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The Effects of an Intensive Language Development Program on the Expressive and Receptive Language of Kindergarten Children

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The Effects of An Intensive Language Development Program on the Expressive and Receptive Language of Kindergarten Children

Thesis

Submitted to the Graduate Committee of the Department of Curriculum and Instruction Faculty of Education State University College at Brockport in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science in Education: Reading Teacher

by

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Dedicated to Ron and my parents
for all of their
love and encouragement

Special thanks to Dr. Arthur Smith and Dr. Gerald Begy
for all of their assistance and patience

Special thanks also to Mr. Robert VanDeusen and all those
involved at the Albion Primary School for
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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect that an intensive program of language development had on the expressive and receptive language of kindergarten children.

The design of this study was a one group pretest, posttest design. This study consisted of approximately twenty-five kindergarten children from a rural community. Each student was pretested individually using the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (Form A), the Test of Language Development, and a taped, oral test developed by the researcher. At the conclusion of the instruction, each child was individually posttested using the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (Form B), the Test of Language Development, and a taped, oral test developed by the researcher.

A program of language development was extended over a period of six months from December to May. The program of language development was based on the Peabody Language Development Kit, Levels One and Two, and a language-experience approach based on the books An Experience-Based Approach to Language and Reading by Braun and Froese (1977) and Language Face to Face edited by Early (1971).

A t test for Related Measures was employed to determine any significant differences between pretest and posttest scores of the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test and the Test of Language Development. The oral, taped, researcher-devised test was scored according to the syntactic analysis developed by Ekhtiar (1962) and used in studies of language by Strickland. A descriptive score was obtained from this analysis providing information regarding the basic patterns of structure which appear in the oral language of children and the patterns of subordination and elaboration which are employed.

From this study, findings indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in expressive language but that statistically significant differences existed in the area of receptive language and in a combination of expressive and receptive language. In the descriptive analysis, there was considerable difference in the pretest and posttest results. The most noticeable difference was on the first level of analysis which identified the patterns of stationary elements. Findings from the study showed that the children's ability to understand and use their language had increased significantly while their skills of imitating speech had not been noticeably changed.

From the results, it can be concluded that an intensive program of language development can make a significant difference on the receptive and on a combination of receptive and expressive language of kindergarten children.
Chapter I

Statement of the Problem

A good language background is considered very important for success in school. Once a child has begun school, it is often assumed he will supplement his language with further developments from other subject matter he encounters in the classroom situation. A specific program of language development is rarely used unless the child is considered mentally handicapped or has severe speech impediments. The development of a child's language then is often not followed or directed through a specific progression of skills but left to a haphazard method of instruction.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to examine the effect that an intensive program of language development has on the expressive and receptive language of kindergarten children.

Questions to Be Answered

The following questions will be answered by the study:

1. Will there be a significant gain in expressive language as measured by the Test of Language
Development (Newcomer, Hammill, 1977) subtest of sentence imitation?

2. Will there be a statistically significant gain in receptive language as measured by the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test and the Test of Language Development subtest of grammatic understanding?

3. Will there be a statistically significant gain in a combination of expressive and receptive language as measured by the Test of Language Development subtest of grammatic completion?

Need for the Study

Language activities, particularly at the primary level, are often utilized randomly and do not follow a sequenced process of development. This is the reverse of what should be occurring since the primary grades represent a major period of language acquisition. According to McKenna (1977), the particular type of language code a child acquires will depend upon his or her linguistic environment. She states that the successful acquisition of language requires more than merely observing the process of the child's acquisition of language, but rather a continuous and thorough analysis of this orderly, rapid development.

Programs of language acquisition at this time in
a child's education could prove to be of considerable significance since research suggests that children who possess a good language background may have greater success in reading. It was shown by Loban (1976) that children who were superior in oral language in kindergarten and grade one before they learned to read and write excelled in reading and writing by the time they were in grade six. In her notable study of language, Strickland (1962) showed that knowledge of the oral aspects of language could help children turn the stimulus of printed symbols into oral language patterns for better comprehension and interpretation. Medina-Spyroupoulos (1975) demonstrated in her research that the richness of a kindergarten child's verbal output was an excellent prognostic sign of reading ability. In a study by Samuels, Begy, and Chen (1975), it was demonstrated that better readers were able to process visually presented words at a faster rate. The visual stimuli from words which fall upon the retina of eyes are essentially the same for all readers but what is done with this visual information is what differentiates good and poor readers. Holmes (1973) asserts that the more a reader can contribute "nonvisual information" from his prior knowledge of the probabilities of words (and meanings) in language, the less visual information is required to read, whether attempting to identify letters, words, or entire
meanings. Thus, research has shown that a correlation exists between language development and reading.

Theoretically, reading appears to be much more than just decoding letters and words. According to Smith (1973), we must also contribute nonvisual information to reading. We must know something of the language in which the material is written; and about its subject matter, and about reading. The nature of written language is such that words cannot be uniquely identified and sentences cannot be comprehensibly uttered unless the meaning of the word is determined first. (p. 6-7)

As stated by Lockette (1977), the more concrete experiences that back up every word and mental image, the richer the base will be on which the child has to build. Heider, Heider, and Templin (1969) agree that the opportunity for oral language experiences through hearing would apparently directly influence performance in written language.

At the primary level, the child entering school has already acquired a large vocabulary and is aware of and able to apply hundreds of grammatical rules (Smith, 1975). However, the language of the child at this level is still being formulated and learned. This requires a sequenced and directed process of instruction for maximum development.

**Definition of Terms**

Language - a knowledge of a code for representing ideas about the world through a conventional system
of arbitrary signals of communication (Bloom, 1978)

Receptive Language - ability to understand certain phonological, syntactic, and semantic linguistic forms (Test of Language Development, 1977)

Expressive Language - ability to use certain phonological, syntactic, and semantic linguistic forms (Test of Language Development, 1977)

Limitations

One of the limitations is the use of only one group in the study and the lack of a control group. This design is due to the unavailability of a second group and necessitates a one group pretest, posttest design. The size of the group is also dependent on the availability of students.

One important factor occurring during the project was the maturation of the students involved in the study. This occurred independent of the program of language development and was an uncontrollable factor in the research.

These limitations must be accounted for and will be taken into consideration in the final analysis and conclusions.
Summary

The language of children develops quickly and in a sequenced progression. It has been shown that background is an important factor influencing this development. The type of language code acquired depends upon the linguistic environment of the child.

A good language background is considered very important for success in school and some research suggests that those possessing a good language background may have greater success in reading. For this reason, an intensive, highly structured instructional program of language development at the primary level could prove to be very valuable.
Chapter II

Review of the Literature

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect that an intensive program of language development had on the expressive and receptive language of kindergarten children.

The effects of children's language development on reading skills were reviewed in this chapter. First theories of language development were examined. Second, research concerning theories relating reading and language development were reviewed. Finally, methods of language development employed to develop reading skills were examined.

Development of Language

Language, according to many theorists, develops in a variety of ways and includes various aspects of man's biological and environmental background. Athey (1971) reviewed three basic theories of language development: Statt's operational conditioning model; Lenneberg's biological model; and Piaget's cognitive model. In the operational conditioning model theory, babbling of infants gives way to speech which is positively reinforced. This theory includes many aspects of speech to explain development of language including those of mediation,
generalization, and discrimination.

Lenneberg's biological model theorizes that the acquisition of language has a biological basis and is a manifestation of a species with specific cognitive propensities. The cognitive function which underlies language is an adaption of the ability to extract categories and similarities. All important milestones in speech acquisition, according to this theory, are reached at a fixed sequence and at a constant, chronological age.

In the final theory, Piaget's cognitive method, any description of a child's language is ultimately a part of the larger model of the child's developing cognitive organization. This development occurs concurrently with the various stages of cognitive development from sensorimotor to the stage of formal operations.

Similar research in this area was also completed by Butler (1974) who investigated the three major theories of language development, adopting the labels of behavioristic theory, nativistic theory, and cognitive theory. Each one is similar to those examined in Athey's research. In the behavioristic theory, children learn language by imitation and reinforcement, and stimuli eliminate or strengthen certain behaviors. In the environment, the behavior of children that is reinforced by other is strengthened while behavior that
receives no attention is omitted. Language is considered innate in the nativistic theory, learned from within rather than externally. It is almost impossible to suppress the acquisition of language, and a sequence of the characteristics of its development appears to be the same in all languages. In the cognitive theory, children are born with certain abilities to learn language. The process in which these abilities develop are closely related to stages of comprehension of concepts and mental abilities.

Rado (1976) determined that rhythms in language are probably learned in utero. She observed the movement behavior of non-crying vocalizations of newborn infants and found these to be influenced by the mother's movement, rhythms, heartbeat, and the culturally determined biochemical routine and reactions. From this, it is suggested that neonates are preconditioned by experiential uterine training of events and processes. Leiberman (1967) also found in his research that the intonation of the mother tongue is established by the first birthday.

In language development, differences were found to exist between sexes (Horgan, 1975). At the earliest stages of development, boys appeared to be slightly more advanced than girls. Girls, however, produced longer utterances at younger ages with more varied
construction and made fewer errors. The social background of the child seemed to have a significant effect and the linguistic turning point (adult-like sentences) correlated with differences in the way the child was perceived and treated by adults and older children. Horgan maintained that children did get the social-cultural message that girls should be more verbal than boys.

Tough (1974) also found that the social environment of the child had a major effect on the language of the child. From her studies, she concluded that different environments, which employ language differently seem likely to account for some of the differences in children's ability to communicate through language. Even by the time the child is three years old, living in a particular kind of environment will already have had a marked effect.

Anastasiow (1971) also supported the concept that the background a child possessed and the environment in which he was raised had a great effect on the development of his language. In his research, he felt that the emotional development as affected by the environment could have a large impact on the child's language development. Language, which is first manifested orally around age one, seems most vulnerable to emotional interference, and at age two when most children make rapid language
growth, the emotionally abnormal child is very uncommunicative.

Many theorists felt that in the process of language development, the social aspect of play helped produce and reinforce the development of the children's language. In the act of playing, children are given an opportunity to try out and experience language they have acquired thus far while expanding their own development with others. Krasher (1975) felt that conversations of children, particularly role-playing ones, were a basis for social contact. Through these experiences, the child became a practicing social being and showed this to others. Krasher stated:

Play is not relaxation from the serious business of life. The children are trying on adult-roles they will later act-or play-and exploring them. They are learning about things and about relationships. They are sharpening their language skills and social skills. Play includes many things, and with children, the transition between play and "real" life is easily made, with children moving back and forth rapidly and without serious dissonance. (p. 14)

Tough (1974) found that children need to be exposed to many concepts and words while their language is developing because each time a word is used, the child becomes aware of one more instance of the concept. Hearing words, according to Vygotsky (1974), assists the child in ordering and classifying experiences. Using the
words offers a means of testing hypotheses about their meanings. Vygotsky holds that the development of concepts, other than those that can be abstracted directly from concrete experience, must be dependent on the language of the tutoring adult, at least until the extension of ideas can be reached through reading.

Mayhew (1976) found it to be very important that the school provide a language-rich environment for the child. Children enter school with a wide variety of experiences from which they have learned a great deal. They have also spent the last five years trying out their hypotheses about language, and all that they say and understand are the results of this interaction with the world. From this, Mayhew felt that the teacher must provide as much opportunity for communication as possible.

In a language-poor environment where all the input is coming from a teacher, with no provision for hypotheses testing, how does this child establish an association? The challenge to teachers is that in lieu of a language-poor environment, the classroom should be a stimulus for language. Turn the classroom into a language-rich environment. We must not ignore the meaning of communication. If this fact is recognized, no word, no skill will be taught in isolation. Every experience provided for the child will be structured to enhance this learning. (p. 16-17)

As a result of this research, it is felt that the development of language does continue through the early years of school. For the maximum development of language,
many theorists feel that language is still developing when a child enters school, and adults in the child's environment must continue to expand and enhance this development.

In conclusion, Mayhew explains, investigators are telling us to provide a language-rich environment that is conducive to hypothesis testing, thus ensuring continued learning.
Language Development and Reading

Language As Communication

In all societies, some form of communication takes place, beginning with oral language which generally expands into a type of written or a visual form of language. Many theorists feel that children in different societies learn language in a variety of ways, but it is inevitable that they do acquire some form of the language of their society. As stated by Kenneth Goodman (1975):

Language is always a means and never an end in itself. Nobody ever learned to talk because he wanted to; nobody ever learned to talk because it's fun to talk. Language is learned because you have ideas to communicate and because other people have ideas to communicate to you and also because it's a very convenient useful medium for manipulating experiences and developing concepts and representing them to yourself and to other people. (p. 628)

Language is a necessary tool in societies and to be a functioning member of society, a child must acquire some form of its language. Goodman considers language a personal and social invention because it makes it possible for humans to achieve a unique interaction among themselves. Ervin-Tripp (1973) stated that the language ability of young children is unlimited. If there is something that they must communicate, they will always find a means to do it.
It has been shown that children must have an understanding of the language they are using in order to communicate with others. Miller (1973) stated that the child learns the language and meanings of words because he is shaped by nature to pay attention to it, to notice and remember it, and to use significant aspects of it.

**Reading As Communication**

Goodman (1977) considers written language to as natural as oral language in society. In fact, it is a natural extension of the human ability to create language to deal with each communicative function as it develops. He also feels the two most important resources that anyone brings to learning to read and write are his or her competence in the oral language and undiminished ability to learn language as it is needed for new functions.

Understanding language, acquired through its use in oral situations, is considered of major importance in beginning to read. Smith (1973) stated:

Obviously reading is a visual activity in the sense that we cannot read print with the lights out. But being able to see sentences in front of our eyes is not enough—we must also contribute non-visual information. We must know something of the language in which the material is written, and about its subject matter, and about reading. (p. 6)
Smith (1973) specifically pointed out that the nature of written language is such that words cannot be uniquely identified and sentences cannot be comprehensibly uttered unless the meaning of the word is determined first.

Goodman (1975) also expressed a similar opinion stating that when reading is taught, one is trying to teach children how to get meaning from print. Ability to read and understand thought depends on what the reader brings to that particular situation. Ervin-Tripp (1973) stated that when children are looking at words, they must simultaneously understand the meaning.

Zintz (1978) asserted that facility with language may be one of the most important factors in learning to read. Hildreth (1978) felt very strongly that a child's oral language habits must furnish a bridge to the next steps in linguistic accomplishment, learning to read and write.

It is doubtful whether a child can become a fluent reader, comprehending fully what he reads, without a good oral language foundation and continued attention to oral language improvements. Reading materials for beginners should make use of current experiences couched in the everyday spoken language the children know and use as a bridge to the less familiar written language and situations of the reading books. (p. 176-177)

Many theorists feel that reading and writing are visual forms of language or speech, and success in the
oral form of language will benefit one's skill in the visual form. Holmes (1973) has stated that the more a reader could contribute "nonvisual information" from his prior knowledge of the probabilities of words (and meanings) in language, the less visual information he requires in order to read, whether he is attempting to identify letters, words, or entire meanings. Nila Banton Smith (1975) also stated that this understanding of oral language in young children serves as a foundation for reading, and that the comprehension of language reinforces reading throughout the school years.

Wilkinson (1969) stated that the level of a child's oracy in beginning reading is crucial. The child ought to be able to recognize words, to predict their arrangement, and thus to "make sense" of the visual signs he will receive.

Learning to read then is a matter of drawing on one's prior knowledge. Children normally have a larger vocabulary and knowledge of structures that they will encounter in their reading textbooks. In all these ways, reading is a matter of using the skill and knowledge one already has. It is not just transfer. One has never spoken the sentences one meets in books, but on the whole one will have met all the elements---vocabulary and structure, which has to be organized; but this organization and understanding is a general linguistic and thinking process, not specifically a reading process. (p. 1108)
Research On Language Development and Reading

Loban (1976) reported a longitudinal study of language development with a group of children from kindergarten through grade twelve. His purpose was to examine the language development of the same group of children from age five until age eighteen. Other objectives were to identify differences between subjects who ranked high in language proficiency and those who ranked low, to look for stages of language development and rate of yearly growth, to locate significant features of language worthy of further study, and to devise methods of analysis which go beyond the narrow educational testing of language and contribute to a more complete evaluation of true language effectiveness. One of the major findings of this study was that those superior in oral language in kindergarten and grade one before they learned to read were the ones to excel in reading and writing by the time they were in grade six. Data showed a positive relationship of success among the language arts. It was also found that the social conditions under which the high performance subjects lived provided them with situations requiring and encouraging power of expression. Their home lives and their compatibility with the school environment "extracted" from them complexity of thought, functional uses of abstraction, distillations of experience into words, and imaginative
foreseeing of consequences. Their need for more concepts produced language for categorizing, comparing, contrasting, and conjecturing as well as for clarifying and communicating feelings and emotions. It was found that language still operated to preserve social class distinctions and remained one of the major barriers to crossing social lines. Loban (1976) felt that it was important for teachers to help children acquire standard English without making them ashamed of their own way of speaking. Such an addition would be possible through instruction where drill and directed effort were oral and not separated from language used to express ideas, attitudes, and values of genuine concern to the learners.

In 1962, Strickland reported a study of the language of the elementary school children and its relationship to the language of reading textbooks and the quality of reading of selected children. Two groups were employed in this research, one at the sixth grade level and one at the second grade level. In the sixth grade study, it was found that children who ranked high in silent reading comprehension, oral reading interpretation, and listening comprehension made more use of the common structural patterns than did children who ranked low on these variables. The use of these patterns was more closely related to listening comprehension than to any variable. These high-
ranking pupils used fewer shorter utterances and had a high mean sentence length than did pupils in the low-ranking group.

In the second grade study, children in the lowest category of reading age made more use of simple patterns of fixed slots, while children in the highest category tended to use the patterns in extended and elaborated form and therefore in longer phonological units. From this research, Strickland stated:

It is possible that children need help to recognize and understand the entire phonemic scheme of English, not only the basic phonemes but also the suprasegmental phonemes of pitch, stress, and juncture as they use them in oral speech. Such knowledge might help children better to turn the stimulus of printed symbols into oral language patterns for both comprehension and interpretation. (p. 123)

Medina-Spyroupolous (1975) conducted a study on predicting reading performance at the kindergarten level. The number of words spoken by children during their story-telling was recorded. It was believed that the length of verbal responses was a relatively simple and objective measure of a child's level of spoken language. The richness of verbal output, whether related to environmental stimulation, to inherent linguistic endowment, or to both, was an excellent predictor of future progress in reading achievement.

Samuels, Begy, and Chen (1975) conducted an investigation of word recognition speed and word recognition
strategies derived from partial models of word recognition. The partial model was based on the hypotheses/test procedure. In the first experiment, college juniors were used, and in the second experiment, fourth graders were used. Results showed that more fluent readers were faster in word recognition, superior in ability to generate a target word given in context and minimal cues from the target, and superior in awareness when a false recognition had been made. From this research, it was demonstrated that better readers were able to process visually presented words at a faster rate.

Compton (1972) conducted a similar study investigating the relationship between oral language facility and reading achievement of selected first grade children. Teachers selected children who were non-verbal and those who were verbal to take part in the study. From the research, it was shown that there were no differences between the verbal and non-verbal groups in reading achievement in vocabulary or comprehension, and differences between boys and girls existed in reading achievement in comprehension.

Schulte (1968) completed a study investigating relationships between oral language and reading achievement of second grade subjects of average intelligence and comparable social class background. Her purpose was to
determine whether any aspects of language usage discriminate between below average, average, and above average readers. From her analysis, three language variables were found that consistently discriminated between good and poor readers. Better readers used a greater number of both different words and syntactical structure variables. Findings indicated that the placement, type, and fillers of subordination were more important than a general measure of subordination in studying the children's language. Both experience and maturation could be interacting to produce differences in oral language.

Lundberg and Torneus (1978) investigated the non-reader's awareness of the difference between spoken and written words. In their study, one hundred children divided into age groups were presented with seventy-two spoken and written word pairs consisting of one short word and one long word. They were asked to indicate the target word in each pair and explain their choice. The basis for the correct non-reading solution was attention to the surface aspects of words and the recognition of a relation between the sound duration and the number of graphemes. A main experimental variable was the relationship between the number of graphemes and the size of the denoted object. In the group of four-year-old children, who were the youngest, irrelevant and non-
linguistic solutions predominated. The group of the seven-year-old children were guided more by semantic content, and the proper understanding of the relationship between the spoken and written words was observed. From this study, it was found that a substantial number of the preschool group seemed to have poor concepts of a basic principle of our writing system. It appeared to Lundberg and Torneus that there may be considerable risk in conventional beginning reading instruction with a phonemic emphasis before children have developed necessary metalinguistic skills. The researchers concluded that this could have serious educational consequences and suggested that prereading programs might focus on development of linguistic awareness.

A two year investigation of the relation of oral language proficiency and reading achievement of first grade children with a French linguistic background was made by Bradley (1972). Her purpose was to assess the oral language proficiency of children from four schools, each representing a different socioeconomic group. An attempt was made to determine the relation between oral language proficiency as measured by a criterion instrument and reading achievement. By introducing one experimental oral language developmental program to disadvantaged
Negro pupils, attempt was made to measure the effects of the program on language development during the second year of school. Results from this study indicated a significant difference in language patterns of entering first graders in four schools. A significant difference was found to exist in favor of the experimental group of Negro students in the rate of change in phonology and morphology scores during second year of school.

A study was carried out by Wiethorn and Kagen (1978) on the interaction of language development and activity level on performance of first graders. Overall results supported the predictions that high language maturity can be an important factor in the language arts performance of high-activity-level children, enabling them to function well despite their behavioral impulsivity. The relationship of language maturity to both increased "latency" and fewer errors suggested that children of language maturity, regardless of activity level, attended longer to the task and produced fewer errors than did children of low language maturity.

Two studies dealt specifically with silent reading along with vocabulary and oral reading interpretation. The purpose of a study by Evertts (1962) was to investi-
gate the relationships among the oral language of sixth grade pupils and their silent reading comprehension, oral reading interpretation, and listening comprehension. Their language was studied in relation to variables of chronological age, verbal intelligence, non-verbal intelligence, total intelligence, mental age, sex, occupational status, and educational background of both parents. Significant differences were found between the use of subordinate elements and occupational status, mother's education, verbal intelligence, and chronological age. Significant differences were also found between the use of movables and the mother's education, verbal intelligence, father's education, and mental age. A statistically nonsignificant relationship was found to exist between the structure of the children's oral language and silent reading comprehension, oral reading interpretation, and listening comprehension. The maturity of language was expressed by greater sentence length, fewer short utterances, a greater use of common structural patterns, an increased use of movables and elements of subordination, and a variation within slots and movables. The relation of the use of oral language and skill in its handling to silent reading comprehension and oral reading interpretation indicated a closer association between oral language and reading.
The other study, conducted by Raulin (1962), determined the nature of the relationship between silent reading achievement and oral vocabulary of two matched groups of eight, nine, and ten year olds from a suburban, middle-class environment. The students were matched on the basis of sex, age, IQ, reading achievement, and absence of speech and physical defects. Bilingual children, non-whites, twins, children with behavior problems or living in foster homes or institutions were excluded from the study. In comparing groups of different reading achievement, a significant difference existed in production of gross total words and total different words. When the groups were compared on the basis of sex with reading achievement held constant, there was no significant difference in the gross total words, in the average difficulty of words, and in the total different words. When the groups were compared in reading achievement and sex, there was a significant difference in the gross total words and the total different words.

Two studies dealt with sex differences in language and reading. In an investigation made by Rubin (1976), it was shown not only that boys differ in language and readiness skills before entering kindergarten but that the kindergarten programs have a differential impact on the
growth of these skills. Girls were more advanced before kindergarten but boys derived greater benefits from a kindergarten program. Previous to this study, many investigators had noted that girls begin to speak at an earlier stage than boys, possibly giving them an advantage in later language development. Investigators also found that constitutional factors also tend to make boys more active physically and less likely to advance in language development in their early years. A nearly universal finding by Carroll (1976) states that girls exhibit accelerated language achievements. This may be explained primarily to characteristic differences between the way boys and girls are reared and socialized. Girls appear to take more interest in school work and be more amenable to being taught. Consequently, girls consistently do better on tests of verbal intelligence and achievement, particularly on tests involving written language.

A study completed by Ebert (1975) was designed to discover the relationship between a number of possible predictor variables and reading achievement for sixty-five black second grade students in two schools. The seven predictor variables used were oral language performance as measured by a sentence repetition test; Estimated Reading Ability Group score based on performance; sex; age; socioeconomic status; school; and teacher.
In the results, scores correlated between the primary predictor, the sentence repetition test, and the reading test scores were significant. The teacher variable was a significant independent contributor to a multiple correlation for two reading tests.

A study by Milner (1951) investigated the relationship between reading readiness in first grade school children and patterns of parent-child interaction. Results indicated that the higher-scoring children were surrounded by a much richer verbal family environment than are the lower-scoring children. The higher-scoring children also seemed to have more opportunities for emotionally positive interaction with their parents than did the low-scoring children. This included being read to more by their parents and being taken places by their mothers. The low-scoring children were unaware of ever having experienced a feeling of happiness of experiences which were happiness-inducing for them.

Ivey (1969) studied the influence of an Indian language background on reading and speech development. In the investigation, significant correlations were found among speech competency, vocabulary, and reading ability in the first group of Cherokee Indians. Relationships among speech competency, vocabulary, and reading ability were not significant among the second group of
Choctaw, Creek, and Seminole Indians. A relationship between vocabulary and reading was found to be highly significant in this group though. In a third group of other tribes, significant correlations existed between speaking competency, vocabulary, and reading ability. From this investigation, it was determined that where deficiencies existed in vocabulary and reading, "defective speech" was a major contributing factor.

Thus, from past research, it has been shown that a correlation does exist between language development and reading. As stated by Wilkinson (1975), the child must recognize that visual signs represent the language he knows as a sound. Major reading skills are present in the oral language of young children. Learning to read then is merely a matter of drawing upon one's prior knowledge.

It is a child's prior conceptual knowledge that gives one the ability to process the written information encountered, and with this knowledge, the child can be a more proficient and efficient reader. (p. 405)
Methods of Language Development

It has been shown that the language development of a child can have a significant effect on the child's ability in reading. In addition, it has been shown that the development of language is extended over a period of time beginning when the child is first born and into the beginning school years. The experiences that a child has during this time of development can influence his success or failure in reading. The school program then must furnish a program designed to accommodate a child's past learning in language while providing new experiences in this development.

There is perhaps no better way of facilitating a rich repertoire of basic vocabulary items than to provide the child with an environment rich in sound and sense. This is another way of saying that concrete examples form the basis for the most successful language learning environment. Another requirement for a language environment is that a child hears language related to his experience, and further that he is stimulated to use language in a real audience situation in a non-threatening atmosphere. This stimulation and consequent feedback are probably the best means to ensure that the child will acquire not only labels, but the requisite relationship among labels. (Braun & Froese, p. 20)

This means that the school program must be a rich and diverse environment that can support a wide range of personal interests, extending beyond books. There must
be objects to handle, tools to use, creative types of materials with which to experiment, props for dramatic play, and junk articles to take apart and use in experiments. Materials should be included with a basic premise that they provide starting points for the child to explore, to investigate, and to build his own thinking. The child extends his personal range in many areas and as a result, builds his language. The aspect of sharpened sensitivity, heightened powers of observation, and a concomitant curiosity about things is just as important as the language the child hears. Blohm and Yawkey (1976) feel that the preschool environment particularly should be a language development laboratory. They state that language is a system of symbols which stands for things or ideas or feelings. It has no meanings other than those which come from our own experiences, understandings, and feelings.

**Play Experience in Language Arts**

Often, one of the best methods to develop language at the primary school level is through the medium of playing. Play is often the means by which the child's thoughts, ideas, and feelings are expressed. Lockette (1977) states that since the child is less able to use "internal language" as a means of conveying and under-
standing the complexity of his thoughts and feelings, the play medium provides a means of experiencing his learning. Play can provide the channel by which thoughts and feelings are communicated to others. Many misconceptions of the child's understandings are made clear to adults through observations of play activities and complexities of the child's learning are communicated through play. Play is sometimes used by children as a technical means of actively expressing learning. Exploring a situation from different perspectives, finding out all the things which can be done with an object, and playing out different ways to deal with a social situation all provide means of active expression for learning. Play provides opportunities for children to experiment with words, to learn the importance of their own ideas, to be curious, and to explore. It provides language opportunities which no other aspect of life can equal. It also furnishes an opportunity for necessary early sensory experiences which are the foundations for language arts development. If development in language arts is to be efficient and rewarding, it is necessary for knowledge to be based on previous more basic information. The child develops skill in this area as he or she participates in various play experiences and activities. One play activity can contribute to growth in all areas of language. These areas,
including speaking, listening, reading, and writing, are interrelated and skills are developed as the child participates in a variety of activities throughout the day. Almost everything people do can be a vital and worthwhile learning experience, particularly in the early years, when everything is so new and exciting. Lockette (1977) states that research has shown that young children do not need specific instruction in how to experience their world so much as they need opportunity to test, practice, and elaborate the skills they develop naturally through maturation and play experience.

Collier (1976) stated that studies of language by Chukovsky indicated that children exploit the gap between reality and verbal formation by nonsense verse, fairy tales, and poetry. The purpose of this exploitation seems to be to reinforce what is already learned or to show themselves a mastery over their verbal environment. Children then use play not only as a medium for acquiring knowledge and skills of language but also as a means of repeatedly reinforcing past experiences in language and consolidating them.

Sponseller (1976) suggested five justifications for establishing play as a learning medium. Play represents a condition that allows learning to take place and a child to function through interaction with his environment. It
becomes a way of conveying meaning in that the child plays to test and establish his own thoughts, feelings, and schemes to himself. Play acts as a "channel of communication" for the child and is an enveloping activity that seems to encircle all of the child's learning. Finally, play is a means of active expression.

Schwartz (1977) completed an investigation on the study of verbal play in young children. She found many significant results concerning verbal play dealing with syntax, word order, and rhythm of speech. One of the most important conclusions she reached was that a specific variety of play behavior cannot help but make one conjecture on its role as a significant developmental activity in language acquisition.

As stated by Lockette (1977), the more concrete experiences that back up every word and mental image, the richer the base will be on which the child has to build. When a child learns a new word, he is learning a new concept that might represent thousands of separate experiences. It is the cumulative significance of those experiences that gives a word or a concept its meaning. This process constantly changes and is reinterpreted as one adds new experiential evidence. The raw materials of thinking, imagination, and growth in the language arts are developed through playing and experiencing.
Language Experience in Language Arts

Research has shown that although every child will learn some language code effortlessly and naturally, the particular type of language code he slips into will depend on his culturally-determined linguistic code at that time. McKenna (1977) stated that early educators have a special responsibility to the child in his language acquisition because they are with the child during the period of language acquisition. The successful accomplishment of this entails more than a passive or respectful observation of the child's acquisition process but rather a careful monitoring of this orderly, if rapid development. Children's word power depends on the type of associations they have with words. Lockette (1977) feels that to build rich vocabularies, children must have many opportunities for listening, talking, and thinking about ideas which words represent. A young child needs many words to be able to talk about the complex world in which he lives today. The teacher must reinforce each experience with many activities designed to make every word meaningful.

Cazden (1978) stated that in recent programs of education, an imbalance between too much drill on component skills of language and literacy and too little attention to significant use exists. She
maintains that language arts must be integrated into all curriculum areas and language must be meaningfully used throughout the school day. She feels that the purposeful use of those skills can be provided most powerfully outside the language arts and in the service area of the subject areas of literature, science, social studies, and mathematics.

Schwartz (1976) affirms this integration of curriculum through language experience and feels that language arts can serve as the link which consolidates the entire curriculum. She believes that this is a good pedagogy since such a plan recognizes that communication is part of all learning. When language activities are both integral and functional in the total plan, they may be more easily mastered than when they are taught separately and artificially. She states that:

children need time to learn. They need time to experience, to observe, to discuss findings, to encode their observations, to reflect on them, and to read them back. Many classrooms, unfortunately, are characterized by a rather frantic pace in which the completion of required assignments, and the finishing of courses of study, units, blocks of curricula, and graded new tests leave no time to experience, to savor, to reflect, and to learn. Without this kind of time, there can be no integrated day. (p. 7)

Schwartz feel that integrating the day through language experience provides limitless opportunities to engage in language that will range from formal to informal and
from factual to fanciful. Various methods can be employed including oral and written reporting, choral speaking, creative dramatics, imaginative story writing, and reading and listening to informational and recreational literature. Along with these various methods though, an ongoing diagnosis of the children's performance combined with an efficient record keeping system constitutes another important component of such a program. There must be less reliance upon the use of graded materials and sequential curriculum outlines in order for the teacher to assess the children's performance continuously and plan instructional modification and intervention when necessary.

Teachers involved in this early education process must remember not to ignore skill instruction. Rather they must offer it to students needing it instead of teaching it to all children in the identical rote fashion.

The reading skill is a composite of skills and is affected by each of the separate language skills. Without any effort to integrate the various strands of language skills, all of them just naturally interweave and intertwine with reading. Since this is the case, conscious effort should be directed toward making the best possible use of the language skills that children bring to school with them, and to continuously improve all of the language skills as well as reading throughout their school life. (Braun & Froese, p. 402)
Summary

It is believed that language develops in a variety of ways and the type of language code acquired by a child depends upon his or her linguistic environment. A good language background is considered very important for school and recent research shows that those possessing a good language background may have greater success in reading.

It has also been shown that the development process of language extends into the child's primary years of school and that a good language arts program can be very beneficial for students. By its integration into all areas of the curriculum, the language arts program can serve as a meaningful and significant aspect of the education process.
Chapter III

Design of the Study

The design of this study was a one group pretest, posttest design. One group was involved in the project, undergoing first a pretest, then an experimental program of instruction, and finally a posttest.

Hypotheses

In the study, the following null hypotheses were investigated:

1. There will be no significant posttest difference in expressive language as measured by the Test of Language Development subtest of sentence imitation.

2. There will be no statistically significant posttest difference in receptive language as measured by the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test and the Test of Language Development subtest of grammatic understanding.

3. There will be no statistically significant posttest difference in a combination of expressive and receptive language as measured by the Test of Language Development subtest of grammatic completion.
Methodology

This study consisted of approximately twenty-five kindergarten children (4.5-6.0 years old) from a rural community.

Each student was pretested individually using the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (Form A), the Test of Language Development, and a taped, oral test developed by the researcher. At the conclusion of the instruction, each child was individually posttested using the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (Form B), the Test of Language Development, and a taped, oral test developed by the researcher.

A program of language development was extended over a period of six months from December to May. Instructional periods in this program were thirty minutes long and were presented at approximately the same time of day, four times a week.

The program of language development was based on the Peabody Language Development Kit, Levels One and Two; and a language-experience approach based on the books An Experience-Based Approach to Language and Reading by Braun and Proese (1977) and Language Face to Face: Developing a Language-Centered Curriculum at the Heman Street School edited by Early (1971).
The language-experience approach provided the children with an environment rich in sound and sense. A variety of books and pictures, music activities and poetry were used for language development and for vocabulary extension. Field trips and activities involving the school community were also conducted to provide children with further experiences and allow for vocabulary extension. Specific areas to stimulate language were provided in the classroom such as a housekeeping area, a puppet theater, a building block area, and an extensive art center. Nonlinguistic materials were used to stimulate a wide range of sensitivities to sight, sound, smell, taste, and texture. Activities were included in all areas of subject matter which were designed to expand vocabulary and stimulate language.

Students who entered or left the class during this instructional period were excluded from the study.

A t test for Related Measures was employed to determine any significant differences between pretest and posttest scores of the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test and the Test of Language Development. The oral, taped, researcher-devised test was scored according to the syntactic analysis developed by Ekhtiar (1962) and used in studies of language by Strickland. A descriptive score was obtained from this analysis providing information
regarding the basic patterns of structure which appear in the oral language of children and the patterns of subordination and elaboration which are employed. The transcriptions of speech were analyzed on two levels, the first to delineate basic structures, and the second, to obtain more detailed information regarding certain portions of the structure.

Summary

From this study, the effects of an intensive program of language development on the expressive and receptive language of children at the kindergarten level were investigated. Past research suggested a correlation between language development and reading. It was shown by Loban (1976) that those possessing a good background in language development before learning to read and write excelled in reading and writing in later years.

Through the use of a continuous and intensive program of language development, an examination of the development of the expressive and the receptive language of the children was made in order to determine any significant effects of this program.
Chapter IV

Statistical Analysis

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to examine the effect that an intensive program of language development has on the expressive and receptive language of kindergarten children.

Principal Findings

Hypothesis One

There will be no significant posttest difference in expressive language as measured by the Test of Language Development subtest of sentence imitation.

Upon analysis of pretest and posttest scores, the difference did not prove to be statistically significant, appearing significant only at the .20 level, $t = 1.1281$, $p < .20$. (See table 1). Because of this finding, the hypothesis was not rejected and there was no statistically significant posttest difference in expressive language as measured by the Test of Language Development subtest of sentence imitation.
Table 1

Mean and Standard Deviation of Test of Language Development Subtest of Sentence Imitation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>8.086</td>
<td>8.652</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>7.557</td>
<td>4.1266</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$t = 1.1281, p < .20$

Hypothesis Two

There will be no statistically significant posttest difference in receptive language as measured by the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test and the Test of Language Development subtest of grammatic understanding.

Differences proved to be statistically significant at all levels (See tables 2 & 3). In the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, $t = 2.8380, p < .01$, and in the Test of Language Development subtest of grammatic understanding, $t = 4.1961, p < .001$. In the area of receptive language, both tests produced a significant difference in posttest scores.
Table 2
Mean and Standard Deviation
of Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>50.080</td>
<td>54.739</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>29.0355</td>
<td>55.5813</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ t = 2.8380, \ p < .01 \]

Table 3
Mean and Standard Deviation
of Test of Language Development
Subtest of Grammatic Understanding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>6.9565</td>
<td>9.0869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>2.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ t = 4.1961, \ p < .001 \]

Hypothesis Three

There will be no statistically significant posttest difference in a combination of expressive and receptive language as measured by the Test of Language Development subtest of grammatic completion.

Mean differences did prove to be statistically significant at all levels, \( t = 5.5166, \ p < .001 \) (see table 4). There was a significant difference in posttest scores in the area of expressive and receptive language.
Table 4

Mean and Standard Deviation of Test of Language Development Subtest of Grammatic Completion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pretest 7.043</th>
<th>Posttest 9.782</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>6.8255</td>
<td>9.4688</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( t = 5.5166, \ p < .001 \)

Descriptive Analysis

The findings of the oral researcher-devised test of syntactic analysis provided much information as to the basic structures and units of speech used by the children at the time of the pretest and at a later period during the posttest. The children's sentences or phonological units were analyzed according to a linguistic scheme devised by Ekhtiar for the study of language completed by Strickland (1962). The scheme of analysis (Appendix B) comprised two different levels. Each sentence was analyzed on Level I to identify the patterns of stationary elements which were designated as slots, and the elements which could appear in different locations and were designated as movables. Certain elements in sentences were analyzed on Level II to determine the types of satellites of subordination elements.
which served as fillers for slots and movables.

In her study, Strickland (1962) found when children responded to questions, most of their responses were short utterances. Most children in this study used short utterances in the pretest which were meaningful in the setting though structurally incomplete. Most common utterances in the pretest consisted of a noun, a single verb or an adjective to answer a question. In the posttest, short utterances were used but followed with a common pattern which was made up of a subject, verb, and outer complement or direct object. The filler of the subject slot on the posttest was in most instances a noun with modifiers or a pronoun. The verb slot was usually filled with a single verb rather than a compound predicate. The length of the phonological unit varied, becoming longer in the posttest.

Many children tended to use run-on units of short utterances in the pretest. These existed in the posttest but with less frequency.

Another language element analyzed was movables which are expressions of place, manner, time, and cause. These are usually placed at different points in phonological units. Children regularly used movables denoting place with the subject and verb slot in the posttest but not in the pretest. Movables denoting manner were
commonly used in the pretest and posttest. In the pretest though, the movable was usually a short utterance while in the posttest, it was followed by a structurally complete sentence. The movable denoting time was used more frequently with a noun and verb slot in the posttest.

On Level II, the analysis determined types of satellites of subordination elements which served as fillers for slots and moveables. The great majority of satellite groups which included phrases related only to the subject of a sentence were rarely used on the pretest. They were used more on the posttest and consisted of nouns or noun groups.

The subject predicate satellite referring to a clause related only to a subject was not used at all on the pretest and rarely on the posttest. Verb satellite groups which are main verb phrases or compound predicates were used in the pretest and appeared frequently but in more complete sentences in the posttest.

The satellite segment of a clause referring to a direct or indirect object was used more frequently on the posttest particularly containing moveables denoting place.

Satellite phrase groups and subject-predicate satellites were rarely used by children on either test.
Any part of a phonological unit which was not syntactically or meaningfully pertinent was called a maze. Mazes were subdivided into four groups identified as noises, holders, repeats, or edits. Most children used noises at the beginning and regularly throughout sentences on the pretest. On the posttest, fewer children used these in their speech. Holders were used more frequently on the pretest and repeats and edits were used only on the pretest by a few students.

Summary

From this study, the effects of an intensive program of language development on the expressive and receptive language of children at the kindergarten level were investigated. Past research suggested a correlation between language development and reading. It was shown by Loban (1976) that those possessing a good background in language development before learning to read and write excelled in reading and writing in later years.

Through the use of a continuous and intensive program of language development, an examination of the development of the expressive and receptive language of the children was made in order to determine any significant effects of this program. Findings indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in
expressive language but that statistically significant differences existed in the area of receptive language and in a combination of expressive and receptive language.
Chapter V

Conclusions and Implications

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to examine the effect that an intensive program of language development has on the expressive and receptive language of kindergarten children.

Conclusions

The findings of the study indicated that there was a significant difference in receptive language and in a combination of expressive and receptive language. However, there was not a significant change in expressive language as measured by the pretest and posttest.

Expressive language is the ability to use certain phonological, syntactic, and semantic linguistic forms. The test of sentence imitation, a subtest of the Test of Language Development, showed a slight increase in the posttest scores. This difference between the pretest and posttest scores was not statistically significant though and showed that this area did not change as predicted.

However, a descriptive analysis did demonstrate
noticeable growth in the subjects' expressive language and use of phonological units. The extended vocabulary, the length of sentences, and the complex structures used by the children on the posttest of the oral researcher-devised test of syntactic ability showed that there was a definite increase in many areas of speech.

Differences in expressive language combined with receptive language were also measured. Receptive language is the ability to understand certain phonological, syntactic, and semantic linguistic forms. The Test of Language Development subtest of grammatic completion was used to measure the combination of expressive and receptive language and the children demonstrated a definite increase in their skills of understanding and completing meaningfully and structurally complete phonological units.

The largest amount of growth was demonstrated in the area of receptive language. This skill was measured by the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test and the Test of Language Development subtest of grammatic understanding. These instruments showed a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores and proved to be significant at all levels. From these measures, it is evident that the children's understanding
of the language had grown considerably and their ability in this area had increased significantly.

The findings of the study showed that the children's ability to understand and use their language had increased significantly while their skill of imitating speech units had not been noticeably changed.

Implications for Research

In this study, a one-group pretest, posttest design was employed. The use of only one group was a limitation due to the unavailability of a control group. Further research could be conducted by replicating the procedures and methods used in this study with the addition of a control group. Both experimental and control groups would receive the same academic program but only one would receive the intensive language arts program.

Since previous research has shown that children who excelled in language development also had success in the area of reading, a follow-up study could be conducted with the group of children from this study. Such research would attempt to determine if children possessing an intensive background of language experience did show a greater degree of success in reading than those who did not have an extensive language background.

The intensive language experience program could
be conducted at the preschool level either at formal preschool programs or at home with parents trained in these areas. Procedures and methods could be used to determine if an intensive program at this period of language development had any effect on the growth or development of language.

In another respect, the program could be repeated at a higher grade level to demonstrate if any growth occurred with children whose language is further developed than children in the present study.

The program of language development used in this study was employed over a six month period. A program that was extended over a longer period of time could prove to demonstrate further differences in language development.

Much research had been completed in this area but in such a complex and important area such as language development, further research to develop these skills are extremely important and could provide valuable information.

**Implications for Classroom Practice**

The program of language development employed in the study did produce statistically significant differences between pretest and posttest scores. This demonstrated the children in the research did show a definite increase
in their ability to understand and use language. Past research has shown that children who possess a good background in language development later excelled in reading and writing. Since reading is such an important and necessary skill in all areas of learning, a program such as this could prove to be very valuable to children at the primary levels. Research has also shown that children at the primary levels are still developing and learning many skills in the area of language development. Sequenced and highly structured instruction in this area could further aid them in their development of this skill.

Programs such as this should be used at all primary levels ranging from preschool programs to elementary grades. By the integration into all areas of the curriculum, the language arts program can serve as a meaningfully and significant aspect of the education process.

Summary

From this study, the effects of an intensive program of language development on the expressive and receptive language of children at the kindergarten level were investigated. Past research suggested a correlation between language development and reading.

Through the use of a continuous and intensive
A program of language development, an examination of the development of the expressive and receptive language of the children was made in order to determine any significant effects of this program. Findings indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in expressive language but that statistically significant differences existed in the area of receptive language and in a combination of expressive and receptive language. From these findings, one can conclude that an intensive program of language development can make a significant difference on the expressive and receptive language of kindergarten children.
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Appendix A

Oral Researcher-Devised Test

Each student will be asked to respond to each of the following questions. Their answers will be recorded during the test on a cassette tape player which has been previously used in the classroom situation.

Questions
1. Who is in your family?
2. What kind of house do you live in?
3. What is your favorite television show?
4. What do you want to be when you get older (grow up)?
5. How do you feel about school?
Appendix B

Syntactic Analysis Chart

The Syntactic Units (Sentences)

The Syntactic Segments
(Slots and Movables)

Level I

Slots

Movables

Others

(2) 1 2 2b 3 4 5 M1 M2 N3 N4 M5 + ≠ U ()

Level II

Nuclei

Satellites

(nominative nucleus) nv(a verb nucleus)

(sg) ss v(sg) sg sgv ss ssv

Key to Syntactic Analysis

Level I. Concerned with: (a) the scansion of sentences into fixed slots and moveables; (b) the separation of the utterances and nonstructural elements from the structural elements of the sentences; and (c) the tabulation of the fixed slots, the moveables, and the sentence connectors.

W A question which occurs in the initial position of an interrogative sentence

1 The subject (the subject slot) of the sentence which may be a word, a phrase, a clause, or a combination of phrases and clauses

2 The verb slot of the sentence which may be a verb or a compound predicate

(2) An auxiliary verb which helps the verb but does not convey an independent meaning, or denotes the continuation of a verb phrase

2b A verb slot which denotes passive verbs, verbs of the to be class, or copulative verbs

3 The inner complement (an indirect object) of a sentence

4 The outer complement (a direct object) of a sentence

5 The predicate nominative of the class of the verb to be

M Those syntactic segments which "move" have been grouped into five subclasses.

M1 The "there" group (an expression of place) of a sentence

M2 The "how/so" group (an expression of manner)

M3 The "then" group (an expression of time) of a sentence

M4 The "because/if" group (an expression of purpose or clause)

M5 A preposition plus the slot 3 (an indirect object)
A connector which joins structural sentences or sentence segments together

A connector, such as until, because, for, so, or, and if, which joins a causative subordination to the rest of a sentence

A short utterance may be a word or a word-group which holds meaning and usually is accompanied with falling, fading intonation.

Nonstructural elements which denote a maze, hesitation, false start, primer, or onomatopoeia are placed between brackets.

Level II. Mainly concerned with the type of satellites or subordinations used in the fixed slots or the movables.

nucleus The head of a syntactic word group

n The nucleus of a subject group (a nominal group)

nv The nucleus of a verb group

Satellites The modifiers of a noun or of a verb having these grammatical shapes: a word or words, a phrase or phrases, and a clause or clauses. Satellites are either related to the subject or related to the verb. When satellites are related to the whole sentence, they are classified under the verb-satellites.

(sg) The (sg) in the parentheses stands for the satellite group; it is a phrase related only to "the subject" of a sentence (slot 1)

(ss) The (ss) in parentheses indicates the subject-predicate satellite; it is a clause related only to "the subject" (slot 1) of a sentence

v(sg) The v(sg) denotes the verb satellite group (a main verb, verb phrase, or compound predicate) in the slot 2

sg The sg without parentheses stands for the satellite phrase group which has been classified on Level I as 3, 4 or 5