

## INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

**The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted.** Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. Each original is also photographed in one exposure and is included in reduced form at the back of the book.

Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced xerographically in this copy. Higher quality 6" x 9" black and white photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.

# UMI

A Bell & Howell Information Company  
300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor MI 48106-1346 USA  
313/761-4700 800/521-0600



A

**Teaching New Dialect Forms:  
Effects of Text Exposure,  
Transformation Strategies and Guided Practice**

by

**Howard Fogel**

**A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty in Educational  
Psychology in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy, The City University of New York**

**1996**

**UMI Number: 9707088**

**Copyright 1996 by  
Fogel, Howard**

**All rights reserved.**

---

**UMI Microform 9707088  
Copyright 1996, by UMI Company. All rights reserved.**

**This microform edition is protected against unauthorized  
copying under Title 17, United States Code.**

---

**UMI**  
300 North Zeeb Road  
Ann Arbor, MI 48103

**Copyright By  
Howard Fogel  
1996  
All Rights Reserved**

This manuscript has been read and accepted for the Graduate Faculty in Educational Psychology in satisfaction of the dissertation requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

July 9, 1996  
Date

7/18/96  
Date

Linnell C. Elmi  
Chair of Examining Committee

Robert J. [Signature]  
Executive Officer

Professor Barry J. Zimmerman  
Professor David Rindskopf

Supervisory Committee

THE CITY UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK

**Abstract****Teaching New Dialect Forms:****Effects of Text Exposure,****Transformation Strategies and Guided Practice****by****Howard Fogel****Advisor: Professor Linnea C. Ehri**

A social-cognitive view of self-regulated learning guided the design of instruction to strengthen students' written syntactic competence with dialect forms of English different from their spoken dialects. Instruction consisted of three components taught singly or in combination: (1) exposure to text (E); (2) exposure to text plus instruction in dialect transformation strategies (ES); (3) exposure to text, dialect transformation strategies, plus guided practice and feedback in the use of such strategies (ESP). Instructional effects were examined in two populations: masters level teacher education students and Black English Vernacular (BEV)

speaking elementary school students. Teachers were taught to write using BEV syntax. Elementary students were taught to write using Standard English (SE).

Treatment effects on teacher education students were evaluated on three outcome measures: knowledge of BEV, attitude towards BEV, and opinion about teacher response to BEV use in the classroom. Results showed that the ESP group acquired greater knowledge of BEV syntax than the E or ES groups. All groups showed significant positive attitude shifts towards BEV. Differences between treatment conditions were not significant. ESP trained teachers claimed they would not correct dialect-based reading and writing miscues and, when making corrections, they would have students attempt to self-correct. These claims were less common among E or ES subjects, although differences fell short of statistical significance.

Treatment effect on BEV speaking elementary students were evaluated for acquisition of written SE syntax and for self-efficacy perceptions regarding ability to use correct SE syntax when writing. Results showed that ESP students acquired greater proficiency in the use of targeted SE syntactic forms than did E or ES students. Pretest self-efficacy ratings were quite high, averaging 71% despite pretest SE proficiency scores of only 32%. In contrast to E and ES subjects, ESP subjects showed significant decreases in self-efficacy ratings following instruction. The shift to more realistic perceptions by ESP students is regarded as an important step in the self-regulation process.

**Results carry implications for educating and sensitizing SE speaking classroom teachers about the use of nonstandard dialect forms by their students and helping dialect-speaking students acquire proficiency in written SE syntax.**

## Acknowledgements

I would like to express my heartfelt gratitude and appreciation to Professor Linnea C. Ehri, who served as Chair of my dissertation committee. Professor Ehri's scholarship, insight and expertise helped give this dissertation its ultimate shape, form and clarity. Her patience, warmth and good cheer calmed many an anxious moment for me. My gratitude and appreciation are small compensation for the encouragement, friendship and generous support that she provided.

Thanks to Professor Barry J. Zimmerman and Professor David Rindskopf for their valuable comments and suggestions which helped make this work far better than it would have otherwise been. It has been an honor and a privilege to have them serve on my dissertation committee.

Thanks to Professor Shirley Feldmann and Professor Carol K. Tittle for their thoughtful observations and for agreeing to serve as outside readers on such short notice.

Thanks to Dr. William Stewart, Professor of Linguistics at the CUNY Graduate School, for providing me with copies of the Standard English and Black English Vernacular reading materials utilized in the study.

A special thanks to my daughter, Jessica, for her interest in the study and for her help in scoring the data.

A very special thanks to the principals, reading specialists, teachers and students whose interest in and enthusiasm for the study were greatly appreciated. Without your support, this research could not have been done.

I have had the good fortune of growing up in a home that valued learning and exploration, dignity, honesty and compassion. I am forever grateful to my parents for believing in me, for giving me the chance to dream my own dreams and the room to grow and learn from my own mistakes.

This dissertation could not have been written without the support and encouragement of my wife, Stephanie, and my two children, Jessica and David. I thank you for your patience and understanding and for tolerating the seemingly endless string of evenings and weekends of preoccupation and distraction which, hopefully, are now a thing of the past.

## Table of Contents

---

Title Page .....	i
Copyright .....	ii
Approval Page .....	iii
Abstract .....	iv
Acknowledgements .....	vii
Table of Contents .....	ix
List of Tables .....	xi
List of Figures .....	xiii
Literature Review	
Introduction .....	1
BEV and Academic Achievement .....	4
The Deficit Hypothesis .....	5
The Discontinuity Hypothesis .....	7
The Dialect Rejection Hypothesis .....	23
Dialect Training Research .....	30
BEV and Achievement Deficits:	
A Social-Cognitive Perspective .....	35
Self-Regulatory Subprocesses .....	35
Self-Efficacy .....	37
Self-Regulated Learning Strategies .....	41
Strategy Attributions .....	47
Language Acquisition and Strategy Use .....	49
Pilot Study .....	50
Experiment One:	
Method .....	64
Subjects .....	64
Materials and Procedures .....	64
Translation Tasks .....	65
Story Writing Task .....	66
Attitude Scales .....	66
Response to Classroom Scenarios .....	67
Training Procedures .....	68
Design .....	73
Results .....	73
Posttest Translation Scores .....	75
Posttest Story Writing Task .....	79
Posttest Attitude Towards BEV .....	82
Classroom Scenarios .....	87
Correlational Analyses .....	89
Discussion .....	92

<b>Experiment 2:</b>	
<b>Method</b> .....	97
<b>Subjects</b> .....	97
<b>Materials and Procedures</b> .....	97
<b>Translation Tasks</b> .....	100
<b>Self-Efficacy Ratings</b> .....	100
<b>Comprehension Questions</b> .....	101
<b>Story Writing Task</b> .....	101
<b>Training Procedures</b> .....	102
<b>Design</b> .....	105
<b>Results</b> .....	106
<b>Posttest Translation Scores</b> .....	108
<b>Posttest Writing Tasks</b> .....	112
<b>Self-Efficacy Ratings</b> .....	119
<b>Correlational Analyses</b> .....	124
<b>Discussion</b> .....	124
<b>General Discussion</b> .....	127
<b>Limitations of the Study</b> .....	131
<b>Educational Implications</b> .....	132
<b>Appendices</b> .....	133
<b>Experiment One:</b>	
<b>Appendix A: Pretest Knowledge of BEV</b> .....	133
<b>Appendix B: Posttest Translation Task</b> .....	135
<b>Appendix C: Posttest Story Writing Task</b> .....	138
<b>Appendix D: Pretest Language Attitude Scale</b> .....	139
<b>Appendix E: Posttest Language Attitude Scale</b> .....	140
<b>Appendix F: Hypothetical Classroom Scenarios</b> .....	141
<b>Appendix G: Sample of BEV Reading Materials</b> .....	143
<b>Appendix H: Worksheet</b> .....	147
<b>Appendix I: Practice Materials</b> .....	148
<b>Experiment Two:</b>	
<b>Appendix J: Pretest Translation Task</b> .....	151
<b>Appendix K: Posttest Translation Task</b> .....	154
<b>Appendix L: Student Self-Efficacy Ratings</b> .....	158
<b>Appendix M: Reading Comprehension Questions</b> .....	159
<b>Appendix N: Posttest Story Writing Task</b> .....	161
<b>Appendix O: Worksheet</b> .....	162
<b>Appendix P: Practice Materials</b> .....	164
<b>References</b> .....	168

## List of Tables

<b>Table 1: Syntactic Features of Black English Vernacular and Standard English Translations .....</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>Table 2: Pilot Study: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations on Pretests and Posttests as a Function of Training Condition in Undergraduate Students .....</b>	<b>53</b>
<b>Table 3: Pilot Study: Adjusted Mean Scores on Posttest Translation Task for Each Syntactic Form as a Function of Treatment Condition in Undergraduate Students .....</b>	<b>57</b>
<b>Table 4: Experiment One: Number and Source of Black English Vernacular Forms that Teacher Education Students Read in Each Treatment Condition .....</b>	<b>71</b>
<b>Table 5: Experiment One: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations on Demographic, Pretest and Posttest Measures as a Function of Training Condition in Teacher Education Students .....</b>	<b>74</b>
<b>Table 6: Experiment One: Mean Scores on Posttest Translation Task for Each Syntactic Form as a Function of Treatment Condition in Teacher Education Students ....</b>	<b>78</b>
<b>Table 7: Experiment One: Adjusted Mean Scores on LAS Content Categories as a Function of Training Condition in Teacher Education Students .....</b>	<b>86</b>
<b>Table 8: Experiment One: Percentage of Responses to Hypothetical Classroom Scenario Categories as a Function of Training Condition for Teacher Education Students .....</b>	<b>88</b>
<b>Table 9: Experiment One: Correlational Matrix of Variables with Teacher Education Students .....</b>	<b>91</b>
<b>Table 10: Experiment Two: Targeted Standard English Syntactic Features Taught to Elementary School Students .....</b>	<b>99</b>
<b>Table 11: Experiment Two: Number and Source of Standard English Forms that Elementary School Students were Exposed to in their Readings .....</b>	<b>103</b>
<b>Table 12: Experiment Two: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations on Pretests and Posttests as a Function of Training Condition in Elementary School Students .....</b>	<b>107</b>

**List of Tables (Continued)**

<b>Table 13: Experiment Two: Mean Scores on Posttest Translation Task for Each Syntactic Form as a Function of Treatment Condition in Elementary School Students .....</b>	<b>111</b>
<b>Table 14: Experiment Two: Writing Samples of Students in Each Treatment Condition .....</b>	<b>115</b>
<b>Table 15: Experiment Two: Correlational Matrix of Pretest and Posttest Measures with Elementary School Students .....</b>	<b>123</b>

**List of Figures**

<b>Figure 1: Pilot Study: Posttest Translation Scores .....</b>	<b>55</b>
<b>Figure 2: Pilot Study: Posttest Story Writing Scores .....</b>	<b>59</b>
<b>Figure 3: Experiment 1: Posttest Translation Scores .....</b>	<b>76</b>
<b>Figure 4: Experiment 1: Posttest Story Writing Scores .....</b>	<b>80</b>
<b>Figure 5: Experiment 1: Language Attitude Scale .....</b>	<b>84</b>
<b>Figure 6: Experiment 2: Posttest Translation Scores .....</b>	<b>109</b>
<b>Figure 7: Experiment 2: Posttest Writing Scores .....</b>	<b>114</b>
<b>Figure 8: Experiment 2: Story Length and Number of Opportunity Scores .....</b>	<b>118</b>
<b>Figure 9: Experiment Two: Self-Efficacy Ratings .....</b>	<b>120</b>

## Introduction

Although many speakers of American English regard their language as straightforward and uniform, in actuality, several dialectic variations exist across the United States. Dialect differences typically reflect cultural, regional, and ethnic differences. Dialect differences manifest themselves in various ways: how particular words are pronounced, how sentences are structured grammatically, and which words are chosen to express certain ideas. Examples of dialect forms include Black English, Hawaiian Creole English, Alaskan English, Chicano English, and a variety of Caribbean English Creoles such as Jamaican English and Bahamian English.

Black English Vernacular (BEV) forms, frequently spoken by inner-city African American students, have become increasingly popular and widespread in the United States with the "current generation of inner-city youth relying more heavily on Black vernacular than ever (Lee, 1994, A1)." According to linguistic researchers, the origins of BEV are traceable to the early interactions among African slaves in the United States (Stewart, 1967; Dillard, 1972). To prevent rebellion and uprising, African slaves from various tribal groups were often mixed together. In addition, slaves were not allowed to speak to one another in their native African tongue. As a result, African slaves needed to quickly establish a common language. The form of English that was learned was grammatically simple (i.e. "pidginized"). The simplified features were practical and expedient, allowing for rapid assimilation by Africans of various linguistic

backgrounds. However, although simplified, the "pidgin" language was logical and structured and contained a set of well-defined grammatical rules. Over time, the simplified forms became established as the primary linguistic patterns of the African American slave community (i.e. their "creole" language). This "creolized" language was then passed on and mastered by succeeding generations of African American children who came to accept the BEV forms as their own (Stewart, 1967).

BEV differs from Standard American English (SE) on a variety of phonological, syntactic and lexical dimensions. Several syntactic features of BEV are illustrated in Table 1. Many of these features reflect a tendency in BEV to regularize forms that were only partially regularized when Old Standard English was converted to Modern Standard English. For example, Old Standard English forms contained specialized markers for second as well as third-person singular verbs (e.g. I go/thou goest/he goes). In Modern Standard English constructions, the second-person has been regularized but the third-person remains irregular (e.g. I go/you go/he goes). In BEV, the third-person singular "s" is dropped (e.g. I go/you go/he go). Thus, BEV carries previous historical adjustments a step further towards the complete regularization of English verbs (Burling, 1973).

Table 1

**Syntactic Features of Black English Vernacular and Standard English Translations**

---

## 1. Omission of the possessive "s" marker

SE: Bobs friend

BEV: Bob\_ friend

## 2. Omission of the past tense "ed" marker

SE: Yesterday she played

BEV: Yesterday she play\_

## 3. Omission of third person singular "s" present tense marker

SE: Jessica lives

BEV: Jessica live\_

## 4. Omission of plural "s" marker

SE: Three books

BEV: Three book\_

## 5. Omission of linking verb copula

SE: He is tired.

BEV: He \_ tired.

## 6. Subject expression

SE: David goes to school.BEV: David he go to school.

## 7. Indefinite article

SE: an orangeBEV: a orange

---

**Note.** SE = Standard English. BEV = Black English Vernacular.

Other syntactic features of BEV are more complex than those of SE. One example involves the BEV use of the verb "be" to represent habitual or extended action (Fasold, 1969; Stewart, 1969). The BEV sentence "Jessica be busy" informs us that Jessica will be busy for quite some time, while the alternative BEV construction "Jessica busy" conveys that the duration of the activity is more temporary in nature. By contrast, there is only one SE form, "Jessica is busy," and this form provides no information as to the duration of the activity in question. The presence of greater semantic specification of copulas in BEV than in SE is particularly noteworthy given the strong, stigmatizing effect that the use of the BEV verb form "be" has on a SE speaking audience (Burling, 1973).

#### Black English and Academic Achievement

Research has shown that African American beginning readers perform poorly on tests of phonemic awareness and reading comprehension and that such deficits continue to persist throughout the primary school years (Juel, Griffith & Gough, 1986; Stevenson, Chen & Uttal, 1990). Although well documented, the reasons underlying such performance deficits remain unclear. Attempts to account for this phenomenon have focused on a wide range of factors including various genetic, socioeconomic, family and peer based explanations.

A large number of studies in the research literature have focused on the role of language and linguistic differences as important mediating factors in the low achievement of culturally diverse populations (e.g. Feldman, Stone & Renderer, 1990; Shatz, 1991). The important role that

dialect differences play in the low achievement of BEV speaking students came to prominence in the landmark 1977 case of The Martin Luther King Jr. Elementary School Children vs. The Ann Arbor School District Board. The suit, filed on behalf of BEV speaking students, claimed that BEV speaking students had difficulty adapting to SE instruction and that the schools "had not taken appropriate actions to overcome the barrier (Lucas & Borders, 1987, p. 120)." The Court heard testimony regarding the negative reactions that teachers had to BEV as well as their decreased expectations regarding the educability of BEV speaking students. The Court found the Ann Arbor School District guilty of "violating the children's right to an equal education by neglecting to teach the Standard dialect (Weems, 1993, p. 75)." The Court ordered the School District to take remedial action and begin providing specific instruction in SE forms to BEV speaking students.

Cunningham (1977) identified three views regarding the association between the use of BEV forms and achievement deficits: the deficit hypothesis; the discontinuity hypothesis; and the rejection hypothesis.

#### The Deficit Hypothesis

According to the "deficit hypothesis," BEV represents an inferior, illogical and substandard linguistic form. Bernstein (quoted in Deutsch, 1965) argued that the performance deficits observed in inner-city African-American students were a direct result of their "failure to develop an elaborated language system that has accurate grammatical order and logical modifiers and which is mediated through a grammatically complex

sentence structure (p. 86)." According to Deutsch (1965), the restrictiveness of nonstandard dialects such as BEV, is based on its "grammatically simple and often unfinished sentences, poor syntactical form, and simple and repetitive use of conjunctions (p.86)." Deutsch argued that as a result of this restrictiveness, BEV speaking children were less capable of dealing with school-based linguistic tasks than SE speaking children were.

Several prominent linguistic theorists have since demonstrated that BEV is, in fact, a highly developed and structurally valid language that differs in many ways from SE but is in no way deficient (e.g. Burling, 1973; Labov, 1970, 1972; Stewart, 1969). In fact, the deletion of the third person singular "s" is an example of the tendency of BEV to extend previous historical adjustments to create more structured forms than those that exist in SE.

An additional example involves the BEV deletion of the copula. According to Fryburg (1974), the deletion of the copula extends a phenomenon commonly found in SE. For example, SE rules allow for contractions in a variety of circumstances (e.g. He is going/He's going). BEV forms extend these adjustments by simply deleting the contracted copula altogether (e.g. He is going/He's going/He going). However, such deletions are not haphazard but, rather, are systematic and structured. Where contractions are legitimate in SE, BEV allows for the omission of the copula. Where contractions are not allowed in SE, BEV does not allow deletion of the copula. Thus, the correct use of the copula in BEV requires

the same knowledge of underlying grammatical structure in BEV as the use of contractions does in SE.

One final example revealing the logic of BEV involves the deletion of the plural "s" when the plural feature has already been specified by a prior word (e.g. three book). The plural "s" in such cases is redundant since the plural form is represented by the plural number. SE forms allow such redundancy to remain while BEV forms do not.

Burling (1973) argued that the status of BEV "does not derive from its deficient logic, its impoverished vocabulary, or its careless articulation." Rather, the low status of BEV derives from the fact that it is "spoken by people who have low prestige. Unconsciously we attribute to the language all those qualities that our principles of etiquette and our American principles of democracy tell us we should not attribute to the people themselves (p. 104)."

### The Discontinuity Hypothesis

The second explanation for the relationship between BEV and school achievement shifts the focus from linguistic deficiency to the linguistic mismatch between BEV and SE. Proponents of this model have argued that dialect-speaking students experience greater difficulty in school because the language they speak at home is, in many ways, different from the language used in school. This is particularly true for reading and writing, since reading materials and writing assignments typically are conducted in SE. As a result, speakers of BEV are placed at a

disadvantage in needing to know a form of English unlike the one they have been accustomed to speaking.

For example, the process of learning to read for SE speaking students involves translating various graphemic representations into their corresponding phonemic counterparts. However, the process of learning to read for dialect speaking students requires an additional step of translating phonemically decoded SE words into their corresponding BEV forms (Baratz, 1969).

Laosa (1982) argued that a child's ability to adapt to a new environment is dependent on the "degree of overlap in the demand characteristics of the two environments (p. 801)." According to this view, a child's ability to adapt to a different linguistic environment depends on the extent to which the family's linguistic system coincides with the system being used in school. In his study of Mexican-American families, Laosa (1982) found a very high correlation between the language that Mexican-American parents used at home and the language that their children chose to adopt at home and with their friends. Laosa found that children who spoke primarily Spanish at home and with their friends experienced greater difficulty adapting to English-speaking classrooms than children who spoke primarily English at home and with their friends.

Feldman, Stone and Renderer (1990) studied high school students who at home spoke a dialectic version of English, Hawaiian Creole, while attending schools where SE forms were used. The authors found that students' ability to learn was a direct function of their ability to make use of

the language utilized in the classroom. Dialect-speaking Hawaiian students, particularly those who felt a sense of embarrassment regarding their inability to use SE, tended to remain silent in class and, as a result, were unable to encode and integrate the symbolic material that was part of their high-school curriculum. These students did quite poorly in school despite the fact that they were bright and did very well on tests of formal operational thinking.

Instructional implications have been derived from the discontinuity hypothesis. These consist of adapting curricular materials and procedures to reduce the linguistic mismatch in order to better meet the educational needs of dialect speaking students. Palincsar and Brown (1987) cite the work of the Kamehameha Early Education Program as one example of how such shifts can improve the reading comprehension scores of students from culturally diverse populations. The communication structures of native Hawaiian children involve "talk story" activities in which two or more participants are simultaneously involved in creating a dialogue. Such participation structures stand in direct contrast to the "simple reciprocation" structures of traditional classrooms. Palincsar and Brown found that the application of "talk story" structures to reading groups in mainstream Hawaiian classrooms resulted in significant improvements in the reading comprehension scores of native Hawaiian students.

Educational and linguistic researchers have offered several instructional modifications designed to reduce the potential interference of dialect on student acquisition of reading and writing proficiency. These

suggestions include the utilization of dialect-based reading materials, the use of language experience approaches, and teaching SE forms to dialect-speaking students prior to or concurrent with reading instruction (Somervill, 1975).

Stewart (1969) suggested that at the outset BEV speaking students be taught to read from reading materials written in BEV and that gradually SE forms be introduced as reading fluency is acquired. Stewart cited Osterberg's research with dialect-speaking Swedish students to support his arguments. Osterberg found that the use of nonstandard dialect materials resulted in significant increases in reading proficiency of dialect speaking Swedish students. Dialect speaking students exposed to dialect-written materials outperformed a control group of dialect speaking students who were exposed exclusively to materials written in Standard Swedish. Increased reading proficiency was found not only with dialect-based materials but also with Standard Swedish materials as well.

The use of dialect-based reading materials has, however, generated a great deal of controversy, particularly among parents, teachers and community leaders within the African American community. Parents and community leaders expressed concern that the use of BEV reading materials would threaten the upward mobility of BEV speaking students if it retarded their acquisition of SE and perpetuated use of a dialect with potentially stigmatizing effects. Social and political pressures led to the early discontinuation of dialect-based BEV reading programs in schools where such programs were initially implemented (Wolfram, 1970).

Disagreement also exists among educators and linguistic researchers regarding the need for and usefulness of dialect-based materials in reading instruction (Venezky, 1970). Research on the use of dialect materials does not seem to support the view that utilizing reading materials written in BEV will result in an increased understanding of text among BEV speaking students. Nolen (1972) examined the impact of text written in BEV dialect on the reading comprehension of second and fourth grade students. Students read passages from the Spache Diagnostic Reading Scales in their original SE form as well as in a rewritten BEV form. No differences were observed in the reading recall scores of Black and White students related to their reading of materials written in a familiar vs. unfamiliar dialect. By grade four, however, White students did show significantly greater reading recall than Black students, although this was true for materials read in BEV as well as those read in SE.

Similarly, Ramsey (1972) found no differences in BEV speaking first graders' ability to comprehend materials presented in BEV or SE. In fact, BEV speaking students performed better on comprehension tests for materials presented in SE although the differences did not reach statistical significance.

An additional problem with the use of dialect materials is that wide variation exists within the Black community in the use of BEV forms (Washington & Craig, 1994). BEV speakers, much like SE speakers, vary in the degree to which specific forms characterize their dialect. Strickland argued that, given this diversity, the use of dialect-based reading materials

might impose upon BEV speaking students unfamiliar BEV forms to which they must adapt (Strickland & Stewart, 1974).

To avoid such problems, many researchers have recommended the use of language experience activities in the initial teaching of reading to dialect-speaking students (Jaggar & Cullinan, 1974). Language experience approaches, like dialect-reader approaches, are based on the assumption that learning to read becomes easier when the materials being read correspond to a child's spoken language. However, unlike dialect-reader approaches, language experience approaches make use of verbatim transcripts of a child's speech as the reading material for initial instruction. Language experience advocates believe that the use of such materials facilitates reading acquisition among BEV speaking students because students can learn to read from materials that are dialectically relevant and personally meaningful (Cramer, 1971; Hall, 1972). The language experience approach avoids the necessity of writing texts in dialect for a linguistically diverse group of dialect speakers. In addition, parents and community leaders are less likely to reject the use of language experience alternatives since language experience can be used with both Standard as well as nonstandard speakers of English.

One of the drawbacks of language experience approaches, however, involves the limited linguistic constructions that are obtained when materials are based exclusively on a child's speech. Additionally, research has shown that language experience approaches are of limited utility for

increasing reading proficiency, particularly with students from disadvantaged or lower socioeconomic populations (Stahl & Miller, 1989).

The use of dialect readers and language experience activities were designed to minimize the negative impact of nonstandard spoken dialects on the acquisition of reading fluency with SE materials. However, a review of the research examining the relationship between BEV and reading achievement shows that evidence for dialect interference is ambiguous and unclear (Harber & Bryen, 1976).

Frentz (1971) found no support for the dialect-interference hypothesis in his study of 30 White and 30 Black third grade students. Twenty-four simple three-word sentences were presented to all subjects. Twelve of these sentences were written in SE form (e.g. "The boy writes") and twelve were written in BEV form (e.g. "The boy write"). To test for sentence comprehension, students were asked to select from two pictures the one that corresponded with the sentences that were presented. Frentz found no differences in student comprehension of BEV vs. SE sentences. These results, however, are difficult to interpret. Only one feature of BEV, the present tense third person singular, was studied. Additionally, the sentences presented were short and syntactically simple and, as a result, may not have adequately assessed potential interference in comprehension.

Osser, Wang and Zaid (1969) examined the impact of dialect differences on five-year old children's ability to comprehend speech. Sixteen Black lower-class children and 16 White middle-class children were asked to repeat sentences read to them by an experimenter. To test

for comprehension, students were asked to select from three pictures the one that corresponded to the sentence previously read. The authors found that Black children produced a significantly greater proportion of dialect-based imitation errors than did the White students. Additionally, Black children performed significantly poorer on the picture selection comprehension task than White children. However, the comprehension differences observed may have been due to socioeconomic differences between Black and White students rather than dialect differences since the two groups differed in SES as well as race.

Hall, Turner and Russell (1973) controlled for socioeconomic factors in their examination of BEV usage and text comprehension. Sixteen first and fourth grade students were selected from each of four socioeconomic groups: urban lower-class Black; urban lower-class White; rural lower-class White; and suburban middle-class White. Students were asked to repeat sentences that were read to them in SE. The sentences were constructed to highlight four differentiating features of BEV including the possessive, past tense, third-person singular and critical phrase markers. These features were selected based on their potentially disruptive impact on sentence comprehension. For example, the deletion of the third person singular "s" in the sentence "The sheep eats" was thought to result in some confusion as to whether the sentence referred to a single sheep or a group of sheep. To test for comprehension, students were asked to select among several pictures the one that corresponded to the sentences that were read.

Similar to Osser et al. (1969), the authors found that urban lower-class Black students produced significantly more BEV forms in their sentence repetitions than did students in the other three socioeconomic groups. However, in spite of these dialect transformations, no differences were observed in the listening comprehension scores of students in the three lower socioeconomic groups. Children from the suburban middle class group, however, did exhibit significantly higher listening comprehension scores than did students in the three lower class groups. The authors attributed these differences to socioeconomic rather than ethnic factors and concluded that dialect differences per se had little impact on student comprehension of SE sentences.

Hockman (1973) examined the relationship between dialect and reading comprehension in 128 Black and 138 White third, fourth and fifth grade students. Students read passages written in both BEV and SE. Reading materials consisted of original passages from the California Reading Test which were translated into BEV. Hockman found no differences in the reading comprehension scores among the Black and White students at any of the grade levels on materials read in BEV or SE. Hockman points out that students found the comprehension questions to be rather easy, so ceiling effects may have precluded the detection of differences. Anecdotal evidence was presented to show that on the more difficult comprehension questions Black fifth grade students performed better when passages were written in BEV rather than SE. These differences, however, fell short of statistical significance.

Shields (1979) examined the reading comprehension skills of a randomly selected sample of 130 Black third-grade students from three Title I elementary schools in Washington, D.C. Students viewed a three minute silent film and described what they had seen. Student responses were examined for the presence of five differentiating features of BEV. The features included copula, third-person singular, past tense, plural and possessive. Student were then asked to read passages taken from the Spache Diagnostic Reading Scales. Shields found that, with the exception of copula, use of BEV forms was not significantly correlated with student reading and listening comprehension scores. Student deletion of the copula, however, was found to be negatively associated with student comprehension scores.

Cronell (cited in Desberg, Elliott & Marsh, 1980) assessed the impact of dialect differences on the spelling acquisition of BEV speaking students. Multiple choice spelling tests were given to 61 Black and 61 White second grade students. Answer choices included the correct spelling, incorrect spellings derived from BEV pronunciations, and incorrect spellings unrelated to BEV pronunciation. Cronell found that Black students were significantly more likely to select dialect-consistent incorrect spelling choices than were White students.

Desberg et al. (1980) point out that spelling tests in which words are presented in isolation are particularly difficult for BEV speaking children. The BEV deletion of final consonant clusters in words results in a wide range of BEV homophones that do not exist in SE (e.g. "PAST" read as

"PASS"). Spelling words presented in isolation might, therefore, be more difficult than spelling words presented in context for BEV speaking students. The use of context provides the student with some clue as to the appropriate meaning of the word to be spelled.

A subsequent study by Cronell (cited in Desberg et al., 1980) presented target spelling words in meaningful contexts. In this study, complete sentences were read aloud by an experimenter. Sentences were also printed on index cards with the target spelling word omitted. Children were asked to spell the missing target word. Similar to the first study, Cronell found evidence for dialect interference in spelling performance. BEV speaking children made four times as many errors as SE speakers on spelling words whose pronunciation was related to dialect use (e.g. words involving final consonant clusters) and only twice as many errors on words whose spellings were unrelated to dialect pronunciation.

Desberg et al. (1980) examined the relationship between the use of BEV and spelling, reading and mathematics achievement in 120 Black second, fourth and sixth grade children. BEV usage was determined by student response to the Social Dialect Feature Inventory which examines the number of BEV features used by students in their responses to a structured questionnaire. The authors found that the use of BEV accounted for a greater proportion of variance in spelling and reading achievement test scores at all three grade levels than did measures of student IQ or measures of student attitudes towards school. By contrast, student IQ accounted for the greatest proportion of variance in mathematics

achievement test scores for all but sixth grade students. For sixth graders, dialect use, once again, accounted for the largest proportion of variance in math achievement. The authors hypothesized that sixth grade math problems are more language based than those presented to students in the second or fourth grades. Additionally, since dialect use typically decreases over time, dialect speaking sixth graders may constitute a somewhat "polarized" group that might differ along other important dimensions relevant to mathematics achievement.

Politzer, Hoover and Brown (1974) examined the relationship between SE proficiency and achievement test scores in a sample of 35 BEV speaking kindergarten children. Students were given a "balance" score that reflected the degree to which BEV proficiency exceeded SE proficiency. Dialect proficiency scores were obtained based on students' response to a sentence repetition task. The proficiency scores were then correlated with student scores on the kindergarten version of the Stanford Achievement Test and the Stanford Achievement Letters and Sounds subtest. The authors found that a positive BEV "balance" was significantly associated with lower achievement test scores on both the Achievement Test and Letters and Sounds subtest. The authors felt that early efforts to teach SE proficiency to BEV speaking students might result in improvements in achievement test performance.

Hart, Guthrie and Winfield (1980) assessed the degree to which differentiating phonological features of BEV interfere with BEV speaking children's acquisition of letter-sound correspondence rules.

Phonologically, BEV tends to simplify consonant clusters at the end of words by deleting the final consonant sound (Labov, 1969). The authors hypothesized that BEV speaking children might, therefore, have some difficulty reading words with final consonant clusters since the orthographic symbols do not correspond as closely with the BEV pronunciation as they do with the SE pronunciation. The authors presented a list of words to both BEV and SE speaking first grade students. The words were read and printed on index cards. The words were either read correctly or incorrectly by an experimenter. The incorrect readings involved the deletion of either the final consonant in a final consonant cluster or the initial consonant in a word. Students were asked to identify whether a match existed between the written and spoken forms of the word. Students were then given a decoding test in which they were asked to read the same words previously presented on the matching test.

The authors found no differences between Black and Standard English speaking students in their ability to recognize correctly matched words. However, when asked to decode previously matched words, BEV speaking children had significantly greater difficulty than did SE speaking children. BEV speaking students correctly decoded only 36% of correctly matched words; SE speakers correctly decoded 61% of correctly matched words. The authors commented on the tendency for BEV speaking students to rely on fewer decoding cues than those used by SE speaking students. Rather than decoding words into their dialect appropriate pronunciation (e.g. reading "PAST" as "PASS"), BEV speakers either

decoded the initial letter and guessed at the rest of the word (e.g. "PAST" read as "POLL") or decoded the initial and final consonants and guessed at the middle section (e.g. "PAST" read as "PET"). By contrast, SE speaking children seemed to use a more analytic approach to decoding. For example, SE speaking children typically decoded all consonants correctly. Decoding errors involved failures to correctly decode vowels (e.g. "PAST" read as "POST").

It is difficult to draw any conclusions from the dialect-interference studies reviewed above. The studies that examined the impact of dialect use on reading comprehension have yielded conflicting results. Some studies found evidence for dialect interference (e.g. Osser et al., 1969; Politzer, 1974; Desberg et al., 1980) while other studies found no evidence for dialect interference (e.g. Frenz, 1971; Hall et al., 1973; Hockman, 1973). Contradictory findings may be due to a host of methodological differences and weaknesses in the studies surveyed. Harber & Bryen (1976) observed that a large number of dialect-interference studies compare the performance of Black and White students (e.g. Nolen, 1972; Hall et al., 1973; Hockman, 1973). These studies typically failed to assess the extent to which Black students actually spoke BEV. This is particularly problematic because tremendous variability exists in the use of BEV forms among African American students. Further, even if BEV was spoken, most researchers failed to assess BEV speaking students' proficiency in SE forms. This is particularly important when older student groups are studied, since older students have had several years of exposure

to SE and, hence, several years to acquire fluency in SE forms.

Additionally, the studies surveyed are difficult to compare because students were sampled at different age levels and with different comprehension task measures, ranging from preschoolers' listening comprehension (e.g. Osser et al., 1969) to sixth graders' silent reading comprehension (e.g. Desberg et al., 1980).

The difficulties that BEV speaking children have with decoding skills are of particular importance given the critical role that phonemic awareness plays in the acquisition of spelling, word recognition and reading skills. Performance on phonemic awareness tasks are highly correlated with spelling and reading acquisition. In fact, a child's knowledge of and sensitivity to the phonemic structure of language is a stronger predictor of early reading achievement than is a child's IQ (Share, Jorm, Maclean & Matthews, 1984).

However, studies focused on BEV speaking students' difficulties with letter-sound correspondences and spelling are difficult to interpret. The studies reviewed have typically found evidence for dialect interference (e.g. Politzer, 1974; Cronell, 1980; Desberg et al., 1980; Hart et al., 1980). However, these studies are correlational in nature and, as a result, do not rule out alternative causal explanations. For example, the decoding deficits observed in BEV speaking children may be a result of dialect interference or may result from decreased exposure to print which is typically found among students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds. Adams (1990)

refers to such exposure as the "very foundation on which orthographic and phonological skills are built (p. 338)."

Additionally, the studies reviewed have conceptualized the relationship between BEV use and achievement deficits as unidirectional, with dialect use regarded as the cause of subsequent achievement deficits. However, the effects of dialect on achievement may be reciprocally related rather than unidirectional. Initially, BEV use might make it more difficult for dialect-speaking students to successfully decode SE words. However, over time, the inability to decode SE words will hinder the learning of SE pronunciations. Decoding deficits may therefore be the cause of unsuccessful acquisition of SE forms and subsequent achievement deficits.

Whereas the results of reading studies are ambiguous, results of research on student writing provides some support for the hypothesis that dialect interferes in the production of written language by BEV speaking students. Fuzz (cited in Wolfram & Whiteman, 1971) found that approximately 45% of spelling and syntactic errors in the written compositions of Black inner city college Freshmen were directly attributable to student dialect. Wolfram and Whiteman (1971) examined the writings of 19 tenth grade Black high school students. The authors found dialect-based writing errors in the deletion of the copula, in the deletion of the plural -s, in the deletion of the possessive -s, and in the deletion of the third person singular -s. In addition to these deletions, the authors found evidence for dialect interference in students' tendencies to include SE features in places that were grammatically incorrect, revealing

that students were unfamiliar with these features. The authors referred to this phenomenon as student "hypercorrections" and interpreted such errors as indicative of the linguistic insecurities that BEV speaking students experience with SE forms. For example, one student wrote "I often wonder whither I will mist the bus but I haven't misted it yet." In Wolfram and Whiteman's analysis, the first "miss" has been hypercorrected to "mist" and the second past tense "missed" has been hypercorrected to "misted." Similarly, Goodman and Buck (1973) found that teacher correction of dialect-based past tense errors resulted in an "overcompensation" for the more natural tendency to delete the -ed ending as evidenced in subsequent student miscues such as "helpeded" or "stoppeded."

#### The Rejection Hypothesis

The contradictory findings regarding dialect interference effects on reading and spelling acquisition led several authors to propose a third hypothesis regarding the relationship between BEV use and achievement deficits. According to this model, it is not dialect differences per se but the negative and critical reactions of teachers to a student's use of nonstandard English forms that interferes with student learning. One of the strongest advocates of this view has been Kenneth Goodman, who argued that the central issue regarding dialect differences was the lack of acceptance of those differences by classroom teachers (Goodman & Buck, 1973). Schwartz (1982) found that teachers typically rated BEV speaking students as less intelligent, less confident and less likely to succeed than their SE speaking classmates. Such views would be expected to undermine the self-

confidence and self-efficacy expectations of BEV speaking students and hence interfere with their ability to learn to read, write and speak SE in traditional classrooms.

Blodgett and Cooper (1973) examined the attitudes of 210 elementary school teachers towards BEV speaking students. The authors found that 53% of White teachers and 26% of Black teachers rated BEV speaking students as less intelligent than SE speaking students.

Woodworth and Salzer (1971) had 119 elementary school teachers listen to and evaluate tape recordings of student social studies reports. Reports were read by Black and White sixth grade students. Teachers were unaware of the fact that student reports were all identical and were, in fact, written by the authors. The authors found that teachers rated reports read by White students to be of better quality than identical reports read by Black students. These results were observed across each of the ten rating variables with seven of the ten ratings reaching statistical significance.

Taylor (1983) examined the extent to which negative teacher attitudes towards BEV influenced their evaluations of BEV speaking students' text comprehension. Seventy-four experienced elementary school teachers listened to tape recordings of BEV and SE speaking students answer questions about what they recalled from their reading. The performances of both groups of students were judged to be equivalent and "highly effective" by a panel of three independent raters. Taylor found that teachers who held negative attitudes towards BEV gave lower evaluations

of BEV reading recall samples than they gave to equivalent SE reading recall samples.

Teachers often fail to realize that such attitudes and stereotypes alienate BEV speaking students and exert a negative impact on their motivation and achievement. Unfortunately, negative teacher attitudes towards BEV have remained fairly consistent over time. Shuy (1968) found that teachers characterized BEV as containing "unnecessary repetition, awkward arrangements, inconsistent use of tense and careless omission of words (p. 565)." Despite research in the late sixties and early seventies demonstrating the structure and legitimacy of BEV, Bowie and Bond (1994) found that, over 25 years later, the majority of elementary school teachers still regarded BEV as a linguistic form characterized by illogical and faulty grammar. Teachers who hold these views tend to see BEV speakers as being lazy and sloppy in their speech rather than as careful and consistent within the structure of their home dialect (Baratz, 1969b).

Teachers who lack knowledge of BEV structures are unable to recognize whether student errors are dialect-based or indicate a lack of understanding of the concepts being taught. For example, when teaching various word families, dialect speaking students may include dialect appropriate responses such as *han'* (hand) and *san'* (sand) as part of the *fan/ran/man* set of rhyming words. Teacher correction of such responses may be quite confusing to BEV speaking students since these responses do in fact rhyme within their home-dialect pronunciation structures.

Continued teacher corrections of these responses in the absence of some acknowledgment as to the dialect-based nature of the errors are likely to result in a child's feeling linguistically inadequate and insecure (Baratz, 1969b).

Goodman and Buck (1973) observed that the errors produced during oral reading by BEV speaking students often reflected their attempts to match the printed word with its corresponding form in their own dialect. Such dialect-based misreadings show that students are constructing meaning from text by translating SE print into nonstandard dialect forms. According to Goodman, when teachers correct dialect-based reading errors, students are forced to shift their attention from meaning to print and, as a result, are less able to derive meaning from text.

Goodman argues that "the only special disadvantage which speakers of low-status dialects suffer in learning to read is one imposed by teachers and schools. Rejection of their dialect...interferes with the natural process by which reading is acquired and undermines the linguistic self-confidence of divergent speakers (Goodman & Buck, 1973, pp. 7-8)." According to Goodman, the effects of dialect differences can be minimized by increasing SE speaking teachers' awareness of dialect-based differences in students' speech and by encouraging dialect-speaking students to make full use of their native dialect in constructing meaning from SE inputs.

Cunningham (1977) examined teacher corrections of dialect-based reading errors which were otherwise semantically and syntactically accurate. Subjects in the study consisted of 214 graduate students, 83% of

whom were experienced teachers, enrolled in reading courses at four state universities across the country. Subjects were asked to indicate whether or not they would correct eighteen written examples of student reading errors. Nine of the eighteen examples contained dialect-based errors; the other nine examples consisted of non-dialect based errors. The errors were selected so as not to affect content meaning.

Cunningham (1977) found that teachers responded differently to dialect-specific vs. non-dialect specific errors. Teachers reported that they would correct 78% of the dialect-based errors as compared to only 27% of the non-dialect based errors despite the fact that none of the errors affected text comprehension. Cunningham's results support Goodman and Buck's (1973) claim that dialect-based miscues are targets for correction by teachers. However, Cunningham points out that responses to questionnaire items may not be truly representative of actual teaching behaviors and that one would need to observe teachers in naturalistic classroom settings to determine whether such stated differences were actually observed in the classroom.

Washington and Miller-Jones (1989) utilized a naturalistic approach in their observations of reading instruction in two South Bronx Chapter 1 elementary schools. The authors questioned whether a teacher's knowledge of BEV influenced the way he or she interacted with BEV speaking students during reading instruction. Two second-grade Black teachers, each with approximately ten years of teaching experience, were selected to participate in the study. Selection was based on their

differential knowledge of BEV assessed with the "Test of Black English for Teachers of Bidialectical Students."

The two teachers were observed on a weekly basis during the course of regular classroom reading sessions. Sixteen one-hour observations were made. The focus of these observations was on student oral reading errors and the response that teachers made to those errors. Teacher responses were scored as "supportive" or "nonsupportive" reflecting the degree to which they allowed students to self-correct and control the reading process. For example, asking students to reread words or providing students with decoding strategies to help them read words were seen as "supportive" responses while simply supplying the correct word or calling on another child for the correct response were seen as "nonsupportive" responses. The authors found that teacher response to dialect-based oral reading miscues was related to their knowledge of BEV. The teacher who was more knowledgeable about BEV responded to dialect-specific reading errors in more supportive ways than did the teacher who was less knowledgeable about BEV.

Although consistent with the dialect rejection hypothesis, the methodological limitations of the design make the results somewhat uninterpretable. The two teachers were seen as "more" and "less" knowledgeable of BEV based on a somewhat artificial, dichotomous categorization of their test scores. In fact, out of a maximum possible score of 60, the "more" knowledgeable teacher scored 44 (low-high range) on the Test of BEV while the "less" knowledgeable teacher scored 33

(median range). Teacher knowledge of BEV, much like student use of BEV, falls on a continuum rather than in discrete categories. Additionally, the teachers selected for participation in the study differed on several potentially confounding variables other than their knowledge of BEV differences. For example, the teachers taught in different schools, and they taught classes with different ethnic makeups and different proportions of BEV speaking students.

This third group of studies indicates the importance of educating teachers to be more aware of and accepting of dialect differences in their students. Washington and Miller-Jones (1989) point out that "a teacher's ability to recognize dialectical influences on speech and reading and respond to them appropriately may be essential for effective reading instruction (pp. 299-300)."

Unfortunately, research has shown that "traditional teacher education has not made a significant impact on improving teacher attitudes towards culturally diverse students (Bowie & Bond, 1994, p. 116)." This is particularly discouraging given the early findings that teacher training efforts can foster more positive attitudes towards nonstandard dialects in SE speaking teachers. Hayes (1971) observed the effects of dialect training on 200 teachers who participated in an instructional program entitled "Dialect Variety in American English." The program focused on the historical development of alternate dialects in the United States. In addition, teachers were provided with examples of teacher-student interactions and suggestions as to how they could more effectively deal

with dialect differences in the classroom. Although specific data were not reported, Hayes claimed to have found that negative attitudes towards BEV and BEV speaking students could be changed. He asserts that establishing educational programs to teach teachers about alternate dialects should be a major priority for educators and school personnel.

Although they have been treated separately here, it is possible that the "mismatch" and "teacher rejection" points of view are not mutually exclusive but rather are both essentially correct. The use of nonstandard forms by BEV speaking children may interfere with achievement both because of the discontinuities between BEV and SE as well as because of the stigmatizing effects that the use of such forms has on SE speaking teachers.

Labov (1969) described inner city school personnel as operating under a "reciprocal ignorance," that is, "ignorance of SE rules on the part of speakers of nonstandard English" as well as a corresponding "ignorance of nonstandard English rules on the part of teachers and text writers (Labov, 1969, p. 29)." Intervention efforts must focus both on discovering better methods of helping dialect speaking students acquire proficiency in SE forms as well as on educating and sensitizing SE speaking teachers to the use of nonstandard dialect forms in the classroom.

### Dialect Training Research

Despite its potential importance, there has been little effort to investigate how to teach nonstandard dialect forms to SE speaking classroom teachers. Dialect training efforts reported in the literature have

typically focused on teaching SE forms to nonstandard English speaking students, and these efforts have been largely ineffective. Rystrom (1970) attempted to teach SE forms to a group of Black first-grade students. Dialect training consisted of eight-weeks of 25-minute daily instruction in the use of SE forms. Students memorized poems and songs highlighting the distinctive features of SE, and they participated in a variety of sentence substitution drills designed to reinforce SE forms. Rystrom found that dialect training did not result in any significant improvement in students' ability either to read or to produce SE.

Cullinan, Jaggar and Strickland (1974) developed an "oral language expansion program" to increase the SE proficiency of BEV speaking students in kindergarten through third grade. The one-year program consisted of daily 30 minute activity-based instruction in the use of SE forms. Teachers were provided with specific instruction on the linguistic differences between the two dialects. Teachers sought to increase student awareness of those differences through a variety of oral language techniques such as storytelling and role playing. To test the program's effectiveness, students were randomly assigned either to this oral language treatment group or to an exposure only control group. Students in the control group were exposed to the same SE reading materials as the experimental group but did not participate in the oral language activities. Cullinan et al. found no significant differences in the SE proficiency of first through third grade students in the treatment and control groups. However, kindergarten students exposed to the oral language expansion

program did show significant improvements in SE proficiency when compared to the control group of students.

Mantell (1974) developed a dialect-based instructional package designed for use with middle-school BEV speaking children. Students were provided with opportunities to practice SE forms in role-playing and game-like situations. For example, in the "Discover the Difference Game," students listened to tape recordings of BEV and SE speakers and were asked to pick out any differences they noticed between the two dialect forms. Students were encouraged to collect samples of language used by family and friends as another way of increasing their awareness of the similarities and differences between the two dialects. Mantell randomly assigned four intact fourth and fifth grade classes either to the 14 week "language expansion" treatment or to a standard language arts instruction control. Results showed that the language expansion program did not significantly improve student proficiency in the use of SE forms above and beyond those that were already available prior to the treatment.

Harber and Bryen (1976), in their review of the literature on dialect training efforts, concluded that "the language system of these (BEV speaking) children has persisted despite consistent and pervasive attempts to linguistically acculturate speakers of BEV to the use of SE (p. 390)." Johnson (1971) argued that dialect training efforts are likely to continue to fail as long as teachers' attitudes and assumptions about BEV remain unchanged. Several studies illustrate the negative nature of teachers' attitudes. Bowie and Bond (1994) found that only 39% of the teachers in

their study recognized that attempts to eliminate BEV in school could be psychologically damaging to BEV speaking students. Less than 40% of all teachers felt that teachers should allow BEV speaking students to use BEV in the classroom. According to Johnson, such attitudes create an environment that will not be conducive to learning for BEV speaking students. Teachers who believe that students should be taught SE forms as a "replacement" rather than as an "alternative" to BEV place impossible demands on BEV speaking students. SE forms are not functional within the BEV speaking culture. Requiring students to replace BEV forms with SE forms forces them to choose between the culture of the school and the culture of the home. Johnson (1971) suggests that rather than teaching SE as a replacement for BEV, SE should be taught as an alternative linguistic system that can be used in particular situations and under particular circumstances.

Along these lines, the teaching of SE forms to BEV speaking children has generated much controversy and debate within the educational field. Allison Davis, among others, has been critical of the attempts to teach SE to BEV speaking children. Davis suggests that such efforts are "tantamount to forcing Black students to disown their language and their culture (quoted in Nembhard, 1983, p. 77)." Others in the educational field have argued that while students should certainly be encouraged to retain their home dialect, they also need to become proficient in using SE forms if they are to succeed. Nembhard (1983) argued that BEV speaking children need to know that while "each form of communication has its

place" it is certainly in their best interest to become skilled in SE forms. According to Nembhard, to do otherwise would deny "a compelling reality that can have lasting (adverse) consequences for their future (p. 80)."

It is clear, however, that previous dialect training efforts have been ineffective in increasing SE proficiency among dialect speaking students. Taylor (cited in Weems, 1993) argued that "the failure of the nation's schools to effectively teach SE to nonstandard English speakers can be documented by the low performance of these speakers on a variety of achievement, aptitude and diagnostic tests - in a decrease in the sense of self-worth among the students, lowered teacher expectations, and discipline problems linked directly or indirectly with communications (p. 80)."

Unfortunately, educators and school personnel have currently adopted a "hands-off" policy towards the inclusion of dialect instruction in the classroom (Weems, 1993). Research efforts are needed to clarify why dialect speaking students have had difficulty benefiting from dialect training in previous studies. There are reasons to believe that acquiring proficiency in an alternate dialect of one's own language is not easy. In fact, Stewart (1969) suggests that this may be more difficult than learning a new language altogether. BEV is, in many ways, more similar to SE than it is different. Without explicit guidance and practice, learners may have difficulty determining which linguistic forms are common to both SE and BEV and which forms are unique. In addition, students who speak foreign languages do not have to contend with negative teacher attitudes towards

their language. Unlike BEV, foreign languages are typically accepted by teachers as fully legitimate forms of speech (Johnson, 1971).

### BEV Use and Achievement Deficits:

#### A Social-Cognitive Perspective

The purpose of the present study was to examine how effective dialect instruction might be structured. The goal of the study was to identify an instructional approach that could educate and sensitize SE speaking classroom teachers to the nonstandard dialect forms used by their students as well as help dialect-speaking students acquire proficiency in SE forms. In designing the instruction, we borrowed heavily from the social-cognitive perspective on self-regulated academic learning (Zimmerman, 1989). The social-cognitive view provides an empirically tested framework within which student learning and academic instruction can be understood and developed. According to Zimmerman, students can be described as self-regulated to the degree that they are actively involved in their own learning process. Self-regulated learners view the learning process as strategically controllable and, as a result, direct their attention and efforts towards the acquisition of knowledge and skills (Zimmerman, 1989; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1992).

#### Self-Regulatory Subprocesses

Bandura (1986) identified three subprocesses essential to self-regulated academic performance: self-observation, self-judgment and self-reaction. According to Bandura, these subprocesses do not operate independently but rather operate in a reciprocally interdependent fashion.

The ability to monitor performance is one of the key subprocesses in self-regulated learning. Students will not be able to regulate their behaviors if they are unable to observe them or are unaware of the specific aspects of their behaviors that require change. The ability to systematically monitor and observe performance provides students with information needed to evaluate and judge the degree to which they are progressing towards specific goals. Students can react to those judgments in a variety of ways. Positive self-reactions result in increased self-efficacy perceptions and increased motivation to complete the task. Negative self-reactions can also be constructive if they lead to remedial actions and adjustments to improve performance. Examples of positive adjustments might include increasing one's effort, discarding faulty strategies, or seeking assistance from others.

A particular problem facing BEV speaking students is their inability, without explicit guidance, to self-observe, self-judge and self-react to dialect-based miscues in their reading and writing. As was noted earlier, BEV and SE are in many ways more similar to each other than they are different. BEV speaking students are expected to extract the underlying differentiating features of the two dialects based on their exposures to SE reading materials and to the use of SE by teachers and classmates. Although the differentiating features of the two dialects are typically not distinguished or highlighted for students, nevertheless, students are expected to derive the various rules that would allow them to shift from one dialect to the other.

An essential component of self-regulated learning involves the creation of a feedback loop. This feedback loop describes a process by which students monitor their behaviors and initiate actions to reduce the discrepancy between observed and desired performance levels (Carver & Scheier, 1981). To be self-regulating students need to be able to compare their performance against some clearly defined point of reference. Traditional classrooms typically fail to provide dialect speaking students with specific standards or rules that would allow for more thoughtful comparisons of how their home dialect differs from the language expected of them at school. As a result, dialect speaking students have difficulty adjusting their behaviors and, therefore, cannot be self-regulating.

#### Self-Efficacy

The social-cognitive view of self-regulated academic learning emphasizes the importance of two additional factors: academic self-efficacy beliefs and student use of self-regulated learning strategies. Bandura (1986) defined self-efficacy as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (p. 391). According to Bandura, self-efficacy beliefs play a central role in human motivation and performance. Bandura argues that "effective intellectual functioning requires much more than simply understanding the factual knowledge and reasoning operations for given activities" (Bandura, 1993, p. 117). What is needed is a greater understanding of motivational and self-regulatory processes. Among those processes, "none is more central or pervasive than people's beliefs about

their capabilities to exercise control over their own level of functioning" (Bandura, 1993, p. 117). Academically, such beliefs have been found to influence a student's choice of activities and goals, the effort he or she will expend on a task and his or her persistence in the face of obstacles and difficulties (Schunk, 1984).

Self-efficacy perceptions have been found to operate independently of knowledge or ability level. Collins (cited in Bandura, 1993) demonstrated that students with the same level of mathematical skill will perform differently based on the strength or weakness of their self-efficacy beliefs. Collins examined mathematical problem solving attempts in students of low, medium and high mathematical ability. All students were presented with the same set of difficult math problems to solve. Within each ability level, high self-efficacy students reworked a significantly greater number of incorrectly solved math problems and, as a result, correctly solved a significantly greater proportion of problems than did students with low math self-efficacy beliefs.

Zimmerman, Bandura and Martinez-Pons (1992) examined the causal role that self-efficacy beliefs played in the achievement outcomes of 116 ninth and tenth grade students. Path analyses showed that student self-efficacy beliefs influenced the types of goals that students set for themselves as well as their final achievement outcomes. Interestingly, the direct path between parental goals and achievement outcomes was not significant. Students do not simply adopt adult aspirations or standards without some personal sense of efficacy for achieving those goals.

Zimmerman concluded that "efforts to foster academic achievement need to do more than simply set demanding standards for students. They need to structure academic experiences in a way that enhances students' sense of academic efficacy as well (p. 673)."

In addition to student self-efficacy perceptions, Bandura (1993) cited the importance of teacher self-efficacy beliefs in their ability to structure an environment that would promote learning in their students. A large number of studies have found significant relationships between such "teacher self-efficacy" ratings and achievement outcomes. Berman and McLaughlin (cited in Gibson & Dembo, 1984) evaluated 100 federal Title III research programs and found that the most important factor in successful program outcomes was a teacher's sense of efficacy in his or her ability to successfully teach instructional materials to academically poor and seemingly unmotivated students. Armor's (cited in Gibson & Dembo, 1984) analysis of reading programs for minority students in Los Angeles also found significant relationships between teacher self-efficacy ratings and student reading achievement scores.

Gibson and Dembo (1984) observed the classroom behaviors of high self-efficacy teachers and compared them with those of low self-efficacy teachers. The authors found significant differences in a variety of teaching behaviors previously associated with achievement outcomes in the research literature. High self-efficacy teachers were more likely to praise students following correct responses and less likely to criticize students following incorrect responses. Additionally, high self-efficacy teachers showed

greater "persistence" with students following incorrect responses than did low self-efficacy teachers. High self-efficacy teachers were more likely to follow up incorrect student responses by rephrasing the question or providing the student with some assistance designed to help them arrive at the correct response. Low self-efficacy teachers, on the other hand, were more likely to provide the student with the correct response or ask another student to provide the correct answer.

The important role that student and teacher self-efficacy beliefs play in achievement outcomes is particularly relevant in the classroom interactions of SE speaking teachers and dialect-speaking students. Dialect-speaking students come to traditional classrooms speaking a dialect form that is, in many ways, different from the dialect used by teachers and other students. Unfortunately, however, in the absence of explicit instruction and guidance, neither the student nor the teacher is fully aware of either the dialect-based nature of those differences or what those difference specifically entail.

Without such knowledge, teacher corrections of dialect-based errors in students' readings or writings become confusing rather than clarifying. Dialect-speaking students have difficulty understanding the corrections since the very same linguistic patterns are reinforced at home and with friends. Teacher corrections of dialect-based errors become equated in a child's mind with rejection of his or her home dialect. This rejection undermines the linguistic self-confidence and self-efficacy beliefs of

dialect-speakers at a very early point in their literacy training (Goodman, 1969).

Teachers who are unaware of the dialect-based nature of the linguistic difficulties that their students are experiencing, may react to a student's lack of progress with varying degrees of frustration, disappointment and decreased expectation. These reactions may result in decreased teacher self-efficacy beliefs regarding their ability to teach reading and writing skills to dialect-speaking students along with a corresponding decrease in student self-efficacy beliefs regarding their own ability to acquire fluency in SE forms.

Students as well as teachers need to be informed of and sensitized to the various features that differentiate one dialect form from another. Dialect instruction should include systematic comparisons between dialect forms as well as specific instruction in how one goes about translating one dialect form into another. It is hypothesized that instruction in dialect differences and in dialect translation strategies will result in increased dialect fluency and in increased self-efficacy beliefs in teachers as well as in students.

### Self-Regulated Learning Strategies

A second factor emphasized by social cognitive theorists involves student use of self-regulated learning strategies. Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1992) defined learning strategies as "systematic plans that help learners encode information and perform a task (p. 185)." An extensive body of research now exists establishing a clear relationship

between acquisition of self-regulated learning strategies and increased self-efficacy, motivation and performance across a wide variety of academic domains (Pressley, Borkowski & Schneider, 1987; Weinstein & Mayer, 1986). Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1986) outlined fourteen categories of self-regulated learning strategies that high school students used across a variety of hypothetical academic contexts. Student use of the learning strategies was significantly associated with academic achievement. In fact, thirteen of the fourteen strategies successfully discriminated high-achievement track students from low-achievement track students. Overall, 93% of the variance in achievement track placement was accounted for by student use of the fourteen strategies.

In a later study, Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1988) provided evidence supporting the validity of student use of self-regulated learning strategies as a theoretical construct. The authors found that students' reported use of such strategies was significantly correlated with teachers' judgments regarding the actual use of those strategies in class. Additionally, a principal-component analysis revealed that student use of self-regulated learning strategies was correlated with but distinct from student performance on the Mathematics and English sections of the Metropolitan Achievement Test. These findings provide convergent as well as discriminant support for the validity of a theoretical construct of student self-regulated learning strategy use.

The use of self-regulated learning strategies has had a major impact on the social-cognitive view of self-regulated academic learning. Strategy

use has been found to influence a student's self-efficacy beliefs as well as his or her use of the three self-regulatory processes discussed above.

Schunk (1989) stated that the use of strategy instruction in the classroom "makes salient to students the rules and steps that improve performance and conveys that they are capable of applying them. The belief that one can apply a strategy to improve learning instills in learners a sense of personal control over achievement outcomes, which can raise self-efficacy (p. 102)." Additionally, the teaching of such strategies provides students with an explicitly stated conceptual model of performance that guides the actions that will be monitored, the standards against which performance will be measured and a student's response to that performance.

Research on strategy use has shown, however, that simple exposure to learning strategies, in and of itself, is not sufficient to improve student performance (Kramer & Engle, 1981; Cavanaugh & Perlmutter, 1982; Schneider, 1985). Students may acquire specific knowledge regarding the use of particular strategies but may fail either to apply them spontaneously or to attribute achievement outcomes directly to the specific use of those strategies.

Paris, Cross and Lipson (1984) drew important distinctions among declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and conditional knowledge regarding strategy use. Declarative knowledge provides students with information as to what the particular strategies are. Procedural knowledge teaches students how to go about using the strategies. Conditional knowledge "informs the learners about the value and situational

appropriateness of various strategies (p. 1241)" and is the central factor in a student's ability to apply strategy knowledge spontaneously to subsequent tasks.

Several studies have demonstrated that providing learners with an opportunity to practice and monitor the use of learning strategies in real life contexts results in increased strategy use and significant improvements in performance. Paris, Newman and McVey (1982) asked 30 first and second grade students to recall as many items as they could from a group of 24 randomly presented pictures. Students were provided with a variety of mnemonic strategies to facilitate subsequent recall. Students in the "non-elaborated" condition were provided with basic instruction in the use of the recall strategies, while students in the "elaborated" condition received, in addition to strategy instruction, a brief explanation regarding the overall value and utility of the recall strategies. The authors found that students in the elaborated condition were significantly more likely to report utilizing the mnemonic strategies on subsequent tests of recall than students in the non-elaborated condition were. The use of mnemonic strategies resulted in significantly greater item recall for students in the elaborated condition.

Ghatala and her colleagues (cited in Ghatala, 1986) trained seven and eight year old children to monitor their performance under different strategy conditions. For example, in a "circle drawing game" children were asked to draw a circle either free-hand or by tracing around a circular pattern. Children were asked to assess which of the two circles were drawn better and to state possible reasons for any observed differences. A variety

of such scenarios were used to train children to monitor performance differences and attribute those differences to the differential use of particular strategies. Following this training, students were taught two strategies for remembering a paired associate list of items: an effective sentence elaboration strategy and an ineffective repetition strategy. Ghatala found that all students recalled more items when using the elaboration strategy than when using the repetition strategy. Students in the strategy-monitoring training group directly attributed those differences to the differential utility of the two strategies used. By contrast, students who did not participate in the strategy monitoring training attributed performance differences to extraneous and irrelevant factors such as item-list difficulty.

Finally, Ghatala presented students with yet another list of paired associate items and told them that they were free to choose from either of the two previously learned strategies. Students in the strategy-monitoring training group selected the more effective elaboration strategy more frequently than the control group of students, and this choice resulted in significantly greater item recall in the trained group. Continued, spontaneous use of the more effective elaboration strategy was observed on a nine-week maintenance test (Ghatala, Levin, Pressley & Lodico, 1985). Ghatala's work demonstrates that it is only when the value and utility of strategies are validated in a task-related manner that students will attribute performance outcomes to strategy use and will spontaneously apply those strategies in post-training contexts.

Schunk and Swartz (1993) examined the effects of goal setting and goal progress feedback on writing-skill strategy training. Sixty fifth-grade students from non-remedial classes were provided with five writing strategies such as generating ideas, deciding on a main idea, and writing supporting sentences. Students were then randomly assigned to one of four treatment groups based on the types of goals outlined for the students. Students in the product-goal condition were asked to focus on the writing of coherent paragraphs. Students in the process-goal condition were asked to focus on the acquisition of the five writing strategies that were taught. Students in the process goal condition were further divided into a process goal only and a process goal plus progress feedback condition. Students in this latter group were given specific feedback during the course of their writings regarding their use of the strategies that were taught. Finally, students in the general goal condition were simply told to work productively and do their best.

Schunk and Swartz (1993) found that the process goal instructions were more effective than the product or general goal instructions in improving writing skills. Additionally, providing process goal students with progress feedback was by far the most effective teaching strategy, resulting in significantly greater writing achievement outcomes than the process goal only condition. Schunk concluded that process goals are important because, unlike the product or general goal conditions, process goals highlight for students the importance of strategy use in improving writing skills. According to Schunk, providing students with enactive

feedback in the use of the writing strategies allows students to additionally see that they were, in fact, capable of using the strategies to improve their writing. These beliefs resulted in significantly greater levels of writing self-efficacy scores for students in the progress feedback condition.

### Strategy Attributions

Research has demonstrated that teaching students to attribute performance outcomes to the controllable use of learning strategies results in increased self-efficacy, confidence and task persistence. It has been well documented that student expectations of success following poor performance are relatively low when poor performance is attributed to stable factors such as low ability or when such failures follow the expenditure of much effort. In fact, several authors have argued that for many students poor performance following a great deal of effort causes them to attribute their poor performance to low ability. This combination is likely to result in decreased effort so that expectations regarding subsequent failures can be attributed to low effort rather than to low ability (Covington & Omelich, 1979; Jagacinski & Nicholls, 1990).

Anderson and Jennings (1980) argued that attributing performance outcomes to strategy use allows students to attribute previous failures to the ineffective use or poor selection of strategies. As a result of such attributions, students can take remedial action by modifying their strategy use to better meet the demands of the task at hand. Similarly, Clifford (1986) argues that when students use strategy attributions, they "turn failure outcomes into problem solving situations in which the search for a

more effective strategy becomes the major focus of attention (p.75)."  
Clifford compared the effects of attributing previous academic failure to either effort or strategy attributions. Teachers and students were given a description of a college student who received a 1.8 GPA for her first semester's college coursework. For half the subjects, poor academic performance was described as directly attributable to low effort; for remaining subjects, poor performance was described as attributable to poor strategy use. Clifford found that, for both teachers and students, strategy attributions were significantly more likely to result in positive judgments regarding future expectations of academic success than were low effort attributions.

Despite its potential importance, attributions of performance outcomes to strategy use are remarkably lacking in the educational world. Bar-Tal (1979) asked 63 fifth-grade students to identify possible causes of success or failure on a recently returned graded test. Eight factors were cited by the students including ability, effort and subject matter interest. No mention was made of any strategy-based attributions. Such findings are not limited to students alone. Cooper and Burger (1980) asked 39 elementary and secondary school teachers to identify the factors that accounted for academic success or failure on the part of their students. Twelve categories of performance attributions were identified. Similar to the previous study, no mention was made of learning strategy use. Brophy's (1986) review of research on teacher influences on academic achievement identified factors such as the quantity and pacing of

instruction, the clear identification of academic objectives, and the adaptation of curricular materials to the individual needs of students. Noticeably lacking, however, were any references to teacher emphasis on or student use of learning strategies.

#### Language Acquisition and Strategy Use

The absence of strategy attributions is particularly evident in research on language acquisition. Chomsky (1965), among others, has argued for the existence of a pre-wired language acquisition device which allows learners to spontaneously discover the underlying linguistic structures and syntactic rules of a particular language without formal instruction. According to this view, children learn grammatical rules and structures through exposure to the assorted linguistic data occurring in their social environment.

This nativistic view has predominated in research on dialect acquisition as well. Dialect training efforts have typically focused on exposing dialect-speakers to SE reading materials with the expectation that students would extract the differentiating features of SE and become more proficient in its use. Burling (1973) suggested that "other than a modest amount of instruction in SE patterns, the most effective way to lay a foundation for speaking SE is probably to give it as little explicit attention as possible... Without even trying, a gym teacher or science teacher may convey more of the standard language than the English teacher who is armed with the most sophisticated, up-to-date linguistic techniques (p. 143)." Burling goes on to say that "the process of absorbing a new style

from reading tends to be so unconscious that it cannot be directly guided by teachers (p. 155)."

While such descriptions may accurately reflect how learners acquire their native language, training approaches based on these assumptions may be grossly ineffective in helping people acquire an alternate dialect of their native language. Stewart (1969) suggested that although children may very well be pre-wired for language acquisition, they are certainly not pre-programmed to automatically acquire reading or writing skills in alternate dialect forms. Reading and writing are skills that clearly must be taught. It is likely that learners of new dialects not only need to be exposed to the new dialect but also need explicit instruction and guided practice in the use of explicitly stated strategies for converting one dialect form to the other. This may be particularly true in the acquisition of written language proficiency in an unfamiliar dialect.

#### Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to compare three dialect training procedures for their effectiveness in teaching college students to write in grammatically acceptable BEV syntax. Three classrooms of SE speaking undergraduates were randomly assigned to one of the three dialect training procedures. The training procedures included: (1) exposure to BEV reading materials, labeled the E condition (N=26) (2) exposure to BEV reading materials plus instruction in dialect transformation strategies, labeled the ES condition (N=17) (3) exposure to BEV reading materials,

instruction in dialect transformation strategies, plus guided practice and feedback in the use of such strategies, labeled the ESP condition (N=27).

The "exposure" component involved having students read several stories written in BEV. Students were asked to pay careful attention during their readings to the various grammatical features distinguishing BEV from SE. The "exposure" condition was intended to simulate the classroom experience of dialect speaking students who are typically exposed to a classroom dialect that is structurally different from that used in their home environment. Through exposure, they are expected to derive the various rules that allow them to shift from one dialect to the other. According to nativistic approaches to language learning, simple exposure should be sufficient to support acquisition of a new dialect.

The "dialect transformation strategy" component of training involved informing students about specific syntactic features that differentiate BEV from SE and showing them how to translate text from SE to BEV by the application of transformation strategies described and illustrated on a worksheet. In this component, students were taught declarative and procedural knowledge about transformation strategies. According to theories of self-regulated learning, this is an important element but not fully sufficient to support maximal learning.

The "guided practice" component of training involved having students practice each of the transformation strategies and receive sentence-by-sentence feedback as they translated text materials. According

to self-regulation research, this third component is needed in combination with the other components for instruction to be fully effective.

Effects of instruction were assessed with two written language tasks measuring knowledge and use of BEV. The first task assessed the correct use of BEV forms in translating nine previously unseen SE sentences into BEV. The second task assessed the correct use of BEV forms in writing a story. To control for pre-experimental differences among the three groups in their knowledge of BEV, analyses of covariance were applied to posttest measures with pretest knowledge of BEV as the covariate. Mean performances on the various posttest measures are reported in Table 2 for the three conditions, E, ES, and ESP.

**Table 2**  
**Pilot Study: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations on Pretests and Posttests as a Function of Training Condition in Undergraduate Students.**

Dependent Measures	<u>Training Condition</u>					
	E		ES		ESP	
<b>Pretest:</b>						
Translation (7 Max)	1.15	(1.5)	1.71	(1.6)	0.46	(0.7)
<b>Posttests:</b>						
Translation <sup>a</sup> (28 Max)	11.61	(6.2)	20.77	(2.6)	24.93	(2.4)
<b>Stories</b>						
Correct	3.15	(2.4)	4.78	(2.8)	10.74	(3.1)
Opportunities	7.53	(3.1)	7.27	(3.2)	12.47	(3.5)
Percent correct <sup>b</sup>	41%	(26)	62%	(20)	89%	(15)
Length (words)	80.2	(29)	51.7	(20)	91.6	(29)

**Note.** There were 26 Exposure subjects, 17 Exposure/Strategy subjects, and 26 Exposure/Strategy/Practice subjects. Standard deviations are given in parentheses.

<sup>a</sup> Means on the posttest were adjusted to take account of pretest differences among the groups in their knowledge of BEV.

<sup>b</sup> Percentage of opportunities that were written correctly in BEV syntax (i.e., correct divided by opportunities).

In the ANCOVA of posttest translation scores, results showed that students in the ESP group scored significantly higher than students in the ES condition who, in turn, outperformed students in the E condition ( $p < .01$ ). In other words, giving students a combination of exposure to text, transformation strategies, and guided practice enabled them to translate more sentences into BEV correctly than giving them exposure plus strategies; exposure plus strategies enabled students to translate more sentences than mere exposure. Individual scores were checked across the three conditions to determine what proportion of subjects exhibited mastery levels of performance (i.e.,  $\geq 80\%$  accuracy) in their translations. Results revealed clear disparities: 81% of ESP subjects vs. 35% of ES subjects vs. 0% of E subjects. Results are displayed in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Pilot Study: Posttest Translation Scores

ESP > ES > E

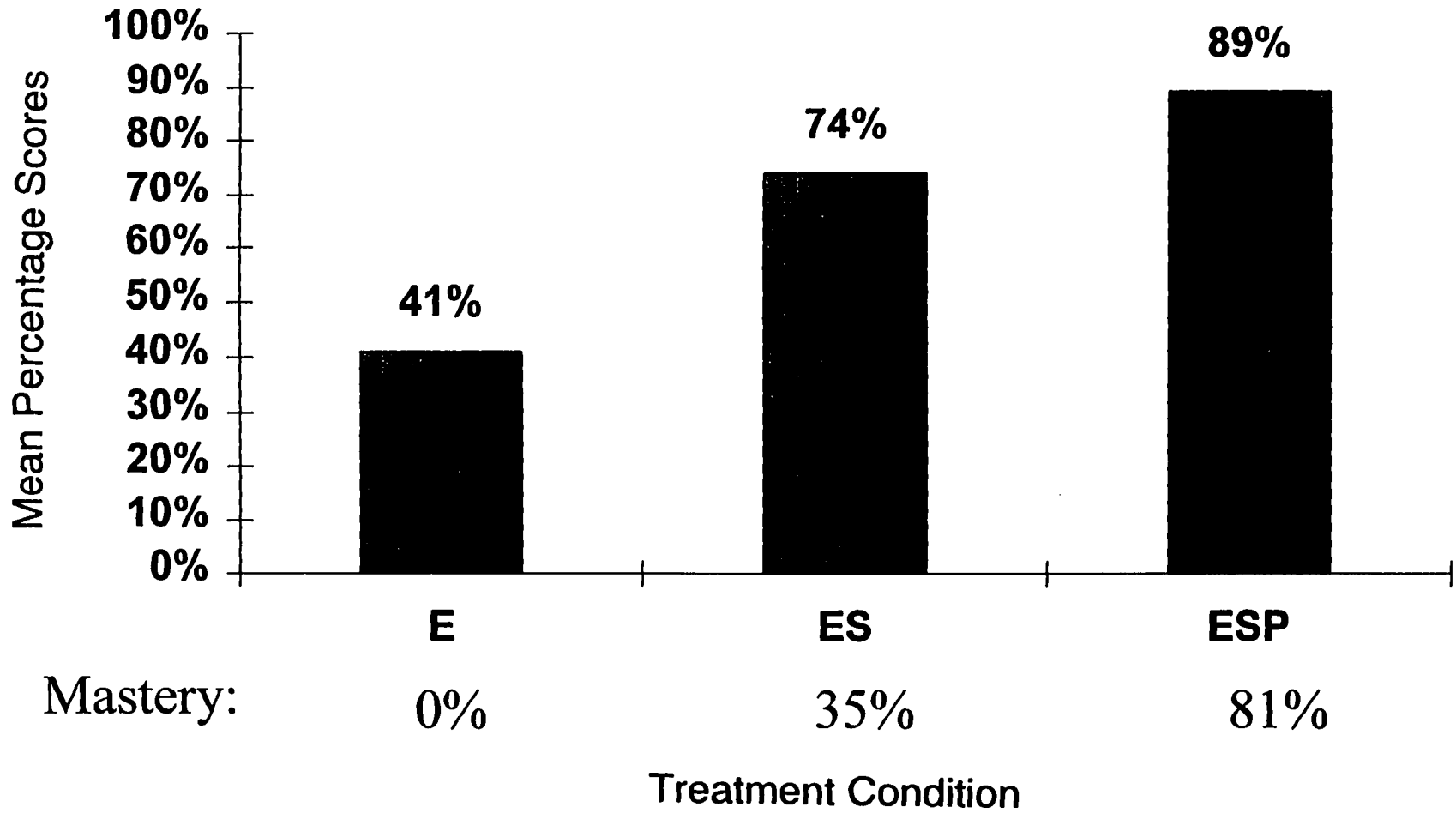


Table 3 reports the mean number of times that subjects correctly translated sentences containing the various syntactic forms on the translation posttest. Comparison of means for each syntactic feature reveals that the overall pattern of differences reported above (i.e., ESP > ES > E) was apparent for each of the seven syntactic categories utilized in the study. These results show that the treatment effects were not limited to only some of the forms but influenced acquisition of all forms similarly.

**Table 3**  
**Pilot Study: Adjusted Mean Scores on Posttest Translation Task for Each Syntactic Form as a Function of Treatment Condition in Undergraduate Students.**

Syntactic Form	E Group (N=26)	ES Group (N=17)	ESP Group (N=26)
Possessive "s"	1.86	3.78	4.07
Past Tense "ed"	1.67	3.34	3.72
Third-Person Singular	2.05	3.78	3.91
Plural "s"	1.63	3.52	3.99
Copula	2.21	2.64	3.07
Subject Expression	1.05	1.23	2.49
Indefinite Article	1.13	2.52	3.68

**Note.** The maximum score in each cell was 4. Mean scores were adjusted to take account of pretest differences among the groups in their knowledge of BEV. Adjustment explains why one mean was greater than 4.0.

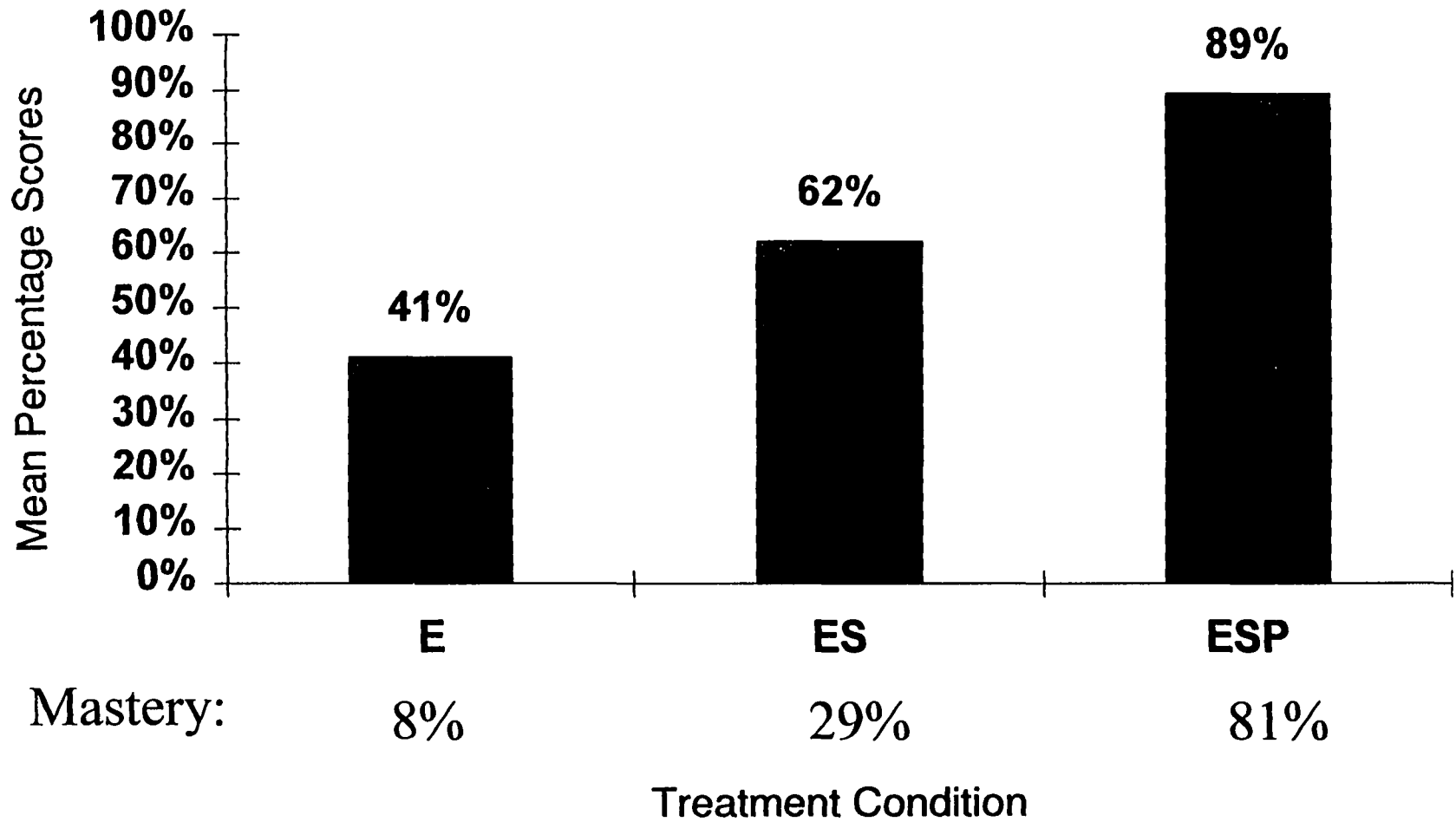
Performances in the story writing task were analyzed by counting the number of times that students included features of BEV syntax in their stories, counting the total number of locations where these features should have been used, and then dividing the number of productions by the number of opportunities to yield a percentage of opportunities where correct BEV forms were used. Mean values are reported in Table 2. Results of the ANCOVA showed that students in the ESP group included a significantly higher proportion of BEV features in their stories than students in the ES condition who in turn included more than students in the E condition ( $p < .01$ ).

From means in Table 2, it is apparent that in contrast to the E and ES groups, the ESP group displayed mastery levels of learning in their inclusion of BEV features in their story writing: they used BEV forms in a mean of 89 percent of the places where the forms were required. Individual scores were checked across the three groups to determine what proportion of the subjects exhibited mastery levels (i.e.,  $\geq 80\%$  accuracy) in their writings. Results revealed a huge disparity: 81% of ESP subjects vs. 29% of ES subjects vs. 8% of E subjects. Results are displayed in Figure 2. The achievement of ESP students is even more impressive in light of the fact that their stories contained significantly more opportunities necessitating use of the forms than stories written by the other two groups (see opportunity means in Table 2).

Figure 2

Pilot Study: Posttest Story Writing Scores

ESP > ES > E



Taken together, these findings show that exposing SE speaking college students to text written with BEV forms plus providing them with practice and feedback in the use of dialect transformation strategies significantly enhanced their knowledge of BEV syntax and their ability to use BEV forms in their writing. This type of instruction resulted in significant gains above and beyond intervention procedures that provided only exposure to text or only exposure to text combined with information about the transformation strategies.

The purpose of the present project was to replicate this study and to extend it to elementary school students. The effects of dialect training procedures were examined in two populations: SE speaking teacher education students and dialect speaking elementary school students. The project was intended to educate and sensitize SE speaking teacher education students to the use of nonstandard English forms, and to help dialect-speaking elementary school students acquire proficiency in the use of SE forms in their writing.

The type of nonstandard dialect of interest was Black English Vernacular. Instruction was focused on the seven syntactic features listed in Table 1. These features were selected because they include items commonly cited by educators and linguistic researchers as important features differentiating BEV from SE (e.g. Baratz, 1969; Riessman, 1976). Grammatical features were selected because, unlike phonological differences, nonstandard syntactic forms tend to stand out and are stigmatizing (Burling, 1973).

The proposed study focused on the acquisition of written rather than oral language proficiency. An important goal of education is to help students learn to communicate their ideas in writing. Research has shown that dialect-speaking students experience great difficulties with written assignments as a result of discrepancies between their spoken dialect and the more formalized written forms of SE (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1986).

Three instructional approaches were compared for their effectiveness in strengthening subjects' written syntactic competence with alternate dialect forms. The approaches consisted of various components taught singly or in combination: (1) exposure to text (E); (2) exposure to text plus instruction in dialect transformation strategies (ES); (3) exposure to text, dialect transformation strategies, plus guided practice and feedback in the use of such strategies (ESP).

The instructional components were derived from theoretical constructs outlined in the social-cognitive view of self-regulated learning (Zimmerman, 1989). According to the social-cognitive perspective, to be self-regulating, students need to have a clearly defined point of reference against which they can self-observe, self-judge and self-react. In the present study, an explicit statement of strategies and rules for translating dialects provided ES subjects with a set of clear standards against which their writings could be monitored, evaluated and corrected. These standards remain implicit and unclear when subjects are simply exposed to linguistic instances of an unfamiliar dialect, as was the case for subjects in the Exposure Only condition in the pilot study.

However, according to theories of self-regulated learning, simple exposure to strategies and rules is not sufficient for maximal learning to occur. Students may acquire knowledge about dialect transformation strategies but fail to apply these strategies spontaneously on subsequent tasks. According to social-cognitive theorists, a third component is needed for instruction to be fully effective. This component involves providing students with an opportunity to practice and receive feedback on their use of the dialect transformation strategies in their writings. The opportunity for guided practice provides learners with the conditional knowledge (Paris et al., 1984) that allows learners to implement the strategies to improve performance.

Two experiments were conducted. The first was a replication and extension of the pilot study with masters level teacher education students rather than undergraduate psychology students. The impact of dialect training on acquisition of BEV forms was assessed. In addition, teachers' attitudes towards BEV prior to and following dialect training was evaluated. It was hypothesized that teacher education students who are exposed to stories written in BEV, who are informed about dialect transformation strategies, and who receive guided practice will acquire greater knowledge of written BEV syntax and more positive attitudes towards BEV than teacher education students who receive only one or two of these instructional components.

The second study applied the training procedures used in the pilot study with elementary school students who use BEV syntactic forms in

their writings. It was hypothesized that students who are exposed to stories written in SE, who are informed about dialect transformation strategies, and who receive guided practice will acquire greater knowledge of written SE syntax and greater self-efficacy expectations regarding their ability to use correct SE forms in future writing tasks than students who receive only one or two of these instructional components.

## Method

### Experiment 1

#### Subjects

The subjects consisted of 73 masters level teacher education students from three masters level teacher education programs in New York and Connecticut. The students' ranged in age from 22 to 55, with a mean age of 33.4 years. Sixty-three of the students were women, 10 of the students were men. Seventy-eight percent of the students were White, 12% were Black, 7% were Hispanic and 3% were Asian. The students had a mean of 4.9 years teaching experience, ranging from 0 to 28 years.

#### Materials and Procedures

Subjects were trained and tested in small groups in one session lasting about 60 minutes. Group size ranged from two to thirteen students, with a mean group size of 6.6 students. Subjects were randomly assigned to different groups and the groups were then randomly assigned to one of three treatment conditions, E, ES and ESP. Four different groups were assigned to the E condition, three different groups were assigned to the ES condition, and four different groups were assigned to the ESP condition. The same experimenter worked with each of the groups.

Instruction was focused on the seven syntactic features of BEV listed in Table 1. Subjects' pre-experimental knowledge of BEV and their attitudes towards BEV were assessed prior to dialect training. In addition, subjects' were asked to rate their perceived pre-treatment familiarity with BEV on a four-point scale ranging from 1 (completely unfamiliar) to 4

(very familiar). Following dialect training, effects of instruction were assessed with two written language tasks measuring knowledge and use of BEV: a sentence translation task and a story writing task. Following the written language tasks, subjects' post-experimental attitudes towards BEV and their responses to two hypothetical classroom scenarios involving the use of BEV in the classroom were assessed.

Translation Tasks (Pretest and Posttest):

To assess subjects' knowledge of BEV prior to treatment, subjects were asked to translate five SE sentences into BEV forms (see Appendix A). The sentences, adapted from Baratz (1969), were constructed to include at least one instance of seven differentiating syntactic features of BEV. The features selected were those illustrated in Table 1. The sentences were printed on a sheet of paper, and students rewrote the sentences on lines beneath each sentence. They were given five minutes to complete the task.

To assess the impact of dialect training on subjects' acquisition of BEV forms, subjects were asked to complete a second sentence translation task structurally similar to the one used to assess pre-treatment knowledge of BEV. Subjects were asked to translate nine previously unseen SE sentences into their equivalent BEV forms (see Appendix B). The sentences were adapted with some modifications from those used by Baratz (1969) and were constructed to include four examples of each of the seven features in Table 1. The sentences were printed on a sheet of paper, and students rewrote the sentences on lines beneath each sentence.

Subjects were given nine minutes to complete the post-treatment translation task.

Story Writing Task (Posttest Only):

In addition to sentence translations, a story writing task was also used to assess post-treatment knowledge and use of BEV. Subjects were asked to describe in BEV a hypothetical trip they took with their mother and two brothers to an Italian restaurant on Mother's Day of last year (see Appendix C). This topic was created to maximize subjects' opportunity to utilize the targeted syntactic features in their writings, for example, the necessity of selecting an indefinite article preceding a vowel in referring to "an" vs. "a" Italian restaurant, and the necessity of referring to the past tense. Stories were scored for correct usage of the seven syntactic features of BEV relative to the opportunity for correct usage. Students were given ten minutes to complete the story writing task.

Attitude Scales (Pretest and Posttest):

Subjects' attitudes towards BEV prior to and following treatment were assessed with the Language Attitude Scale (Taylor, 1973). The Language Attitude Scale (LAS) is a self-report measure designed to examine teachers' attitudes towards BEV and its use in the classroom. The LAS consists of 25 items selected from a pool of 117 items based on the items' success in discriminating teachers with positive attitudes towards BEV from those with negative attitudes towards BEV.

The 25 LAS items tapped attitudes in four different content categories: the structure and inherent usefulness of nonstandard dialects;

the consequences of using nonstandard dialects in educational settings; philosophies regarding the use and acceptance of nonstandard dialects; and the cognitive abilities of speakers of nonstandard dialects. The first three categories consisted of eight items each, four stating positive attitudes towards BEV and four stating negative attitudes towards BEV. The fourth category consisted of a single item expressing a negative attitude regarding the intellectual abilities of speakers of BEV.

The scale was divided into two tests, one given as a pretest, the other as a posttest. Four items from each of the first three content categories, two positively stated and two negatively stated, were randomly selected for the LAS Pretest Measure. The remaining four items from each of the three content categories, formed the LAS Posttest Measure. The single item of the fourth category was used on both the pretest and posttest measures (see Appendices D and E).

Response to Classroom Scenarios (Posttest Only):

The classroom scenarios task was given as a posttest to assess subjects' opinions about teacher responses to two hypothetical classroom scenarios depicting a BEV speaking student's use of BEV in the classroom. The first scenario described a second-grade BEV speaking student reading a portion of SE text in BEV form during an oral reading exercise. The second scenario described a composition submitted by a third-grade BEV speaking student containing numerous BEV forms (see Appendix F). Subjects were asked to describe how they think teachers should respond to the two scenarios in question. Subjects' responses to each item were

written on a sheet of paper in the spaces provided following the scenario description. Subjects' were given ten minutes to answer the questions on the two scenarios.

Training Procedures:

Subjects were randomly assigned to one of three treatment conditions, E, ES, and ESP. Subjects were trained and tested in one session lasting about 60 minutes. The same experimenter worked with each of the groups.

Subjects in the "exposure only" (E) group completed the knowledge of BEV and language attitude pretest measures and then read silently from three BEV short story collections, Ollie, Lester, and Old Tales. The stories were adapted with minor modifications from those written in 1970 by the staff of the Educational Study Center in Washington, D.C. The stores were written in SE orthography but utilized BEV syntactic and BEV lexical forms (see Appendix G). These materials were selected because they represent the BEV dialect forms most typically spoken in Northeastern American cities such as New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore and Washington D.C. Subjects were told to "pay careful attention during their readings to the various grammatical features that distinguish BEV from SE forms." Following the readings, subjects completed the translation and story writing tasks, the post-treatment language attitude measure, and the classroom scenarios task.

Subjects in the second "exposure plus strategies" (ES) group completed the knowledge of BEV and language attitude pretest measures.

The instructions were the same as those given to the E group. Following the pretests, subjects were given a worksheet that provided specific information on how to translate materials from BEV to SE. The worksheet, which described and illustrated the seven differentiating syntactic features of BEV, were distributed to subjects and reviewed by the experimenter. Subjects were shown how to translate materials from one dialect to another. This was done by applying the translation rules to specific examples outlined on the worksheet (see Appendix H). The experimenter reviewed the seven syntactic features, one feature at a time. The review began with a statement of the syntactic category (e.g. the redundant plural "s" marker) followed by a brief description of the translation rule (e.g. BEV deletes the plural "s" marker when the plural form has been previously specified by a plural number, SE retains the plural "s" marker despite previous specification). Then two dialect translation examples were reviewed, the first involving the translation of SE into BEV and the second involving the translation of BEV into SE. Following the worksheet review, subjects read two of the short story collections, Ollie and Lester. Subjects were told to pay careful attention during their readings to the various grammatical features that distinguish BEV from SE forms. Following the readings, subjects completed the two post-treatment writing tasks, the post-treatment language attitude measure, and the classroom scenarios task.

Subjects in the third "exposure, strategies and practice" (ESP) group completed the pretests and reviewed the translation worksheet handout.

Instructions and procedures were the same as those given to the ES group. Following this, ESP subjects were given an opportunity to practice the worksheet transformation rules by translating a ten-sentence SE paragraph into its equivalent BEV syntactic form. Subjects were asked to rewrite the paragraph one sentence at a time. After completing each sentence, the experimenter orally reviewed with the group the correct way to transform the sentences into BEV. The practice materials were adapted from those published in Friends (Educational Study Center, Washington, D.C., 1970) and were constructed to include at least two examples of each of the seven syntactic features addressed in the study. The examples were distributed in a non-sequential manner throughout the practice materials (see Appendix D). After the guided practice, ESP subjects read the Ollie short story collection and completed the four post-treatment tasks.

The stories, worksheets and practice materials included numerous examples of the seven syntactic features of BEV being taught. To rule out differential exposure as a potential explanation for superior performance by the ESP group on posttest measures, this group was exposed to only one story, the ES group to two stories, and the E group to three stories. The number of exposures to the seven BEV features for each group are reported in Table 4. From inspection of the totals, it is apparent that across all materials seen, the E group was exposed to more instances of the syntactic features than the ES group which in turn was exposed to more features than the ESP group.

Table 4

Experiment One: Number and Source of Black English Vernacular Forms that Teacher Education Students Read in Each Treatment Condition.

<u>Exposure Only Group (E)</u>				
	<u>Ollie</u>	<u>Lester</u>	<u>Old Tales</u>	<u>Total</u>
Possessive	3	3	4	10
Past Tense	20	3	2	25
Third Person Singular	15	27	1	43
Plural	10	6	0	16
Copula	11	19	6	36
Subject Expression	18	18	5	41
Indefinite Article	8	1	0	9
Grand Total = 180				
<u>Exposure Plus Strategies Group (ES)</u>				
	<u>Ollie</u>	<u>Lester</u>	<u>Worksheet</u>	<u>Total</u>
Possessive	3	3	2	8
Past Tense	14	3	2	19
Third Person Singular	11	23	2	36
Plural	9	4	2	15
Copula	5	13	2	20
Subject Expression	16	12	2	30
Indefinite Article	5	1	2	8
Grand Total = 136				

(table continues)

Exposure, Strategies Plus Practice Group (ESP)

	<u>Ollie</u>	<u>Worksheet</u>	<u>Training</u>	<u>Total</u>
Possessive	4	2	2	8
Past Tense	14	2	3	19
Third Person Singular	23	2	3	28
Plural	11	2	2	15
Copula	15	2	2	19
Subject Expression	21	2	3	26
Indefinite Article	3	2	2	7

Grand Total = 122

### Design

The design was a pretest-posttest control group design with subjects assigned randomly to the three comparison groups. The independent variable was treatment group (E vs. ES vs. ESP). The dependent variables were translation, writing, language attitude and classroom scenario responses. Analyses of variance were applied to the outcome measures.

It was hypothesized that subjects who were exposed to BEV text, who were informed about dialect transformation strategies, and who received guided practice would acquire greater proficiency in the use of BEV and more positive attitudes towards BEV than subjects who received only one or two of these instructional components.

### Results

The sample sizes, means and standard deviations on the pretest and posttest measures for subject in the three treatment conditions are presented in Table 5. Subjects in the three treatment conditions did not differ in gender, age or ethnic background. Analyses of variance revealed no significant group differences in teaching experience,  $F(2,60) = 1.10, p > .05$ , or degree or self-reported pretreatment familiarity with BEV,  $F(2,68) = 0.91, p > .05$ , or pretreatment knowledge of BEV as measured by the pretreatment translation task,  $F(2,70) = 0.05, p > .05$ . Pretreatment translation scores ranged from 0% to 71%, with mean translation scores of 13%. Eighty-five percent of teacher education students received scores of 29% or less, indicating that subjects participating in the study were generally unfamiliar with BEV syntactic forms.

**Table 5**  
**Experiment One: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations on Demographic, Pretest and Posttest Measures as a Function of Training Condition in Teacher Education Students.**

Dependent Measures	<u>Training Condition</u>		
	E	ES	ESP
Age	33.5 (9.5)	32.2 (7.4)	34.6 (9.7)
Gender			
Male/Female	14%/86%	19%/81%	8%/92%
Ethnicity			
White/Black/ Hispanic/Asian	80%/10% 5%/5%	76%/12% 12%/0%	77%/15% 4%/4%
Familiarity with BEV	2.05 (0.9)	2.42 (0.9)	2.29 (1.1)
Pretest:			
Translation (7 Max)	.905 (1.6)	.962 (1.5)	1.038 (1.5)
Posttests:			
Translation (28 Max)	12.43 (7.0)	22.19 (5.0)	23.54 (3.1)
Stories			
Correct	3.90 (3.4)	8.84 (3.7)	10.64 (3.8)
Opportunities	7.90 (3.7)	12.40 (3.7)	12.56 (3.9)
Percent correct <sup>a</sup>	46% (29)	71% (18)	85% (12)
Length (words)	69.3 (24)	82.3 (19)	81.6 (25)
Language Attitude Scale (Range: 13-65)			
Pretest	37.9 (12.2)	32.3 (8.8)	37.5 (8.5)
Posttest	39.6 (12.6)	35.1 (11.4)	41.5 (8.8)

**Note.** There were 21 Exposure (E) subjects, 26 Exposure/Strategy (ES) subjects, and 26 Exposure/Strategy/Practice (ESP) subjects. Standard deviations are given in parentheses.

<sup>a</sup>Percentage of opportunities that were written correctly in BEV syntax (i.e., correct divided by opportunities).

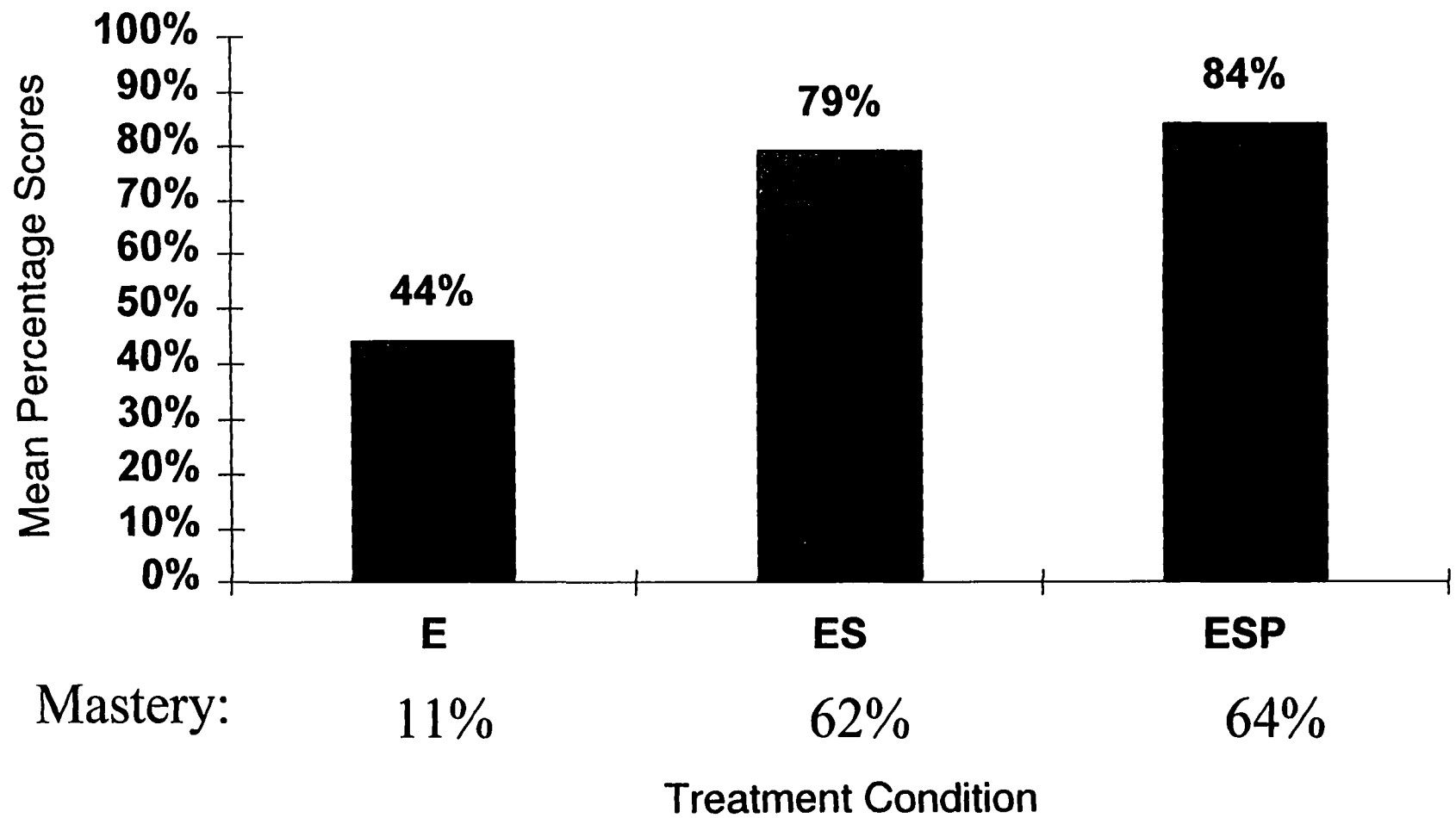
### Posttest Translation Scores

An analysis of variance of posttest translation scores revealed a significant main effect of treatment group,  $F(2,70) = 31.42$ ,  $p < .001$ , indicating that subjects in the different treatment conditions differed in their ability to translate SE sentences into BEV syntax. Post hoc Tukey pairwise comparisons showed that students in the ES and ESP groups scored significantly higher on the translation task than students in the E condition ( $p < .001$ ). The difference between students in the ES and ESP conditions was not significant ( $p > .05$ ). Results are displayed in Figure 3. From values in Figure 3, it is apparent that means of the ES and ESP groups were very similar and both were much higher than the mean of the E group. These results show that subjects in the exposure only condition who merely read stories in BEV but were not told about BEV syntactic structure did not learn BEV syntax as well as subjects in the other two treatment conditions.

Figure 3

Experiment 1: Posttest Translation Scores

ESP/ES > E



From the means in Table 5, it is apparent that subjects in the exposure only condition showed substantial improvement in BEV knowledge from pretest to posttest. In translating sentences, their success increased from 13% on the pretest to 44% on the posttest. (Raw scores on the translation pretest and posttest were converted to percentage scores because there were differing numbers of items on the tests, 7 items on the pretest and 28 items on the posttest.) A matched-pair  $t$ -test revealed that the gain from pretest to posttest was significant,  $t(20) = 4.56$ ,  $p < .001$ . These results indicate that asking adult subjects to pay attention to BEV features in stories that they read does lead to significant improvements in their acquisition of BEV dialect forms. However, far greater gains were exhibited by subjects who were provided with specific information about BEV syntactic structure.

Table 6 reports the mean number of times that subjects in the three groups correctly translated sentences containing the various syntactic forms on the translation posttest. Comparison of means for each syntactic feature reveals that the overall pattern of differences reported above (i.e., ESP/ES > E) was apparent for six of the seven syntactic categories utilized in the study. These results show that the treatment effects were not limited to only some of the forms but influenced acquisition of almost all forms similarly.

Table 6

Experiment One: Mean Scores on Posttest Translation Task for Each Syntactic Form as a Function of Treatment Condition in Teacher Education Students.

Syntactic Form	E Group (N=21)	ES Group (N=26)	ESP Group (N=26)
Possessive "s"	1.90	3.85	3.85
Past Tense "ed"	1.71	2.77	3.46
Third-Person Singular	2.29	3.77	3.77
Plural "s"	1.62	3.62	3.73
Copula	2.81	3.04	2.38
Subject Expression	1.00	2.04	2.65
Indefinite Article	1.10	3.12	3.69

Note. The maximum score in each cell was 4.

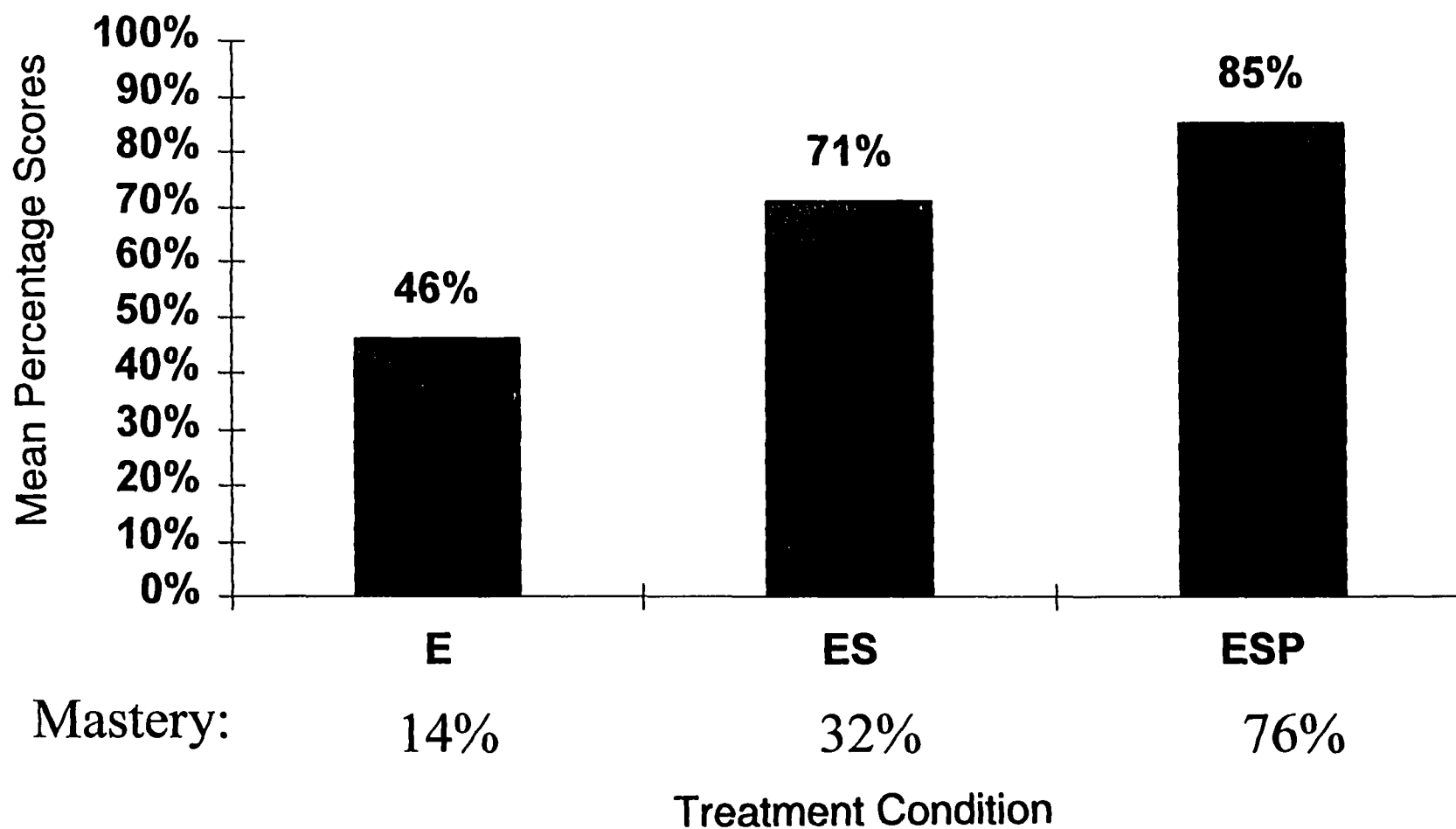
### Posttest Story Writing Task

To analyze performance in the story writing task, the number of times that subjects included correct features of BEV syntax in their stories was counted. This number was compared with the total number of locations where these features should have been used. The number of correct BEV productions was then divided by the number of BEV opportunities to yield a score reflecting the percentage of opportunities where correct BEV forms were used. Mean values are reported in Table 5. A Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality revealed that the distribution of percentage scores did not deviate significantly from normality,  $SW = 0.87$ ,  $p < .001$ . An ANOVA was then applied to individual posttest percentage scores. Results revealed a significant main effect of treatment condition,  $F(2,68) = 20.75$ ,  $p < .001$ , indicating that the groups differed in their ability to write stories using correct BEV syntactic forms. Post hoc Tukey pairwise comparisons showed that students in the ESP group scored significantly higher than students in the ES condition who, in turn, outperformed students in the E condition ( $p < .05$ ). In other words, giving students a combination of exposure to text, transformation strategies and guided practice enabled them to use BEV syntax in their writing with greater proficiency than giving students exposure plus strategies; exposure plus strategies enabled students to write with greater BEV proficiency than mere exposure. Results are displayed in Figure 4.

Figure 4

Experiment 1: Posttest Story Writing Scores

ESP > ES > E



From the means in Figure 4, it is apparent that in contrast to the E and ES groups, the ESP group reached a mastery level of learning in their inclusion of BEV features in their story writing, using BEV forms in a mean of 85 percent of the places where they were required. Individual scores were checked across the three groups to determine what proportion of the subjects exhibited mastery levels (i.e.,  $\geq 80\%$ ). Results revealed a huge disparity, with 76% of ESP subjects achieving mastery levels in their story writing compared to 32% of ES subjects and 14% of E subjects.

To determine whether story writing differences among the groups arose because of differing story lengths, the number of words in the stories that each subject wrote were counted. Mean performances are reported in Table 5. An ANOVA of mean story length revealed no significant differences among the three treatment conditions,  $F(2,68) = 2.32, p > .05$ . Although the mean of the E group appears lower than the means of the other two groups in Table 5, the variations among scores within the groups were large thus minimizing the meaningfulness of this difference.

Significant differences were found among the treatment conditions in the number of opportunities to use BEV syntax,  $F(2,68) = 10.77, p < .001$ . Tukey's post hoc comparison procedure revealed that stories written by subjects in the E condition contained significantly fewer opportunities for BEV use than stories written by subjects in the ES and ESP conditions which did not differ ( $p < .001$ ). An analysis of covariance was then applied to opportunity scores with story length serving as the covariate to see whether the opportunity differences arose simply because stories

written by the E group were shorter than stories written by the other groups. Results revealed a significant main effect of treatment group,  $F(2,67) = 8.80, p < .001$ . Tukey pairwise comparisons showed that, even with the length factor removed, stories written by subjects in the E condition contained fewer opportunities for BEV use than stories written by subjects in the ES and ESP conditions which did not differ ( $p < .01$ ). In other words, ES and ESP stories contained many more places where BEV forms were required than E stories even after adjusting for initial story length differences. It may be that ES and ESP subjects were actively creating opportunities to show off their new knowledge in their stories. Alternatively, subjects in the E condition may have been actively inhibiting the use of BEV forms in their writing, doing so by suppressing instances where BEV syntax would be required.

#### Posttest Attitude Towards BEV

Subjects' attitudes towards BEV prior to and following treatment are presented in Table 5. Initial differences in pretreatment attitudes towards BEV were not significant,  $F(2,70) = 2.51, p > .05$ . A two-way analysis of variance was employed with treatment condition and time of test (pretest vs. posttest) serving as the independent variables. Results revealed a main effect of test time,  $F(1,70) = 23.21, p < .001$ , but no main effect of treatment,  $F(2,70) = 2.47, p > .05$ , or interaction,  $F(2,70) = 1.13, p > .05$ . Results are displayed in Figure 5. These findings show that asking students to participate in a study on BEV that included, at a minimum, exposure to dialect-based reading materials, resulted in positive attitude

shifts towards BEV among SE speaking graduate teacher education students. Providing students with additional information concerning the grammatical structure of BEV and allowing them to practice the forms in their writings did not result in additional significant shifts in attitudes.

Figure 5

Experiment 1: Language Attitude Scale

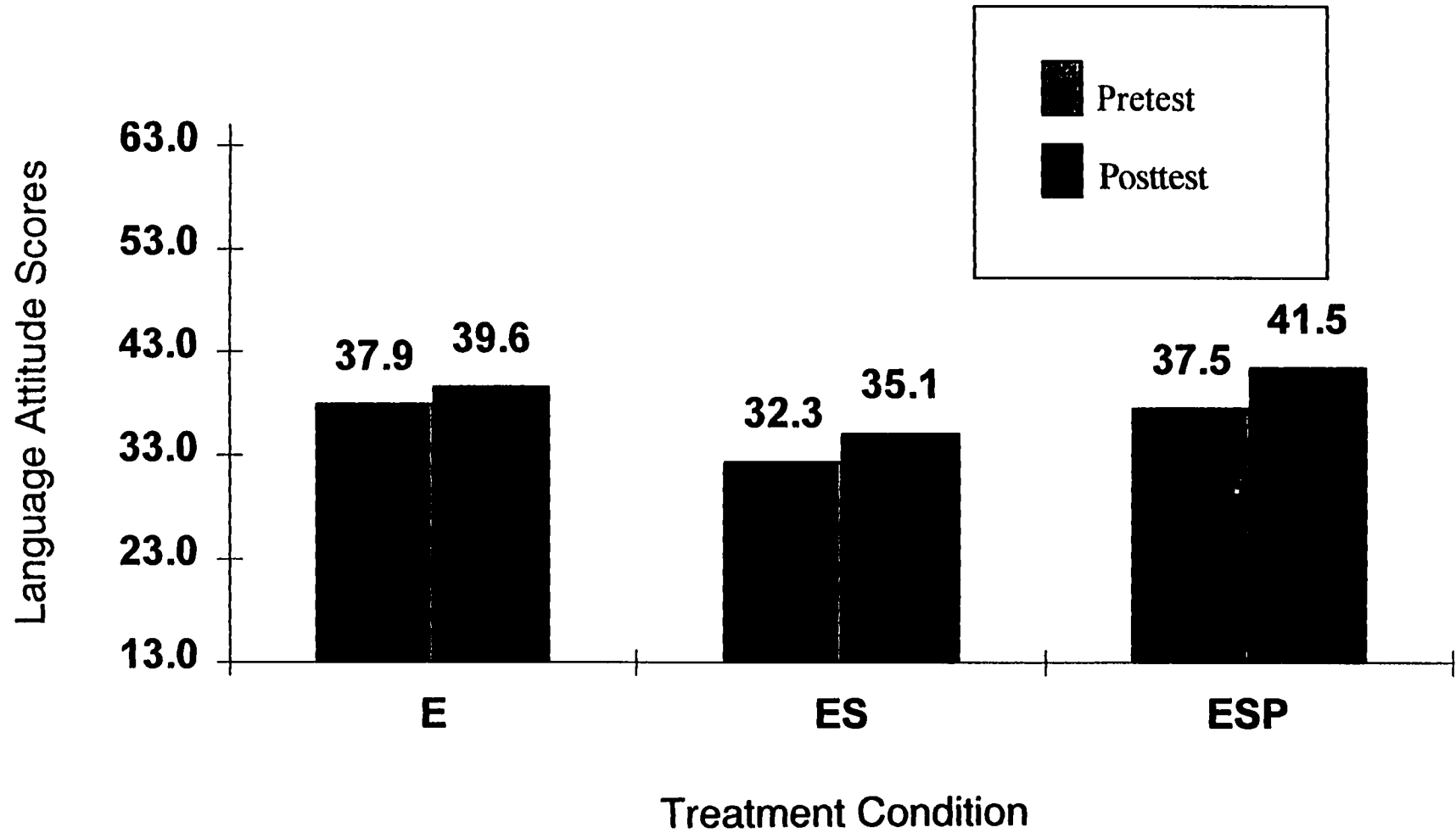


Table 7 reports adjusted mean values for subjects in the three treatment conditions on each of the four LAS content categories: the structure and usefulness of nonstandard dialects; the consequences of using nonstandard dialects in educational settings; philosophies regarding the acceptance of nonstandard dialects; and the cognitive abilities of speakers of nonstandard dialects. Pretest content category scores served as the covariate. Comparisons of means reveals that subjects in the ESP condition showed higher (i.e., more positive) mean attitude scores than subjects in the E and ES conditions on all four content categories, even after adjusting for pretest attitude differences. The possibility of ESP group means being greater than E and ES means across the four content categories is 1/81, indicating that allowing students to practice and struggle with BEV syntax in their writing resulted in somewhat more positive attitudes towards BEV, although these differences fell short of statistical significance.

Table 7

**Experiment One: Adjusted Mean Scores on LAS Content Categories as a Function of Training Condition in Teacher Education Students.**

Content Category	E Group (N=21)	ES Group (N=26)	ESP Group (N=26)
A. Structure and Usefulness (20 Max)	10.21	11.25	11.70
B. Consequences of use in Educational Settings (20 Max)	12.18	11.53	12.36
C. Philosophies Regarding Acceptance (20 Max)	12.35	12.17	12.85
D. Cognitive Abilities of Speakers (5 Max)	3.08	3.03	3.14

**Note.** Mean scores were adjusted to take account of pretest differences among the groups in Language Attitude content category scores.

### Classroom Scenarios

Subjects' responses to the hypothetical use of BEV forms by BEV speaking students in their reading and writing were categorized along several dimensions thought to be relevant to the teaching of new dialect forms in the classroom. These dimensions included:

1. whether teachers should correct the BEV forms (e.g. "I believe the teacher should correct the reading." vs. "The teacher should accept the reading provided it follows the rules of Black English Vernacular."),
2. whether corrections should be directed by the teacher or referred to the student (e.g. "I think as soon as the teacher hears the student read a sentence or rather the first word of a sentence, she/he should say the word correctly out loud." vs. "The teacher should ask the child to look at the reading one more time and read it again directly from the text."), and
3. whether dialect-based instruction should be incorporated into the curriculum (e.g. "The teacher should explain to all the students that many people in America speak many different ways. She might want to explain that dialect forms have rules of grammar and proper spoken forms so that dialect speakers do not feel inferior in their language abilities."). The mean proportions of responses in each of these categories are reported in Table 8.

Table 8

Experiment One: Percentage of Responses to Hypothetical Classroom Scenario  
Categories as a Function of Training Condition for Teacher Education Students.

Category	Training Condition			Chi Square
	E (N=21)	ES (N=26)	ESP (N=26)	
Correction of BEV Forms (Total):				
Correct	87%	90%	78%	
Do Not Correct	13%	10%	22%	3.34
Correction of BEV Forms (Reading):				
Correct	80%	88%	80%	
Do Not Correct	20%	12%	20%	0.84
Correction of BEV Forms (Writing):				
Correct	95%	92%	75%	
Do Not Correct	5%	8%	25%	4.46
Type of Correction (Total):				
Teacher-Directed	74%	80%	66%	
Student-Directed	26%	20%	34%	2.31
Type of Correction (Reading):				
Teacher-Directed	63%	78%	55%	
Student-Directed	37%	22%	45%	2.71
Type of Correction (Writing):				
Teacher-Directed	83%	83%	78%	
Student-Directed	17%	17%	22%	0.22
Dialect Instruction	26%	15%	29%	2.73

Note. None of the test statistics was significant at  $p < .05$ .

From the means, it appears that subjects in the ESP condition were less likely to say they would correct dialect-based errors in student reading and writing assignments than subjects were in the E and ES groups. This was particularly true on writing tasks. When making corrections, ESP subjects were somewhat more likely to have students attempt to self-correct their reading or writing rather than simply give students the correct form. In contrast, subjects in the ES condition were more likely to simply provide students with the correct SE form. A greater proportion of E and ESP subjects than ES subjects stated that they would use the BEV miscues as a starting point for further discussion of the different dialect forms that exist in the classroom. Although these tendencies were apparent in the data, chi-square analyses employed to test the differences fell short of statistical significance on each of the categorical dimensions reported in Table 8 (all  $p$ 's > .05).

#### Correlational Analyses

Pearson correlations were computed on variables included in the study. The correlation matrix is presented in Table 9. Correlations show that teaching experience was positively correlated with self-reported pretreatment familiarity with BEV. In other words, more experienced teachers reported greater familiarity with BEV. Interestingly, teaching experience and self-reported familiarity with BEV did not correlate with any of the pre- or posttest outcome measures, indicating that these factors were unrelated to actual knowledge of BEV or to attitudes towards BEV. The two written outcome measures of BEV syntactic proficiency were

highly correlated with each other, indicating that increased learning on the translation task was associated with increased learning on the story writing task. However, both written outcome measures were unrelated to pre- and posttest language attitude scores, raising doubt about any direct relationship between knowledge acquisition and attitude change.

Table 9

Experiment One: Correlational Matrix of Variables with TeacherEducation Students

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 TE	-	.31*	-.01	.01	.05	.01	.03
2 BEV Familiarity		-	.13	.05	.04	-.01	.15
3 Pre BEV			-	.04	.24*	.14	.06
4 Pre LAS				-	-.06	-.05	.89**
5 Post Translation					-	.81**	.03
6 Post Writing						-	.04
7 Post LAS							-

- 
1. Teaching Experience (Years)
  2. Self-Reported Familiarity with BEV (1=Completely Unfamiliar to 4=Very Familiar)
  3. Pretest Knowledge of BEV (7 Max)
  4. Pretest LAS Score (Range: 13-65)
  5. Posttest Translation Score (28 Max)
  6. Posttest Story Writing: Percent Correct
  7. Posttest LAS Score (Range: 13-65)

\*  $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

## Discussion

Treatment effects involving the teacher education students were evaluated on three different types of measures: knowledge/use of BEV, attitude towards BEV, and opinion about teacher response to BEV use. The instructional intervention was found to have a significant differentiating impact on BEV knowledge, somewhat less of an impact on attitudinal measures, and the least influence on measures of hypothetical classroom behaviors.

Results of the present study show that instructional efforts to teach BEV forms to SE speaking teacher education students were effective. On the story writing task, teacher education students who were given a combination of exposure to text, transformation strategies and guided practice used BEV syntax in their writings with greater proficiency than students given exposure plus strategies. In turn, the latter group wrote with greater BEV proficiency than the exposure only group. These results were similar to those obtained in the pilot study involving undergraduate psychology students. The convergence of findings across two distinct subject groups validates the effectiveness of the instructional intervention and supports the hypotheses derived from the social-cognitive view of self-regulated academic learning. According to this view, providing subjects with an opportunity to practice and monitor the use of strategies in their writing should result in significant improvements in performance above and beyond more limited intervention procedures that simply expose

subjects to text or expose subjects to text and provide information about the translation strategies.

On the sentence translation task, teacher education students in the ES and ESP conditions showed greater proficiency in translating SE sentences into BEV syntax than did teacher education students in the E condition. However, unlike performance in the story writing task, performance differences between ES and ESP students on the translation task were not significant. These findings did not support the initial hypotheses derived from social-cognitive theory. One possible explanation for these differences involves the discrepancies in the nature of the two writing tasks that were employed. Translating sentences into alternate dialect syntax involves a rather simple application of dialect translation algorithms. These translation algorithms were clearly defined for students in both the ES and ESP conditions. As a result, no differences were found between ES and ESP subjects in their ability to translate SE sentences into BEV syntax. Writing stories, on the other hand, requires students to focus their attention not only on the syntactic forms being used but also on the various organizational processes involved in constructing a meaningful and well-integrated passage. The superior performance of ESP students on this more complicated story-writing task may be attributable to the opportunity they had to actually practice using the new dialect forms in their writings.

The similarity in performance between ES and ESP students on the translation task in the present study contrasts with the superior performance of ESP over ES students in the pilot study. One explanation for the

difference in findings involves the increased cognitive sophistication of masters level students over undergraduate students. Alternatively, the masters level teacher education students in the present study averaged almost five years of teaching experience and, as a result, might have had greater exposure to alternate dialect forms than did the undergraduate students in the pilot study. This exposure might have provided them with a better developed linguistic base for organizing and integrating the translation rules. A third possibility is that the teacher education students were more interested in learning about BEV structures than the undergraduates were because they realized its relevance to their teaching. Thus, they may have studied and thought about the rules more than the undergraduates did.

Dialect training had a lesser differentiating impact on subjects' attitudes towards BEV than on their acquisition of BEV forms. Although subjects in each of the three treatment conditions showed positive attitude shifts from pre- to posttest measures, the differences between the groups were not significant. Interestingly, Pearson correlations revealed that acquired knowledge of BEV syntax as measured by the two written language measures was unrelated to posttest language attitude scores. It seems likely that attitude shifts require far more than simple knowledge acquisition. In addition to basic knowledge about the dialect forms, teachers may also need to be sensitized to the struggles and difficulties that dialect speaking students experience with new dialect forms in the classroom.

Treatment effects were the least evident on measures of teacher education students' reactions to the hypothetical classroom behaviors. Students in the ESP condition were somewhat less likely to correct dialect-based errors in student reading and writing assignments than were students in the other groups. When correcting dialect-based errors, ESP students were somewhat more likely to allow students to self-correct their miscues rather than simply supply the correct form. However, these differences all fell short of statistical significance.

Although non-significant, the overall trends that were found in ESP students' reactions to the hypothetical classroom scenarios were consistent with previous research on effective teaching behaviors. Research has shown that student achievement is maximized when students are given an opportunity to self-correct rather than being provided with correct responses by teachers (Brophy, 1986). In addition, research has shown that teachers high in self-efficacy are more likely to follow up incorrect student responses with questions and suggestions designed to help students arrive at the correct response on their own. Low self-efficacy teachers are more likely to provide students with the correct response or to call on other students to provide the correct response (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

Regarding the correction of BEV miscues in the classroom, Washington and Miller-Jones (1989) found that student- vs. teacher-correction differences were related to teacher knowledge of BEV. Teachers who were more knowledgeable about BEV responded to dialect-

based miscues by allowing students to self-correct to a significantly greater degree than did teachers who were less knowledgeable about the dialect.

In the present study, ESP subjects practiced and struggled with the dialect forms to a much greater extent than did subjects in the E or ES conditions. As a result, they appear to have been more willing to allow students to self-correct and struggle with new dialect forms on their own than were E or ES subjects. Perhaps with more time spent in BEV training and more time spent in reflection on the implications for their own teaching, these trends might become more pronounced. However, whether the instructional trends reported are in fact related to increased proficiency in SE forms among dialect speaking students is an empirical question requiring further research.

## Method

### Experiment 2

#### Subjects

The subjects consisted of 89 Black-English Vernacular speaking third and fourth-grade elementary school students from Stamford and Bridgeport, Connecticut. Student ages ranged from 8 to 10 years. Forty-eight of the students were female, forty-one students were male. These students were selected from a larger sample of students who were included in the study and tested,  $N = 265$ . The students whose responses were analyzed in the present study were those who exhibited BEV syntactic forms in at least 25% of their responses on a pretreatment task in which subjects translated BEV forms into SE forms (see below).

#### Materials and Procedures

Twelve intact third and fourth-grade elementary school classes were randomly assigned to one of three treatment conditions. Four different classes, one third-grade class and three fourth-grade classes, contributed subjects to each of the three treatment groups. Although the entire class was involved in the training and subsequent testing, participation in the study was limited to Black students who exhibited BEV syntactic forms in at least 25% of their responses on the pretreatment translation task.

Students were trained and tested as a group in their classroom. Training and testing were conducted by classroom teachers. Prior to the study, the experimenter met with the teachers and reviewed with them the rationale for the study and the specific procedures to follow. The

experimenter was present during all testing sessions to verify that the procedures were administered as required.

Training took place over two sessions totaling about 60 minutes. During the first session students completed the pretreatment translation task and the pretreatment self-efficacy measure. This session lasted approximately 15 minutes and was identical across all treatment groups. During the second session students participated in the experimental treatments and then completed a second self-efficacy measure, three posttest outcome measures, and a third self-efficacy measure. This session lasted approximately 30-45 minutes and differed across the treatment conditions. The two sessions were approximately one week apart.

The syntactic features targeted for the study are listed in Table 10. These features are somewhat different from those used in Experiment 1 (see Table 1). This is because inspection of samples of BEV speaking students' writing in Stamford and Bridgeport revealed an absence of BEV syntax involving subject-expression and copula forms. As a result, these features were omitted from the features taught in the present study. However, inspection of students' writings revealed that BEV alterations of SE subject-verb agreement features were common, so these features were included in instruction.

Table 10

Experiment Two: Targeted Standard English Syntactic Features Taught to Elementary School Students.

---

## 1. Possessive "s"

SE: Bob's friend

BEV: Bob\_ friend

## 2. Past tense "ed"

SE: Yesterday she played

BEV: Yesterday she play\_

## 3. Third-person present-tense singular "s"

SE: Jessica lives

BEV: Jessica live\_

## 4. Plural "s"

SE: Three books

BEV: Three book\_

## 5. Indefinite Article

SE: an orangeBEV: a orange

## 6. Subject-Verb Agreement

SE: They were/he was

BEV: They was/he was

SE: They have/he has

BEV: They have/he have

SE: They don't/He doesn't

BEV: They don't/he don't

### Translation Tasks (Pretest and Posttest):

To assess subjects' knowledge of the six SE syntactic forms prior to treatment, subjects were asked to translate five sentences written with BEV syntax into their corresponding SE forms. The sentences were adapted from the posttest translation task given to subjects in Experiment 1. The sentences were constructed to include at least two instances of each of the six BEV features illustrated in Table 10 (see Appendix J). The sentences were printed on a sheet of paper, and students rewrote the sentences on lines beneath each sentence. They were given fifteen minutes to complete the task.

To assess the impact of dialect training on students' acquisition of the six SE syntactic forms, students were asked to complete a second sentence translation task that was structurally similar to the pretest translation measure. Students were asked to translate five sentences written with BEV syntax into their corresponding SE forms (see Appendix K). The sentences were constructed to include at least two instances of each of the six BEV features in Table 10. The sentences were printed on a sheet of paper, and students rewrote the sentences on lines beneath each sentence. Students were given fifteen minutes to complete the posttest translation task.

### Self-Efficacy Ratings (Pretest and Posttest):

Subjects' self-efficacy perceptions for writing sentences and stories using appropriate SE grammatical structure were assessed with a writing self-efficacy measure adapted from Shell, Murphy & Bruning (1989).

Students were asked by the teachers to rate on a scale ranging from 0 (no confidence at all) to 100 (completely confident) the degree of confidence they felt regarding their ability to write sentences and stories using correct grammatical forms (see Appendix L). Self-efficacy ratings were obtained at three points in the study: prior to instruction; following instruction but prior to the completion of outcome measures; following the completion of all outcome measures.

**Comprehension Questions (Posttest Only):**

In addition to sentence translations, students were asked to respond in writing to three short-answer questions assessing students' comprehension of the short stories read out loud by the teachers to the students during training (see Appendix M). The purpose of the comprehension questions was to elicit additional writing samples to assess the impact of dialect training on students' use of the targeted SE syntactic forms.

**Story Writing Task (Posttest Only):**

Students were asked to describe a hypothetical trip they took with two of their friends to an ice-hockey game for their friend's birthday (see Appendix N). The topic was created to maximize the likelihood that students would use the targeted SE features in their writings. The stories and comprehension responses were scored for the percentage of opportunities where targeted SE syntactic forms were correctly used. Students were given twelve minutes to complete the story writing task.

### Training Procedures

Training was conducted during a second session that followed the first pretest session by 7-10 days. Students in the "exposure only" (E) group began the second session by completing a self-efficacy measure identical to the one completed on the pretest. Following the self-efficacy measure, teachers read aloud two short stories titled Ollie and Jennifer the Cheat (Educational Study Center, Washington, D.C., 1970). The stories consisted of the SE versions of two short stories used in Experiment 1. The stories contained numerous examples of the six targeted syntactic features being taught. The number of instances of each feature is reported in Table 11. Teachers were asked to read the stories out loud in order to ensure that both slow and fast readers would be exposed to equivalent amounts of text to draw on in answering the comprehension questions.

Table 11

**Experiment Two: Number and Source of Standard English Forms that Elementary School Students were Exposed to in their Readings.**

---

	<u>Ollie</u>	<u>Jennifer the</u> <u>Cheat</u>	<u>Total</u>
Possessive	2	0	2
Past Tense	6	2	8
Third Person Singular	2	7	9
Plural	6	1	7
Indefinite Article	2	0	2
Subject-Verb Agreement	3	2	5
		<b>Grand Total = 33</b>	

---

Following the oral readings, students were asked to respond in writing to the three comprehension questions. Students were reminded to use complete sentences in all of their responses. Following the readings, students completed the posttest translation task, the story writing task, and a third self-efficacy measure identical to the first two.

Students in the second "exposure plus strategies" (ES) condition began the second session by reviewing a worksheet that provided specific information about the six targeted syntactic features described in Table 10. The worksheet, similar in form to that described in Experiment 1, was distributed by the teachers to each of the students and reviewed in class. Teachers began the review by mentioning to the students that the features covered were those that many of the students in the class were having trouble with. Teachers went on to explain that the forms were difficult for students to learn because they differed from the way the features were sometimes used when speaking at home or with one's friends. The teachers reviewed the six syntactic features one feature at a time. The review began with a statement of the syntactic category followed by a brief description of the syntactic rule. Students were then shown how to apply the targeted grammatical rules to specific examples illustrated on the worksheet (see Appendix O). Following the worksheet review, students completed the second self-efficacy measure identical to the one completed on the pretest. Teachers then read aloud the two short stories and asked students to respond in writing to the three comprehension questions. Instructions and procedures were the same as those given to the E group. Following the

comprehension questions, students completed the posttest translation task, the story writing task, and a third self-efficacy measure identical to the first two. Instructions were the same as those given to students in the E condition.

Students in the third "exposure, strategies and practice" (ESP) group began the second session with a review of the worksheet rules described above. Procedures were the same as those administered to the ES group. Following this, ESP subjects were given an opportunity to practice the worksheet rules by translating a seven-sentence paragraph written with BEV syntax into its equivalent SE form. The seven-sentence paragraph was similar to that utilized with ESP subjects in Experiment 1. Students were asked to rewrite the sentences one sentence at a time. After completing each sentence, the teacher orally reviewed with the class the correct way to transform the sentence into correct SE syntax. The practice materials were constructed to include at least two examples of each of the six targeted features addressed in the study (see Appendix P). Following the guided practice, students completed the self-efficacy measures and posttreatment tasks. Instructions and procedures were the same as those given to the E and ES groups.

### Design

The design was a pretest-posttest control group design with classrooms assigned randomly to the three comparison groups. The independent variable was treatment group (E vs. ES vs. ESP). The

dependent variables were translation, writing and self-efficacy responses. Analyses of variance were applied to the outcome measures.

It was hypothesized that students in the ESP condition would acquire greater proficiency in the use of written SE syntax and more positive self-efficacy expectations regarding their ability to write using correct SE syntax than students in the ES or E conditions.

### Results

Sample sizes, means and standard deviations on pretest and posttest measures for students in the three treatment conditions are presented in Table 12. Analyses of variance of pretest scores revealed no significant differences among treatment conditions on either the translation task,  $F(2,81) = 0.42, p > .05$ , or on the self-efficacy measure,  $F(2,81) = 0.79, p > .05$ .

Table 12

**Experiment Two: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations on Pretests and Posttests as a Function of Training Condition in Elementary School Students.**

<u>Dependent Measures</u>	<u>Training Condition</u>					
	<u>E</u>		<u>ES</u>		<u>ESP</u>	
Pretest:						
Translation (12 Max)	3.48	(2.8)	3.69	(2.9)	4.17	(3.1)
Posttests:						
Translation (12 Max)	3.72	(3.2)	3.43	(3.4)	6.52	(2.7)
Writing Production						
Correct	8.10	(6.2)	7.45	(6.3)	12.00	(6.1)
Opportunities	13.52	(6.2)	11.21	(5.9)	15.81	(5.8)
Percent correct <sup>a</sup>	59%	(29)	59%	(28)	74%	(21)
Length (words)	128.1	(53)	93.6	(40)	144.4	(66)
Self-Efficacy Ratings (0-100)						
Pretest	77.9	(23.7)	74.2	(30.7)	83.4	(28.1)
Posttest #1	79.6	(20.8)	81.0	(26.6)	77.4	(29.9)
Posttest #2	85.0	(22.9)	86.4	(23.3)	82.7	(31.1)

**Note.** There were 29 Exposure subjects, 29 Exposure/Strategy subjects, and 31 Exposure/Strategy/Practice subjects. Standard deviations are given in parentheses.

<sup>a</sup> Percentage of opportunities that were written correctly in BEV syntax (i.e., correct divided by opportunities).

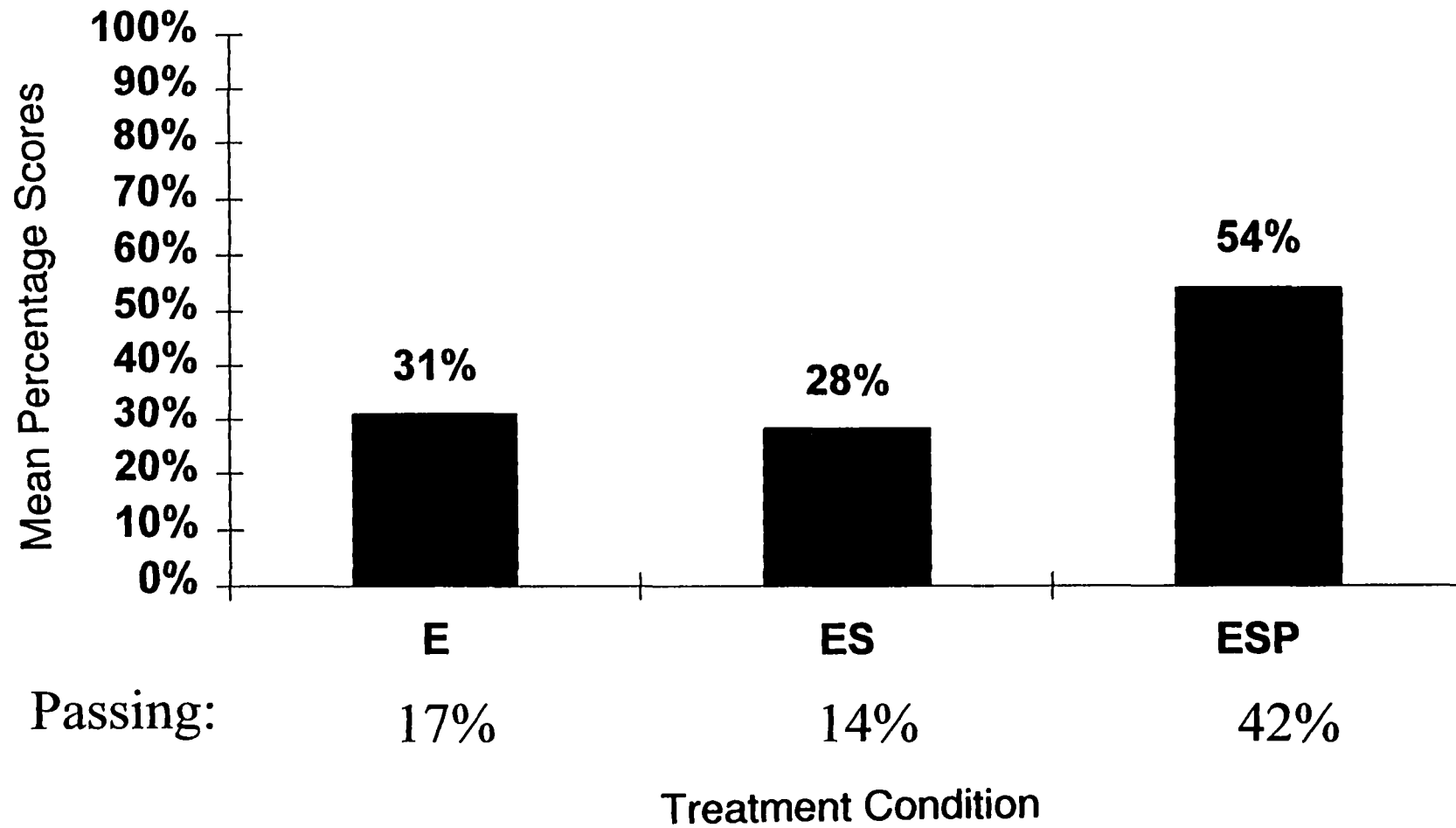
### Posttest Translation Scores

An analysis of variance of posttest translation scores revealed a significant main effect of treatment group,  $F(2,85) = 9.10, p < .001$ , indicating that the treatment groups differed in their ability to translate BEV syntax into SE. Tukey pairwise comparisons showed that students in the ESP condition scored significantly higher than students in the ES and E conditions which did not differ from each other ( $p < .01$ ). In other words, providing students with exposure to text, clearly defined syntactic rules, and guided practice in the use of those rules enabled them to translate sentences into SE syntax with greater proficiency than simply providing them with one or two of these instructional components. Results are displayed in Figure 6. Interestingly, students who were provided with explicitly stated syntactic rules but did not have the opportunity to practice those rules fared no better than students who were not given the rules at all.

Figure 6

Experiment 2: Posttest Translation Scores

ESP > ES/E



Recall that students were selected to participate in the study because they had difficulty translating BEV syntax into SE. From means on the translation pretest in Table 12, it is evident that these students translated only a few syntactic forms correctly, confirming the selection process. Across the three treatment conditions, students were able to translate only 32% of the BEV forms correctly into SE. These difficulties persisted for students in the ES and E conditions. Their posttest translation scores showed virtually no improvement over their pretest translation performance. By contrast, students in the ESP condition showed significant improvement in the posttest translation scores relative to their pretest performance.

Table 13 reports the mean number of times that subjects correctly translated sentences containing the various syntactic forms on the translation posttest. Comparison of means for each syntactic feature reveals that the overall pattern of differences reported above (i.e., ESP > ES/E) was apparent for five of the six syntactic categories utilized in the study. These results show that the treatment effects were not limited to only some of the forms but influenced acquisition of almost all of the forms similarly.

Table 13

**Experiment Two: Mean Scores on Posttest Translation Task for Each Syntactic Form as a Function of Treatment Condition in Elementary School Students.**

Syntactic Form	E Group (N=29)	ES Group (N=29)	ESP Group (N=31)
Possessive "s"	0.65	0.86	0.84
Past Tense "ed"	0.51	0.50	0.90
Third-Person Singular	1.11	0.82	1.57
Plural "s"	0.83	0.82	1.48
Indefinite Article	0.03	0.11	0.77
Subject-Verb Agreement	0.55	0.32	1.03

**Note.** The maximum score in each cell was 2.

Individual scores were checked across the three conditions to determine what proportion of subjects exhibited "passing" levels (i.e.,  $\geq 65\%$ ) on their posttest translation scores. A passing level of 65% was selected because it reflects the typical pass/fail criterion applied to test scores in most schools. Results revealed clear disparities in performance: 42% of ESP students vs. 14% of ES students vs. 17% of E students.

#### Posttest Writing Tasks

To analyze performance on the assorted writing tasks, the number of times students included correct features of the targeted SE syntactic forms in their comprehension and story writing responses were counted and combined. This number was compared with the total number of locations where these features should have been used. The number of correct SE productions was divided by the number of opportunities yielding a percentage of opportunities where correct SE syntactic forms were used. Mean values are reported in Table 12. A Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality revealed that the distribution of percentage scores did not deviate from normality,  $SW = 0.92$ ,  $p < .001$ . An ANOVA was then applied to individual percentage correct scores. Results revealed a significant main effect of treatment,  $F(2,86) = 3.56$ ,  $p < .05$ , indicating that the treatment groups differed in their ability to write sentences and stories using correct SE syntax. A post-hoc planned comparison revealed that the scores of students in the ESP condition exceeded the combined average scores of students in the ES and E conditions,  $F = 7.12$ ,  $p < .01$ . Individual scores were checked across the three conditions to determine what proportion of

subjects exhibited "passing" levels of performance (i.e.,  $\geq 65\%$ ) in their writings. Results, once again, revealed clear disparities: 81% of ESP students vs. 55% of ES students vs. 33% of E students. Results are displayed in Figure 7. Interestingly, across all three treatment conditions, the proportion of students who exhibited "passing" levels of performance in their story writing was nearly twice as high as the proportion of students who exhibited "passing" levels of performance in their sentence translations. This may be due to the fact that students were able to suppress instances where SE syntax would be required in their story writing but were unable to do so when translating sentences. Examples of stories written by students in the three treatment conditions are included in Table 14. Locations where SE syntax is required are underlined.

Figure 7

Experiment 2: Posttest Writing Scores

ESP > ES/E

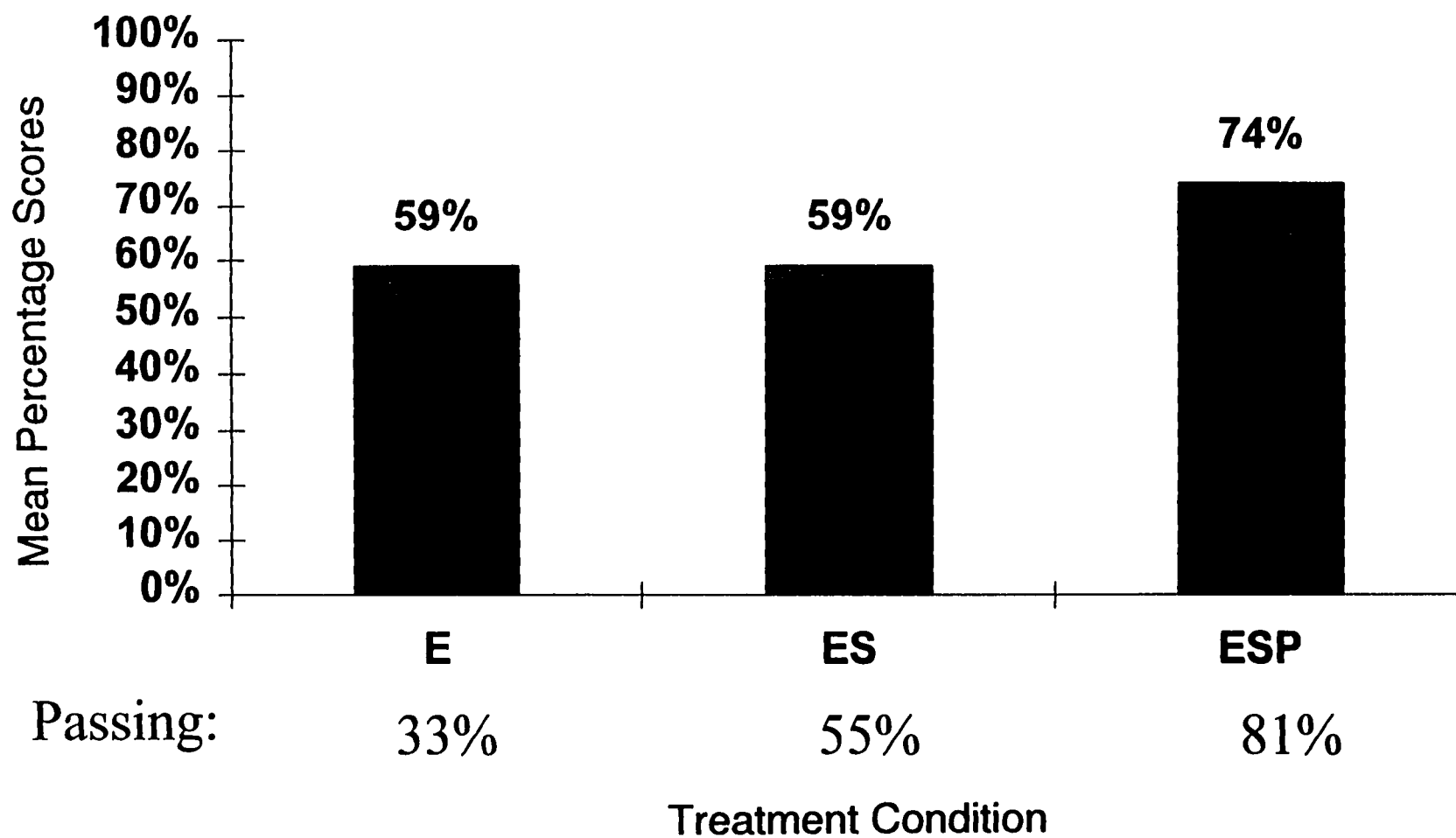


Table 14

Writing Samples of Students in Each Treatment Condition.Exposure Only Group (E)

One day Shanta and Kisha went to our other friend Kisha house and said  
 that we was going to a ice-hockey game. We said today is your birthday.  
 Then we was waiting for her to get dress. Then we got on the bus and went  
 to see ice hockey live on ice.

Length (words): 53

Percent correct: 0% (0/5)

Exposure Plus Strategies Group (ES)

Last year two of my friend and I went to a ice-hockey game. We had so  
 much fun. They gave us ice skates and we skated until we got tired of  
 falling so we quitted. We went home aching.

Length (words): 40

Percent correct: 33% (1/3)

(table continues)

Exposure Plus Strategies Group (ES)

One day my friend took me to a hockey game for his birthday. It was the  
 f+  
 greatest. We had popcorn and ice-cream. I bet ten dollars about my team  
 d+  
 winning, he bet ten dollars about his team. First his team scored two goals  
 d+ b+ d+  
 then my team scored five. Then he scored two and it turned out to be a tie  
 b+ b+ b+  
 five to five. So we split it on one ten dollar bill. We got five dollars.  
 d+

Length (words): 79

Percent correct: 100% (9/9)

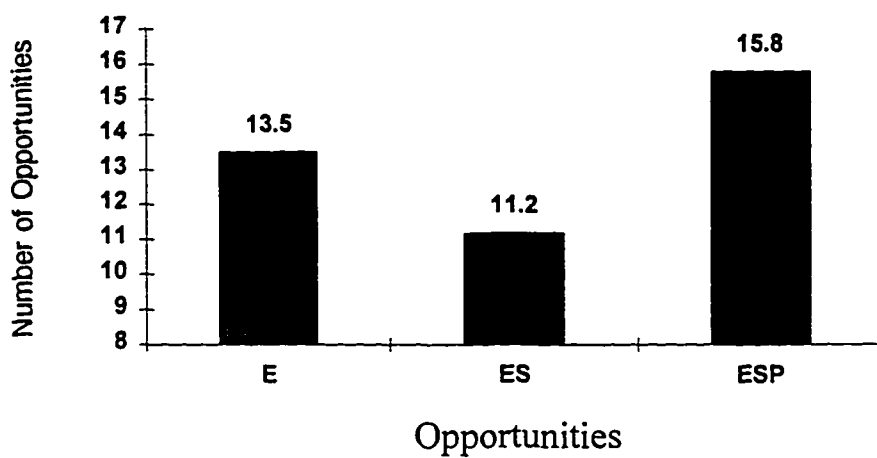
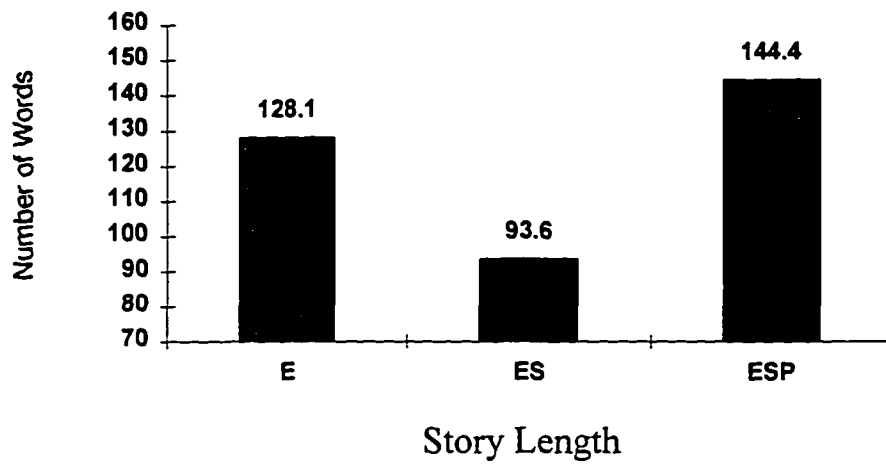
Note. Locations requiring SE syntax are underlined. + indicates correct usage of SE forms; - indicates incorrect usage of SE forms. Letters below indicate syntactic features used.

- |                          |                           |
|--------------------------|---------------------------|
| a. Possessive            | d. Plural                 |
| b. Past Tense            | e. Indefinite Article     |
| c. Third-Person Singular | f. Subject-Verb Agreement |

To determine whether story writing differences among the groups arose because of differing story lengths, the number of words in the stories that each subject wrote were counted. Mean performances are reported in Table 12. An ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of treatment group,  $F(2, 86) = 6.76, p < .01$ . Tukey pairwise comparisons revealed that stories written by students in the ES condition were significantly shorter ( $p < .05$ ) than stories written by the students in the ESP and E groups which did not differ in length ( $p > .05$ ).

Mean number of opportunities where targeted SE syntax should have been used are reported in Table 12. An ANOVA revealed a main effect of treatment condition,  $F(2,86) = 4.45, p < .01$ . Tukey post-hoc comparisons showed that stories written by students in the ES condition contained significantly fewer opportunities for use of targeted SE features than stories written by students in the ESP condition ( $p < .01$ ). This suggests that students in the ES condition were actively inhibiting their use of targeted SE syntactic forms in their writings both by writing less and by suppressing instances where targeted SE syntax would be required. Perhaps their awareness of the features targeted in the study combined with their inability to actually practice and monitor the use of those features in their writing made them more cautious and less fluent in their writing. Mean story length and number of opportunity values are displayed in Figure 8.

Figure 8

Story Length and Number of Opportunities Scores

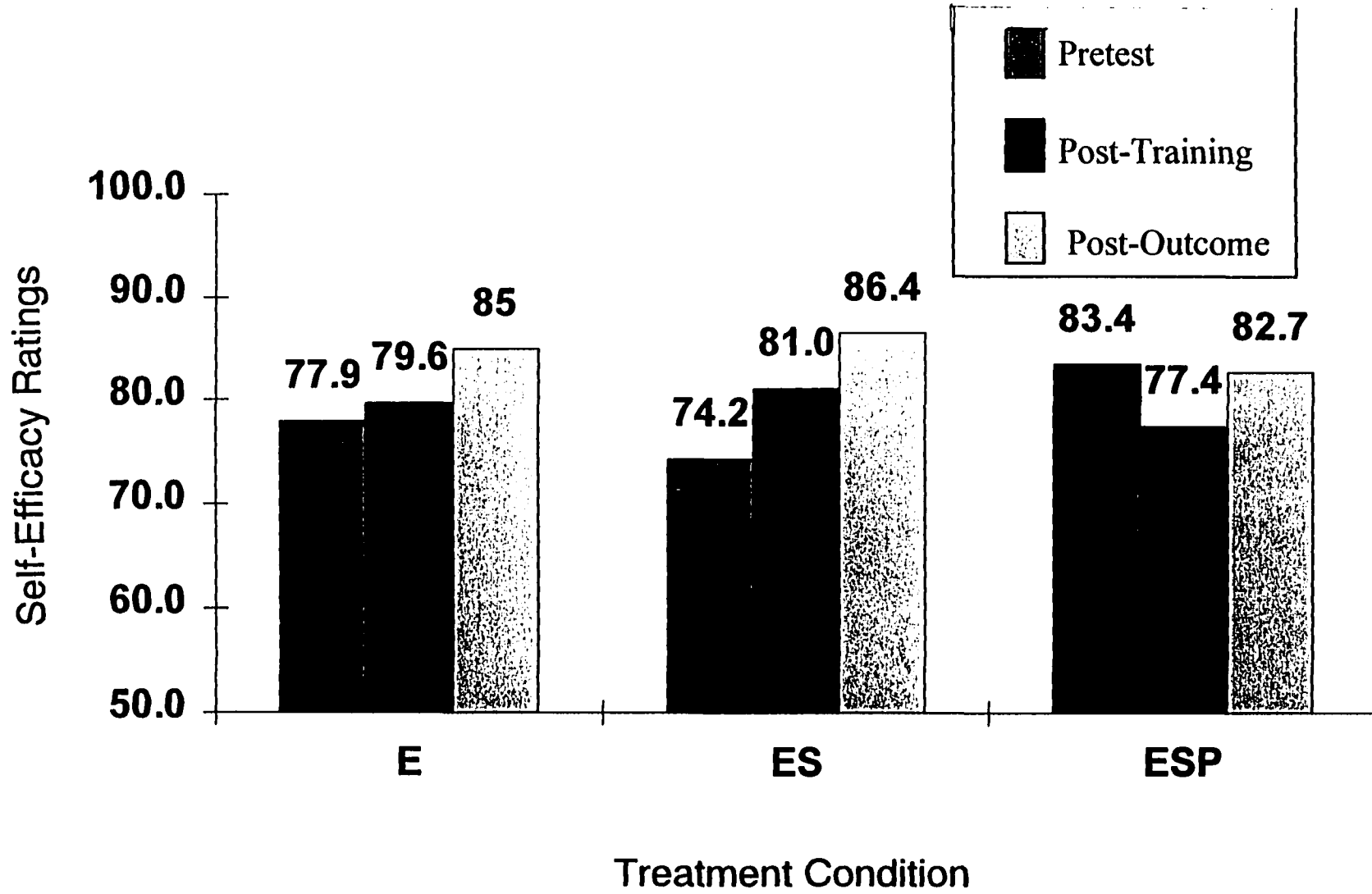
Taken together, these findings indicate that providing students with exposure to SE syntax, information about SE syntactic rules, and an opportunity to practice and monitor those rules in their writings enhanced their ability to use correct SE forms more than providing students with exposure and informational approaches alone. ESP students produced nearly twice as many correct SE translations as the other two groups and showed greater mastery of SE syntax in their writing.

#### Self-Efficacy Ratings

Students' pre- and posttest self-efficacy ratings regarding the degree of confidence they felt regarding their ability to write sentences and stories using correct SE forms are reported in Table 12. A one-way ANOVA was applied to each of the three student self-efficacy ratings (pretest; post-training and post-outcome). Results revealed no significant main effects of treatment condition ( $p > .05$ ), indicating that student self-efficacy ratings did not differ across treatment groups. Results displayed in Figure 9.

Figure 9

Experiment 2: Self-Efficacy Ratings



From the means in Table 12, it is apparent that students' pretest self-efficacy ratings were unrealistically high, averaging close to 79% across the three treatment conditions. Inspection of individual pretest self-efficacy scores revealed that 76% of students gave themselves pretest self-efficacy ratings of 80% or higher, despite very low scores on the SE proficiency pretest. In other words, students in the present study had a paradoxical mix of poor performance and high self-efficacy perceptions.

Interestingly, although subjects in the ESP condition had the highest pretest self-efficacy scores, their post-treatment self-efficacy ratings were the lowest of the three treatment conditions. In fact, while E and ES subjects showed a consistent increase in self-efficacy ratings over time, ESP subjects showed a drop in self-efficacy ratings following their participation in the experimental treatment. Individual scores were checked across the three conditions to determine the proportion of students whose self-efficacy ratings decreased from pretest levels following their participation in the experimental treatment. Results revealed a clear disparity, with 41% of ESP students exhibiting a drop in self-efficacy ratings vs. 12% of ES students vs. 26% of E students. Chi-square analyses revealed that this disparity was significant,  $\chi^2(2) = 6.31, p < .05$ . This suggests that providing ESP students with an opportunity to practice and monitor their use of SE forms in their writings resulted in a more realistic, albeit decreased, sense of their writing self-efficacy than was manifested in the ratings of ES and E subjects.

### Correlational Analyses

Pearson correlations among pre- and posttest measures are presented in Table 15. Pretreatment knowledge of SE syntax was positively correlated with pretreatment self-efficacy ratings. This shows that there was some validity to students' self-efficacy descriptions of their SE proficiency despite the overinflated nature of those descriptions. The two posttest writing outcome measures were highly correlated with each other, indicating that increased learning on the translation task was associated with increased learning on the story writing task. However, the two writing outcome measures were unrelated to posttest student self-efficacy perceptions, raising doubt about any direct relationship between knowledge acquisition and self-efficacy among dialect speaking elementary school students. This was probably due to the fact that while E and ES students showed consistent increases in self-efficacy over time, ESP students showed more realistic, albeit decreased, self-efficacy perceptions despite their improved performance. Correlational analyses were repeated for student self-efficacy ratings and the two written outcome measures for each of the three treatment conditions separately. Correlational results were not significant ( $p > .05$ ).

Table 15

Experiment Two: Correlational Matrix of Pretest and Posttest Measures  
with Elementary School Students.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 Pre Trans	-	.76**	.66**	.22	.15	.18
2 Post Trans		-	.68**	.18	.10	.14
3 Post Writing			-	.08	-.05	.04
4 SE #1				-	.62**	.31**
5 SE #2					-	.62**
6 SE #3						-

1. Pretest Knowledge of SE Syntax Translation Score (12 Max)
2. Posttest Translation Score (12 Max)
3. Posttest Story Writing: Percent Correct
4. Self-Efficacy Rating #1 (0-100)
5. Self-Efficacy Rating #2 (0-100)
6. Self-Efficacy Rating #3 (0-100)

\*  $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

## Discussion

Treatment effects with BEV speaking elementary school students were evaluated for acquisition of SE syntax and for self-efficacy perceptions regarding their ability to use correct SE syntax in their writings. Consistent with initial hypotheses, ESP students acquired greater proficiency in the use of targeted SE syntactic forms in their writings than did students in the E and ES conditions which did not differ from each other. These findings show that providing BEV speaking elementary students with an opportunity to practice and monitor the use of SE syntactic rules in their writing resulted in significant improvements in performance above and beyond more limited interventions that merely exposed students to text or exposed students to text and provided information about SE syntactic rules without an opportunity to practice the rules that were taught.

Bandura (1986) regards such enactive mastery experiences as the most influential source of efficacy information for students. Mastery experiences provide learners with essential information about both the usefulness of strategies as well as their own abilities to utilize the strategies to maximize performance. It is likely that the combination of exposure, strategies and practice in the present study allowed subjects to see that the acquisition of new dialect forms was a strategically controllable process that they were capable of mastering. This was particularly important for dialect-speaking elementary-school students given the pretreatment difficulties and limitations they experienced with SE syntax.

In addition to acquisition of SE syntax, it was also hypothesized that students in the ESP group would exhibit more positive self-efficacy expectations regarding their ability to write using correct SE syntax than would students in the E or ES conditions. According to social-cognitive theorists, successful enactive performance provides students with important information regarding their ability to utilize strategies to improve performance. This information leads to positive re-evaluations of one's self-efficacy perceptions regarding future performance on similar tasks (Schunk, 1989). Previous research (e.g. Schunk & Rice, 1987; Schunk & Swartz, 1993) has consistently shown that instructional interventions based on the social cognitive model result in improved academic performance and increased self-efficacy perceptions. These studies typically involve students who exhibited poor academic performance and low self-efficacy perceptions prior to the instructional intervention.

Students in the present study, however, exhibited a somewhat different set of pretest characteristics than those described above. These students had a paradoxical mix of poor performance and high self-efficacy perceptions. The students had difficulty with written SE syntax, as evidenced by mean pretest SE proficiency scores of only 32%. However, they exhibited very high pretest self-efficacy perceptions regarding their ability to use SE forms in their writings, as evidenced by mean pretest self-efficacy ratings of 79%.

The performance/self-efficacy disparities are, in some ways, reflective of a general tendency on the part of elementary school students'

to overstate their competence (Paris & Byrnes, 1989). However, the differences observed in the present study highlight a problem that may be specific to BEV speaking students in SE classrooms. As noted earlier, BEV and SE forms are in many ways more similar to each other than they are different. Without explicit guidance, dialect speaking students will have some difficulty distinguishing correct from incorrect forms. Syntactic features viewed by SE speaking teachers as incorrect are often seen by BEV speaking students as correct within the structure of their home dialect. As such, the performance/self-efficacy disparities may reflect not only the tendencies of elementary-school students to inflate their competence ratings, but also the view on the part of BEV speaking students that the dialect-based errors are, in fact, correct.

One of the more interesting results of the present study was the decrease in self-efficacy ratings of students in the ESP condition following the practice/feedback portion of the intervention. This was in direct contrast to students in the E and ES conditions who exhibited consistent increases in self-efficacy ratings over time. Ellis (1994) reported similar declines in self-efficacy ratings following self-monitoring training of pronunciation change in adult speakers of nonstandard English. It seems likely that, in the present study, providing ESP students with an opportunity to practice and receive corrective feedback on their use of SE forms in their writing resulted in a more realistic evaluation of their abilities and a more realistic sense of their writing self-efficacy than that seen in the inflated self-efficacy ratings of students in the E and ES

conditions. The shift to more realistic self-efficacy perceptions by ESP students represents an important step in the self-regulation process. It shows that students are beginning to realize that previous assessments of writing skills were overstated and that remedial actions are needed to improve SE writing skills. Towards that end, the strategies and practice portion of the intervention provided students with important information regarding the usefulness of the dialect rules as valuable tools in improving their writing skills.

### General Discussion

Results of the present study show that instructional efforts to teach alternate dialect forms to SE speaking teachers and BEV speaking elementary school students were effective. Exposing teachers and students to text written in an alternate dialect form, providing them with explicit information regarding syntactic rules, and allowing them to practice those rules in meaningful contexts significantly enhanced their ability to acquire syntactic proficiency in the new dialect. This type of instruction resulted in significant gains above and beyond more limited intervention procedures that exposed subjects to text or exposed subjects to text and provided information about syntactic rules without an opportunity to practice the rules that were taught.

Our results suggest that, among adult subjects, providing specific information about translation rules and strategies resulted in significantly greater acquisition of new dialect forms than simple exposure to written linguistic instances of that dialect. Among elementary-school students,

however, providing information about syntactic structure, in and of itself, was not sufficient. ES students who were provided with rules and instances of SE syntax fared no better than E students who were simply exposed to correct instances of syntactic forms. On the other hand, ESP students who practiced the rules that were taught and who received sentence-by-sentence feedback on the use of those rules in their writings exhibited significant improvements in their acquisition of SE syntax.

Carver and Scheier (1982) regard such practice experiences as essential for the creation of an internal feedback mechanism by which students learn to evaluate their performance against an explicit point of reference. According to Carver and Scheier, this feedback loop is the basic unit of control in the self-regulation process. It provides the mechanism by which students can search for discrepancies between current and desired levels of performance, initiate courses of action to reduce the discrepancies and, as a result, improve performance. Similarly, Brown and Campione's work on the apprenticeship model of learning emphasizes the importance of teaching students, particularly young students, knowledge and skills in the context of their authentic use rather than as isolated bits of information (Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1989).

As previously noted, the performance of ES subjects in Experiment 2 differed noticeably from the performance of ES subjects in Experiment 1. In contrast to adult subjects, elementary-school students who were provided with rules and instances of SE syntax fared no better than students who were simply exposed to correct instances of syntactic forms.

One explanation for these differences is that masters level teacher education students were more cognitively sophisticated than dialect speaking elementary school students and, as a result, were better able to organize and integrate information about translation rules. A second possibility is that teacher education students were provided with explicit information highlighting the differentiating features of both BEV and SE forms (see Appendix H). By contrast, dialect speaking elementary school students were provided with information about correct SE forms only (see Appendix O). According to the social cognitive view, to be self-regulating students need to have explicit standards against which their performance can be monitored and evaluated. This is particularly true for dialect speaking students who are trying to learn alternate dialect forms that are, in many ways, more similar to their home dialect than they are different. In the present study, elementary school students in the ES condition were presented with the targeted SE grammatical rules as decontextualized "inert" bits of knowledge (Bransford, Sherwood, Vye & Rieser, 1986). This knowledge was of limited effectiveness when compared to the performance of ESP students who were shown both BEV and SE forms of each feature in practice activity. The absence of explicit comparative information about BEV and SE forms might have weakened the ES treatment for dialect speaking students and resulted in the failure of these students to acquire greater proficiency in SE syntax.

The intervention approach studied here provides a simple, straightforward and effective method of helping subjects acquire new

dialect forms that can be easily incorporated into existing classroom structures. The training procedures used in the study were implemented by typical third and fourth-grade elementary school teachers in typical inner-city classroom settings. The experimenter spent approximately thirty minutes prior to the study reviewing with teachers the rationale for the study and the specific materials and procedures that would be involved. The procedures were clearly defined and easy to administer.

One of the more interesting aspects of the study was the tremendous interest and enthusiasm that principals, reading specialists and classroom teachers exhibited for the study. Writing instruction in most Connecticut schools occurs in a holistic "top-down" fashion. The Connecticut Mastery Tests in writing are scored for content and organization with little emphasis placed on grammar or syntax. Most of the teachers interviewed were of the opinion that greater attention needed to be placed on formalized instruction in grammar. Their positive response to the study was, in part, a reflection of those beliefs and their desire for a more skills-oriented approach to writing in their classrooms. In fact, one teacher spontaneously incorporated translation-like tasks from the study into her writing instruction. The grammatical errors she used were derived from actual writing samples submitted by her students. The teacher noted that student review and correction of grammatical miscues in sentences helped clarify many of the forms that were previously misunderstood.

A similar degree of enthusiasm was found among graduate level teacher education students. Several students commented on the value and

relevance of the information presented. In fact, instructors at two of the universities asked the experimenter to return to the class at some point following the completion of the experimental procedure to present a workshop for the students on various issues pertaining to dialects and dialect differences in the classroom.

As noted earlier, previous "dialect training" experiments were largely ineffective in increasing alternate dialect proficiency in subjects. These efforts typically consisted of drill and practice substitution exercises (e.g. Rystrom, 1970) or were characterized by a heavy emphasis on oral language skills (e.g. Cullinan et al., 1974). The present study differed from previous dialect training efforts in combining various instructional components derived from social-cognitive theory. In addition, the present study made use of written rather than orally presented materials. Written materials allow students to review and freely examine the dialect forms to be learned. In contrast, oral forms are far more ephemeral. Speech operates rapidly and automatically and hence may be less amenable to change as a result of self-monitoring and self-regulation.

#### Limitations of the Study

From the means in Tables 5 and 12, it is evident that while training procedures improved performances of the ESP groups, errors were not eliminated, particularly among dialect speaking elementary school students. This serves as an important reminder that learning a new dialect is complicated. Students must learn not only which syntactic features occur in the dialect but also how to distinguish appropriate from

inappropriate contexts for their application. The present study utilized a somewhat limited one-session 45-minute intervention package. Further research is needed to determine whether more extensive and repeated use of the procedures utilized would result in increased achievement outcomes and enhanced realistic self-efficacy expectations among dialect-speaking students. Instruction was also limited to six or seven specific straightforward syntactic forms. It is not clear whether findings would generalize to other more complex syntactic forms such as BEV use of double negatives or to non-syntactic features such as phonology and lexicon. Additionally, the posttest outcome measures were presented to subjects immediately following the dialect training. It is not clear whether the performance differences that were observed would be maintained on posttest follow up. This remains a question for further research.

### Educational Implications

These findings have particular relevance to the teaching of SE forms in the classroom. The Exposure condition bears some resemblance to the classroom experience of dialect speaking elementary school students. These children are typically exposed to a classroom dialect that is structurally different from that used in their home environment. Through exposure to spoken and written instances of the alternate dialect, they are expected to derive the various rules that allow them to shift from one dialect to the other. Our results suggest that while such exposure may contribute to acquisition of syntactic knowledge to some extent for adults, exposure is ineffective as an instructional tool for elementary-school

children. Our results suggest that greater gains are achieved when the nature of the syntactic forms and relationships are made explicit and are practiced.

In addition, according to teacher reports, the third- and fourth-grade BEV speaking elementary school students who participated in the study had already been exposed not only to SE text but also to information regarding the various rules of SE syntax. However, while exposure to such information is important, our results suggest that it is not sufficient for maximal learning to occur. A third component, the opportunity for guided practice and corrective feedback, is needed in combination with the other components for instruction to be fully effective.

The training approach studied here has potential for helping dialect-speaking students acquire proficiency in written SE forms. Gaining control of SE syntax for the purpose of composing grammatically acceptable prose is essential for students to progress academically. Additionally, the instructional approach may hold promise for educating and sensitizing SE speaking classroom teachers about the use of nonstandard dialect forms by their students. This is extremely important to do if it is true that teachers' negative attitudes towards BEV intrude upon and limit their students' ability to learn.

## Appendix A

## Experiment 1: Pretest Knowledge of Black English Vernacular

Directions: Please translate the following Standard English sentences into their equivalent Black English Vernacular form:

1. Yesterday, the boy walked home from school.
2. John's brother gave me three dollars to buy a book.
3. Michael Jackson lives in California.
4. Arnold Schwarzenegger. He is a very strong man.
5. I want an apple for lunch.

## Pretest Knowledge of Black English Vernacular (Answer Key)

1. Yesterday, the boy walk home from school.
2. John brother gave me three dollar to buy a book.
3. Michael Jackson he live in California.
4. Arnold Schwarzenegger. He a very strong man.
5. I want a apple for lunch.

- a. Past Tense "ed"
- b. Possessive "s"
- c. Plural "s"
- d. Subject Expression
- e. Third Person Singular "s"
- f. Copula
- g. Indefinite Article

Note. Words in actual test materials were not underlined.

## Appendix B

## Experiment 1: Posttest Translation Task

ID Code: \_\_\_\_\_

Directions: Please translate the following Standard English sentences into their equivalent Black English Vernacular form:

1. Gloria's friend is working as an actress in an off-Broadway production of "CATS."

---

---

2. My brother sits in the front row so that he can hear everything the teacher says.

---

---

3. Where is Mary's brother going to spend the ten dollars she gave him for his birthday?

---

---

4. My aunt used to live in Baltimore with her three daughters but last year she moved to New York.

---

---

(appendix continues)

5. Deborah likes to play with the girl that sits next to her at school.

---

---

6. Last Sunday, I asked Tom if he wanted to go see an ice-hockey game with me and my two cousins.

---

---

7. I need to take these two books to take back to the library because they are overdue.

---

---

8. John's teacher gave him a note about an open-house school meeting to give to his mother.

---

---

9. John is always late for school because he doesn't like to go to Mrs. Johnson's music class.

---

---





**Appendix D**  
**Pretest Language Attitude Scale**

**Directions:** Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	1	2	3	4	5
	<b>1 = Strongly Agree</b> <b>2 = Agree</b> <b>3 = No Opinion</b> <b>4 = Disagree</b> <b>5 = Strongly Disagree</b>				
1. Black English is a misuse of Standard English.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Black English sounds as good as Standard English.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Black English must be accepted if pride is to develop among African Americans.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Black English is an inferior language system.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Black English is cool.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Black English should be considered a bad influence on American culture and civilization.	1	2	3	4	5
7. When teachers reject the native language of a student, they do him great harm.	1	2	3	4	5
8. A teacher should correct a student's use of Nonstandard English.	1	2	3	4	5
9. In a predominantly African American school, Black English as well as Standard English should be taught.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Widespread acceptance of Black English is imperative.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Acceptance of nonstandard dialects of English by teachers will lead to a lowering of standards in schools.	1	2	3	4	5
12. One of the goals of the American school system should be the standardization of the English language.	1	2	3	4	5
13. One successful method for improving the learning capacity of speakers of Black English would be to replace their dialect with Standard English.	1	2	3	4	5

**Appendix E**  
**Posttest Language Attitude Scale**

**Directions: Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:**

1 = Strongly Agree  
2 = Agree  
3 = No Opinion  
4 = Disagree  
5 = Strongly Disagree

- |                                                                                                                                                     |   |   |   |   |   |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. The scholastic level of a school will fall if teachers allow Black English to be spoken.                                                         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Attempts to eliminate Black English in school result in a situation which can be psychologically damaging to African American children.          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Continued usage of a nonstandard dialect of English would accomplish nothing worthwhile for society.                                             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Teachers should allow African American students to use Black English in the classroom.                                                           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Black English should be discouraged.                                                                                                             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Black English sounds sloppy.                                                                                                                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. If use of Black English were encouraged, speakers of Black English would be more motivated to achieve academically.                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Black English is a clear, thoughtful, and expressive language.                                                                                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Black English has a faulty grammar system.                                                                                                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. The sooner we eliminate nonstandard dialects of English, the better.                                                                            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Nonstandard English should be accepted socially.                                                                                                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Nonstandard English is as effective for communication as is Standard English.                                                                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. One successful method for improving the learning capacity of speakers of Black English would be to replace their dialect with Standard English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

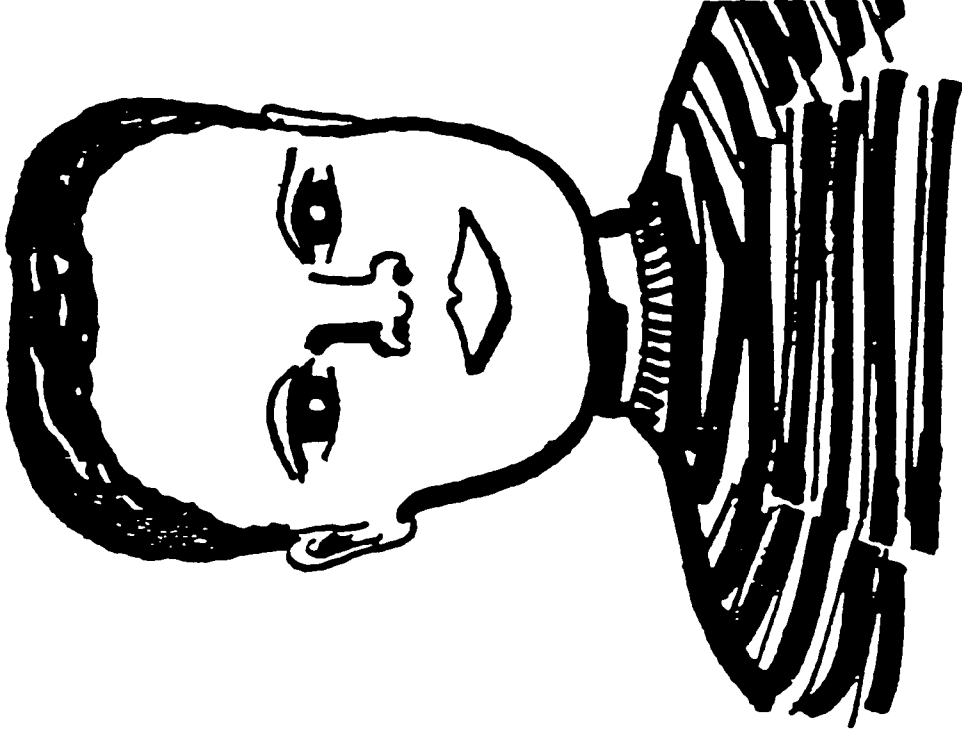




OLLIE

Appendix G

Sample of BEV Reading Materials



Here go Ollie.



Ollie have a big family.

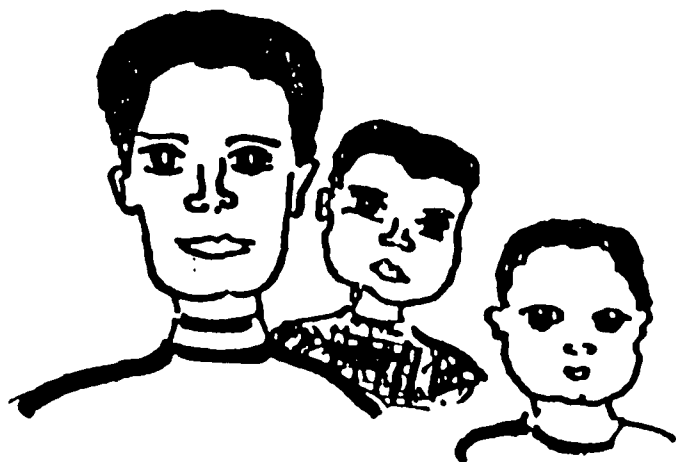


He have three sister.

A sister name Brenda.

A sister name Jennifer.

And a older sister name La Verne.



Ollie have three brother.  
A older brother name Leroy.  
A little brother name Alex.  
And a baby brother name James.



Ollie and his sisters and brothers,  
they all live with Moma and  
Big Moma.



**Moma she go to work.  
Big Moma she take care of Ollie  
and his sisters and brothers.**

## Appendix H

## Worksheet

## Differentiating Syntactic Features of Black English Vernacular

Omission of the possessive "s" marker:

Example 1: (SE) John's brother                      (BE) John brother  
 Example 2: (BE) The clown hat                      (SE) The clown's hat

Omission of the past tense "ed" marker:

Example 1: (SE) The cow jumped                      (BE) The cow jump  
 Example 2: (BE) He walk home                      (SE) He walked home

Omission of third person singular "s" present tense marker:

Example 1: (SE) The boy eats                      (BE) The boy eat  
 Example 2: (BE) John write                      (SE) John writes

Omission of redundant plural "s" marker:

Example 1: (SE) five cents                      (BE) five cent  
 Example 2: (BE) two book                      (SE) two books

Linking Verb Copula

Example 1: (SE) He is a tall boy                      (BE) He a tall boy  
 Example 2: (BE) They going                      (SE) They are going

Subject expression:

Example 1: (SE) Tom goes to work                      (BE) Tom he go to work  
 Example 2: (BE) My brother, he live in New York.  
                     (SE) My brother lives in New York.

Indefinite Article:

Example 1: (SE) an orange                      (BE) a orange  
 Example 2: (BE) a apple                      (SE) an apple

## Appendix I

## Experiment 1: Practice Materials

ID Code: \_\_\_\_\_

Instructions: Please rewrite the following paragraph in the appropriate Black English Vernacular form:

## LESTER

A boy named Lester lives down the street from his friend Ollie.

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

He is six years old. He is in the first grade.

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

During the summer, Lester likes to play outside.

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

He likes to play hide and seek at an old schoolhouse with his two brothers and his friend Ollie.

1. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Lester and Ollie hide together in a closet in the classroom.

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

( appendix continues )

Lester's brothers always know where to find them.

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_

Yesterday, Lester's mother got very angry when she heard that Lester got into a fight with an older boy at school.

1. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Lester started to cry. He promised that he wouldn't be bad again.

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix I

## Experiment 1: Practice Materials

Instructions: Please rewrite the following paragraph in the appropriate Black English Vernacular form:

## LESTER

A boy named Lester lives down the street from his friend Ollie. He is six years old. He is in the first grade. During the summer, Lester likes to play outside. He likes to play hide and seek at an old schoolhouse with his two brothers and his friend Ollie. Lester and Ollie hide together in a closet in the classroom. Lester's brothers always know where to find them. Yesterday, Lester's mother got very angry when she heard that Lester got into a fight with an older boy at school. Lester started to cry. He promised that he wouldn't be bad again.

## LESTER (Answer Key)

A boy name Lester live down the street from his friend Ollie. He six year old. He in the first grade. During the summer, Lester like to play outside. He like to play hide and seek at a old schoolhouse with his two brother and his friend Ollie. Lester and Ollie they hide together in a closet in the classroom. Lester brothers they always know where to find them. Yesterday, Lester mother got very angry when she heard that Lester got into a fight with a older boy at school. Lester, he start to cry. He promise that he wouldn't be bad again.

Note. Words in actual test materials were not underlined.

## Appendix J

## Experiment 2: Pretest Translation Task

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Directions: Please rewrite the following sentences in their correct grammatical form.

1. My aunt use to live in Baltimore with my three cousin but last year she move to New York.

---

---

---

2. Deborah like to play with the girl that sit next to her at school.

---

---

---

(appendix continues)

3. I have a aunt and uncle that work in a office in New York.

---

---

---

4. My two brother ate until they was so full that I thought they was going to burst.

---

---

---

5. Gloria friend has a pet hamster at home. Her hamster name is Harry.

---

---

---

## Appendix J

## Experiment 2: Pretest Translation Task (Answer Key)

Directions: Please rewrite the following sentences in their correct grammatical form:

1. My aunt use to live in Baltimore with my three cousin  
a c  
 but last year she move to New York.  
a
2. Deborah like to play with the girl that sit next to her  
d d  
 at school.
3. I have a aunt and uncle that work in a office in New York.  
e e
4. My two brother ate until they was so full that I thought  
c f  
 they was going to burst.  
f
5. Gloria friend has a pet hamster at home. Her hamster name is  
b b  
 Harry.

- a. Past Tense (N=2)
- b. Possesive (N=2)
- c. Plural (N=2)
- d. Third Person Singular (N=2)
- e. Indefinite Article (N=2)
- f. Verb Agreement (N=2)

Note. Words in actual test materials were not underlined.

## Appendix K

## Experiment 2: Posttest Translation Task

Directions: Please rewrite the following sentences in their correct grammatical form:

1. My brother sit in the front row so that he can hear everything the teacher say.

---

---

---

2. John and his brother was going to spend the ten dollar John got for his birthday on some baseball cards.

---

---

---

(appendix continues)

3. Last Sunday, I ask Tom if he want to go see a ice-hockey game with me and my two cousin.

---

---

---

4. John teacher gave him a note about a open-house school meeting to give to his mother.

---

---

---

(appendix continues)

5. John don't mind being late for school  
because he don't like to go to Mrs.  
Johnson music class.

---

---

---



**Appendix L****Student Self-Efficacy Ratings**

**Directions:** Please rate the degree of confidence you feel regarding your ability to write sentences and stories using correct grammatical forms.

0   10   20   30   40   50   60   70   80   90   100

<b>No</b>	<b>Somewhat</b>	<b>Completely</b>
<b>Confidence</b>	<b>Confident</b>	<b>Confident</b>
<b>At All</b>		

Appendix M

Reading Comprehension Questions

OLLIE

1. DESCRIBE OLLIE'S FAMILY:

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

(appendix continues)

JENNIFER THE CHEAT

2. WHY WAS JENNIFER CALLED "JENNIFER THE CHEAT?"

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

3. WHY DID JENNIFER START TO CRY TOWARDS THE END OF THE STORY?

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---



## Appendix O

## WORKSHEET

1. POSSESSIVE "S"

John's brother

The clown's hat

2. PAST TENSE "ED"

He walked home.

The cow jumped over the moon.

3. THIRD-PERSON PRESENT-TENSE "S"

The boy eats

John writes

4. PLURAL "S"

Five cents

Two books

5. ARTICLES (A/AN)

An apple/A pear

An alligator/A bear

6. SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT

They were (plural)/He was (singular)

They have (plural)/He has (singular)

They don't (plural)/He doesn't (singular)

## Appendix P

Worksheet Practice

Directions: Please rewrite the following sentences in their correct grammatical form.

1. A boy name Lester live down the street from his friend Ollie. Lester is six year old.

---

---

---

---

(appendix continues)

2. Lester like to play hide and seek at a old schoolhouse with Ollie and his two brother.

---

---

---

---

3. Ollie brothers was hiding together in a closet in the classroom.

---

---

---

(appendix continues)

4. Lester friend Ollie got into a fight  
with a older boy at school.

---

---

---

5. Ollie don't like getting into fights.  
He promise that it wouldn't happen again.

---

---

---

---

## Appendix P

## Experiment 2: Practice Materials

Instructions: Please rewrite the following sentences in their correct grammatical form:

1. A boy name Lester live down the street from his friend Ollie. Lester is six year old.
2. Lester like to play hide and seek at a old schoolhouse with Ollie and his two brother.
3. Ollie brothers was hiding together in a closet in the classroom.
4. Lester friend Ollie got into a fight with a older boy at school.
5. Ollie don't like getting into fights. He promise that it wouldn't happen again.

## Practice Materials (Answer Key)

1. A boy named Lester lives down the street from his friend Ollie. Lester is six years old.
2. Lester likes to play hide and seek at an old schoolhouse with Ollie and his two brothers.
3. Ollie's brothers were hiding together in a closet in the classroom.
4. Lester's friend Ollie got into a fight with an older boy at school.
5. Ollie doesn't like getting into fights. He promised that it wouldn't happen again.

Note. Words in actual test materials were not underlined.

## References

- Adams, M.J. (1990). Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about print. Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Anderson, C.A. & Jennings, D.L. (1980). When experiences of failure promote expectations of success: The impact of attributing failure to ineffective strategies. Journal of Personality, 48, 393-405.
- Bandura, A. (1986). Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. Educational Psychologist, 28, 117-148.
- Baratz, J.C. (1969). Teaching reading in an urban Negro school system. In Joan C. Baratz & Roger W. Shuy (Eds.), Teaching Black children to read. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Baratz, J.C. (1969b). Linguistic and cultural factors in teaching reading to ghetto children. Elementary English, 46, 199-203.
- Bar-Tal, D. & Darom, E. (1979). Pupils' attributions of success and failure. Child Development, 50, 264-267.
- Blodgett, E.G. & Cooper, E.B. (1973). Attitudes of elementary teachers towards Black dialect. Journal of Communication Disorders, 6, 121-133.
- Bowie, R.L. & Bond, C.L. (1994). Influencing future teachers attitudes toward Black English: Are we making a difference? Journal of Teacher Education, 45, 112-118.

- Bransford, J., Sherwood, R., Vye, N. & Rieser, J. (1986). Teaching thinking and problem solving: Research foundations. American Psychologist, 41, 1078-1089.
- Brophy, J. (1986). Teacher influences on student achievement. American Psychologist, 41, 1069-1077.
- Brown, J.S., Collins, A. & Duguid, P. (1989). Situated cognition and the culture of learning. Educational Researcher, 18, 32-42.
- Burling, R. (1973). English in Black and White. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Carver, C.S. & Scheier, M.F. (1982). An information processing perspective on self-management. In P. Karoly & F.H. Kanfer (Eds.), Self-management and behavior change: From theory to practice. New York: Pergamon Press.
- Cavanaugh, J.C. & Perlmutter, M. (1982). Metamemory: A critical examination. Child Development, 53, 11-23.
- Chomsky, N. (1965). Aspects of the theory of syntax. Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Clifford, M. (1986). Comparative effects of strategy and effort attributions. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 56, 75-83.
- Cooper, H.M. & Burger, J.M. (1980). How teachers explain students' academic performance: A categorization of free response academic attributions. American Educational Research Journal, 17, 95-109.
- Covington, M.V. & Omelich, C.L. (1979). Effort: The double-edged sword in school achievement. Journal of Educational Psychology, 71, 169-182.

- Cramer, R.L. (1971). Dialectology: A case for language experience. Reading Teacher, 25, 33-39.
- Cullinan, B.E., Jaggar, A.M. & Strickland, D.S. (1974). Oral language expansion in the primary grades. In B.E. Cullinan (Ed.), Black dialects and reading. Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Cunningham, P.M. (1977). Teacher's correction responses to Black dialect miscues which are nonmeaning changing. Reading Research Quarterly, 12, 637-653.
- Desberg, P., Elliott, D.E. & Marsh, G. (1980). American Black English and spelling. In U. Frith (Ed.), Cognitive processes in spelling. London: Academic Press.
- Deutsch, M. (1965). The role of social class in language development and cognition. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 35, 78-88.
- Dillard, J.L. (1972). Black English: Its history and usage in the United States. New York: Random House.
- Ellis, D. (1994). Effects of self-monitoring and discrimination training on pronunciation change by nonstandard speakers of English. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The City University of New York.
- Fasold, R. (1969). Tense and the form "be" in Black English. Language, 45, 763-776.
- Feldman, C.F., Stone, A. & Renderer, B. (1990). Stage transfer and academic achievement in dialect-speaking Hawaiian adolescents. Child Development, 61, 472-484.

- Frentz, T.S. (1971). Children's comprehension of standard and Negro nonstandard English sentences. Speech Monographs, 38, 10-16.
- Fryburg, E.L. (1974). Black English: A descriptive guide for the teacher. In B.E. Cullinan (Ed.), Black dialects and reading. Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Ghatala, E.S. (1986). Strategy-monitoring training enables young learners to select effective strategies. Educational Psychologist, 21, 43-54.
- Ghatala, E.S. Levin, J.R., Pressley, M. & Lodico, M.G. (1985). Training cognitive strategy monitoring in children. American Educational Research Journal, 22, 199-215.
- Gibson, S. & Dembo, M.H. (1984). Teacher efficacy: A construct validation. Journal of Educational Psychology, 76, 569-582.
- Goodman, K.S. (1969). Dialect barriers to reading comprehension. In J.C. Baratz & R.W. Shuy (Eds.), Teaching Black children to read. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Goodman, K.S. & Buck, C. (1973). Dialect barriers to reading comprehension revisited. The Reading Teacher, 27, 6-12.
- Hall, M. (1972). Linguistically speaking, why language experience? Reading Teacher, 25, 328-331.
- Hall, V.C., Turner, R.R, & Russell, W. (1973). Ability of children from four subcultures and two grade levels to imitate and comprehend crucial aspects of Standard English: A test of the Different Language Explanation. Journal of Educational Psychology, 64, 147-158.
- Harber, J.R. & Bryen, D.N. (1976). Black English and the task of reading. Review of Educational Research, 46, 387-407.

- Hart, J.T., Guthrie, J.T. & Winfield, L. (1980). Black English phonology and learning to read. Journal of Educational Psychology, 72, 636-646.
- Hayes, A. & Taylor, O. (1971). A summary of the Center's BALA project. The Linguistic Reporter, 13, 1-4.
- Heath, S.B. (1989). Oral and literate traditions among Black-Americans living in poverty. American Psychologist, 44, 367-373.
- Heath, S.B. (1983). Way with words. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hockman, C.H. (1973). Black dialect reading tests in the urban elementary school. Reading Teacher, 26, 581-583.
- Hunt, B.C. (1974). Black dialect and third and fourth graders' performance on the Gray Oral Reading Test. Reading Research Quarterly, 10, 103-123.
- Jagacinski, C.M. & Nicholls, J.G. (1990). Reducing effort to protect perceived ability: "They'd do it but I wouldn't." Journal of Educational Psychology, 82, 15-23.
- Jaggar, A.M. & Cullinan, B.E. Relating reading to language in initial reading instruction. In B.E. Cullinan (Ed.), Black dialects and reading. Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Johnson, K.R. (1971). Teacher's attitude toward nonstandard Negro dialects: Let's change it. Elementary English, 48, 176-184.
- Juel, C., Griffith, P.L. & Gough, P.B. (1986). Acquisition of literacy: A longitudinal study of children in first and second grade. Journal of Educational Psychology, 78, 243-255.

- Kramer, J.J. & Engle, R.W. (1981). Teaching awareness of strategic behavior in combination with strategy training: Effects on children's memory performance. Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 32, 513-530.
- Labov, W. (1969). Some sources of reading problems for Negro speakers of nonstandard English. In Joan C. Baratz & Roger W. Shuy (Eds.), Teaching Black children to read. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Labov, W. (1970). The logic of nonstandard English. In Frederick Williams (Ed.), Language and poverty: Perspectives on a theme. Chicago: Markham Publishing.
- Labov, W. (1972). Language in the inner city: Studies in the Black English Vernacular. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Laosa, L. (1982). School, occupation, culture and family: The impact of parental schooling on the parent-child relationship. Journal of Educational Psychology, 74, 791-827.
- Lee, F.R. (1994, January 5). Lingering conflict in the schools: Black dialect vs. Standard speech. The New York Times, pp. A1, D22.
- Lucas, C. & Borders, D. (1987). Language diversity and classroom discourse. American Education Research Journal, 24, 119-141.
- Mantell, A. (1974). Strategies for language expansion in the middle grades. In B.E. Cullinan (Ed.), Black dialects and reading. Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Nembhard, J.P. (1983). A perspective on teaching Black dialect speaking students to write Standard English. Journal of Negro Education, 52, 75-82.

- Nolen, P.S. (1972). Reading nonstandard dialect materials: A study at grades two and four. Child Development, 43, 1092-1097.
- Osser, H., Wang, M. & Zaid, F. (1969). The young child's ability to imitate and comprehend speech: A comparison of two subcultural groups. Child Development, 40, 1063-1076.
- Palincsar, A.S. & Brown, A.L. (1987). Guided, cooperative learning, and individual knowledge acquisition. In L.B. Resnick (Ed.), Knowing, learning, and instruction: Essays in honor of Robert Glaser. Hillsdale, New Jersey: Erlbaum.
- Paris, S.G. & Byrnes, J.P. (1989). The constructivist approach to self-regulation and learning in the classroom. In B.J. Zimmerman & D.H. Schunk (Eds.), Self-regulated learning and academic achievement: Theory, research and practice. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Paris, S.G., Cross, D.R. & Lipson, M.Y. (1984). Informed strategies for learning: A program to improve children's reading awareness and comprehension. Journal of Educational Psychology, 76, 1239-1252.
- Paris, S.C., Newman, R.S. & McVey, K.A. (1982). Learning the functional significance of mnemonic actions: A microgenetic study of strategy acquisition. Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 34, 490-509.
- Politzer, R.L., Hoover, M.R. & Brown, D. (1974). A test of proficiency in Black standard and nonstandard speech. TESOL Quarterly, 6, 243-254.
- Pressley, M., Borkowski, J.G. & Schneider, W. (1987). Cognitive strategies: Good strategy users coordinate metacognition and knowledge. Annals of Child Development, 4, 89-129.

- Ramsey, I. (1972). A comparison, of first-grade Negro dialect speakers' comprehension of Standard English and Negro dialect. Elementary English, 49, 688-696.
- Riessman, F. (1976). The inner-city child. New York: Harper & Row.
- Rystrom, R. (1970). Dialect training and reading: A further look. Reading Research Quarterly, 5, 581-599.
- Scardamalia, M. & Bereiter, C. (1986). Research on written composition. In M. Wittrock (Ed.), Third handbook of research on teaching. New York: MacMillan.
- Schneider, W. (1985). Developmental trends in the metamemory-memory behavior relationship: An integrative review. In D.L. Forrest-Pressley, G.E. MacKinnon & T.G. Waller (Eds.), Metacognition, cognition and human performance (Vol. 1). Orlando: Academic Press.
- Schunk, D.H. (1984). The self-efficacy perspective on achievement behavior. Educational Psychologist, 19, 199-218.
- Schunk, D.H. (1989). Social cognitive theory and self-regulated learning. In B.J. Zimmerman & D.H. Schunk (Eds.), Self-regulated learning and academic achievement: Theory, research and practice. New York: Springer.
- Schunk, D.H. & Rice, J.M. (1987). Enhancing comprehension skill and self-efficacy with strategy value information. Journal of Reading Behavior, 19, 285-302.
- Schunk, D.H. & Swartz, C. (1993). Goals and progress feedback: Effects on self-efficacy and writing achievement. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 18, 337-354.

- Schwartz, J. (1982). Dialect interference in the attainment of literacy. Journal of Reading, 25, 440-446.
- Share, D.L., Jorm, A.F., Maclean, R. & Matthews, R. (1984). Sources of individual differences in reading acquisition. Journal of Educational Psychology, 76, 1309-1324.
- Shatz, M. (1991). Using cross-cultural research to inform us about the role of language in development: Comparisons of Japanese, Korean, and English, and of German, American English, and British English. In M.C. Borstein (Ed.), Cultural approaches to parenting. New Jersey: Hillsdale.
- Shell, D.F., Murphy, C.C. & Bruning, R.H. (1989). Self-efficacy and outcome expectancy mechanisms in reading and writing achievement. Journal of Educational Psychology, 81, 91-100.
- Shields, P.H. (1979). The language of poor Black children and reading performance. Journal of Negro Education, 48, 196-208.
- Shuy, R.W. (1968). Detroit speech: Careless, awkward, and inconsistent, or systematic, graceful, and regular? Elementary English, 45, 565-569.
- Somervill, M.A. (1975). Dialect and reading: A review of alternative solutions. Review of Educational Research, 45, 247-262.
- Stahl, S.A. & Miller, P.D. (1989). Whole language and language experience approaches for beginning reading: A quantitative research synthesis. Review of Educational Research, 59, 87-116.
- Stevenson, H. W., Chen, C. & Uttal, D.H. (1990). Beliefs and achievement: A study of Black, White and Hispanic children. Child Development, 61, 508-523.

- Stewart, W.A. (1967). Sociolinguistic factors in the history of American Negro dialects. Florida FL Reporter, 5, 11-30.
- Stewart, W.A. (1969). On the use of Negro dialect in the teaching of reading. In Joan C. Baratz & Roger W. Shuy (Eds.), Teaching Black children to read. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Strickland, D.S. & Stewart, W.A. (1974). The use of dialect readers: A dialogue. In B.E. Cullinan (Ed.), Black dialects and reading. Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Taylor, J.B. (1983). Influence of speech variety on teachers' evaluation of reading comprehension. Journal of Educational Psychology, 75, 662.
- Taylor, O.L. (1973). Teachers' attitudes toward Black and nonstandard English as measured by the Language Attitude Scale. In R.W. Shuy & R. Fasold (Eds.), Language attitudes: Current trends and prospects. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Venezky, R.L. (1970). Nonstandard language and reading. Elementary English, 47, 334-345.
- Washington, I.A. & Craig, H.K. (1994). Dialectal forms during discourse of poor, urban, African-American preschoolers. Journal of Speech and Hearing Research, 37, 816-823.
- Washington, V.M. & Miller-Jones, D. (1989). Teacher interactions with nonstandard English speakers during reading instruction. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 14, 280-312.
- Weinstein, C.E. & Mayer, R.E. (1986). The teaching of learning strategies. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), Handbook of research on teaching. New York: Macmillan.

- Weems, B.R. (1993). Should we teach dialect in the classroom? A content analysis. Journal of Research and Development in Education, 26, 74-81.
- Wolfram, W.A. (1970). Sociolinguistic alternatives in teaching reading to nonstandard speakers. Reading Research Quarterly, 6, 9-33.
- Wolfram, W.A. & Whiteman, M. (1971). The role of dialect interference in composition. Florida FL Reporter, 9, 34-59.
- Woodworth, W.D. & Salzer, R.T. (1971). Black children's speech and teachers' evaluations. Urban Education, 6, 167-173.
- Zimmerman, B.J. (1989). A social-cognitive view of self-regulated learning. Journal of Educational Psychology, 81, 329-339.
- Zimmerman, B.J., Bandura, A. & Martinez-Pons, M. (1992). Self-motivation for academic attainment: The role of self-efficacy beliefs and personal goal setting. American Education Research Journal, 29, 663-676.
- Zimmerman, B.J. & Martinez-Pons, M. (1986). Development of a structured interview for assessing student use of self-regulated learning strategies. American Education Research Journal, 23, 614-629.
- Zimmerman, B.J. & Martinez-Pons, M. (1988). Construct validation of a strategy model of student self-regulated learning. Journal of Educational Psychology, 80, 284-290.
- Zimmerman, B.J. & Martinez-Pons, M. (1992). Perceptions of efficacy and strategy use. In D.H. Schunk & J. Meece (Eds.), Student perceptions in the classroom. Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.