "defining

vocabulary" a set of highly resourceful words that could be used to explain other words and to express concepts in many more areas of human endeavor than is possible with a frequency vocabulary lists of the same length. This functional quality has made it possible for children to master the spelling and syntax of a segment of the English language which they can use to express clearly and simply some very significant ideas and relations in mathematics, science, and literature.[1]

Extending children's word meanings presents a major focus on instruction in developing the facility to communicate in both spoken and written language. The goals of such instruments are to increase the stock of words used by individuals in their listening, speaking, reading, and writing, to promote awareness of fine shades of meaning, and to develop an attitude of interest in words.[2]

Applegate reported the results of these goals in an anecdote about a fourth grader who told his teacher: "Why, we don't have to be just mad anymore. We've learned new words, and now we can be angry, frustrated, irritated, or furious." [3]

---

[1]John J. DeBoer and Martha Dallmann, The Teaching of Reading, (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1970), p. 566.

[2]Ibid. p. 568.

[3]Mauree Applegate, Easy in English (Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson and Company, 1962), p. 29.

Word knowledge has been found to be the most significant factors in reading comprehension. Whereas, a limited vocabulary presents an obstacle to effective comprehension in reading.[1]

The more fluent a child is in oral vocabulary, the greater his resources for associating meaning with printed words. Davis reported that one of the major obligations in teaching comprehension is to make pupils familiar with the meanings of as many words as possible.[2] However, word study should be done in meaningful context within sentence patterns. The language experience approach provides this meaningful context.

In building children's vocabularies, attention must be directed to increasing each of the four types of vocabularies (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). Increased understanding of words in one facet of the language arts should add to understanding in the other facets. In fact, the language experience approach with its integration of the expressive and receptive facets of language provides experiences which contribute to vocabulary development in all areas.

A basic distinction of vocabulary study in the language experience approach is that the language study stems from the childrens oral and written language expression. In other words, instead of starting with a list of words or passages from language arts textbooks as examples for study, the words selected originate in the children's speech, in their stories, and in their word blanks.

---

[1] Frederick Davis, "Research in Comprehension in Reading," Reading Research Quarterly, III. (Sm., 1968), p. 508.

[2] Davis, p. 543.

Word power will grow as children encounter situations in which they need to communicate. In word study, as in all aspects of language experience learning, practical application is the base from which language develops. Holt stated that, "What we have to recognize is that it is the efforts to use words well, to say what he wants to say, to people whom he trusts, and wants to reach and move, that alone will teach a young person to use words better."[1]

Research supported the importance of personal meaning and motivation in vocabulary learning. Olson and Pau[2] found that children required significantly fewer trials to learn highly emotional words than were required to learn words without strong emotional association.

Ashton-Warner[3] who achieved phenomenal success in working with Mauri children of New Zealand called her work with reading vocabulary "Key Vocabulary" as she made use of personal files. She communicates the necessity for personal involvement in the learning as she describes the child who stalled for months on words, come, look, and then learned police, butcher knife, kill, goal, hand, and fire engine in four minutes in response to the question of what he feared. The words he wanted to learn were used to teach him to read.

---

[1] John Holt, "Introduction" in Herbert Kohl, Teaching the "Unteachable" (New York: The New York Review, 1966), p. 9

[2] David R. Olson and A. S. Pau, "Emotionally Loaded Words and the Acquisition of a Sight Vocabulary," Journal of Educational Psychology, LVII, (June, 1966), 174-178.

[3] Ashton-Warner, Teacher (New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 1966), p. 43.

Word study should deal with words used in contextual settings. As children discuss multiple meanings, it is easy to illustrate that the exact meaning of a word cannot be determined apart from the context in which it is used. Developing an awareness of fine shades of meaning and selecting the most appropriate word for the meaning intended must be fostered.[1]

Some meanings can be expressed by more than one word. Children should be alerted to synonyms as one means of increasing word power. As children work with their individual word boxes and as a group compiles class word blanks, there will be many examples of synonyms.[2]

In English, there are specific functions of words in the syntactical patterns of the language. Lefevre identifies two word classifications, full word and empty words. The full words are those words which have specific meaning or referents, while empty words are those without a concrete referent.[3]

According to Lefevre[4], children can understand the four word classes noun, verb, adjective, and adverb only as these classes occur in sentence patterns. Activities with sentence building and the discussion of sentences used in children's writing can illustrate language structure and word functions in sentence patterns. Effective use of vocabulary for the reception

---

[1]Ashton-Warner p. 47.

[2]Ashton-Warner p. 49.

[3]Carl A. Lefevre. Linguistics and the Teaching of Reading (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964), pp. 0-10.

[4]Ibid. p. 20.

and expression of ideas, not the terminology, is the purpose of vocabulary instruction.

Vocabulary development is important because it is closely related to mental development. A poor vocabulary means poor reading ability, and a rich vocabulary correlates highly with reading ability. The higher mental processes require a higher level of vocabulary.[1]

Lefevre indicated that the best readers in school are the persons with the best vocabulary. Correlation does not necessarily mean causation but if vocabulary is so critically important in reading, why isn't it emphasized throughout all the grades of the elementary and high school?[2]

Our language background, our language inheritance, our competencies arise more from influences outside the school than inside it. Getting students to read more widely is often negated by the fact that neither they nor their parents nor members of the community nor some of their teachers may actually be reading with breadth and depth.

Children can master a vocabulary of some three thousand words plus the grammar of the English language before they come to school. Typically, they had no formal teachers, these experiences are ones of unschooled personal encounters. There were no marks, no grades, no reprimands, no threats, no punishments. But there were rewards of approval, high praise, the chance of associating with other

---

[1] Lefevre p. 21.

[2] Lefevre p. 28.

children who could talk to you. There was only success, no expectation of failure.[1]

Dale emphasized the factors needed for intellectual and vocabulary development:

> A child's intellectual performance in or out of school may be viewed as the result of the interaction of five factors elemental skills, strategies of processing information, motives, standards, and sources of anxiety. The elemental skills involve a primary set of labeling symbols and rules. The child must have a minimal vocabulary level in order to understand speech, comprehend the written word, and report orally the product of his thinking. He must also have learned certain rules that represent combinations of symbols. Rules and vocabulary are the basic equipment for the production of thought.[2]

In vocabulary development consideration is given to little words as well as big words. Children not only learn individual words but develop a concept filing system with a name or label for many different kinds of files. For example, they have a mental file for the word or concept color, and they know that red, white, and blue are colors. They have another label called fruit and they know that pears and bananas are fruit. They know apple but may not know grapefruit, pancake but not waffle.

VI. DESCRIPTION OF THE DISADVANTAGED CHILD

The educationally disadvantaged child is one who is not prepared to cope with the middle class public school curriculum. The reasons for a child's lack of readiness to meet the demands of the public school curriculum are varied. However, a large percentage

---

[1]Lefevre p. 31.

[2]Edgar Dale. Vocabulary Development: A Neglected Phase of Reading Instruction. Paper Presented at Annual Convention of International Reading Assn. (17th, Detroit, May 10-13, ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 063 597, 1972).

of these children are rendered disadvantaged due to poverty. Their homes are generally overcrowded, restrictive of movement and privacy, understimulating in language, and lack adequate play equipment. Painter stated that children from this type of home frequently enters school without the prerequisites for academic learning. Such a handicap often leads to their placement in classes for the retarded or, if they remain in regular classes, a cumulative deficit occurs which is almost impossible to overcome.[1]

Kallan describes the disadvantaged child as follows:

> a) He is physical and visual rather than aural; b) He is content centered rather than form centered; c) He is externally oriented rather than introspective; d) He is problem centered rather than abstract centered; e) He is inductive rather than deductive; f) He is spatial rather than temporal.
>
> One out of every three children in our school system is classified as "culturally deprived," "disadvantated," or as a "retarded reader." A retarded reader is generally regarded as one who is reading a year or more below grade placement. The "culturally deprived" child is not culturally deprived. Rather he has been reared in a culture and society that is different from his middle class counterpart.
>
> He has a life style of his own. He is non-verbally oriented and motoric. He lives to survive for today and is quick to take advantage of an opportunity that will afford him pleasure. He is creative, in that he can figure out a way to "circumvent the law when the law is irrelevant to his life," or how to play basketball without the trappings of a gymnasiums. He operates spatially, through the physical world, but often does not tune in on temporal orientations, the abstract world.

---

[1] Genevieve Painter. Infant Education (San Rafael, California: Dimensions Publishing Company, 1968), p. 2.

> The child of poverty, of whom we are speaking, suffers from a distinct kind of stimuli privation. He lacks differentiation of visual stimuli in his world. His figure ground perceptions are inadequate. He keeps himself occupied and out of trouble by watching T.V. or listening to a blasting radio. He does not learn to relate to his environment through touching and manipulating his surroundings. Language, per se, is clouded through limited verbal communications with others. Sound is everywhere but auditory discrimination is inadequate. He has no play room, no picture books, few people who would talk to him, no one to read to him, no blocks or games that would normally stimulate his middle class counterpart. How can he have prepared himself for school? He does not recognize forms, shapes, sizes, contours, textures, etc. He is not deprived; in his case, again, this is a case of privation of selective stimuli.[1]

Nixon and Nixon described the disadvantaged child as having had less distinctive stimulation than the middle class child. They stated that the middle class mother has had more times to interact with her child with fewer distracting influences.[2]

Dechant listed the following characteristics of the disadvantaged child: 1) He lacks a proper self image; 2) He has little academic drive and he has a weak sense of the future; 3) He is deficient in language development, has a limited vocabulary, uses short sentences, his sentence structure is faulty, and he makes many grammatical errors; 4) He masters public language, but can't deal with formal or school language; 5) He has perceptual difficulties, he knows fewer objects, and he learns less from what he hears; 6) He needs a physical and concrete approach to learning.[3]

---

[1] Cynthia A. Kallan. "Privation or Deprivation: A Discussion on the Culturally Deprived Child," Journal of Learning Disabilities, 3: 26-29, 1970.

[2] Ruth H. Nixon and Clifford L. Nixon. Introduction to Early Childhood Education (New York: Random House, 1970), p. 160.

[3] Emerald Dechant. Diagnosis and Remediation of Reading Disability (West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Co., Inc., 1968), pp. 166-67.

A lack of verbal learning is the major deficit of the educationally disadvantaged child according to Bereiter and Engelmann. They pointed out that the educationally disadvantaged child's speech seems not to consist of distinct words, but rather whole phrases or sentences that function like "giant words." The "giant word syndrome" helps to explain some of the beginning reading problems of these children.[1] As they encounter a new word, it becomes fused with other words and hence becomes unrecognizable as the same word.

Hess and Croft asserted that there can be no doubt of the educationally disadvantaged child's ability to learn, because in short term memory skills and rote learning tasks, lower-class children perform at the same rate as middle-class children. However, in the areas of vocabulary size and sentence length, the lower-class child scores well below his middle-class peer. What they apparently lack is the kind of language learning that is geared to the prior learning of the middle-class children.[2] This is in complete agreement with Bereiter and Engelmann, who stated that in the ability to master rote learning tasks and in immediate memory span the educationally disadvantaged child shows little or no retardation. They also describe the public schools of America as being geared to the middle-class culture. The educationally disadvantaged child fails to master the cognitive use of language which is of primary importance in school.[3]

---

[1]Carl Bereiter and Siegfield Engelmann, Teaching Disadvantaged Children in the Preschool (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, inc., 1966), pp. 34-37.

[2]Robert D. Hess and Doreen J. Croft. Teachers of Young Children (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1972), p. 180.

[3]Bereiter and Engelmann, op. cit., pp. 24-43.

The educationally disadvantaged child's language is described by Ausubel as deficient in range and precision. His grammar and language usage are shoddy, and he is impoverished in such language-related knowledge as number concepts, self identity information, and understanding of the physical, geometric, and geographical environments.[1]

Stevens found the language of the educationally disadvantaged child restricted and rudimentary.[2] The educationally disadvantaged child's use of socially acceptable language by middle-class standards is weak according to Wattenberg. He further stated that their language is unwelcome in school. Verbal fluency is often viewed with suspicion since their parents have on occasion been victimized by word manipulators, such as salesmen.[3] Beck and Saxe also described the educationally disadvantaged child's language as "restricted." As a result, he is likely to have difficulty with the school's "elaborated form" of language. They also pointed out that their language style is an effective deterrent to communication and understanding between child and teacher.[4]

---

[1]David P. Ausubel, "The Effects of Cultural Deprivation on Learning Patterns," Understanding the Educational Problems of the Disadvantaged Learner, Staten W. Webster, Editor (San Francisco, California: Chandler Publishing Co., 1966), p. 252.

[2]George L. Stevens, "Implications of Montessori for the War on Poverty," Montessori for the Disadvantaged, R. C. Orem, Editor (New York: Capricorn Books, 1967), p. 39.

[3]William W. Wattenberg, "Education for the Culturally Deprived," Children with Reading Problems, Gladys Natchez, Editor (New York: Basic Book., Inc., Pub., 1968), p. 174.

[4]John M. Beck and Richard W. Saxe, Teaching the Culturally Disadvantaged. Springfield Ill.: Charles C. Thomas Pub., 1965), p. viii and p. 56.

Venezky concisely stated the problem of the educationally disadvantaged child in the following statement:

> The child whose language habits differ markedly from the socially accepted patois of the school system faces both overt and covert discrimination in education. On the interpersonal level, he is an odd duckling, his kinder-peers, conservative and conformist (as all children tend to be), view "different" as "inferior," with no exceptions given to what adults might class as prestige forms of speech; his teacher, as well meaning as she might be, may not comprehend all that he says, and worse, will have difficulty viewing nonstandard as anything except substandard. On the less personal level the situation is potentially more harmful; the educational process and especially the reading programs are not for him.[1]

VII. EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF THE DISADVANTAGED CHILD

There is no question but there is far more in the literature describing the disadvantaged child's deficiencies than there is about successful remediation. This is basically due to lack of longitudinal research.

A critical deficit area in the disadvantaged child's language development is auditory discrimination. Deutsch found that auditory discrimination and poor recognition of speech sounds are contributory to the disadvantaged child's poor progress in beginning reading. She recommended the minimizing of stimuli which are being presented. The high noise level of the home environment and limited speech stimulation create the auditory disability.[2] Ausubel recommended repetitive practice with feedback.[3]

---

[1]Richard Venezky, "Nonstandard Language and Reading," Elementary English, 47: pp. 334-345, 1970.

[2]Cynthia P. Deutsch, "Auditory Discrimination and Learning," Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 10: pp. 277-95, 1964.

[3]Ausubel, p. 257.

Bond and Tinker recommended the following procedures to prepare the educationally disadvantaged child for reading. These points are summarized as follows: 1) promote the child's health, physical growth, and motor development, 2) create a good atmosphere for learning, 3) help develop a good self image and feeling of worth, 4) provide incentives to motivate children to share ideas and express themselves, 5) develop language through story telling, puppetry, role playing, and singing, 6) stimulate verbal activity through a variety of games, and 7) encourage cooperative play to aid in social development.[1]

Blank and Soloman theorized on the basis of their research that educationally disadvantaged children do not simply need more and better words. They need to use language they already have, as well as any new words that they might learn, to structure and guide their thinking.[2]

VIII. SOME EFFECTS OF SOCIAL CLASS AND RACE ON CHILDREN'S LANGUAGE

Dreger and Miller pointed to the frequency of replicated findings that socioeconomic status and racial group membership are important correlates of children's performance across a variety of measures of ability.[3]

---

[1]Guy L. Bond and Miles A. Tinker. Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis and Treatment (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1967), pp. 486-487.

[2]Marion Blank and Frances Soloman. "A Tutorial Language Program to Develop Abstract Thinking," Reading in Child Psychology, Brian Sutton-Smith, Editor (N.Y.: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1973), pp. 266-273.

[3]R. M. Dreger and K. S. Miller. "Comparative Psychological Studies of Negroes and Whites in the United States." Psychological Bulletin, 1960, 57, p. 361-402.

Klineberg noted that on the average: (a) lower socio-economic status children tend to perform less well than average socioeconomic status children; (b) Negroes perform less well than Whites; (c) within socioeconomic status groups there is a tendency for White children to score at higher mean levels than Negro children. Klineberg further noted the outstanding, and as yet uncontrolled, factor in this research is the existence of considerable intra-class variance and inter-group overlap in the score distributions of measured abilities among these children. Perhaps the most prominent sources of this variability in performance are important differences in environmental conditions which may be experienced by children within the same socioeconomic status levels or racial groupings.[1]

Whiteman concluded that an environmental condition may be associated with a particular psychological deficit, but it would not be considered socially depriving if the condition were not socially patterned. Thus a particular mode of child rearing may be associated with cognitive deficits, but would not consider this as a social deprivation unless the mode of child rearing were more prevalent in one specific segment of the culture than in another. Nor would it be considered as a deprivation unless it also entailed a functional or behavioral deficit.[2]

---

[1]D. Klineberg. "Negro-White Differences in Intelligence Test Performance: A New Look at an Old Problem." American Psychologist, 1963, 18, pp. 198-203.

[2]Martin Whiteman. Some Effects of Social Class and Race on Children's Language and Intellectual Abilities. (New York, New York: ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 022 540, 1965).

Whiteman concluded that social deprivation implies further that the association between social grouping and specific environmental factor is not strictly casual, not genetically determined, but mediated by more basic societal conditions such as unemployment, poverty, and inequality of opportunity in various areas. With the removal of such conditions, the association between social grouping and the socially depriving factor may vanish. Social deprivation also implies that the association between environmental condition and performance decrement is casual, at least in so far as the deprivational factor hampers the learning of the performance in question. "Social deprivation" is a relative term. It is relative in two senses. First, a given environmental factor may be deprivational relative to one social group, e.g., low socioeconomic status. Second, the environmental factor may be deprivational with respect to one ability or performance, but neutral or even advantageous with respect to other behaviors or functions.[1]

The previous investigations of social deprivations involve both conceptual and empirical steps. The conceptual step implies the delineation of environmental conditions which on a prior basis might qualify as social deprivation. The empirical step stems directly from the conception of social deprivation. Each of these variables is studied from two vantage points: (a) whether it is related to an important psychological function such as reading, and (b) whether it is related to an important social grouping such as socioeconomic status.

---

[1]Ibid.

IX. SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS VS. ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

The importance of the influence of pupil's socioeconomic status (SES) upon their learning to read is hardly questioned by today's educators.

Exceptionality caused by socioeconomic differences has become a major consideration in today's schools. Jones indicated that the child's economic background and the resultant social position he attains has much to do with his self concept, his mental development, and consequently with his success in learning to read.[1]

Although high socioeconomic status is not a completely accurate indicator of reading achievement, it generally goes hand in hand with broadness of experience and with language facility. Dechant[2] suggested that this broadness of experience and the added language facility result in superior readiness for reading by equipping the child with the tools for meaningful reaction to the printed page.

Spache and Spache[3] concluded that socioeconomic class is considered to be the most important single factor in reading progress in school. A national survey of elementary teachers permitted the classification of classrooms according to parental income and occupation. The data of the study indicated that

---

[1]Daisy M. Jones. Teaching Children to Read (New York: Harper and Row, 1971), p. 262.

[2]Emerald V. Dechant. Improving the Teaching of Reading (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970), pp. 41-42.

[3]George D. Spache and Evelyn B. Spache, Reading in the Elementary School (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1969), p. 66.

reading retardation below expected grade norms rises steadily through the first six grades for working class children, and markedly so for the children of the lower skilled, lower paid working class. By the fourth grade about half of the classrooms of lower class children show a degree of retardation as much as one year below grade level. The converse of this is also present in that upper class children tend to become advanced in reading from the first grade and maintain this academic advantage.

There doesn't seem to be much doubt that the language patterns of children from lower socioeconomic groups vary significantly from those of children who come from higher income families. According to Karlin,[1] it is possible that for the former group oral language plays a greater role in causing difficulty in reading. Some feel that these children cannot cope with the language used in school, and as a result their reading achievement is adversely affected. There is no question that larger percentages of these children fail in beginning reading than children from higher socioeconomic levels.

Garrison and Magoon[2] noted that the educational problems of the culturally deprived or educationally disadvantaged stem from their experiences in homes which do not transmit the cultural patterns necessary for adjustment to the middle class school and society. Many deprived students come from homes in which the educational levels of the adults are minimal at best. Many come

---

[1]Robert Karlin. Teaching Elementary Reading. (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1971), pp. 83-84.

[2]Karl C. Garrison and Robert A. Magoon. Educational Psychology: An Integration of Psychology and Educational Practices (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1972), pp. 134-35.

from homes characterized by poverty, large family size, broken homes, and slum living.

The recognition of the importance of socioeconomic status as a factor in reading readiness and achievement was further attested to by Walter Loban.[1] He stated that children reared in families at the least favored socioeconomic positions receive a restricted language experience, if their early linguistic environment stressed only limited features of language potential, such children may indeed be at a disadvantage in school and the world beyond.

Goldberg investigated factors affecting educational attainment in depressed urban areas. He reported that when ability and achievement test scores of lower and middle class pupils were compared, usually pupils from higher income families scored higher on all cognitive measures, even when the instruments are considered to be "culturally fair."[2] In analyzing the data reported in the Coleman Report (1966) Moynihan found that variations in family background accounted for far greater variations in school achievement than did variations in school characteristics.[3]

Gredler analyzed the performance on a perceptual test by Negro and Caucasian pupils from educationally disadvantaged environments. He reported that on the Metropolitan Achievement Test, both groups scored below the norm, but there was no significant

---

[1]Walter Loban. "Oral Language Proficiency Affects Reading and Writing," The Instructor LXV (March, 1966), 97, 102, 106.

[2]M. L. Goldberg. "Factors Affecting Educational Attainment in Depressed Urban Areas." In Education in Depressed Areas. Edited by A. Harry Passow (Columbia University: Teachers College Press, 1963), pp. 173-178.

[3]Daniel P. Moynihan. "Sources of Resistance to the Coleman Report," Harvard Educational Review 38 (Winter, 1968): 33.

difference between the sample groups of Negro and Caucasian. He concluded from the results of the analysis that the environment influenced both school achievement and the manner in which an individual reacted to specific tasks.[1]

Ho and Eiszler, studying the interaction effects of socio-economic status, intelligence, and reading programs on beginning reading achievement, found no significant interaction at first grade.[2] Deutsch investigated that role of social class in language development and cognition. He found that lower class pupils, Negro and Caucasian, compared with middle class pupils are subject to what he calls a "cumulative deficit phenomenon," which takes place between the first and fifth grade years. Though there are significant socioeconomic and race differences seen in measured variables at the first grade level, he believed that it is important to note that they become more marked as the pupil progresses through school. Deutsch also reported that all significant relationships were between poorer performance and lower class status.[3]

---

[1]G. R. Gredler. "Performance on a Perceptual Test With Children from Culturally Disadvantaged Background." In Perception and Reading. Edited by Helen K. Smith (Newark, Del.: International Reading Association, 1968), p. 284.

[2]Ho, Wai-Ching and Charles F. Eiszler, E. Interaction Effects of Socio-Economic Status, Intelligence, and Reading Program on Beginning Reading Achievement (Bethesda, MD: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 039 114, 1970),

[3]Martin Deutsch. "The Role of Social Class in Language Development and Cognition," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 35 (January, 1965), pp. 78-87.

> The culturally disadvantaged child is of no particular race. He has experienced failure and the resulting anxiety and fear that continued failure engenders. His retardation in language development shows in his reluctant use of words representative of school culture, in forming a smaller proportion of structurally mature sentences, and in learning less from what he hears than other children. In consequence, these children are ill-prepared to meet the demands and opportunities of contemporary life.[1]

SUMMARY

The literature included in the foregoing sections provided information relative to: (1) Oral language and reading ability, (2) Types of Vocabulary, (3) Language development: General, (4) Language Development: Universal aspects and individual variations, (5) Vocabulary development in the language experience approach, (6) Description of the disadvantaged child, (7) Some effects of social class on children's language, and (8) Socioeconomic status vs. academic achievement.

Those investigators who found a relationship between oral language and reading reported some correlation. These studies support, although not directly, the idea that greater linguistic sophistication facilitates reading achievement.

The review of literature related to oral language and reading ability indicated that oral language facility and reading ability are the chief basics on which readiness for reading is developed and with other factors being equal, oral language facility may be developed. The studies also suggested that language development

---

[1]Miles H. Tinker & Constance M. McCullough, Teaching Elementary Reading (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1968), p. 100.

followed an orderly pattern, in order to teach the child how and when to use language. These skills and abilities should be developed in social situations. The research noted that vocabulary should be developed through language experiences related to facts or experiences in order to avoid verbalization.

Children's vocabularies have long been recognized by educators as being a variable in learning to read. The literature reviewed noted that children have more than one type of vocabulary. In general, children have a speaking vocabulary which is composed of those words which they can use in their oral language. The data indicated that in vocabulary instruction, stress must be placed on listening and speaking as well as on written language.

Research studies concerned with language development Universal Aspects and Individual Variation revealed that there are both universal trends and individual variations that can be observed in the child's acquisition of language. The universal trends reveal themselves as fairly fixed sequences in the acquisition of basic structures of the language. They are probably the product of the constraints imposed by maturation of the neurophysiological and cognitive capacities of the child, the functions of language, and the structure of the system he is acquiring. The individual variations reveal themselves as differences in the rate at which various structures are acquired by a child and the different levels of analysis of the language that are reached. These differences are probably due to particular language experiences and/or intellectual capacities.

Increasing children's listening, speaking, reading, and writing vocabularies receives major attention in the language experience approach. Opportunities to use words in personal communication situations in speaking and writing provides the best means for developing word power. In the language experience approach, many opportunities for discussion of words will occur, and developing an awareness of words should be a continuing goal. In vocabulary development as in other concerns in the language experience approach, the three characteristics of pupil composed materials, the interrelationships of all the language arts, and the lack of vocabulary control are apparent.

Through language experience activities children should discover many ways of using words for communication. Individual and group word banks constitute a major tool for vocabulary study as they are used as a record of words learned and as materials for numerous other language activities. The teacher's responsibility is to provide the setting and the stimuli for word study growing from the child's own language.

The educationally disadvantaged child is one who is not prepared to cope with the middle class school curriculum. The reasons for the child's lack of readiness to meet the demands of the public school curriculum are varied. A large percentage of educationally disadvantaged children are rendered so due to poverty. Their homes are generally overcrowded, restrictive of movement and privacy, understimulating in language, and lack adequate play equipment. A educationally disadvantaged child from this type of home frequently enter school without prerequisites for academic learning. Such

handicaps often lead to their placement in classes for the retarded, or if they remain in a regular classroom a cumulative deficit occurs which is almost impossible to overcome.

The review of literature related to the Educational Needs of the Educationally Disadvantaged Child indicated that a critical defect area in the educationally disadvantaged child's language development is auditory discrimination. It was noted that the high noise level of the home environment and limited speech stimulation created the auditory disability. Researchers theorized that educationally disadvantaged children did not simply need more and better words; they need to use language they already have as well as any new words they might learn to structure and guide their thinking.

Socioeconomic status and racial group membership are important correlates of children's performance. Research studies concerned with some of social class and race on children's language indicated that perhaps the most prominent sources of this variability in performance are important differences in environmental conditions which may be experienced by children within the same socioeconomic status levels or racial groupings. Social deprivation also implies that the association between environmental conditions and performance decrement is casual, at least in so far as the deprivation factor hampers the learning of the performance in question.

The review of literature related to socioeconomic vs. academic achievement suggested that there was a positive relationship between the two. The literature indicated that there were several factors associated with socioeconomic status that probably had a direct

influence on academic achievement, possibly the least of which were not teacher expectations and lack of understanding concerning the consequences of social class values on academic achievement.

When reviewed as a whole, the data presented in the review of the literature indicated a rather close relationship of the child's oral language with his reading vocabulary.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND PROCEDURES

The basic problem of this study was to determine the relationship between the oral language vocabulary scores and the reading vocabulary scores of educationally disadvantaged students, more specifically: 1) the relationship of the educationally disadvantaged student's oral vocabulary to that student's reading vocabulary and 2) the differences between oral vocabulary of high and low socioeconomic educationally disadvantaged students and 3) between students of different ethnic backgrounds. A Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was used to compare the oral vocabulary scores of third grade educationally disadvantaged students with that student's reading vocabulary score. A multiple factorial analysis of variance in a two by three factorial design was used to compare the oral vocabulary scores of students from different ethnic backgrounds; Black, Caucasian, and Native American or Chicano, and students of high and low socioeconomic status. The Scheffé method of multiple comparision was used to determine the differences between unequal n's. This chapter includes the (a) the population and sample, (b) procedures, (c) instruments utilized, (d) statistical procedure, and (e) summary.

POPULATION AND SAMPLE

In January of 1976, an inquiry and search of Title I records of the Oklahoma City Public Schools was conducted by the investigator

which indicated that approximately four hundred fifteen (415) educationally disadvantaged third grade students qualified for special programs. Their scores ranged from the first through fortieth percentile on the Metropolitan Achievement Test. Written permission was given by the Oklahoma City Public Schools' Research Office to do the investigation.

Students who comprised the sample consisted of the following: educationally disadvantaged third grade students of the Oklahoma City Public Schools, whose scores on the Metropolitan Achievement Test ranged from the first through fortieth percentile. The students were either eight (8) or nine (9) years of age at the time of testing and were English speaking. Written permission was given by the parent or guardian, and the students were willing to participate in the investigation.

There were thirty five (35) Title I project elementary schools in the Oklahoma City School System. The students in this investigation were drawn at random from ten (10) of these projects. The schools included in the investigation exceeded the Oklahoma City School District's poverty mean (23.30) as determined by the Orshanksy Index.

Using the following formula suggested by Yamane and specifying a desired representativeness of ninety five percent (95%), a standard deviation of 1. and an alpha of .05 confidence level, it was determined that two hundred and three (203) students were needed for the investigation.

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2}$$

n = Sample Size (203)

N = Population Size (415)

e = .05 for 95% representativeness of the sample[1]

PROCEDURE

In September 1976, the Metropolitan Achievement Test computer data sheets were analyzed for the third grade pupils in the Oklahoma City Public Schools. Pupils whose composite scores met the criteria were selected for random sampling.

The ten schools selected for the study, were canvased by the investigator and secretarial staff to determine family structure, and socioeconomic status for each pupil. The cumulative records and the registration cards were analyzed to acquire the necessary data. The use of both kinds of information proved to be useful and complete. In certain situations where data was found to be inaccurate or incomplete, secretaries, principals, and in some cases teachers were consulted for verification of information. Data was collected on four hundred fifteen (415) pupils within this grade. Data was complete on two hundred sixty three (263) pupils. Data was deleted for thirty nine (39) pupils because there was no educational information. Data was deleted for fifteen (15) pupils because the parental job description information was not

---

[1]Taro Yamane, Statistics on Introductory Analysis, (New York: Harper and Row, 1964), p. 547.

available. Data was deleted for six (6) pupils because they moved before all testing could be completed. Once information on pupils was collected, the data was analyzed as to the education and occupation of the head of the household.

Students eligible for the study were administered the Dailey Language Facility Test and the Gates MacGinitie Reading Vocabulary Tests, Form C.

The purpose of the tests was: 1) to measure the student's oral language facility, (The Dailey Language Facility Test); 2) to measure the student's reading vocabulary, (The Gates MacGinitie Reading Vocabulary Tests, Form C, Primary).

The instruments were administered under the direction of the investigator and a research assistant. The Dailey Language Facility Test was administered individually. Students were asked to respond to pictorial materials which included a variety of experiences. Students were asked to explore the pictures and tell what they saw. Individual responses were recorded on tape and scored by the investigator, a counselor, and a research assistant.

The Gates MacGinitie Reading Vocabulary Tests were administered to groups of students. This test was scored by the investigator.

INSTRUMENTS UTILIZED

The instrument used for screening pupils for the study was the Metropolitan Achievement Tests, Form G. Socioeconomic status

was measured by Hollingshead Two Factor Index of Social Position, the instrument used to measure the oral vocabulary was The Dailey Language Facility Test, and the reading vocabulary was measured by the Gates MacGinitie Reading Tests, Form C.

The 1970 edition of the Metropolitan Achievement Test, Elementary Battery, Form G, consists of three parts which relate to reading. These three parts when correlated resulted in a composite reading score.

Durost describes the Metropolitan Achievement Test as follows:

> This test, part of a large battery, is a survey instrument yielding three scores (word knowledge, word discrimination, reading at the primary level) and two scores (word knowledge and reading) at upper levels. Each score is treated separately although this group of subtests is printed in one booklet. The subtest Reading is a measure of sentence and paragraph meaning at the primary level, paragraph plus larger selection of comprehension at intermediate and advanced levels. Word knowledge measures vocabulary and word recognition. Word discrimination is a measure of phonic ability.[1]

The Dailey Language Facility Test

The Dailey Language Facility Test is designed to measure language facility at all ages from three years to maturity. It is theorized that the youngster who is going to have extreme difficulty in basic communication skills and be severely educationally retarded in grade six is likely to have had inadequate language development at an earlier preschool age.

A description of The Dailey Language Facility Test is as follows:

---

[1]Oscar Krisen Buros, editor. The Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook, The Gryphon Press, Highland Park, N.J., 1965, p. 29.

> The Language Facility Test may be regarded as a test of the ability to learn to read at a later age. A picture represents symbolic information in the same way as do numbers and words.
>
> The Language Facility Test has been proven to be a useful tool for the early identification of the mentally retarded. According to the National Association for Retarded Children, mental retardation is a condition characterized by the faculty development of intelligence, which impairs an individual's ability to learn and to adapt to the demands of society.
>
> The Dailey Language Facility Test is designed to assess the ability to use oral language independently of vocabulary, information, pronounciation, and grammar, this instrument is individually administered to children aged three and older. The subject tells a story about or describes a series of pictures. Responses to each picture are scored on a nine point scale according to detailed criteria. There are two scoring systems which may be used separately, or in conjunction with each other. System I provides a measure of the child's ability to conceptualize and communicate in his chosen language, enunciation, information, or grammatical exactness. System II codes the errors or deviations from standard English pronunciation or usage, and provides a diagnostic profile of the child's ability to speak standard English. The nine steps of basic scale represent the stages in the child's development to full language maturity, thus the instrument may also be considered a test of ability to read at a later age. Special training is not required for the administration or scoring of the test. Norms are provided in the manual.[1]

Gates MacGinitie Reading Tests

The Gates MacGinitie Reading Tests, Form C, primary, was designed for use in the third grade. The tests consisted of two parts: Vocabulary and comprehension.

A description of the Gates MacGinitie Reading Tests, Form C, (primary), as described by Burke, is as follows:

> The Primary C level of the Gates MacGinitie Reading Tests is part of a new series of tests designed to cover grades kindergarten through twelfth.

---

[1] John T. Dailey, "Dailey Language Facility Test," National Association for Retarded Children, The Arlington Corporation, Alexandria, Virginia, January 1967.

> The norms for the Gates MacGinitie Reading Tests are based upon a new, nationwide standardization were carefully selected on the basis of geographic location, size, and socioeconomic level to assure a representative sample of pupils at all grade levels. The Technical Manual describes the preparation and standardization of the tests and gives tables for converting scores on the Gates Primary, Advanced Primary, and Reading Survey to equivalent scores on the new Gates MacGinitie Reading Tests.
>
> The Technical Manual also contains tables and instructions for interpreting gain and other differences between scores.
>
> The Vocabulary Test samples the child's ability to recognize or analyze isolated words. It begins with twelve exercises, each of which contains four printed words and a picture illustrating the meaning of one of the words. The child's task is to circle the word that best corresponds to the picture. This section serves to accustom the child to the task and to provide a range of relatively easy items at the beginning of the test. It is followed by forty exercises, each consisting of a test word followed by four other words, one of which is similar in meaning to the test word. The format is similar to the picture exercises, with the test word replacing the picture in function. The child's task is to circle the word that means most nearly the same as the test word. The first exercises are composed of easy and commonly used words. Gradually the words become less common and more difficult.[1]

Hollingshead Two Factor Index of Social Position

The Hollingshead Two Factor Index of Social Position came into being and was first published in 1957. It was designed to determine socioeconomic status (SES) from the factors, occupation and educational attainment of the head of the household.[2]

The Index of Social Position (ISP) grew out of Hollingshead's social investigations between 1933 and 1949. It was developed in 1951 as an instrument to determine social position in a large scale

---

[1]Oscar Krisen Buros, Ed. The Seventh Mental Measurement Yearbook, (Highland Park, N.J.: Gryphon Press, 1972), pp. 1080-83.

[2]August B. Hollingshead, "Commentary on 'The Indiscriminate State of Social Class Measurement," Social Forces, 49 (June, 1971): 563-567.

study of interrelations between social stratification and the care of mentally ill members of the community were receiving from psychiatric agencies in the New Haven, Connecticut area. The determination of placement of individuals in the social structure occurred in two ways: 1) Hollingshead and Jerome K. Myers, Professors of Sociology at Yale University, first made a detailed study of differentiation in the New Haven community. 2) Then a systematic sample was drawn of five percent of the households in the community. There were three thousand five hundred fifty nine households in the sample. Each household was interviewed in 1951 with a schedule of questions on the size of the household, the age and sex of its members, the occupations of the head of the household and any other members who were in the labor force, the years of school the adult members had completed, marital status, religious identification and participation, reading habits, recreations, and so forth.

From this information a three factor index of social position was developed to enable the research group to stratify the households in the sample in a manner similar to the Alba Edwards (1938) scale. The three factors used were: 1) area of residence in the community, 2) occupation of the head of the household, and 3) years of school completed by the head of the household. The Three Factor Index of Social Position was published as Appendices Two and Three of Social Class and Mental Illness (Hollingshead and Redlich, 1958).

Before the Three Factor Index could be used in a similar urban community, that community would have to be mapped in detail by the same procedure Davie and Myers had used in New Haven. Hollingshead

decided to reanalyze the data accumulated on the three thousand five hundred fifty nine (3559) households included in the five percent (5%) sample. New multiple correlations and regressions were computed. It was found that the coefficient of multiple correlation between judged class position and occupation and education of the head of the household was .975. This finding revealed that the residence scale contributed very little to the determination of estimated class position. Therefore, the residential scale was dropped. The data was then analyzed to determine the appropriate weights for the occupation and years of schooling of the head of the household. The regression equation indicated that occupation should be assigned a weight of seven and years of school completed (education) should be assigned a weight of four. Thus, the Two Factor Index of Social Position came into being and was first published in 1957.[1]

According to Cuber and Kenkel:

> Warner, Hollingshead, and West seem to be correct in their approach to "social class" as a group of people assigned a more or less similar status, or status range, within the community, using as criteria of this unity the agreements among persons in the community; (a) that these units exists, (b) that a certain definite number of people are "in" and "out" of each unit, and (c) that it makes a difference both subjectively and objectively in which segment of the community one is.[2]

---

[1]Hollingshead, p. 568.

[2]John F. Cuber and William F. Kenkel, Social Stratifications in the United States (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1954), p. 363.

The strength of the items included in the ISP was verified by a factor analysis study by Kahl and Davis. They analyzed a battery of nineteen standard measurement tools of socioeconomic status. Use of the centroid method revealed a general factor which high correlation with many of the variables, ranging from a high of .88 to a low of .49. In addition, the battery of indexes showed two common factors.

> The first was composed of the various measures of occupation, plus certain variables closely related to occupation, such as education, self identification, and the interviewers' impressionistic rating of the subject. The second factor was composed of ecological measures plus those of the status of the parents of the subject and his wife.[1]

Lawson and Boek conducted a correlational study of seven measures of socioeconomic status and two measures of occupation. The highest sum of intercorrelations with other measures was produced by the Warner Scale; next highest was the Hollingshead Scale. The correlation between the Hollingshead ISP and the Warner Index of Social Class (ISC) was .86, whereas the correlation between the Hollingshead Occupation Scale and the Warner ISC was .85. According to Lawson and Boek:

> Of course, the sums for the Warner and Hollingshead scales are enlarged by their relationship with each other because each uses a similar seven point occupational scale as one of its components as well as similar education information. A high correlation between the Census occupational categories and the Hollingshead Occupational category also would be expected.[2]

---

[1]Joseph A. Kahl and James R. Davis, "A Comparison of Indexes of Socio-Economic Status," American Sociological Review 20 (June, 1955): 324.

[2]Edwin D. Lawson and Walter E. Boek, "Correlations of Indexes of Families' Socio-Economic Status," Social Forces 39 (December, 1960): 150.

Findings from the Lawson and Boek study indicated that the Hollingshead ISP measured nearly as well as did the Warner ISC. "It was concluded that the Hollingshead seven point occupational classification provides a practical and sufficiently reliable measure of social class for most analysis."[1]

Statistical Procedure

A Pearson product moment correlation was used to examine the relationship between the oral vocabulary scores of third grade educationally disadvantaged students and their reading vocabulary scores. Computer program BMD02D was used for this analysis.

A multiple analysis of variance in a two by three factorial design was used to compare the oral vocabulary scores of third grade educationally disadvantaged students from different ethnic backgrounds, Black, Caucasian, and Native American or Chicano, and of third grade educationally disadvantaged students of high and low socioeconomic status. A computer program, the OU MANOVA, which is equipped to handle unequal cell sizes, was used for this analysis.

The alpha level for all interpretations was set at the .05 level of significant.

SUMMARY

The design of this investigation utilized a population of two hundred and three third grade educationally disadvantaged students. All students were administered the same tests and the data received the same treatment.

---

[1] Ibid., p. 152.

The tests used in the study were designed to measure the achievement level in reading, the oral language ability, the reading vocabulary ability, and socioeconomic status.

The data acquired from this study was treated by using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient to compare the oral and reading vocabulary scores and multiple factorial analysis of variance to compare and analyze the socioeconomic data.

The presentation and analysis of data are reported in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

This study was designed to look at two aspects of oral vocabulary, 1) the relationship of third grade educationally disadvantaged student's oral vocabulary to that student's reading vocabulary and 2) the differences between oral vocabularies of high and low socioeconomic third grade educationally disadvantaged students and students of different ethnic backgrounds.

Utilizing the procedures described in Chapter III, data on third grade educationally disadvantaged student's oral and reading vocabularies, ethnic backgrounds, and socioeconomic status were collected. These data were tabulated to test the following hypotheses:

H_{01} - There is no relationship between the oral vocabulary of a third grade educationally disadvantaged student as measured by the Dailey Language Facility Test and that student's reading vocabulary as measured by the Gates MacGinitie Reading Test.

H_{02} - There is no difference in the oral vocabulary as measured by the Dailey Language Facility Test of high and low socioeconomic third grade educationally disadvantaged students.

H_{03} - There is no difference in the oral vocabulary as measured by the Dailey Language Facility Test of third grade educationally disadvantaged Black students and third grade educationally disadvantaged Caucasian students.

H_{04} - There is no difference in the oral vocabulary as measured by the Dailey Language Facility Test Test of third grade educationally disadvantaged Black students and third grade educationally disadvantaged students of Native American and/or Chicano heritage.

H_{05} - There is no difference in the oral vocabulary as measured by the Dailey Language Facility Test of third grade educationally disadvantaged Caucasian students and third grade educationally disadvantaged students of Native American and/or Chicano heritage.

H_{06} - There is no interaction of socioeconomic status and ethnic background on a third grade educationally disadvantaged student's oral language as measured by the Dailey Language Facility Test.

Pearson Product Moment Correlation

A Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was used to compare the oral vocabulary scores of the two hundred and three (203) third grade educationally disadvantaged student with that student's reading score. The mean scores, standard deviations, and correlation coefficient are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND CORRELATION COEFFICIENT OF ORAL VOCABULARY AND READING VOCABULARY SCORES

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Pearson r
Oral Vocabulary	3.825	2.546	.2622*
Reading Vocabulary	2.129	1.747	

*α = .05 Critical value of r with 201 df = .138 Reject H_{01}

The Pearson r of .2622 was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, a significant correlation existed, and H_{01}, was rejected.

Multiple Factorial Analysis of Variance

A two-variable factorial analysis of variance in a 2 x 3 design was used to analyze the data for H_{02}, H_{03}, H_{04}, H_{05}, and H_{06}, with N = 203.

The mean scores, standard deviations, and cell sizes are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2

MEAN SCORES, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND CELL SIZES FOR ORAL VOCABULARY SCORES BY SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS AND RACE

Socio-economic Status	Black	Caucasian	Native American or Chicano	Total
High	$\bar{X}$ = 3.281	$\bar{X}$ = 4.619	$\bar{X}$ = 4.000	$\bar{X}$ = 4.02
	SD = 2.126	SD = 2.871	SD = 2.780	SD = 2.58
	N = 26	N = 32	N = 14	
Low	$\bar{X}$ = 3.745	$\bar{X}$ = 4.032	$\bar{X}$ = 3.267	$\bar{X}$ = 3.79
	SD = 2.305	SD = 2.584	SD = 2.628	SD = 2.48
	N = 51	N = 57	N = 21	
Total	$\bar{X}$ = 3.59	$\bar{X}$ = 4.24	$\bar{X}$ = 3.56	$\bar{X}$ = 3.87
	SD = 2.24	SD = 2.68	SD = 2.69	SD = 2.51

The highest measure of central tendency was found in high socioeconomic third grade educationally disadvantaged Caucasians. The lowest mean score was that of low socioeconomic third grade educationally disadvantaged Native Americans and Chicanos.

Independent Effects

The results of the analysis of variance are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE SHOWING F SCORES BY ETHNIC GROUP, SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS, AND INTERACTION OF ORAL SCORES

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Within Cells	1246.684	195	6.393	
Ethnic Group	579.322	2	289.661	45.307*
Socio-Economic	119.626	1	119.626	18.711*
Ethnic x Socio-Economic	23.401	2	11.701	1.830

*α= .05 Critical value of F with 2/195 df = 3.04

*α= .05 Critical value of F with 1/195 df = 3.89

There was a significant difference in the oral vocabulary scores of high and low socio-economic third grade educationally disadvantaged students. Therefore, the high socioeconomic status group scored significantly higher than the low socioeconomic status group in oral vocabulary. Reject H_{02}.

The main effect F ratios indicated whether high and low means were significantly different. Thus, a Scheffé test was used to determine differences between other cell means.

There was a significant difference between the oral vocabulary scores of third grade educationally disadvantaged Black students and third grade educationally disadvantaged Caucasian students. This was indicated by the ethnic group F ratio of Table 3. The Caucasian $\overline{X}$ of 4.24 was significantly higher than the Black $\overline{X}$ of 3.59.

Reject H_{03}.

There was no significant difference in the oral vocabulary scores of third grade educationally disadvantaged Black students and third grade educationally disadvantaged Native American or Chicano students. The Scheffe' test between the Black $\overline{X}$ and Native American $\overline{X}$ showed that no significant difference existed.

Fail to reject H_{04}.

There was no significant difference in the oral vocabulary scores of third grade educationally disadvantaged Caucasian students and third grade educationally disadvantaged Native American and Chicano students. This also resulted from the Scheffe' test between Caucasian $\overline{X}$ and Native American $\overline{X}$.

Fail to reject H_{05}.

Interaction Effects

There was no significant interaction effects of ethnic origin and socioeconomic status on oral vocabulary scores of third grade

educationally disadvantaged students. This was concluded from the F ratio for interaction between ethnic and socioeconomic status groups.

Fail to reject H_{06}.

There was, however, a nonsignificant interaction of socioeconomic status and oral vocabulary scores of educationally disadvantaged Black and educationally disadvantaged Caucasian students as shown in Figure 1.

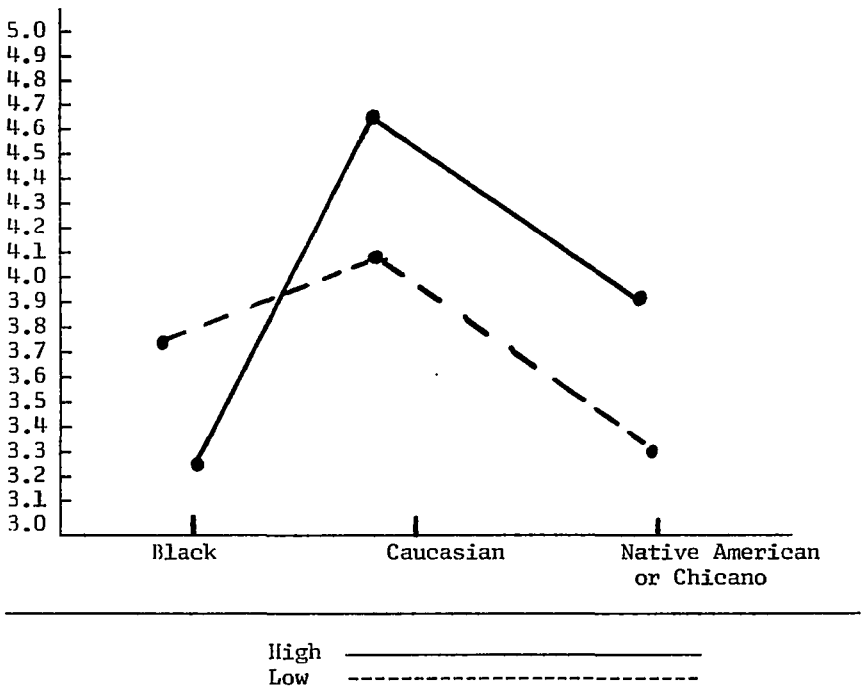


Figure 1. Graph of Mean Oral Vocabulary Scores by Ethnic Origin and Socioeconomic Status.

Although there was not a significant difference in the mean oral vocabulary scores of high socioeconomic Chicano or Native American third grade educationally disadvantaged students, the difference approached significance (F = 3.1471; Critical value of F at .05 = 3.32). These two factors, along with the difference in cell size accounts for the apparent contradiction involved in the rejection of H_{03} and the failure to reject H_{04} and H_{05}.

There is no significant difference in oral vocabulary scores of educationally disadvantaged Caucasian students and educationally disadvantaged Native American and Chicano students.
Fail to reject H_{05}.

Interaction Effects

There was no interaction of ethnic origin and socioeconomic status on the oral vocabulary scores of students.
Fail to reject H_{06}.

Summary of Findings

The first analysis of the data was computed to compare the oral vocabulary scores of each student with that student's reading vocabulary score. The Pearson r of .2622 was significant at the .05 level. Therefore a significant correlation existed.

Examination of the data reported in Table 2, indicated that the highest measure of central tendency was found in high socioeconomic Caucasian students. The lowest total mean (3.56) was that of low socioeconomic Native American and Chicano students. Therefore the high socioeconomic status group scored significantly higher than the low socioeconomic status in oral vocabulary.

A comparison of cell means by ethnic groups using the main effect F ratio, indicated that neither high nor low means showed significant. Thus the Scheffe' test was used to determine differences between other cell means. Therefore the Caucasian $\overline{X}$ of 4.24 was significantly higher than the Black $\overline{X}$ of 3.59. The Scheffe' test also showed that no significant difference existed in the oral vocabulary scores between the Black $\overline{X}$ of 3.59 and Native American or Chicano $\overline{X}$ of 3.56 indicated no significant difference.

It was concluded from the F ratio for interaction between ethnic and socioeconomic status groups that there were no significant interaction effects.

The study concludes with Chapter V which contains three major sections: summary, conclusions, and recommendations.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This chapter consists of a summary of the study, the conclusions, and recommendations. The summary deals with the specific intent of the study and its results. The conclusions include inferences and assumptions drawn from the findings. The recommendations are related to future implications.

Reading has always been considered the most important subject in the curriculum, particularly in the primary grades. Children's oral language development is currently the object of many research studies.

For years there has been research evidence to support the concept that there is a significant relationship between the student's oral vocabulary to that student's reading vocabulary and that children who will progress well in reading will enter school with the ability to use and respond to oral language. More recently research has indicated a strong relationship between pupil's socioeconomic status and academic achievement. This study investigated the relationship of third grade educationally disadvantaged students' oral vocabulary.

Research has indicated a strong relationship between the socioeconomic status of pupils' families and academic achievement.

Sociologists and researchers of social factors have concluded that the psychological and social trauma experienced by educationally disadvantaged children because of changes in family structure may have direct relationships with academic achievement. This study investigated the relationship of student's oral vocabulary to the student's reading vocabulary, the differences between oral vocabularies of high and low socioeconomic students and students of different ethnic background. The study attempted to determine if there were significant differences among the oral vocabulary scores when third grade educationally disadvantaged pupils were grouped 1) by oral vocabulary and by reading vocabulary ability; 2) by socioeconomic status, and 3) by ethnic origin.

The population for this study consisted of four hundred fifteen third grade educationally disadvantaged students from ten Title I elementary schools in the Oklahoma City Public School System. Data for the study was acquired by administering the Dailey Language Facility Test, the Gates MacGinitie Vocabulary Test, from student's registration and cumulative record folders, and Metropolitan Achievement Test Scores. The cumulative record folder included 1) education attainment of head of the household, 2) job description of the head of household, 3) ethnic origin, and 4) Metropolitan Achievement scores.

Statistical analysis of the data collected was accomplished through the use of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation. The correlation coefficient was used to compare the oral vocabulary

scores of each student with that student's reading vocabulary score. A Multiple Factorial Analysis of Variance in a two by three factorial design was used to compare the oral vocabulary scores of students from different ethnic backgrounds; Black, Caucasian, and Native American or Chicano, and students of high and low socioeconomic status. A computer program, the OU Manova, which compensated for unequal cell size was used in the analysis of the data.

The analysis of data resulted in the following findings:

1. There was no significant relationship between the oral vocabulary of third grade educationally disadvantaged students as measured by the Dailey Language Facility Test and student's reading vocabulary as measured by the Gates MacGinitie Reading Test.

2. There was a significant difference in the oral vocabulary scores of high socioeconomic third grade educationally disadvantaged Black students and high socioeconomic third grade educationally disadvantaged Caucasian students, as well as high socioeconomic Caucasian students and low socioeconomic Black students.

4. There was no significant difference in the oral vocabulary scores of third grade educationally disadvantaged Black students and third grade educationally disadvantaged Native American or Chicano.

5. There was no significant difference in the oral vocabulary scores of third grade educationally disadvantaged Caucasian students

and third grade educationally disadvantaged Native American and Chicano students.

6. There was no significant interaction of ethnic origin of third grade educationally disadvantaged students and socioeconomic status on the oral vocabulary scores of third grade educationally disadvantaged students.

Conclusions

It was indicated from the examination of the results of the data analysis obtained in this study that:

1. The oral vocabulary scores of third grade educationlly disadvantaged students were significantly related to the reading vocabulary scores of these students. Therefore, there may be mutual support between improving a student's oral vocabulary and improving his/her reading vocabulary.

2. For the total sample of third grade educationally disadvantaged Caucasian, third grade educationally disadvantaged Chicano and Native American students, the oral vocabulary scores of low socioeconomic students were significantly lower than the scores of the high socioeconomic students. Low socioeconomic status Black students had a higher $\overline{X}$ oral vocabulary score than the high socioeconomic Black students, but this was the exception.

3. As research has indicated for other areas of academic achievement, socioeconomic status apparently is related to oral vocabulary scores (H_{02}).

4. Caucasians scored significantly higher than Blacks in oral vocabulary, but this was the only instance in which one ethnic group did significantly better than the other. This may have been a result of the poor showing by high socioeconomic status Blacks.

5. There was no significant interaction between the main effects of ethnic group and socioeconomic level. On Figure 1, if the high socioeconomic status Blacks would have scored higher than low socioeconomic Blacks, then the two lines on the chart would have not intersected, and would have almost paralleled one another. In spite of these results, no significant interaction was found.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are offered:

1. It was indicated from the analysis of data obtained in this study that low socioeconomic Black students had a higher $\bar{X}$ oral vocabulary score than the high socioeconomic Black students. Further research is indicated to ascertain if this same result is obtained with other students of this race and age and with students of other ages, and if so, what other significant variables can be identified that might account for the differences.

2. In view of the findings that the oral vocabulary is related to reading vocabulary scores of educationally disadvantaged students, similar studies should be conducted to determine to what extent an educationally disadvantaged child must be competent in oral vocabulary in order to learn to read.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

Applegate, Mauree. Easy in English. Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson and Company, 1962.

Ausubel, David P. "The Effects of Cultural Deprivation on Learning Patterns," Understanding the Educational Problems of the Disadvantaged Learner. Stan W. Webster, Editor. San Francisco, California: Chandler Publishing Co. 1966.

Beck, John M. and Saxe, Richard W. Teaching the Culturally Disadvantaged. Springfield, Illinois: Charles T. Thomas Publisher, 1965.

Bereiter, Carl and Engelmann, Siegfield. Teaching Disadvantaged Children in the Preschool. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1966.

Bond, Guy L. and Tinker, Miles A. Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis and Treatment. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1967.

Bloom, Lois. Language Development: Form and Function in Emerging Grammars. Cambridge: M.T.T. Press, 1970.

Blank, Marion and Soloman, Frances. "A Tutorial Language Program to Develop Abstract Thinking," Reading in Child Psychology. Brian Sutton-Smith, Editor. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, publishers, 1973.

Buros, Oscar Kirsen, ed. The Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook. Highland Park, New Jersey: The Gryphon Press, 1965.

Buros, Oscar Kirsen, ed. The Seventh Mental Measurement Yearbook. Highland Park, New Jersey: The Gryphon Press, 1972.

Cazden, C. B. Children Language and Education. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1972.

Cohen, S. Alan. Teach Them All To Read. New York, New York: Random House, Inc., 1969.

Cuber, John F. and Kenkel, William F. Social Stratification in the United States. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1954.

DeBoer, John J. and Dallmann. The Teaching of Reading. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1970.

Dechant, Emerald V. Improving the Teaching of Reading. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1970.

Dechant, Emerald. Diagnosis and Remediation of Reading Disability. West Nyah, New York: Parker Publishing Company, Inc., 1968.

Fries, Charles Carpenter. Linguistics and Reading. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962.

Garrison, Karl C. and Magoon, Robert A. Educational Psychology: An Integration of Psychology and Educational Practices. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1972.

Goodman, K. S. "Reading: A Psycholinguistic Guessing Game." Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading. Edited by R. Ruddell and H. Singer. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1970.

Greenberg, Joseph. Universal of Language. Cambridge, M.T.T. Press, 1963.

Hess, Robert D. and Croft, Doreen J. Teachers of Young Children. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1972.

Hockett, Charles F. The Problem of Universals in Language. In J. Greenberg (Ed.) Universal of Language. Cambridge, M.T.T. Press, 1963.

Hollingshead, August B. "Commentary on 'The Indiscriminate State of Social Class Measurement,'" Social Forces 49 (June, 1971).

Holt, John. "Introduction" in Herbert Kohl. Teaching the "Unteachable." New York: The New York Review, 1966.

Jones, Daisy M. Teaching Children to Read. New York: Harper and Row, 1971.

Karlin, Robert. Teaching Elementary Reading. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1971.

Lefevre, Carl A. Linguistics and the Teaching of Reading. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964.

Nixon, Ruth H. and Nixon, Clifford L. Introduction to Early Childhood Education. New York: Random House, 1970.

Painter, Genenieve. Infant Education. San Rafael, California: Dimensions Publishing Company, 1968.

Russell, David H. Children Learn to Read. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1961.

Slobin, D. I. Grammatical Development in Several Languages with Special Attention to Soviet Research. Beurer and W. Weksel (Eds.) Cambridge, M.T.T. Press, 1968.

Spache, George D. and Spache, Everlyn B. Reading in the Elementary School. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1969.

Stevens, George L. "Implications of Montessori for the War on Poverty," Montessori for the Disadvantaged. R. C. Orem, Editor. New York: Capricorn Books, 1967.

Tinker, Miles H. and McCullough, Constance M. Teaching Elementary Reading. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1968.

Warner-Ashton. Teacher. New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 1966.

Wattenberg, William W. "Education for the Culturally Deprived," Children with Reading Problems. Gladys Natchez, Editor. New York: Basic Books, Inc., Publishers, 1968.

Yamane, Taro. Statistics on Introductory Analysis. New York: Harper and Row, 1964.

Microform Reproductions

Artie, Daniel A. and Giles, Douglas E. A Comparison of the Oral Language Development of Head Start Pupils with Non-Head Start Pupils. ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 010 848, 1966.

Bougere, M. B. Factors in Oral Language Related to First Grade Achievement. Chicago, Ill.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 069 553, 1968.

Dale, Edgar. Vocabulary Development: A Neglected Phase of Reading Instruction. Paper presented at the Annual Convention of International Assn. (17th, Detroit, May 10-13), ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 063 597, 1972.

Shipley, E. F., Smith, C. S. and Gleitman, L. R. A Study in the Acquisition of Language. ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 063 580, 1969.

Wai-Ching, Ho, and Eiszler, Charles F. Interaction Effects of Socio-Economic Status Intelligence, and Reading Programs on Beginning Reading Achievement. Bethesda, MD: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 039 114, 1970.

Whiteman, Martin. Some Effects of Social Class and Race on Children's Language and Intellectual Abilities. New York: N.Y.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 022 540, 1965.

Periodicals

Allen, R. V. "More Ways than One." Childhood Education 38 (Nov., 1961): 108-111.

Bond, Guy L. and Dystra, Robert. "The Cooperative Research Program in First Grade Reading Instruction." Reading Research Quarterly 2 (Summer 1967).

Brittan, M. M. "Inflectional Performance and Early Reading Achievement." Reading Research Quarterly 8 (Fall 1970): 34-48.

Brown, R. and Hanlon C. Deviational Complexity and Order of Acquisition in Child Speech. Paper presented at Carnegie. Mellon Symposium on Cognitive Psychology, Pittsburg, 1968.

Cazden, Courtney. "The Acquisition of Noun and Verb Inflections." Child Development 43: (September 1968): 443-448.

Chomsky, C. "Stages in Language Development and Reading Exposure." Harvard Educational Review 42 (Feb. 1972): 1-33.

Cohan, D. "Effect of Literature on Vocabulary and Reading." Elementary English 45 (Winter 1968): 209-13.

Dailey, John T. "Dailey Language Facility Test." National Association for Retarded Children (January 1967).

Davis, Frederick. "Research in Comprehension in Reading." Reading Research Quarterly 3 (Summer 1968): 508.

Deutsch, Martin. "The Role of Social Class in Language Development and Cognition." American Journal of Orthopsychiatry 35 (January 1965): 78-87.

Deutsch, Cynthia P. "Auditory Discrimination and Learning." Merrill-Palmer Quarterly 10 (1964): 277-95.

Dreger, R. M. and Miller, K.S. "Comparative Psychological Studies of Negroes and Whites in the United States," Psychological Bulletin 57 (1960): 361-402.

Glazer, N. "Ethnic Groups and Education: Towards the Tolerance of Difference," The Journal of Negro Education, 1969, 38, 187-195.

Goodman, Kenneth S. "Dialect Barriers to Reading Comprehension." Elementary English 42 (December 1965), 853-860.

Goldberg, M. L. "Factors Affecting Educational Attainment in Depressed Urban Areas." In Education in Depressed Areas. A. Harry Passon, editor. Columbia University: Teachers College Press, (1963): 173-178.

Gredler, G. R. "Performance on a Perceptual Test with Children from Culturally Disadvantaged Background." In Perception and Reading. Helen K. Smith, editor. Newark, Del.: International Reading Association, (1968): 284.

Jaggers, Angelia M. and Cullinan, Bernice E. "Relating Reading to Language in Initial Reading Instruction." Black Dialects and Reading. National Council of Teachers of English. Urbana, Illinois: ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, (1974).

Kahl, Joseph A. and Davis, James R. "A Comparison of Indexes of Socio-Economic Status." American Sociological Review 20 (June 1955): 324.

Kallan, Cynthia A. "Privation or Deprivation: A Discussion on the Culturally Deprived Child." Journal of Learning Disabilities 3 (1970): 26-29.

Katz, E. W. and Brent, S. B. "Understanding Connectives." Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior 7 (July 1968): 501-509.

Kendrick, William M. and Bennett, Clayton L. "A Comparative Study of Two First Grade Language Arts Programs Extended into Second Grades." Reading Teacher 20 (May 1967): 747-755.

Klineberg, D. "Negro-White Differences in Intelligence Test Performance: A New Look at an Old Problem." American Psychologist 18 (1963): 198-203.

Kohlberg, L. and Gilligan, C. "The Adolescent as a Philosopher: The Discovery of the Self in a Post Conventional World." Doedalus 100 (1971): 1051 - 1086.

Lawson, Edwin D. and Boek, Walter E. "Correlations of Indexes of Families' Socio-Economic Status," Social Forces 39 (December 1960): 150.

Loban, W. D. "The Language of Elementary School Children." National Council of Teachers of English 1 (August 1963): 38-40.

Loban, Walter. "Oral Language Proficiency Affects Reading and Writing," The Instructor LSV (March 1966), 97, 102, 106.

Menyuk, Paula. Aspects of Language Acquisition and Implications for Later Language Development. Paper presented at curriculum office conference on primary schools. English, Melbourne, Australia, August 30 - Sept. 3, 1971. English Australia 19 (February 1972).

Moynihan, Daniel P. "Sources of Resistance to the Coleman Report." Harvard Educational Review 38 (1968): 33.

O'Donnell, R. C., Griffin, W. J., and Norris, R. C. "Syntax of Kindergarten and Elementary School Children." National Council of Teachers of English 8 (May 1967), 284.

Olson, David R. and Pau, A. A. "Emotionally Loaded Words and the Acquisition of a Sight Vocabulary." Journal of Educational Psychology 57 (June 1966): 174-178.

Ruddell, Robert B. "The Effect of Oral and Written Patterns of Language Structure on Reading Comprehension." Reading Teacher 18 (January 1965): 270-275.

Staffer, Russell G. and Hammond, Dorsey W. "The Effectiveness of Language Arts and Basic Reader Approaches to First Grade Reading Instruction." Reading Teacher 20 (May 1967): 740-746.

Strickland, Ruth G. "The Language of Elementary School Children: Its Relationship to the Language of Reading Textbooks and the Quality of Reading of Selected Children." Bulletin of the School of Education 38: 4, Bloomington: Indiana University (July 1962).

Tatham, Susan Masland. "Reading Comprehension of Materials Written with Selected Oral Language: A Study at Grades Two and Four." Reading Research Quarterly 5 (Spring 1970): 402-426.

Templin, Mildred C. "Norms on Screening Test of Articulation for Ages Three Through Eight," Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders, Vol. 18, Dec., 1963, pp. 323-31.

Venezky, Richard. "Nonstandard Language and Reading." Elementary English 7 (1970): 334.

Vilsek, Elain C., Cleland, Donald L., and Bilka, Loisanne. "Coordinating and Integrating Language Arts Instruction." Reading Teacher 21 (October 1967)

Unpublished Materials

Bewley, Wesley Leon. "The Effects of Family Structure on Socioeconomic Status, and Pupil Gender Upon Children's Reading Readiness Scores." Doctoral dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1975.

Nelson, Katherine. Presyntactical Strategies for Learning to Talk. Unpublished paper presented at Biennial Meeting, Society for Research in Child Development, Minneapolis, Minn., 1971.

Public Documents

U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1970, 93rd ed. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1972.

Oklahoma State Department of Education. Title I Regulations and Guidelines for Local Educational Agencies: 1965. Oklahoma: State Department Printing Office, 1975-76.

APPENDIX A

DATA USED IN ANALYSIS

Ethnic Origin	Socio-economic Status	Oral Vocabulary	Reading Vocabulary
Black	Low	63	5
Black	Low	57	2
Black	Low	43	14
Black	Low	8	10
Black	Low	27	2
Black	Low	43	31
Black	Low	72	2
Black	Low	43	66
Black	Low	8	58
Black	Low	63	50
Black	Low	90	54
Black	Low	18	14
Black	Low	18	12
Black	Low	81	58
Black	Low	43	12
Black	Low	50	10
Black	Low	57	14
Black	Low	43	14
Black	Low	57	16
Black	Low	8	21
Black	Low	50	10
Black	Low	18	42
Black	Low	57	4
Black	Low	50	5
Black	Low	27	16
Black	Low	63	50
Black	Low	50	5
Black	Low	27	46
Black	Low	57	38
Black	Low	50	14
Black	Low	63	10
Black	Low	90	66
Black	Low	50	31
Black	Low	57	66
Black	Low	10	4
Black	Low	35	7
Black	Low	27	27
Black	Low	18	10
Black	Low	18	4
Black	Low	8	12
Black	Low	8	2
Black	Low	18	16
Black	Low	35	10
Black	Low	27	10
Black	Low	8	2
Black	Low	18	4

Ethnic Origin	Socio-economic Status	Oral Vocabulary	Reading Vocabulary
Black	Low	57	16
Black	Low	27	12
Black	Low	8	12
Black	Low	27	4
Black	Low	18	38
Black	Low	8	54
Black	Low	57	4
Black	High	18	27
Black	High	8	10
Black	High	18	31
Black	High	35	12
Black	High	8	14
Black	High	8	10
Black	High	8	2
Black	High	27	31
Black	High	8	2
Black	High	18	16
Black	High	72	2
Black	High	90	50
Black	High	72	31
Black	High	50	42
Black	High	35	16
Black	High	8	12
Black	High	50	12
Black	High	8	2
Black	High	43	12
Black	High	50	50
Black	High	57	38
Black	High	50	31
Black	High	8	27
Black	High	35	46
Black	High	43	46
Black	High	57	16
Black	High	43	27
Black	High	50	54
Caucasian	Low	18	38
Caucasian	Low	8	4
Caucasian	Low	63	34
Caucasian	Low	50	4
Caucasian	Low	50	2
Caucasian	Low	8	5
Caucasian	Low	81	38
Caucasian	Low	80	50
Caucasian	Low	50	27
Caucasian	Low	8	10
Caucasian	Low	35	2
Caucasian	Low	50	24
Caucasian	Low	35	2
Caucasian	Low	8	4
Caucasian	Low	43	21
Caucasian	Low	8	58

Ethnic Origin	Socio-economic Status	Oral Vocabulary	Reading Vocabulary
Caucasian	Low	8	16
Caucasian	Low	90	50
Caucasian	Low	81	2
Caucasian	Low	72	2
Caucasian	Low	90	7
Caucasian	Low	90	21
Caucasian	Low	18	14
Caucasian	Low	8	31
Caucasian	Low	35	14
Caucasian	Low	35	46
Caucasian	Low	27	42
Caucasian	Low	18	27
Caucasian	Low	50	46
Caucasian	Low	27	16
Caucasian	Low	43	34
Caucasian	Low	63	12
Caucasian	Low	50	21
Caucasian	Low	35	16
Caucasian	Low	8	7
Caucasian	Low	18	4
Caucasian	Low	27	12
Caucasian	Low	35	27
Caucasian	Low	18	7
Caucasian	Low	90	31
Caucasian	Low	8	7
Caucasian	Low	0	5
Caucasian	Low	43	14
Caucasian	Low	18	7
Caucasian	Low	18	2
Caucasian	Low	43	27
Caucasian	Low	18	7
Caucasian	Low	43	2
Caucasian	Low	81	27
Caucasian	Low	8	2
Caucasian	Low	43	21
Caucasian	Low	43	14
Caucasian	Low	27	38
Caucasian	Low	90	42
Caucasian	High	43	12
Caucasian	High	8	50
Caucasian	High	27	2
Caucasian	High	43	31
Caucasian	High	27	2
Caucasian	High	43	12
Caucasian	High	72	7
Caucasian	High	72	5
Caucasian	High	63	21
Caucasian	High	63	4
Caucasian	High	50	10
Caucasian	High	18	46

Ethnic Origin	Socio-economic Status	Oral Vocabulary	Reading Vocabulary
Caucasian	High	8	16
Caucasian	High	27	14
Caucasian	High	72	58
Caucasian	High	35	31
Caucasian	High	35	76
Caucasian	High	90	38
Caucasian	High	8	46
Caucasian	High	63	16
Caucasian	High	90	50
Caucasian	High	81	14
Caucasian	High	18	12
Caucasian	High	90	46
Caucasian	High	18	34
Caucasian	High	18	14
Caucasian	High	50	4
Caucasian	High	8	2
Other	Low	8	31
Other	Low	8	14
Other	Low	20	58
Other	Low	18	54
Other	Low	8	7
Other	Low	27	27
Other	Low	43	14
Other	Low	8	16
Other	Low	72	2
Other	Low	90	34
Other	Low	50	42
Other	Low	18	16
Other	Low	57	12
Other	Low	57	38
Other	Low	27	12
Other	Low	8	7
Other	Low	27	4
Other	Low	8	5
Other	Low	18	27
Other	Low	8	2
Other	Low	43	21
Other	High	72	16
Other	High	27	5
Other	High	27	4
Other	High	27	2
Other	High	27	16
Other	High	81	34
Other	High	50	21
Other	High	8	7
Other	High	8	24
Other	High	35	46
Other	High	18	12
Other	High	90	42
Other	High	72	14
Other	High	81	16

APPENDIX B

Oklahoma City Public Schools
900 North Klein
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma 73106

September 23,1976

Mr. Elbert Jones
Route 1 Box 264A
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

Dear Mr. Jones,

I am happy to inform you that the Research Screening Committee has approved your request to conduct a study in the Oklahoma City Public Schools. Please contact the following principals to make further arrangements for your study:

School	Principal
Adams	Merle Monroe
Edgemere	Louis Ray
Lee	Lee Wyatt
Riverside	Roy Watson
Shidler	Roy Watson
Shields Heights	Charles Lewis
Wheeler	Bill Shehorn
Willard	Jesse Thompson
Wilson	Waylan Ables
Putnam Heights	Winfred Poemoceah

Please feel free to contact this office if you feel there is a need for further clarification of this matter. Good luck on your study.

Sincerely,
Maxie Wood
Maxie Wood
Senior Research Associate

MW:fks