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PRE-SCHOOL ORAL LANGUAGE AND THE FIRST READER: IMPLICATIONS FOR A LANGUAGE ARTS PROGRAMME IN ST. LUCIA

by

M. E. R. RUBY YORKE

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled Pre-School Oral Language and The First Reader: Implications For A Language Arts Programme in St. Lucia, submitted by M. E. R. Ruby Yorke in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the oral language of St. Lucian preschool children and the language of the first reader in an attempt to determine the correlation that exists between the two.

Thirty children ranging in age from four and a half to five years and four months were randomly selected from a population of one hundred and fifty children. These children were selected from an area populated mainly by people in the low income bracket as defined by the mother's occupation, because of the matriachal nature of the community.

A variety of sampling situations was used to elicit oral language in an attempt to secure an optimally representative sample. The following are the situations used.

1. Individual subjects made up and told a story about a picture which he selected, to his peers in the presence of the investigator.

2. Individual subjects asked questions about an unfamiliar object.

3. Individual subjects talked with an older sibling on a topic or topics of their choice.

Both the oral and written samples were analyzed using the following measures. (i) Quantity: the total

number of words, C-units, T-units, mazes and partials which were used in all three situations by all participating subjects, and occurring in the Primer "Play Time," the Happy Venture series book one was obtained. (ii) Complexity: the length of utterances and T-units, structural patterns, question forms, the function of mazes and partials, the function and frequency of adjectivals and adverbials, other complex forms which were not already classified and the types and number of coordinating conjunctions were examined. (iii) Restricted forms: forms unique to children, as described by Menyuk, were examined and classified, and forms which did not approximate Standard British English were also examined. (iv) Quality: Stories produced in Situation #1 were classified into four different categories; questions formed in Situation #2 were classified according to their relevance to the task and the stimulus. (v) Content: topics selected in Situation #3 and those in the Primer were examined to reveal their content.

The evidence presented in this study supports three conclusions: 1. The language of the children studied is well ordered. They are able to express their ideas using standard structural patterns, there is variety in the use of certain words, and although there occurred many restricted forms this did not detract from the use of a number of relatively complex patterns. This suggests that the children are not linguistically different or incom-

petent. Their linguistic behaviour matches that of children studied by researchers such as Loban (1963) and O'Donnell, Griffin and Norris (1967). 2. The language of the children very nearly approximates that of the primer. The simplest structural patterns occurred most frequently, and the more complex patterns less frequently. The language of the primer is more formal whereas that of the children was mainly that of the home, and contained mazes, partials and a few Creole influenced forms.

These major findings have several implications for the teaching of beginning reading. It should be emphasized that teachers should study the language of the children and the nature of language in general for greater understanding of the children's capabilities related to language development. Teachers should also be tra and prepared for the teaching of reading; and they should be exposed to a variet of methods to be used in the teaching of beginning reading.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

There are many pupils in St. Lucia from all grade levels and socio-economic levels, who, because of the bilingual nature of the society have not developed sufficient oral language expressive skills in 'standard' English to profit from the educational opportunities available.

> The consistently high percentage of failure in English Language and Literature at the Ordinary Level and Advanced Level examinations is, in the opinion of most teachers, directly related to the fact that Creole interacts with English in the pupils' ideolect. A similar problem exists at the teacher trainee level.... In addition,... there is the overall task of explaining in English, the most elementary points to children who are accustomed to thinking in Creole. This problem is especially pressing at the primary level in rural areas.
>
> (Carrington 1967, pp. 27-30).

It is therefore essential that the teacher identify as accurately as possible, precisely how the child expresses himself so that he may know exactly how the child thinks and uses wo[illegible]

According to Smith, Goodman and Meredith (1970),

> ... divergence in dialect from Standard English creates multiple learning problems. Some people may have a divergent dialect but actually possess good thinking abilities in their own speech communities. These children differ in many ways from others who

> have experienced language or experiential deprivation. (p. 48).

There has been widespread dissatisfaction with oral language expression and reading ability in St. Lucia. In spite of this, however, little thought has been given to an area which may be an important factor in learning to read. Seashore (1948), states that:

> The child who enters school at five brings with him a substantial vocabulary, a set of language patterns and a background of experiences which have served to encourage or discourage the active seeking of information and building of concepts. (p. 137).

It has been observed that the language standards in St. Lucian schools are derived primarily from middle class norms, and that most children on entering school appear to be at a disadvantage, since the schools employ English as the language of instruction.

The language situation has given new urgency to the problem in St. Lucia, since the majority of school entrants use a set of language patterns different from that of their teachers, some of their peers and also from that found in the reading texts.

The language spoken by the majority of St. Lucian children is not the language in which they can be educated. English is the official and institutionally operative language in the State, however, most of the children come to school having already learned a Lingua Franca, a

French based Creole.

Since most of the children in some instances first learn to speak French Creole and/or a creolized form of English, it has been suggested that they should learn English as a second language. It is the feeling of language scholars that Standard English has to be learned as a second language by all children who speak dialects and/or vernaculars with an English vocabulary.

This, however, is not the case in St. Lucia. Based on the fact that English is the official language of the State, and the notion that the child's native language is 'bad', little thought or consideration has been given to the nature of the language the child brings to school. As a result he is thrust into a situation and is expected to operate efficiently and effectively in a language which is relatively new to him.

He is exposed to a language system not "as a personally useful tool of social interaction, but rather as a rotely learned device of principally esthetic value." (Stewart, 1964, p. 1). This is an erroneous concept and should be corrected immediately, if he is to benefit from the increasing educational opportunities available, and as a result be better equipped for jobs and public life when he leaves school.

The existing situation led to the supposition that a careful examination of the oral language of pre-schoolers would provide valuable insights in interpreting the linguistic competence of school entrants, and thus help in diagnosing and remedying problems in the use of oral language.

Many researchers have stated that the analyses of children's oral language expression provide substantial evidence and clues to their cognitive structures and their analytic and synthesizing abilities. Among these are Loban (1963) and O'Donnell, Griffin and Norris (1967). As a result of their findings and that of linguists, much support has been given to the analysis of samples of children's oral language expression. These analyses enable teachers to gain insights and acquire a great deal of knowledge about the nature of a child's dialect. It is essential that the teacher identify as accurately as possible precisely how each child expresses himself, so as to get to know the level of his thinking abilities and his ability to use words.

Language development seems to follow a regular chronology for all children everywhere -- from babbling, to short words, to short sentences, with concomitant increases in complexity. Lenneberg as cited by Beadle (1970), believes that this sequence is as maturational in

character as walking.

The young child's ability to understand and produce simple sentences according to Cazden (1971), "includes his knowledge of syntax or word order (which is usually correct even when some words are missing) and his knowledge of morphology or word endings such as plurals and past tense (which may still be missing)." She also states that generally, in the child's speech, nouns, verbs and some adjectives appear first and gradually inflections and function words are added as sentences are built.

The child learns to use the sound system, vocabulary and grammar which are characteristic of the language of the home. There are differences in home and language backgrounds, therefore, there must be differences in the language each child brings to school. The school then has the added responsibility to expand, refine and adapt their language to serve many functions such as reading and writing. (Strickland, 1962, p. 1).

There is a widely held popular belief that the child whose expressive and receptive language is inadequate may encounter problems when introduced to the printed page. He must therefore be prepared by his school environment for the verbal experiences he is to encounter.

THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study proposes to examine the nature of the oral language of St. Lucian preschool children, and to compare their language with the language forms in a typical beginning reader. Implications for initial language arts experiences will be drawn up from this comparison.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study proposes to investigate the following questions:

1. What is the nature of the oral language of St. Lucian pre-schoolers?
2. What is the nature of the language of a popular and typical beginning reading text?
3. Does the oral language of these preschoolers differ from the language of the text?
4. If there are differences, where do they lie? i.e. which language features are different?

DEFINITIONS

Creole: Creole is also called Patois. It is the language that grew up among the African slaves of French territories of the Caribbean. Its basic vocabulary is French, but its grammar has undergone radical simplification. It has remained very receptive to additional

vocabulary from other languages notably Spanish, and especially English in recent times. However, it generally subjects such additions to all the usual rules of Creole grammar.

Creolized English: This is a linguistic form in which language patterns emerge as a result of the speakers' use of English words, but a structure and an idiom which is by no means English. In short, words are used in an order and combination quite unlike Standard British English patterns.

LIMITATIONS

1. The set of language sampling situations may be considered limited.
2. The language sampled may not be truly representative of the total language behaviour of the children.

SIGNIFICANCE

The significance of this study lies in its effort to identify and analyze specific language factors which may facilitate or adversely affect success in beginning reading. Through this, it is hoped that an insight into

the difficulties experienced by school entrants will be gained. In the light of the problems exposed a feasible programme can be developed, which in itself will be a means of increasing language ability and accelerating reading readiness and ability.

> Language is more than a basis for hearing, seeing and taking meaning to words. It is the very basis of the thinking process, and though related to auditory and visual discrimination, language development plays a significant and unique role in reading readiness. (Smith and Dechant, 1961, p. 102).

CHAPTER II

RELATED LITERATURE AND RESEARCH

The discussion on language development is followed by the review and summary of research findings and opinions of educators and linguists concerning oral language competence and reading achievement. Also included is a discussion on the situation in St. Lucia, and the methods used in analysing both oral language competence and the written text.

Language Development

> The language which grows up with a people is conformed to their organs, descriptive of their climate, constitutions and manners, mingled inseparably with their history and their soil, is fitted beyond any other language to express their prevalent thoughts in the most natural and efficient way.... The language of a nation's youth is the only easy and full speech for its manhood and its age.
>
> Thomas Davis (1970, p. 82).

The term language has many connotations. Generally speaking, language is a system of symbolic habits, or a code developed and shared by members of a society, which each individual learns early in life to enable him to communicate effectively with another.

Grammarians limit language to verbal expression which conforms to the conventional rules of grammar.

This position is the direct opposite of the above; it is extreme, and is a relatively narrow and limited point of view.

In contemporary psycholinguistics, there is a predominant view that the child's linguistic abilities depend largely on the unfolding of the maturational process. Clearly, this is a nativistic view postulated by a number of linguists and psycholinguists such as Chomsky (1955), Lenneberg (1967), and McNeill (1966). In direct contrast are Skinner (1957) and Mower (1960), who stress the role of environmental or social factors, and forcefully argue that the child acquires language by being reinforced for imitating the speech patterns of the people around him.

Lenneberg (1967) has presented the most detailed arguments supporting the nativist position. He proposes that language development is a function of maturational factors, and that 'human language is a species-specific phenomenon.' In setting forth this argument, he refers to the parallels between language and motor development in children from twelve weeks through to four years. He interprets this information and emphasizes and points out that there is a synchrony between the attainment of each language milestone and the development of specific motor skills. The point most forcefully brought out

here is that language cannot begin to develop until the child has attained a certain level of physical maturation and growth. Because of individual differences however, one must not completely set aside the fact that a lack of synchrony may exist between the two types of individual development in individual cases.

It is reasonable to assume that language development follows a regular pattern for all children. Both Chomsky (1965) and Lenneberg (1965) are of the opinion that the child has an inborn capacity and readiness for language, because of the child's ability to produce and understand novel sentences.

Cazden (1971) with regard to the acquisition of language theorizes that in the early stages nouns predominate. The child names objects and uses mainly one-word sentences up to about two years. By two, verbs begin to make an appearance and there may be an increasing number of two word sentences. By three, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions and conjunctions appear in his vocabulary, and he produces short complete sentences of about three to four words. By the time he is five or six he most probably will have used every sentence form, with an increasing frequency in uttering complex sentences and questions.

This is possible because during the formative years most if not all of his waking hours are spent in

the company of an adult, and so he is able to imitate the speech patterns and to practice them also. As a result of these first-hand experiences, and also of the actual sensory experiences he is likely to learn meaningful speech.

It should be kept in mind that the language of children is not a 'mechanical playback' of that of adults because, from the very start, they bring something of themselves to it. It seems incorrect to say that their speech patterns are wholly imitative, since their articulation is different from that of adults, they combine words in unique ways, and they make up words. They also ask questions in a manner, never asked before, and make statements which have never been uttered before, but can be understood in part. However, it has been found that some preschool children do produce sentences which are functionally complete.

Menyuk (1971) states that in addition to the above it has been found that:

> ... in the normal development of language deviations from completely grammatical speech-sound sequences and sentence types occur in the utterances children produce. (5)

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Language and Reading

Recent research, notably that of Strickland (1962), has pointed out the difference between the language of the school beginner and the language patterns he meets in typical beginning reading texts. It is generally true that the preschool child has mastered the basic structure of his language and its patterns before entering school. He uses simple, complex, compound or compound-complex sentences when expressing his ideas, and may be quite confused by the way in which material is presented in the text.

It is reasonable to assume that the child who comes from a non English speaking home, or one where a different dialect of English is used, will be more confused than one from an English speaking background. The former, not being deficient, also brings to school a wealth of langauge which in most instances is not the language of the school, and is deemed unacceptable. This being the case, he is exposed to a language very different from his own.

The basis of reading is language, which embodies ideas, and ideas spring from experience. Therefore, every opportunity available to the child to widen his experience and talk about it is a direct contribution

to his progress in reading. This is one of the reasons why children coming from a home background rich in experience and ideas often learn to read quickly; but all children have a variety of experiences throughout the day, no matter how limited their environment, from which they form ideas, and about which they talk naturally.

Many of the serious difficulties which a reader has in understanding the meaning of the printed language are the same as those which he has in understanding the meaning of the spoken language. Thus, there is good reason to believe that many of the so-called reading difficulties, present also in listening, are language incompetencies; and that a child's ability to understand what he attempts to read is greatly dependent upon his ability to understand spoken language.

To understand adequately the meaning of spoken language, and consequently the meaning of printed language, it is imperative that one has control of important language constructions, including among other things, the meaning and fitness of words, the relation among groups of words within a sentence, and sentence and paragraph structure.

Linguists and reading specialists agree that an unspecified degree of oral language competency is basic to learning to read; and there is a limited body of empirical research to support this view. When

discussing the factors which affect achievement in reading, Robinson (1955) stated that the skill with which a child uses the language he reads is considered basic to reading success.

Many writers and linguists view reading as a linguistic process. Dechant (1964), has assumed and postulated that an adequate development of skill in listening and speaking is an important prerequisite to reading.

Reading specialists such as Hildreth (1965), Harris (1964), and Monroe and Rogers (1964), have stressed the importance of oral language development to readiness for achievement in beginning reading. On the basis of a case study of a school beginner's progress in reading, Hildreth (1964), on reviewing the literature on the relationships between linguistic factors and early reading achievement, concluded that there is some measure of doubt as to the possibility of a child's attainment of fluency and comprehension in reading in the absence of a good "oral language foundation, and continued attention to oral language improvement." She further stated that the justification for large blocks of time allotted in the curriculum for the improvement of oral language usage springs from the fact that oral language learning is a basic part of learning to read, and that an assessment

of the school beginner's use of language should be included when measuring reading readiness.

Smith and Holmes (1971) have pointed out that the difference between a skilled and unskilled reader, "... is not ... the amount of visual information that he can pack into a single fixation, but the amount of non-visual information with which he can leaven the featural imput and make it go the furthest" (p. 410). Smith (1971) in his model of comprehension, proposes that a fluent reader has the ability to identify meaning from visual features in the absence of mediation of word identification, if he is able to utilize the syntactic and semantic redundancy existent within sequences of words (p. 195). Another model has also been formulated by Goodman (1970) which proposes that, "At any point in time .... the reader has available to him and brings to his reading the sum total of his experience and his language and thought development" (p. 264).

Numerous studies have indicated that there exists a strong interrelationship between language ability and reading ability. Relative literature exposes the fact that information and data collected so far from studies of language ability and its interrelationship with reading ability suggests that before the child is introduced to reading he must first learn to speak the language.

Therefore, it is vitally important to build and strengthen his oral language background before reading is attempted.

Reading may well begin by using the basic vocabulary of the child, since that is the vocabulary the child has, understands and uses. It can be built upon slowly. A child needs to speak a language well enough in order to manifest appropriate conceptual development approaching reading tasks successfully.

There is some research, both in the United States and England (Pringle, 1965), that points to the quality of the child's early verbal interaction in his home as a source of reading difficulty. A somewhat related association between the quality of a child's speech and his reading ability also appears in Strickland's (1962) study of children's language and reading which showed that second-graders with high and low reading scores differed only in that children with above-average reading age tended to use longer phonological units.

Loban's (1963) longitudinal study of elementary school children produces a similar finding which stressed the apparent long-term influence of early oral language stimulation. He stated that:

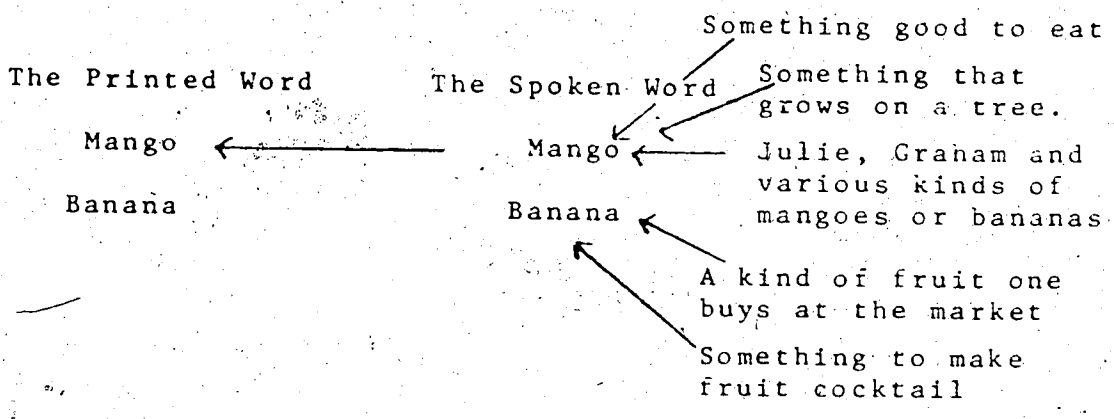
> ... those who are proficient in oral language (the basis of group selection) are also those who are superior in

reading achievement. (p. 55)

As far back as 1908 Huey implied that the syntax of reading material was an important factor in the reading process and stressed the fact that oral language ability is related to reading achievement.

In an article outlining the basic issues underlying the relationship between reading, experience and language, Gray (1944) expressed the opinion that one basic factor which must be considered when attempting to improve reading instruction is the relation of the pupil's command of language to progress in learning to read.

The relation of oral language to reading may be represented schematically. (Strang, 1959).



If a child is shown a printed word which is familiar e.g. mango, and pronounces it, the previous experiences which the child has had with mangoes -- picking, eating -- become attached to the printed symbol; and so the printed word acquires meaning for him.

Reading has its roots in many first hand experiences with things and people, and in the practice and facility in relating these experiences. Carroll (1964) has stated that reading depends on the development of an adequate speech repertoire.

Learning language enables one to learn through language. In addition to being open and receptive to what he listens to, the child increases his ability to formulate his own experiences. Since reading is language related, the child has to acquire basic pronunciation, vocabulary and structure.

The child on entering school, brings with him a wealth of receptive and expressive language. He has been listening to and using language in his environment with increasing skill and understanding. This enables him to use a set of symbols recognized by the society to communicate his ideas, desires and feelings, and to understand meaning expressed by others.

These oral symbols are sound units and words formed into speech patterns with specific characteristics put together into structural patterns. A child then learns to use the sound system, vocabulary and grammar which are characteristic of the home. Walters (1964), has stated that:

> ... teaching reading is by no means as simple as it would appear, and a

> child's progress depends on many factors besides the skill of the teacher and the methods she uses. It begins in the home as soon as he learns to speak, and the language he learns, and words he learns to use, the books and stories and ideas he meets -- or the lack of them -- all lay the foundation for the beginning of reading, and where the foundation is poor, little progress can be made. (p. 7).

It would appear that the child whose expressive and receptive language is inadequate may encounter problems when introduced to the printed page; he must therefore be prepared by his school environment for the verbal experiences he is to encounter.

THE ST. LUCIAN SITUATION

The peoples of the Caribbean from Jamaica in the West to Trinidad and Tobago in the South, have been plagued by language inadequacies for centuries. In the West Indies, the people have inherited a variety of dialects through their associations with the Arawaks, Caribs, Africans, Spaniards, French, Dutch and British. While the official language in most of the islands is English, there exists the presence of non-standard vernaculars which have done much to impede the learning of the English language.

St. Lucia, the bone of contention between the British and the French for a period of one hundred and fifty years, was predominantly French, and interestingly

enough, was neutral to both countries at one time as it frequently changed hands. From February 28th, 1838 to March 30th, 1842 a number of proclamations were published in The Gazette, declaring English as the official language. This apparently did not concern the man-in-the-street, since the island's population at that point in time consisted mainly of emancipated African slaves, whose language was Patois, a French based Creole, which to this point in time remains the native language of most St. Lucians.

Creole is spoken throughout the island. However, English being the official language, slowly permeates all parts of the island. In spite of this, there are certain areas in which the people speak Creole exclusively. There appears to be relatively significant change in the distribution of the use of the two languages. More people tend to speak English, and a dialect of English, and Creole seems to be waning; this, however, does not preclude the use of both languages by many.

There has been a widely held popular belief that the French Creole "is an inadequate and inferior form of speech, a marker of low social and educational evolution whose value is limited to intimate private conversation, narration of traditional stories, jokes, proverbs and curses." Carrington (1967, p. 19). This led to a full scale campaign for total eradication which proved utterly

futile, since the majority of the people are bilingual.

Creole is the language that grew up among the African slaves of the French territories of the Caribbean. It's basic vocabulary is French, but its grammar has undergone radical simplification. One can see many signs in Creole that suggest that it emerged from the attempts of people who had no knowledge of French grammar or spelling to pick up French by ear. Some French phrases and cliches have passed intact into Creole but the fine points of conjugation and agreement have been ruthlessly abandoned. Creole is thus today a Romance language, grammatically unlike any of the others, and in most respects far simpler. It is a common place remark that Creole has a 'French vocabulary and a West African grammar,' although good scholarly support for the assertion is meager.

Creole which became the Lingua Franca of the French West Indian territories, and was apparently spoken by white settlers as well as by slaves, retains some pronunciations. For example words ending in -oir in French, and certain constructions, the continuous present, common to French of the seventeenth century, but since extinct in France. Creole has remained very receptive to additional vocabulary from other languages notably Spanish and especially English in recent times. However,

it generally subjects such additions to all the usual rules of Creole grammar.

For present purposes, it will suffice to note that in many ways Creole grammar resembles English more than it does French, a comfort to the English speaking student. For a relatively large number of St. Lucian children, Creole is the first language that is heard and spoken, but English is the official and institutionally operative language in the State. It is the sole medium of instruction in schools. This constitutes a problem of language and reading ability for them. The problem arises when, these children, on entering school for the first time are expected to communicate with the teachers and each other in English, whereas they have learned to think and communicate in another language. As a result a 'creolized' form of English, which has a very meager morphology but a rather complex syntactic structure far removed from English emerges.

Since they have been hearing and using Patois and/or a creolized form of English, it is usually difficult to get them to use 'Standard' British English, and it is not uncommon to find in a class, numbers of children who either say very little or make use of a small number of Standard English patterns, or shift from English to Patois, or continue to use the creolized form of English.

From the above, it appears that there is a continuum of speech patterns, ranging from Patois through a form of Creole to Creolized English, and that the children use patterns at different levels of the continuum according to their socio-economic levels. It should be reiterated here, that even the children who come from English-speaking homes are somehow exposed to Patois. They hear it on the playground, from the maids and on the streets.

Craig (1965) found certain facts about the language of children throughout the British Caribbean from studies carried out by staff and students of the Faculty of Education at the University of the West Indies. He found that the structures used are very similar throughout the area, that the number of patterns used are small, that vocabulary is limited and does not increase at any significant rate between five and ten. He also found that the number of undeveloped sentences used does not increase with age.

Carrington (1967), has made potentially valuable suggestions when, in reference to Creole, he notes that,

> It is evident that the language affects the life of the St. Lucian powerfully, and part of the solution to the problems posed by its co-existence with English is to be sought in careful scientific

> analysis of the language and exploration of its potential value in education. Any scientific approach to English teaching in St. Lucia must be preceded by an analysis of Creole and an examination of the areas of interference between the two languages (p. 31).

The fact that children come to school speaking a form of English which is quite different from that they are expected to speak, read and write, is not only an added difficulty for language teaching, but is doubtless another factor in the passive attitude of the children. Since their own speech is rejected, and their efforts to learn otherwise are constantly corrected, many make less and less effort to speak in school. This may, however, be an over-simplification, but it is difficult to get a clear view of the problem without some definite idea of the extent to which the children's natural speech differs from Standard British English.

ANALYSIS OF LANGUAGE COMPETENCE AND PRINTED MATERIALS.

If more effective methods of teaching and learning English are to be developed, they must be related to the total context in which the teaching and learning activities take place. They will be based upon evidence and materials proceeding from relevant studies of language and presented in ways supported by evidence

from relevant studies in psychology.

Past research used a variety of situations and stimuli in the collection of oral language protocols. Consequently, in setting up the situations to be described later for eliciting oral language, decisions were made with regard to the nature of the situations, the stimuli and the type of questioning to be used.

During the past three years, university students in the United States, both graduate and undergraduates, have been collecting oral responses to a variety of stimuli at all grade levels. Continuing study and analysis has shown that when these are considered in relation to other data of the pupils' behaviours in activities connected with reading, that the oral language expression is instrumental in either confirming or supplying necessary clues to five types of causative conditions; namely,

1. limited intellectual functioning
2. language deprivation
3. experiential deprivation
4. poor self concept
5. divergent dialect (James 1972, p. 11)

A wide variety of stimuli has been used over the years by investigators to elicit protocols for language analysis. The situations have been structured in ways in which representative samples of the

subjects' language can be obtained. They have been selected and so constructed that the subjects are in situations most likely to produce a volume and variety of language, which would give a clear indication of their level of competence in the use of language.

Bougere (1968), elicited oral language using films and pictures, two of the most common stimuli in a structured situation. Oral language researchers have made use of both structured and unstructured situations, and also of the adult-oriented and the unstructured informal peer-oriented environments. These procedures have been utilized, because the nature of the setting in which the oral sample is collected will affect the language obtained and the differences are extremely important (Joos, 1961).

Criteria basic to creating situations for collecting language samples were presented by McFetridge (1973). These criteria stress the influence of the variables of topic, stimuli, context, directions, purpose, time allotted and the mode in eliciting oral language from elementary school children.

Since language production is sensitive to countless personal and situational variables, including the subjects' level of interest, participation and cooperativeness, it is highly probable that the method(s)

used in eliciting the protocols could greatly influence the validity and reliability of the language samples obtained.

Degraff (1961), in reviewing related research says,

> ... two impediments stand out in most of this research. One is the fact that scientific techniques have seldom been employed in the studies and the second is that most of the accepted, basic research was accomplished prior to the advent of television and present day communication media. Thus, this study attempts to overcome these impediments by applying scientific techniques, where applicable, and working with a population that is as current as is feasible. (pp. 33-34).

Linguists and reading specialists agree that some degree of oral language competency is the basis for beginning reading; however, there is a limited body of empirical evidence to support this view.

Robinson (1955) states that the skill with which a child uses the language he reads is considered basic to reading success. This being the case, it is imperative that an effort should be made to analyze the language features used by the child, as this may facilitate or adversely affect success in learning to read. Monroe and Rogers (1964), say that oral language skill is the basis for learning to read and that the teacher, in order to plan an adequate reading programme, must be

able to evaluate the language ability of Grade One pupils. They devised a scheme which provides measures not only of oral language expressive abilities concerning thinking and verbalizing, but also necessary information of word meanings, dialects, concepts, attainment and background of experiences.

Hanf (1972) explored the possibility of describing the thoughts contained within the oral language of primary grade children. She devised a schema, and tested it against a sample of children's language and evaluated the schema in terms of the actual data. The purpose of the study was twofold.

1. to delineate the attributes of verbal thinking and to create new instruments or indices that would adequately evaluate the process.
2. to apply these indices to the oral language discourse of forty primary grade children. (p. 15).

Linguists and educators concur that all aspects of language are interrelated; the written text represents spoken language, and so they conclude that some degree of competency in oral language is needed before one learns to read. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that skill in the use of language is positively related to reading achievement and success.

Linguists who have concerned themselves with oral language and reading relationships have not been

specific as to the aspects of language which are the indices to precede beginning reading. However, components of language copetency prerequisite to success in beginning reading have to be clearly defined if effective teaching and learning strategies are to be provided.

The findings of Sigel et al. (1964), Kagan et al. (1963), John (1971), Shipman and Hess (1968), all show that analyses of children's oral language provides some idea of their cognitive structures and their analytic and synthesizing abilities. As a result of these findings of linguists and of numerous researchers in the field of language, much support has been given to the analysis of samples of children's language expression. Such analyses enable teachers to describe a child's dialect, namely his speech sounds, meaning units, vocabulary, sentence patterns and intonation.

A sound approach to planning vocabulary growth by first assessing the actual spoken language vocabularies of culturally deprived children who had just completed kindergarten, was used by The Detroit Great Cities Improvement Programme in Language Arts. (Wachner, 1963).

It is extremely useful to, and helpful for th first grade teacher to know about the nature of the child's language so that she may plan instruction and

devise methods which would utilize language features and skills already acquired, strengthen weak ones, introduce new ones and eventually eliminate non-standard forms.

Strickland (1962) in her study of the language of elementary school children, found that pupils who ranked high in silent reading comprehension tended to use longer utterances when speaking. Loban's (1963) monumental study of the language development of over three hundred children from kindergarten through to high school provides ample evidence of the inter-relationship between the language arts. In summarizing the first seven years of the study, he reports that pupils who excelled in general language ability, also excelled in reading ability; and that those whose general language ability was low, exhibited low reading ability.

Strang and Hocker (1965), in their study -- First Grade Children's Language Patterns -- analyzed each oral language sample obtained to determine its syntactic structure, the frequency with which different sentence patterns occurred, sentence length and vocabulary. Their findings revealed that five basic sentence patterns were found in the sample, three of them being dominant; they formed the syntactic basis for numerous variations in the children's oral language. Loban's (1963) study

also supports these findings. The patterns were:

1. the subject, predicate and direct object.
2. subject, a form of the verb 'to be' and a predicate nominative.
3. subject predicate.

It is interesting to note that in the study and analysis of situations in which each sample occured, it was found quite definitely that the child's language patterns were greatly influenced by the situation in which he was speaking.

In many research projects, studies of language features have over the years been utilized as measures of linguistic abilities. Mc.Carthy (1954), has recommended that a study of sentence length is the most reliable, easily determined, objective, quantitative easily understood measure of linguistic behaviour. These recommendations were supported by Nice (1925), whose study of her three daughters' language in comparison with the findings in other studies led to the same conclusions purported by Mc.Carthy. These findings corroborate with those of Hunt (1964) and Anderson (1972).

Research evidence such as that just cited strongly supports the view point that the quality of a child's early language environment is the most important external factor affecting the rate of language growth and dev opment;

and that reading depends on an adequate speech repertoire.

More recently a number of studies have been made relative to the importance of analyzing and evaluating children's oral language. The studies of O'Donnell et al. (1967), Menyuk (1969, 1971), Degraff (1961) and studies reported in Cazden (1972) are all supportive of this.

In the West Indies some effort has been made to study the language of the children in the area. Such studies are however, very limited and relative to specific islands. Studies of both oral and written language of school children have been made by Mayers, Grant, Alleyne and Craig (1965). These consist of a series of systematic collections and analyses of samples of speech and writing of school children in a variety of situations. Some of these are unpublished studies of the language of small samples of Jamaican children by Diploma in Education students; and some individual reports of experimental language teaching over one or two week periods by Certificate in Education students in primary schools.

In addition to these, Craig (1965) has conducted teaching experiments in Trinidad, Jamaica and Guyana, and analyses were made of the language of the subjects involved. As a part of the project in Jamaica, work sheets, with

accompanying notes for pupils and teachers, were prepared. These were used in five pilot schools in Jamaica and in six in Trinidad. As a result of reports at teachers' workshops, modifications were made before the material was sent for publication by the Caribbean Educational Publications Limited. These are for the first two years in the junior school.

Craig (1965) has concerned himself in investigating the specific ways in which foreign language teaching techniques could be adapted in order to facilitate English teaching in the West Indies, as it is a well known fact that the language of West Indian children (broadly speaking), possesses a vocabulary which is almost completely English, but at the same time possessing a grammar which diverges sharply from English.

A number of studies of the various creoles spoken by West Indians have emerged during the past decades. These studies have been undertaken mainly with a view to finding effective methods of teaching English in the schools. On the other hand, others have been undertaken and are instrumental in aiding the establishment of new methods.

Le Page (1957), Le Page and De Camp (1960), Cassidy (1961), Allsop (1958), Craig (1965), Bailey (1966) and Lawton (1963), have made studies which are most relevant to the teaching of English in the area. Allsop

(1962), was the only one concerned with Guyanese Creole, while the others were concerned with Jamaican Creole.

Analytical studies of West Indian language problems, specifically the problem of teaching children in school have been undertaken by Catford (1962), Bailey (1963), Marckwardt (1962), Kelly (1960), Figueroa (1962), Gray (1962), Walters (1958) and Jones (1966), who also made a report at the Conference on Language Teaching and Linguistics at the University of the West Indies in nineteen sixty-four.

Carrington (1965), the only one so far, has made a study of the French based creole spoken in St. Lucia; he deals with the structure of the language and suggests ways in which English can be taught.

The studies undertaken by faculty members of the University of the West Indies, are in the majority, since they originated mainly from observations and logical analyses of educational situations, and not from controlled experimentation or scientific treatment of amassed data; Carrington's is more in keeping with the latter procedures. However, they are very important and point out the need for different kinds of studies in the area of language especially in the West Indies with its wide variety, and particularly in St. Lucia where very little has been done, but where many precon-

ceived ideas and notions about the language prevail.

The research reviewed here, suggests that much study of the oral language of children has been done. However, even though a large volume of facts about child language has been uncovered, it is necessary to continue such studies for the simple reason that language is living and continually undergoing change.

Because of this, and the fact that the language of St. Lucian children has been taken for granted and labelled -- 'bad, incorrect, poor' and 'non-standard'; this study was undertaken to examine the structure of their language, with a view to proposing a programme which can effectively improve language competency and reading ability.

MEASURES USED TO ANALYZE LANGUAGE COMPETENCE

By analyzing the Oral Language of the subjects, and the written language of a popular Primer the needs of school entrants will be revealed. The following is a summary of the general categories identified based on previous research.

There is no clear-cut guide as to how to segment oral language utterances. However, this must be done before one begins analyzing in terms of length and complexity of syntax within units. In written language

the task appears to be simpler because of the use of terminal punctuation such as the period, question and/or exclamation marks has been accepted by linguists and others as the signs that a communication has ended; this procedure is not fool-proof, and has led to some measure of error in some instances.

McCarthy (1930) has developed a method of segmenting oral language. She indicated that a communication unit or 'response' was an utterance separated from preceding and following utterances by pauses. The response, according to McCarthy was complete if it were (1) a "complete sentence" (her definition of a sentence was not recorded), or (2) if the subject stopped completely either by dropping and/or modulating his voice, or any other indication visualized by the investigator as a sign that he was finished. (p. 32).

McCarthy's method of segmenting was adopted by Davis (1937) who added that if a complete sentence was followed by another without a pause for breath, then the two sentences should be counted as one 'response' if the second sentence was supplementary to the first. This method was subsequently adopted by Templin (1957) and Hahn (1948).

In finding the length of the response, McCarthy and other investigators who adopted her method counted

the number of words in each 'response.' She applied a set of rules which she felt was "arbitrary." For example:

1. When the subject or predicate was contracted as in the case of "you're" this was counted as two words, but when contradictions were in the form of a negation, such as "can't", this was counted as one word. Words which were hyphenated, or combinations such as Betty Lou, Little Miss Muffet and "oh boy" were counted as one word.

2. In dealing with sentence structure she classified them as complete, incomplete, or functionally complete but structurally incomplete. A one-word response like "yes" or "no" was classified as functionally incomplete. Complete sentences were further classified as simple with and without a phrase, compound, complex and elaborated sentences. Elaborated sentences were those with two phrases, two clauses or one clause and one phrase.

3. Words were tabulated according to their function in the sentence and were categorized as nouns, verbs, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs,

conjunctions and prepositions, in keeping with the traditional definitions postulated by school grammarians. (pp. 42-46).

Strickland (1962), on the other hand, to compute the mean length of communication unit, segmented the utterances and called them phonological units. The definition for a phonological unit was "a unit of speech with a distinct falling intonation which signals a terminal point" (p. 16). In her analysis she did not consider McCarthy's classification of "complete" or "structurally incomplete sentences." Utterances which she felt were "not syntactically pertinent" she classified as 'mazes' or 'short utterances' and analyzed them further. Mazes were subdivided into four distinct groups:

1. Noises -- unintelligible sounds such as "ah," "er," and the like.
2. Holders --words or groups of words such as "well," "you see," and "now uh" sued to hold attention.
3. Repeats --repetition of words such as "you-you," "I think - I think"
4. Edits --words used by the speaker which indicated a correction or change of direction in what he was saying. (p. 24).

In the syntactic analysis she was concerned with identifying the relative positions of grammatical units within phonological units; this was done in two levels.

In Level 1, basic sentence patterns were identified and classified as follows:

1. "Fixed slots" -- the partitioning into specific positions within the sentence, subjects, predicates of various kinds, indirect objects, compliments, and question words such as "why" and "what."

2. "Movables" -- Syntactic segments expressing time, place, cause, manner and such which move or change positions within the sentence. Traditionally these were called adverbials.

3. "Sentence connectors" -- words which function as co-ordinating and subordinating conjunctions.

In Level 2, modifiers of nouns and verbs referred to as "satellites" were identified and described. (p. 17-22).

Loban (1964) who, like Strickland, derived his method of syntactic analysis from the field of structural linguists as a basis for segmenting his subjects' utterances, did not rely solely on phonological features but included semantic clues. He has defined a communication unit as "a group of words which cannot be further divided without loss of their essential meaning," (p. 6) and also as "the grammatical independent clause with any of its modifiers" (p. 7). In dealing with co-ordinated independent clauses, he viewed them as two separate communication units. His syntactic analysis of these are very similar to that of Strickland, described earlier.

Menyuk (1961) measured sentence length and syntactic structures using transformational analysis as purported by Chomsky. She was able to desc child grammar using this model, and arrived at the following restricted forms, for example, "noun phrase" -- (a) Omission -- can you do? (b) Redundancy -- My brother, he's eleven. Double Negation -- I don't have no spoon. Inversion Restriction, Verb Number -- There's hearts. (p. 538). These are forms unique to children.

Degraff (1961), in determining sentence length followed rules used by Templin as adapted from Davis, to establish continuity with other recognized studies (p. 46).

1. Contractions of subject and predicate like "its" and "were were counted as two words.
2. Contractions of the verb and the negative such as "can't" were counted as one word.
3. Each part of a slot combination was counted as a separate word; thus "have been playing was counted as three words.
4. Hyphenated nouns were counted as one word.
5. All other words in the sentence were counted (p. 213).

He, like Strickland, used two levels in the syntactic analysis. In level 1, he was concerned with (a) "scansion of sentences into fixed slots and moveables,"

(b) separating "utterances and non-structural elements from the structural elements of the sentence," and (c) tabulating fixed slots, movables and sentence connectors (p. 40).

In level 2, he was mainly concerned with the type of satellites or subordinations used in the fixed slots or the movables.

Hunt (1965), in analyzing written grammatical structures, like Menyuk, applied the concept of transformational grammar that Chomsky and Lees developed. In trying to find the mean word length of "sentences" -- he defined them as "those units the subjects set off by capital letters at the beginning of the unit and terminal punctuation marks at the end" then developed a technique of segmenting language into units.

These units which contain "one main clause with all the subordinate clauses attached to it," he called "the minimal inable syntactic unit," or T-unit. (p. 20-21). There is hardly any difference between Hunt's T-unit segmentation and Loban's communication unit or C-unit. Besides computing mean length of T-units, Hunt also checked the occurrence and type of sentence combining transformations used within T-units and the types of verbs and their compliments (p. 21).

O'Donnell, Griffin and Norris (1967) using a system of analysis very similar to that used by Strickland

and Loban, classified and described the sequential pattern of the main clause within each T-unit; Coupled with this they classified sentence-combining transforms into three main categories, (1) "those producing nominal constructions, (2) those producing coordinate constructions within T-units, and (3) those producing adverbial constructions. (p. 34-35).

Menyuk (1961), Hunt (1965) and O'Donnell et al. (1967), on the other hand, have viewed their samples differently. They have measured the subjects' syntactic competency at different age levels by determining the number and types of grammatical transformations affected in their utterances. This latter procedure is the one considered in this investigation because it serves more directly to examine the actual language features produced by the subjects.

SUMMARY

This chapter undertook to give a brief discussion on language development, the nature of language and the relationship of language to reading. It exposed the relevant information about language ability and beginning reading in St. Lucia.

Review of the research showed that all aspects of language are interrelated, that some degree of facility in oral language is basic to learning to read, and that

careful study of a child's language behaviour is valuable and can make substantial contributions toward the improvement of language competence and reading ability.

Further examination of the literature showed that there is a variety of methods used in eliciting oral language protocols, which provide insights that are basic to interpreting the findings in this study.

CHAPTER III

THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

This chapter gives a detailed description of the design of the study; the purpose of which was to examine the oral language of St. Lucian preschoolers and the language of a popular reading text, with a view to proposing effective, initial language arts experiences.

The following sections include a description of the population and sample. A description of the language sampling techniques and the measures selected is followed by an outline of the procedures undertaken in the investigation. A description of the reliability and scoring, conclude the chapter.

POPULATION AND SAMPLE

Thirty subjects were selected randomly from a population of one hundred and fifty preschool children ranging in age from four and a half to five years and four months. The subjects were selected from an area populated mainly by people in the low income bracket as defined by the mother's occupation because of the matriachal nature of the community. The mother's occupation, agricultural labourer, was a criterion for selection of the population in order that the sample be representative of the area in which the investigation was carried out.

The sample of thirty seemed to fall naturally into three distinctive groups of ten. Level I, the youngest, was comprised of subjects whose ages ranged from four years six months to four years ten and a half months. At Level II, the middle group, ages ranged from five years to five years and three months; and at Level III, the oldest, ages ranged from five years four months to five years five months. There was a total of thirteen girls and seventeen boys (Table 1.). These subjects are expected to start school at the beginning of the coming academic year.

TABLE I

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

Groups	Number	Girls	Boys
Level I	10	7	3
Level II	10	3	7
Level III	10	3	7
Total	30	13	17

Each subject was twinned with an older sibling who accompanied him and was present at the investigation.

The siblings' ages ranged from six to fifteen years. Five of the siblings were unresponsive; this apparent passiveness must be considered since it may have influenced some of the findings.

Five of the subjects appeared to be very upset and never settled down. Because of this it was not possible to elicit any language from them. It was reasonable to suppose that they were not comfortable in the unfamiliar environment selected for the investigation. Therefore, a suitable site was selected in their own environment for this purpose. It was anticipated that the afore-mentioned subjects would then participate in the investigation actively, but even so this proved futile. It should be explained here that although these five subjects are not shown in the sample analyses they are considered in the study findings.

THE LANGUAGE SAMPLES

In an attempt to obtain a representative sample of the subjects' oral language, an important step in planning was the decision to use five different situations to elicit language from the subjects. However, it should be explained here, that only three of the planned situations were used.

The following are the five situations:

1. Individual subjects made up and told a story about a picture which he selected, to his peers in the presence of the investigator -- the object of this situation was to tap each subject's spontaneous and creative language, through relevant culture fair pictures prepared by the investigator. Photographs of these are included in Appendix A.

2. An unfamiliar and unknown object -- a pair of ice skates was presented, about which each subject was to ask four questions-- the object of this situation was to tap each subject's ability to ask questions. Subjects were not expected to identify the stimulus, they simply had to ask questions.

3. Individual subjects talked with an older sibling on a topic or topics of their choice -- the object of this situation was to tap the language of the home.

4. A polaroid portrait of each subject was to be taken, about which he was to speak -- the object of this situation was to tap each subject's uninhibited expression about himself. Unfortunately, due to the unavail-

ability of films in the country at the time of the investigation, it was not possible to utilize this situation.

5. Individual subjects were to speak with the investigator about a familiar and current topic -- namely Christmas -- the object of this situation was to tap each subject's language in conversation with an adult. This situation was not utilized, because the subjects simply did not respond in the situation.

Precise directions were given, and the subjects were all given equal opportunity to speak. In each situation five minutes were allowed at the beginning of each task approximately three minutes were used to motivate the subjects and to have them relax, and at the end they were allowed to listen as the tapes were played back. The directions are included in Appendix B.

It was assumed that the situations would help to elicit oral language which, when analyzed, would illustrate more than the child's grammatical competence. One would probably have some insight into the child's ability to meet the language demands of the situations.

It seems logical to assume that the discriminative power of the procedures would make the situations aptly suitable for use in the present investigation. In preparing the instrument, care was taken to provide

stimuli which would promote maximum interest and response by the subjects. They were within the range of ordinary childhood experiences and had not been seen or discussed before by the subjects, and the content was culturally unbiased.

In addition, the method of presentation, the directions and questions used, and the informal atmosphere which prevailed can be replicated easily. It is also important to note that the method of presenting the stimuli (incorporated in the directions in Appendix B) would minimize the influence of the investigator's language on that of the subjects. Care was taken to develop series of questions and directions understandable by preschoolers, which would be economically worded, but very effective in arousing interest and cooperation.

In view of the fact that there was no time limit set, so that each subject was free to say as much or as little as he wished in response to each stimulus, the findings should prove especially interesting. The results may embody a fair exposition and appraisal of the language competence and limitations which may have some bearing on and relate to success in learning to read.

THE ANALYSIS

The measures used to assess the language sample were divided into five categories: quantity, complexity,

restricted forms, quality and content.

1. Quantity

This category was labelled quantity rather than fluency because it was felt that fluency entailed much more than the total number of features assessed.

(i) Total number of words: The total number of words was obtained for each group in all three situations, and also for the sample in the primer. This was done by counting every word. All contractions were counted as one word in all instances. The average number of words per group was also obtained.

(ii) Total number of C-units and T-units: A C-unit in this study is "the grammatical independent clause with any of its modifiers" (Loban 1963, p. 7). The total and average number of C-units per group per situation were obtained by counting all C-units for each subject in all situations. In the case of the primer, the total number of T-units in the sample was computed. A T-unit was defined as "a single independent prediction together with any subordinate clauses that may be grammatically related to it. .... It may be a simple or a complex sentence, but not a compound sentence" (O'Donnell, Griffin and Norris 1967, p. 33). (Appendix B).

(iii) Mazes: The total number of mazes and the number of words in each maze in all situations were counted for each subject. A maze is "any part of a

phonological unit which was not syntactically or meaningfully pertinent." (Strickland 1962, p. 24). (Appendix B).

(iv) Partials: The total number of partials and the number of words in each partial in all situations were counted for each subject. A partial is a single word or group of words which do not fit any of the above categories. (Appendix B).

(v) Quantity of Sibling and Subject language: The total and average number of C-units, partials and mazes for each sibling subject pair in Situation #3 were counted.

2. Complexity

(i) Length of utterance: Using methods of segmentation developed by Loban (1963) and O'Donnell et al. (1967), the oral samples were segmented into C-units and the written samples into T-units. The number of C-units and T-units were counted in each oral and written sample, and the average length per C-unit and T-unit in each sample and age group was obtained.

(ii) Structural Patterns: Categories used by O'Donnell et al. (1967) were applied here. After segmenting the C-units and T-units, they were classified according to the sequential patterns of the main clause. (Appendix B).

(iii) Question Forms: The forms used and the frequency with which they were used was obtained. The number of subjects who asked questions, the number of questions they asked, and the number of words in the questions was also obtained. Cazden's (1972) question forms were used in categorizing the questions. (Appendix B).

(iv) Mazes and partials: These were classified and categorized in relation to their function. (Appendix B). The number of words in mazes and partials and their frequency was obtained.

(v) Adjectivals: Single words and groups of words which functioned as adjectivals were classified, and frequencies were computed for all the oral and written samples.

(vi) Adverbials: Single words and groups of words which functioned as adverbials were classified and frequencies were computed for all the oral and written samples.

(vii) Other Complex Forms: The forms which have not been categorized according to any of the above were examined.

(viii) Coordinating Conjunctions: O'Donnell et al. (1967) found four different coordinating conjunctions used by their subjects, accordingly the number and

frequency of coordinating conjunctions per C-unit and T-unit were computed (Appendix B).

3. Restricted Forms

(i) The forms unique to children as described by Manyuk (1963) were used in the classification. The type and the frequency of the forms were obtained. (Appendix B).

(ii) In an attempt to explore further, forms which do not approximate Standard British English Grammar and Creole forms were examined to see how they function.

4. Quality

(i) Story form: Stories produced in Situation #1 were classified according to four levels namely, identifying, describing separate elements, relating some parts, and selecting relationships to form the story (McFetridge 1973). The number of stories falling into the different categories for each group was obtained.

(ii) Questions (Utility): Questions in Situation #2 were categorized according to their relevance to the task and the stimulus. Questions were judged useful if they relate to the task and the stimulus.

5. Content

Topics selected in Situation #3 and those present in the primer were examined to reveal their

content.

PROCEDURE

Getting acquainted: Care was taken from the outset to get acquainted with the subjects, so that when the investigation began, some degree of friendship would have been established, and a measure of shyness with the investigator already alleviated.

After selecting the subjects by going through the list of names and picking every third child, a visit was made to his home. The mother was interviewed and she was given relevant information about the investigation. At the investigator's request, the subject and sibling who were to participate were introduced to her; they chatted for some time. On the second visit to the subjects' homes, they were told what was expected of them.

Collecting samples: It has previously been pointed out that recording of oral language in group situations has the advantage of placing subjects among peers, and presumably of stimulating natural style. Therefore, it was decided to place the subjects in the first instance in a situation which would bring about ample language responses.

In order to alleviate undue stress, the investigator and each group of five subjects chatted freely

about many relative and general topics, which were in some instances initiated by the subjects, before the tasks were given. These sessions were tape recorded and played back for the subjects and their siblings to avoid anxiety and surprise. This afforded a measure of familiarity among the subjects, and a relatively free and relaxed atmosphere.

After this, the tasks were carried out and the subjects returned home. Three days were utilized; one group of five participated in the morning and afternoon of each day.

Every fifth page from the primer -- Play Time Happy Venture Series book one -- was selected, and the fifty language units were analyzed to determine syntactic structure, frequency with which each pattern and different sentence patterns occurred, and the length of T-units as described earlier.

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF SCORING

The tape recorded protocols were transcribed verbatim, every word or utterance made by each subject in each situation was recorded in writing, exactly as it was heard on the tape. The tapes were replayed on several occasions to check the correctness of the transcriptions.

The transcriptions were later subjected to the analyses described earlier in this chapter. The fifty T-units selected from the primer were also analyzed. A random sample of ten percent in each age group was checked by independent judges who are experts in the field.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The primary purpose of this chapter is to analyze and interpret the oral and written language sample to determine whether differences exist. The protocols were analyzed in the manner described in the previous chapter and the findings are presented below.

Before presenting the findings, it should be explained that five of the subjects did no talking at all in any of the situations. The number of subjects participating at each level were eight at Level I, ten at Level II, and seven at Level III.

The non-talkers are therefore not shown in the analyses; however, their presence in the investigation is not excluded. None of the thirty subjects talked in Situation #4 where individual subjects were to converse with the investigator. It is felt that both these behaviours have important implications and are to be considered.

ANALYSIS OF THE LANGUAGE

All the language produced by the twenty five subjects in the three situations was analyzed. Seven pages of the text which contained fifty T-units were analyzed also. The following are the measures which were examined.

1. Quantity of language.

2. Complexity of language.

3. Restricted forms.

4. Quality of language.

5. Content of language.

The situations in which the sample was obtained were: Situation #1, an individual subject made up and told a story about a selected picture to four peers in the presence of the investigator; Situation #2, Individual subjects were to ask four questions about a pair of ice skates which was presented; Situation #3, Individual subjects were to talk with an older sibling on a topic or topics of their choice.

Initial validity of the measures was established through reference to their application in other research. The criteria for each measure had previously been established.

In this study, three independent judges verified the application of the measures. The three judges were all instructors in the field of language education and familiar with the research instruments.

Judge 1-- checked the application of the measures in the first scoring by the investigator.

Judge 2 -- checked all of the protocols on all measures and any disputed measures were agreed upon

according to the criteria previously established by researchers.

Judge 3 -- checked a random sample of 10% of the protocols selected within levels. There was total agreement between judgements made by Judge 3, and those agreed upon by the investigator and Judge 2.

1. Quantity

(i) Total number of words:

The total number of words produced in the three situations and at the three levels is given below. It has already been noted that five out of the thirty subjects did not talk in any of the situations. Of the twenty five subjects who did talk, not every one did so in every situation. Table II shows the number of subjects at each level and the total and average number of words produced in Situation #1.

TABLE II

AVERAGE NUMBER OF WORDS: SITUATION #1

Levels	Number of Subjects	Total Number of words	Average Number of words
I	8	218	27.2
II	10	353	35.3
III	7	271	38.7

There is a definite increase in the average number of words per subject as age increases, a finding supported by Loban (1963). He found that the total group of subjects at the kindergarten level, three hundred and thirty eight of them produced 555.48 words. There were two hundred and sixty Grade ones, and they produced 618.66 words. O'Donnell et al. (1967) also found an increase in the total number of words produced from kindergarten to grade one. The mean total was 209.4 at the kindergarten level and 510.3 at grade one. Although the subjects in this study are younger, the notable increase is apparent.

Table III shows the number of subjects at each level and the total and average number of words produced in Situation #2.

TABLE III

AVERAGE NUMBER OF WORDS: SITUATION #2

Levels	Number of Subjects	Total Number of words	Average Number of words
I	7	100	14.2
II	10	125	12.5
III	7	135	19.2

In this situation, the average number of words produced was lowest at Level II, the middle group. The

second highest average number occurred at Level I, the youngest, and the highest at Level III the oldest group. The slight drop at Level II could be due to two possible factors: (a) fewer questions may have been asked, and (b) the questions may have been shorter, because of the unfamiliar stimulus object which was used in this situation. The relevance of this will be examined later. However, in looking at Levels I and III an increase is apparent.

Table IV shows the number of subjects and the total and average number of words produced in Situation #3

TABLE IV

AVERAGE NUMBER OF WORDS: SITUATION #3

Levels	Number of Subjects	Total Number of words	Average Number of words
I	5	99	19.8
II	9	187	20.7
III	6	243	40.5

This table clearly shows an increase in the average number of words produced with the increase in age. Generally, the increase over age in all three situations is supported by Loban (1963). He found that there was a notable increase in the number of words spoken by his

subjects in each of the succeeding years.

The average number was greater in Situations #1 and #3 than in Situation #2 for the three groups. The higher number occurred in Situation #1 for Levels I and II, and was about the same for Level III in both Situations #1 and #3. It is possible that the production of more words in Situations #1 and #3 was influenced by the settings of the tasks which elicited speech in a manner more commonly experienced by the subjects. Hahn (1948), found that most language was produced by her subjects in 'storytelling' and 'show and tell' situations than in an adult-child interview situation.

(ii) The total number of Communication Units (C-units)

The number of C-units varied across situations and age groups. Table V shows the total number of C-units and the average number per subject at the three levels in Situation #1.

TABLE V

AVERAGE NUMBER OF C-UNITS: SITUATION #1

Levels	Number of Subjects	Total Number of C-units	Average Number of C-units
I	8	27	3.4
II	10	49	4.9
III	7	31	4.4

An increase in the average number of C-units produced is apparent. This increase is related to the increase in age. Strickland (1962) and Loban (1963), both found that the number of phonological and C-units produced, increased with age. Although their studies were of school age children, their findings do serve to support findings in this study.

In Table VI is the number of subjects at each level and the total and average number of C-units in Situation #2.

TABLE VI

AVERAGE NUMBER OF C-UNITS: SITUATION #2

Level	Number of Subjects	Total Number of C-units	Average Number of C-units
I	7	20	2.9
II	10	25	2.5
III	7	24	3.4

Although there is a slight drop at Level II, the table shows quite clearly an increase in the average number of C-units produced in this situation from Level I through to Level III.

The number of subjects at each level, the total and average number of C-units produced in Situation #3 are presented in the following table.

TABLE VII

AVERAGE NUMBER OF C-UNITS: SITUATION #3

Levels	Number of Subjects	Total Number of C-Units	Average Number of C-Units
I	5	5	1.0
II	9	31	3.4
III	6	30	5.0

In this situation there is a definite increase in the average number of C-units produced. This increase is related to the increase in the age of the subjects.

At Level I the higher average number of C-units occurred in Situations #1 and #2, the lowest in Situation #3. At Levels II and III the higher averages occurred in Situations #1 and #3 and the lowest in Situation #2. With reference to the average number of words, it has previously been pointed out that the close relation of the tasks in Situations #1 and #3 to the subjects' experiences, may contribute to the larger production. It is reasonable to assume that the same relationship may have

contributed to the larger production of C-units in the same situations also.

(iii) The total number of Mazes

Quite often, and for a variety of reasons, single words or groups of words not directly related to the structure or meaning of an utterance appear in the speech of both children and adults. E.g. (He say) ... He say he have a lot of food tonight. These are called mazes; a small number occurred in all situations. The following table illustrates the number of subjects, the total number of words, the total number of mazes and words in the mazes, and the average length and number of mazes in Situation #1

TABLE VIII

NUMBER AND LENGTH OF MAZES: SITUATION #1

Levels	No.of sub-jects	Total No. of words	Total No.of mazes	Total No.of words in mazes	Average length of maze	Average No. of mazes
I	3	218	6	18	3.0	2.0
II	7	353	14	41	2.9	2.0
III	6	271	17	46	2.7	2.8

It is apparent from this table that the number of mazes produced at all three levels in this situation was very similar. The number produced at Levels I and II are the same, and there is a slight rise at Level III. In connection with the length however, the pattern is reversed. The shortest mazes occurred at Level III and the longest at Level I.

In Table IX the number of subjects, the total number of words, the distribution of mazes, the number of words in the mazes, the average length of the mazes and the average number of mazes produced in Situation #2 is given.

TABLE IX

NUMBER AND LENGTH OF MAZES: SITUATION #2

Levels	No. of sub-jects	Total No. of words	Total No. of mazes	Total No. of words in mazes	Average length of maze	Average No. of mazes
I	1	100	1	2	2.0	1.0
II	3	125	4	7	1.8	1.1
III	1	135	2	3	1.5	2.0

In this situation there has been a drop in the number of mazes produced, and also in the average length, when compared with those in Situation #1. This overall drop can be attributed to the total drop in language produced in this situation. The shorter mazes occurred in Situations #1 and #2, and the longest in Situation #3.

The number of subjects, the total number of words, the distribution of mazes, the number of words in the mazes, the average length of the mazes and the average produced in Situation #3 follows in Table X.

TABLE X

NUMBER AND LENGTH OF MAZES: SITUATION #3

Levels	No.of sub-jects	Total No. of words	Total No.of mazes	Total No.of words in mazes	Average length of mazes	Average No. of mazes
I	2	99	2	6	3.0	1.0
II	0	187	0	0	0	0
III	2	243	2	7	3.5	1.0

In this situation mazes occurred at Levels I and III. It can clearly be seen that the mazes which occurred at Level I were slightly shorter than those at Level III.

and that the number per subject was also less at Level I than at Level III. It is interesting to note that no mazes occurred at Level II in this situation.

For Levels I and III, the most mazes occurred in Situations #1 and #3; for Level II in Situation #1. Generally, it appears that mazes were most abundant in Situation #1 story telling. The subjects at Level III, the oldest, on an average appeared to have produced more mazes in Situations #1 and #3 than those at Level I. It is logical to assume that the older subjects having produced more language would probably use more mazes. It is also possible that the ease of the tasks in both situations served in some measure to allow the subjects to build and to add to their discourses as they proceeded, and in some instances to change certain aspects.

Situation #2, the forming and asking of questions, being a more demanding task than either #1 or #3, produced fewer mazes overall. The unfamiliar stimulus used in this situation may also have prevented the production of a large volume of language. It is assumed the greater the volume of language produced, the greater would be the incidence of mazes. Loban (1963) noted that there was a decrease in the number of mazes and also in the number of words per maze as the subjects became more skillful with language. The point he stresses is that the less skillful the subjects were with language the more trouble

they experienced in trying to express their ideas. Thus the incidence of mazes was greater. Anderson (1972) found that fourth grade pupils used a number of mazes, and that there was a significant correlation existing between sentence complexity and the use of the edit maze. She also noted a significance between sentence complexity and total maze usage, but that the degree of correlation decreased because of the inclusion of repeats and audible pauses, since these maze types did not correlate with complexity.

(iv) The total number of partials

In this study, partials are single words or groups of words which are part of, but not a C-unit. They are called "short utterances" by Strickland (1962, p. 23), and are referred to as being "structurally incomplete." Only subjects who produced partials are considered in the analysis.

The following are examples of partials. These are exact transcriptions of part of a subject's and his sibling's protocols.

Sibling	Subject
What you get?	(A car) (an' a ball) (an' a watergun) (an' a lot of fings)
Who give you it?	(Everybody.)

The word and word groups in parentheses are the partials. There are some partials in all situations, but the number of subjects producing them at the three Levels seem to differ greatly. The following table shows the number of subjects, the total number of words, the total number of partials, the number of words in the partials and the average length and number of partials in Situation #1.

TABLE XI

NUMBER AND LENGTH OF PARTIALS: SITUATION #1

Levels	No. of subjects	Total No. of words	Total No. of partials	No. of words in partials	Average length of partials	Average No. of partials
I	1	218	8	11	1.3	8
II	0	353	0	0	0	0
III	0	271	0	0	0	0

In Situation #1 there were eight partials, all of which occurred at Level I. It is interesting to note that in the story-making task very few partials were produced, and that only one subject at Level I produced those which occurred in this situation. The stimulus picture used in this task were probably the reason for the flow of

language. It can also be assumed that the subjects were able to express their ideas by forming C-units.

Strickland (1962) found that some children at all grade levels used partials i.e. "short utterances." She also found that some did not use them at all, a large number used a few and a small number used many short ones.

Table XII gives the number of subjects, the total number of words, the total number of partials, the number of words in the partials and the average length and number of partials in Situation #2.

TABLE XII

NUMBER AND LENGTH OF PARTIALS: SITUATION #2

Levels	No. of subjects	Total No. of words	Total No. of partials	No. of words in partials	Average length of partials	Average No. of partials
I	2	100	5	11	2.1	2.5
II	3	125	3	9	3.0	1.0
III	0	135	0	0	0	0

In this situation partials occurred at Levels I and II only; longer partials were produced at Level II. It is reasonable to suppose that the complex nature of the task, that of asking questions about an unfamiliar

object, was responsible for the production of partials at both these levels. No partials occurred at Level III. It seems logical to suppose that as subjects approach linguistic maturity, partials begin to decrease.

Table XIII shows the number of subjects, the total number of words, the total number of partials, the number of words in the partials, and the average length and number of partials in Situation #3.

TABLE XIII

NUMBER AND LENGTH OF PARTIALS: SITUATION #3

Levels	No. of subjects	Total No. of words	Total No. of partials	No. of words in partials	Average length of partials	Average No. of partials
I	6	99	32	55	1.7	5.3
II	6	187	16	34	2.2	2.7
III	6	243	29	99	3.4	4.8

The largest number of partials in this situation occurred at Level I and the smallest at Level II. Barring the drop at Level II, it is implicit that as age increases the number of partials produced decreases. An interesting feature apparent here, is the increase in the length of partials used as age increases. In this

connection, it should be kept in mind that there was also an increase in the length of C-units produced relative to age increase in this situation.

A decrease in the number of partials used per subject is also apparent. There is a definite increase across the situations in the number of subjects using partials generally. The number per subject in Situation [illegible] all levels has also increased when compared to those in situations #1 and 2. In connection with these findings, it can be said that Situation #2 was a more formal situation, in that the investigator had to be questioned by the subjects. This is an experience which is probably not usual for them; they usually are questioned. In Situation #3 in which the setting was a question and answer one, in which siblings questioned the subjects, the incidence of partials was highest. Based on the results shown here it is obvious that the number of partials produced was related to the settings of the situations in which they occurred.

(v) Quantity of sibling-subject language.

It was felt that the amount of language produced by the sibling would have an effect on that of the subject. The situation being a natural one, in which the subject converses with his sibling, should produce a volume of language. The following is the sibling-subject pairs and the number of words, C-units, mazes and partials

produced. All sibling-subject pairs are not presented here because not all siblings would participate. There were three pairs at Level I and one each at Levels II and III who did not participate. The siblings were very shy and did not initiate any conversations with the subjects who in turn did not either. It should be pointed out here that even though the atmosphere for the investigation was free from pressure, it did not preclude the inclusion of personal variables on the part of the participants.

This is how the sibling-subject pairs at Level I performed. The identification numbers correspond to the specific participating pairs. In Table XIV is presented the number of words, C-units, mazes and partials produced by the sibling-subject pairs at Level I.

From the distribution shown in Table XIV, it is clear that the number of words used by the subjects is relative to that used by the siblings. In the majority of cases the number of words used by each subject is approximately half the number of those used by the corresponding sibling.

It appears that the age of the sibling did not play a significant part because the younger siblings produced more words. They also used more C-units and partials, and there was only one instance in which mazes occurred. One would have expected more language from the older ones.

TABLE XIV

QUANTITY OF SIBLING-SUBJECT LANGUAGE: LEVEL I

SUBJECT		S I B L I N G				S U B J E C T			
I.D.	Age	No.of words	No.of C-units	No.of Mazes	No.of Partials	No.of words	No.of C-units	No.of Mazes	No.of Partials
1	10	20	4	0	0	17	0	0	7
2	8	28	6	0	2	12	0	0	9
5	7½	123	15	4	5	44	3	2	6
6	15	21	2	0	1	14	1	0	4
8	9	37	5	0	1	12	1	0	6
Total	-	229	32	4	0	99	5	2	32

The subjects used mainly partials, and mazes were relatively negligible. The large number of partials occurred as a result of the question and answer nature of the discourse between the pairs

In Table XV, the number of words, C-units, mazes and partials produced by the sibling-subject pairs at Level II is given.

At this level, the number of words used by the sibling-subject pairs appears to be well balanced; although in two instances the subjects used more words than their siblings, on the whole the differences between the two sets is very small. Here too the siblings' ages appeared to have little significance.

The difference between the number of C-units used by the pairs is also very small; no mazes occurred, but partials are relatively prevalent in the speech of the subjects. It is logical to assume that the question and answer setting and the relatively close proximity of the ages apparently precluded the use of mazes and encouraged a larger number of partials.

In Table XVI the number of words, C-units, mazes and partials produced by the sibling-subject pairs at Level III is presented.

At this level, it seems that the number of words used by the pairs are approximately the same, except in

TABLE XV

QUANTITY OF SIBLING-SUBJECT LANGUAGE: LEVEL II

		SIBLING				SUBJECT			
I.D.	Age	No.of words	No.of C-units	No.of Mazes	No.of Partials	No.of words	No.of C-units	No.of Mazes	No.of Partials
9	8	11	2	0	1	25	4	0	1
10	10	16	3	0	0	9	1	0	2
11	12	17	3	0	0	14	1	0	2
12	8	12	2	0	1	18	3	0	0
13	7	31	4	0	1	16	2	0	3
14	7½	18	2	0	1	15	2	0	1
16	9½	27	5	0	0	24	3	0	5
17	8	63	11	0	0	56	13	0	0
18	9	11	2	0	1	10	2	0	2
Total	-	206	34	0	5	187	29	0	16

TABLE XVI

QUANTITY OF SIBLING SUBJECT LANGUAGE: LEVEL III

	SIBLING					SUBJECT			
I.D.	Age	No.of words	No.of C-units	No.of Mazes	No.of Partials	No.of words	No.of C-units	No.of Mazes	No.of Partials
19	8	16	3	0	0	13	2	0	2
20	8	34	5	0	2	27	5	0	2
21	8½	36	3	0	4	28	5	0	2
22	10½	87	10	0	10	50	6	0	10
23	10	72	10	0	4	104	7	2	11
24	8	59	8	0	1	30	5	0	2
Total	-	304	39	0	21	243	30	2	29

one case. However, an obvious point which seems to be brought out here is that the larger the number of words used the larger the number of C-units and partials produced.

Generally speaking it may be reasonable to assume that where the age of the sibling was relatively close to that of the subject, the volume of language produced appeared to be about the same. In connection with the number of C-units produced, it was apparent from many of the protocols that subjects repeated most of what their siblings said word for word, and so reproduced many of their C-units. Partials are commonly used in conversations, and since this task was basically conversation in the question and answer form, the partials increased and mazes did not.

(vi) The Primer

The sample from the primer was examined in the same way as the oral sample. The total number of words and the number of T-units in the sample were obtained. There was a total of two hundred and eighty seven words and fifty T-units. A comparison with the oral sample follows later in this chapter.

SUMMARY

Generally, there seems to be a definite increase in the quantity of language produced as the subjects'

increased. The ages of the subjects in the studies of Loban (1963) and O'Donnell, Griffin and Norris (1967) differ from those in this study, nevertheless, their findings serve to support those mentioned here. They found in computing means that there was a notable increase in the number of words used, and that the number of C-units and the average number of words contained in each C-unit also increased over the years.

There was an apparent increase in the quantity of language produced in Situations #1 and #3. The volume of language produced in those situations may be attributed to the fact that children verbalize more freely to pictures directly before them, and about topics directly related to their everyday experiences. In contrast, the unfamiliar stimulus object used in Situation #2, can account for the limitations imposed on the subjects oral expression.

2. Complexity

The complexity of one's language behaviour appears to be a deciding factor in, or a sign of, linguistic maturity. In this connection it was decided to examine the oral and written language samples. It is possible to measure complexity i.e. syntactic competency by determining (i) the length of C-units and T-units; (ii) types and frequency of structural patterns; (iii) types and frequency

of question forms; (iv) types, length and frequency of mazes; (v) types, length and frequency of partials; (vi) types and frequency of adjectivals; (vii) types and frequency of adverbials and (viii) types and frequency of coordinating conjunctions exhibited in the language samples. In addition, other complex forms should be examined in order to secure an optimal description of the syntactic units.

(i) The length of C-units: This has been considered by many researchers (Loban 1963),(Strickland, 1962) as a measure of linguistic maturity. In the table which follows is the average length of C-units as they occurred at the three levels in Situation #1.

TABLE XVII

LENGTH OF C-UNITS: SITUATION #1

Levels	Number of subjects	Total length of C-Units	Average length of C-Units
I	8	54.6	6.8
II	10	65.3	6.5
III	7	50.4	7.2

In this situation there appears to be a very slight increase in the length of the C-units relative to the increase in age. Strickland (1962), Loban (1963),

and O'Donnell, Griffin and Norris (1967) all found that with the subjects they studied the older ones used longer C-units. A parallel can be drawn here even though the subjects in this study fall into different age groups than those studied by the above mentioned researchers.

Table XVIII gives the length of C-units in Situation #2.

TABLE XVIII

LENGTH OF C-UNITS: SITUATION #2

Levels	Number of Subjects	Total Length of C-units	Average Length of C-units
I	7	26.3	4.3
II	10	39.3	4.4
III	7	33.3	4.8

In this situation there is a definite increase in the length of C-units as age increases. The increase shown is relatively small however. It can be seen that in this situation there has been a decrease in the length of C-units when compared to those in Situation #1. It has previously been pointed out that this drop may have come as a result of the unfamiliar stimulus used, and the purpose of the task. (Forming Questions).

The following table shows the length of C-units in Situation #3

TABLE XIX

LENGTH OF C-UNITS: SITUATION #3

Levels	Number of Subjects	Total Length of C-Units	Average Length of C-Units
I	5	17.5	5.8
II	9	51.2	5.7
III	6	33.3	4.8

The table shows that the difference in length at Levels I and II is rather negligible, however, a decrease is apparent as age increases. Length has also increased at Levels I and II when compared to Situation #2, but is the same at Level III. It has previously been pointed out that the amount of language produced in Situation #3 by the subjects was relative to the amount produced by their siblings. In this connection it was found that the subjects at Level III produced many partials and this is probably the reason for fewer C-units. The nature of the task and the sibling language is a very important factor here.

Hahn (1948) found that her subjects produced their longest sentences when they participated in "show and tell" and when they talked about family activities or told a story. This helps to support why the longer C-units occurred in Situations #1 and #2. Strickland (1962), Loban (1963) and O'Donnell et al. (1967) found that there was a definite increase in the length of communication units that their subjects used as their ages increased. O'Donnel et al. (1967) found the mean number of words per T-unit in the speech of the children they studied, at the kindergarten level the mean computed was 7.07, a range of 4.0-9.5 words per T-unit. ("T-unit is a single independent prediction together with any subordinate clause that may be grammatically related to it." p. 33)

Loban (1963) on the other hand, also found that the length of C-units produced at these two levels increased. The average length at the kindergarten level was 4.81, and at the grade one level 6.05 words per C-unit. The findings in this s udy regarding the increasing length of C-units relate to those cited above.

(ii) Structural patterns: The distribution of structural patterns was examined by O'Donnell, Griffin and Norris (1967). In this study the identical classification of structural patterns in the C-units are used.

In order to understand a C-unit, one must understand its linguistic ingredients.

Table XX shows the distribution of the patterns as they occurred in Situation #1 and the primer.

The commonest structural patterns are the subject-verb pattern in the written sample, and the subject-verb object in both the oral and written sample. It is interesting to note that the simplest pattern, the subject-verb did not occur at all at any of the levels in the oral sample. However, 23.4 per cent of the T-units in the written sample fell into this category.

At Level I out of a total of 27 C-units 81.5 per cent were of the subject-verb-object pattern, 11.1 per cent of the subject-verb-indirect object-direct object pattern, 3.7 per cent were of the subject-verb-object-object complement (nominal) pattern, and another 3.7 per cent of the there-verb-subject pattern.

The subject-verb-object pattern dominates at this level. This pattern is far simpler than the more complex ones such as the subject-verb-indirect object-direct object; because of this it occurred more frequently. However, it is interesting to note the occurrence of some of the more complex forms.

In studying the main clauses in the language produced, O'Donnell et al (1967) found that the subject-

TABLE XX

DISTRIBUTION OF STRUCTURAL PATTERNS:
SITUATION #1 AND THE PRIMER

	SITUATION #1						THE PRIMER	
	Level I		Level II		Level III			
Structural Patterns	Total No. per C-units	Per cent of C-units Total = 22	Total No. per C-unit	Per cent of C-units Total = 49	Total No. per C-unit	Per cent of C-units Total = 37	Total No. per T-unit	Per cent of T-units Total = 50
Subject-Verb	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	23.4
Subject-Verb-Object	22	81.5	36	73.5	28	75.7	25	53.1
Subject-Verb-Predicate Nominal	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	6.4
Subject-Verb-Predicate Adjectival	0	0	7	14.3	1	2.7	4	4.3
Subject-Verb-Indirect Object-Direct Object	3	11.1	1	2.0	2	5.4	3	6.4
Subject-Verb-Object-Object Complement (Nominal)	1	3.7	0	0	1	2.7	3	6.4
Subject-Verb-Object-Adjectival Complement	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

TABLE XX (CONTINUED)

	SITUATION #1						THE PRIMER	
	Level I		Level II		Level III			
Structural Patterns	Total No. per C-units	Per cent of C-units Total = 22	Total No. per C-unit	Per cent of C-units Total = 49	Total No. per C-unit	per cent of C-units Total = 37	Total No. per T unit	Per cent of T-units Total = 50
Adverbial-Verb-Subject	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
There-Verb-Subject	1	3.7	5	10.2	5	13.5	0	0
It-Verb-Subject	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Passive Constructions	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

verb and the subject-verb-object patterns accounted for 80 per cent of all the T-units of the younger children. They also point out that none of the other grammatically complete patterns identified appeared very frequently.

The Subject-Verb-Predicate Nominal, Subject-Verb-Predicate Adjectival, Subject-Verb-Object-Adjectival Compliment, Adverbial-Verb-Subject, It-Verb-Subject and Passive Constructions did not occur at all in this sample.

At Level II there was a total of 49 C-units, of these 73.5 per cent were of the subject-verb-object pattern, 14.3 per cent of the subject-verb-predicate-adjectival pattern, 2.0 per cent of the subject-verb-indirect-object-direct object pattern, and 10.2 per cent of the there-verb-subject pattern.

There appears to be a definite move toward more complexity at this level. The subject-verb-object pattern although still the most frequently used has decreased slightly as compared to Level I. The subject-verb-predicate adjectival occurs at this level. The trend is quite similar to that in Level I; simpler patterns occur more frequently than do the complex ones.

Patterns which did not occur at this level besides the subject-verb type are: subject-verb-predicate nominal, subject-verb-object-object complement (nominal), subject-

verb-object-adjectival complement, adverbial-verb-subject, it-verb-subject and passive constructions. As already mentioned these did not occur frequently in the sample studied by O'Donnell et al, even though they had a much larger sample.

At Level III, there was a total of 37 C-units; of these, 75.7 per cent were of the subject-verb-object pattern, 2.7 per cent of the subject-verb-predicate adjectival pattern, 5.4 per cent of the subject-verb-indirect object-direct object pattern, 2.7 per cent of the subject-verb-object-object complement pattern, and 13.5 per cent of the there-verb-subject pattern. At this level there is a move toward complexity.

The simpler patterns are more frequently used and some of the more complex patterns such as the subject-verb-predicate nominal, subject-verb-object complement, adverbial-verb-subject, it-verb-subject and passive constructions do not occur at all.

It is apparent that the use of complex patterns is related to increase in age. The subjects studied seem to be able to use some of the more complex patterns at times; however, the pattern most frequently used throughout was the subject-verb-object pattern.

In the written sample there were 50 T-units, one of which was unclassified. There was a relatively wide

distribution of the patterns. Of the total 50 T-units 23.4 per cent were of the subject-verb pattern, 53.1 per cent of the subject-verb-object pattern, 6.4 per cent of the subject-verb-predicate nominal pattern, 4.3 per cent of the subject-verb-predicate adjectival pattern, 6.4 per cent of the subject-verb-object-object complement (nominal) pattern, and 6.4 per cent of the subject-verb-indirect object-direct object pattern. Absent from the sample were the subject verb-object-adjectival complement, adverbial-verb-subject, there-verb-subject, it-verb-subject and passive constructions.

The distribution of the structural patterns in the written sample is worthy of considerable attention. The occurrence of the simplest pattern, the subject-verb, is a potentially valuable finding. Here too, the simplest patterns occurred more frequently, and some of the complex patterns are introduced occasionally. In this connection it is apparent that the oral sample very nearly approximates the written sample.

(iii) Question forms.

Situation #2 was very different from Situation #1 in that the task was more demanding. The subjects were to ask questions about an unfamiliar stimulus object. The following provides information on the types of questions formed at the three Levels.

TABLE XXI

QUESTION FORMS: SITUATION #2

	Level I N=6	Level II N=9	Level III N=6
Question Forms	No. of Ques. 27	No. of Ques. 38	No. of Ques. 28
Yes - No	11	19	13
"Wh"	8	17	13
Intonation	4	0	0
Intonation Yes - No	4	1	1
How	0	1	1

At all three levels the yes-no question form occurred; subjects at Level II used the highest number of this form, and subjects at Level III used more of the same form than did those at Level I.

"Wh" type questions were also commonly used, the highest number of this type of question occurred at Level III, and again subjects at Level III used more of these than did those at Level I. Examples of "wh" type questions: "Where you get it?"
"What it is?"
"What dat is?"

They were mainly 'what' and 'where' questions. 'Why'

questions which require high level thinking and put demands on the speaker were absent.

"Intonation" type questions occurred only at Level I. This, the simplest question form, was not used by the older subjects. Example: "wif(with) what dey (they) make it?"

"Intonation yes-no" occurred at all levels, with Level I the youngest, using the larger number, and subjects at Levels II and III using a small number. Example: "you use it when it snowing?"

'How' type questions also occurred at Levels II and III, subjects at Level I did not use this type at all. Example: "How dey (they) skating wif (with) it?"

Table XXII shows the distribution of the question forms in Situation #3.

TABLE XXII

QUESTION FORMS: SITUATION #3

	Level I N=2	Level II N=2	Level III N=2
Question Forms	No.of Ques. 3	No.of Ques. 3	No.of Ques. 10
Yes-No	1	1	3
"Wh"	1	2	6
Intonation	1	0	0
Intonation Yes-No	0	0	1
'How'	0	0	0

In this situation the number of questions is small. At Levels I and II the same number of yes-no type questions occurred; Level III used the larger number.

"Wh" type questions increased in number across the levels, Level III subjects using the largest number. Intonation type questions occurred only at Level I. In Situation #2 this type of question occurred only at Level I also.

Intonation yes-no and "how" type questions did not occur at Levels I and II. At Level III one "intonation yes-no" question type was used, but none of the "how" type. "How" questions occurred only in Situation #2. There were no questions in the written sample from the primer.

There appears to be the generating of "yes-no" and "wh" type questions generally in both situations at all levels, and the "in ation" type at Level I. In "yes-no" questions the addresser proffers information, and this may be one reason why Level I subjects used less of this type than did subjects at the other two levels. The prevalence of intonation type questions at Level I is supported by Menyuk (1971) who states that in the early acquisition of syntax the question forms are either of a declarative sentence plus an intonational marker, or of a 'WH' morpheme plus a sentence.

(iv) Mazes occurred in all three situations, the largest number at all levels occurred in Situation #1. Table XXIII shows the types of mazes which occurred in all three situations.

TABLE XXIII

TYPES OF MAZES:
SITUATIONS #1, #2, #3.

Situation #1

		TYPES OF MAZES			
Levels	Number of Mazes	Noises	Holders	Repeats	Edits
I	6	0	0	6	0
II	14	2	0	10	2
III	17	0	0	10	4

In Situation #1, repeat mazes were the most commonly used at all levels. At Levels II and III edit mazes occurred. These were used mainly to change ideas already expressed.

Situation #2

		TYPES OF MAZES			
Levels	Number of Mazes	Noises	Holders	Repeats	Edits
I	1	0	0	1	0
II	4	0	0	2	2
III	2	0	0	2	0

In Situation #2, repeat mazes were most commonly

used at all levels; the number used here was less than in Situation #1. Only at Level II were edit mazes used.

Situation #3

		TYPES OF MAZES			
Levels	Number of Mazes	Noises	Holders	Repeats	Edits
I	2	0	0	2	0
II	0	0	0	0	0
III	2	0	0	1	1

In Situation #3, repeat mazes were the ones used by subjects at Levels I and III. An edit maze occurred at Level II; there were no mazes used at Level II. In general, the relatively infrequent occurrence of noises for example "uh ... er" might well be indicative of the arrival at a level of more acceptable speech habits. On the other hand it is reasonable to assume that the occurrence of repeat mazes may be said to be as a result of the subjects' inability to organize their thoughts, and to structure their speech mentally.

(v) Partials occurred in all situations and at all three levels. The largest number occurred in Situation #3. In the following table the types of partials which occurred are presented for the three situations. They have been categorized according to the

functions they performed.

TABLE XXIV

TYPES OF PARTIALS:
SITUATIONS #1, #2, #3.

Situation #1

		TYPES OF PARTIALS			
Levels	No. of Partials	Labelling	Response to Questions	Questions	Expansion of previous Speaker
I	8	8	0	0	0
II	0	0	0	0	0
III	0	0	0	0	0

In this situation partials occurred at Level I only. They were used to label objects in the stimulus pictures.

Situation #2

		TYPES OF PARTIALS			
Levels	No. of Partials	Labelling	Response to Questions	Questions	Expansion of previous Speaker
I	5	4	0	1	0
II	3	1	0	2	0
III	0	0	0	0	0

In this situation partials occurred at Levels I

and II only. They functioned mainly as labels at both Levels, and one each functioned as questions.

Situation #3

		TYPES OF PARTIALS			
Levels	No.of Partials	Labelling	Response to Questions	Questions	Expansion of previous Speaker
I	32	0	27	3	2
II	16	0	13	3	0
III	29	0	19	9	1

In this situation, the number of partials increased and are well distributed according to their function at all levels. There were no labels; partials which functioned as response to questions were the ones most commonly exhibited at all levels. The largest number of these occurred at Level I and the smallest at Level II. Partials which functioned as questions were also used in this situation at all levels, the largest number being used by subjects at Level I and a similar number shared by subjects at Levels I and II. Partials which functioned as expansion of the previous speaker's utterance, were the least commonly exhibited and occurred at Levels I and III; the larger number of these was used by subjects at Level I. In normal everyday speech and conversations, partials are used and function in the manner described

above. It is important to note that the types of questions asked in this situation bear a relationship to the nature of the response e.g., a partial or a communication unit.

(vi). Adjectivals.

The types of adjectivals which occurred in Situations #1 and #3 are given in the following table.

TABLE XXV

TYPES OF ADJECTIVALS:
SITUATIONS #1, #2, #3

Levels	Types of Adjectivals	Situation # 1	Situation # 2	Situation # 3
I	Colour	1	0	2
	Size	3	0	1
	Number	2	0	1
	Quantity	1	0	0
	Quality	1	0	0
	Function	0	0	0
	Composition	0	0	0
II	Colour	19	0	3
	Size	2	0	0
	Number	1	0	0
	Quantity	2	0	2
	Quality	0	0	1
	Function	0	0	1

TABLE XXV (CONTINUED)

Levels	Types of Adjectivals	Situation # 1	Situation # 2	Situation # 3
II	Composition	0	0	1
III	Colour	3	0	1
	Size	2	0	1
	Number	1	0	5
	Quantity	1	0	2
	Quality	0	0	1
	Function	0	0	0
	Composition	0	0	0

Adjectivals did not occur at any of the levels in Situation #2. The unfamiliar stimulus object may be responsible for the total absence of adjectivals in Situation #2. At all three levels in Situations #1 and #3 adjectivals denoting colour, size, number and quantity were the ones most commonly used.

At Level II although there are nineteen instances in which colour was used, there were only seven different colours. The higher incidence of adjectivals in Situation #1 than in Situation #3 may be attributed to the use of painted pictures as the stimulus object. The higher incidence of colour at Levels II and III can also be attributed to this.

Adjectivals denoting colour and size may be said to be ones most frequently used by young children, the occurrence of a small number of others such as quality, function and composition at Levels II and III are indicative of skill in describing. Single word adjectivals were not the only ones used, there were phrases such as 'a lot of' used occasionally.

There were nine adjectivals in the written sample; they all denoted size. The word "big" was used eight times and "small" once.

(vii) Adverbials

Adverbials occurred in all three situations and at all levels. They were classified into three categories i.e. place, time and manner. Table XXVI shows the distribution of adverbials in the three situations.

TABLE XXVI

TYPES OF ADVERBIALS:
SITUATIONS #1, #2, #3.

Levels	Types of Adjectivals	Situation # 1	Situation # 2	Situation # 3
I	Place	3	5	0
	Time	1	2	2
	Manner	0	0	0
II	Place	4	0	3
	Time	1	0	2
	Manner	0	0	0
III	Place	7	3	15
	Time	3	0	0
	Manner	0	0	0

In Situation #1 at all three levels adverbials denoting place and time occurred. The ones more commonly used were those denoting place, and those increased with age. Those denoting time occurred only once at Levels I and II and three times at Level III.

In Situation #2 adverbials did not occur at Level II, and only three denoting place occurred at Level III. At Level I those denoting place and time occurred, the larger number being those denoting place.

In Situation #3, at Level I only adverbials denoting place occurred. At Level II adverbials denoting place and time occurred, and at Level III there was a very distinct rise in the number of adverbials denoting place. Most of the questions asked by the siblings were indicative of place.

Adverbials denoting manner were not used by any of the subjects in any of the three situations. In Situation #1 and #2 there is a definite increase over age in the number of adverbials which denote time; the number decreased in Situation #2. Those denoting time increased with age in Situation #1 and decreased in Situation #2 and #3.

There were very few single word adverbials; "yesterday, inside, tomorrow" are a few examples. A relatively large number of clauses and phrases were used;

for example, "on the line, all about."

In the written sample there were nine adverbials denoting place, none denoting time and two denoting manner.

(viii) Other Complex forms.

A number of complex forms were produced by subjects at all levels. These forms occurred mainly in Situations #1 and #3 because the subjects were expressing their ideas freely about things and experiences familiar to them.

The noun plus an infinitive phrase was used at all levels. E.g. "She have a lot of clothes to hang; She does give me a lot of fings to eat."

The following example illustrates the use of a noun plus a particle, followed by object of the preposition. "Once upon a time there was a boy sitting down by a step."

An example of an instance in which the object of the preposition occurred is shown here. "De boy is playing with de dog."

There were many instances in which the subjects produced compound predicates within the C-units, e.g. "I'll buy popcorn, icecream an' accra."

"She have a yellow an' blue clothes," is an example of a compound adjective.

The above are examples of the complex forms used. They were relatively rare. It is possible that in a larger sample many more of these syntactic units may have occurred. O'Donnell et al. found a significantly large number of these units in the speech of their subjects, and noted that they increased with every advance in age level.

(ix) Coordinating Conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions were used by subjects at all levels in Situation #1. The following is a distribution of the incidence of coordinating conjunctions.

TABLE XXVII

INCIDENCE OF COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

Levels	Coordinating Conjunctions	Situation #1. C-units = 27	Situation #2. C-units = 19	Situation #3. C-units = 5
I	And	8	0	0
	but	0	0	0
	so	0	0	0
	or	0	0	0
		C-units = 49	C-units = 25	C-units = 31
II	and	9	0	3
	but	1	0	0
	so	1	0	0
	or	1	0	0

TABLE XXVII (CONTINUED)

Levels	Coordinating Conjunctions	Situation #1. C-units = 27	Situation #2. C-units = 19	Situation #3. C-units = 5
		C-units = 31	C-units = 24	C-units = 30
III	and	13	4	4
	but	0	0	0
	so/	0	0	0
	or	0	0	0

In Situation #1 'and' was the coordinating conjunction most commonly used. The highest number occurred at Level III and the lowest at Level I. At Level II 'but' and 'so' were used only once, these did not occur at the other two levels.

In Situation #2, coordinating conjunctions did not occur in the speech of subjects at Levels I and II. However, the only one to occur at Level III was 'and.'

In Situation #3 there were no coordinating conjunctions used at Level I; the only one used at Levels II and III was 'and.'

Generally speaking it appears that the coordinating conjunction 'and' was the one most commonly used at all levels. The fact that in most of the instances in which it occurred it was used to join itemized listings about the illustrations in the stimulus pictures helps to explain why it occurred so often

in Situation #1. In the written sample there was only one instance in which a coordinating conjunction occurred; the one used was "and."

It is reasonable to suppose that since coordinating conjunctions are used to combine units of speech, that there would be instances in which they would occur. O'Donnell et al (1967) found that there was a significant increase in the rate at which coordinate conjunctions within T-units occurred in the speech of the subjects they studied. A portion of a table relative to this finding and this study is given below.

Incidence of Coordinating Conjunctions per 100 T-units. O'Donnell et al. (1967), p. 55)

Speech	Kindergarten	Grade I
And	50.53	55.51
But	1.54	1.65
So	1.73	2.19
Or	-	-
Total	53.80	59.36

From this extract it can be seen that the use of the conjunction 'and' was very common in that study. The researchers are of the opinion that these conjunctions occurred as a result of the linguistic

immaturity of the speakers. This is a point of view also shared by this investigator as a result of the interpretation of the findings in this study.

3. Restricted Forms

The utterances which are examined in this section are structures restricted to a children's grammar as described by Menyuk (1963). Only the structures used by the subjects are given in the table below. A full table of the forms is included in the appendix. In the following table are the restricted forms which occurred at Level I in the three situations.

TABLE XXVIII.

RESTRICTED FORMS SITUATIONS #1,#2,#3 -- LEVEL I

Restricted Forms	Situation #1 No.of C-units 27	Situation #2 No.of C-units 20	Situation #3 No.of C-units 5
Verb Phrase			
(a) Omission	3	1	1
(b) Redundancy	-	-	-
(c) Substitution	-	-	-
Inversion Restriction			
(a) Subject-Object	2	-	-
(b) Verb Number	-	-	-
Pronoun Restriction	1	-	-

At this level very few of the restricted forms occurred. It is possible that the volume of language elicited was not sufficiently wide to exhibit all wider variety of forms. Omission of the verb phrase from C-units was the form commonly exhibited across the situations; inversion restriction of the subject-verb and pronoun restriction occurred in Situation #1 only.

Examples: Verb Phrase

(a) Omission
Dat (that) de (the) girl an' de (the) boy.

Inversion Restriction

(a) subject-object
What dem are?

(b) Verb number
There have a lady.

Pronoun Restriction

De (the) girl have his ice cream

Noun Phrase

(a) Redundancy
She take it de clothes (the dress)

Double Negation

He don (did not) have nofing (nothing)

Verb Form

(a) Omission
De (the) lady dere (there)

Restricted forms which occurred at Level II are presented in the next table.

TABLE XXIX.

RESTRICTED FORMS SITUATIONS #1, #2, #3 -- LEVEL II

Restricted Forms	Situation #1 No.of C-units 49	Situation #2 No.of C-units 25	Situation #3 No.of C-units 31
Verb Phrase			
(a) Omission	1	-	-
(b) Redundancy	-	-	-
(c) Substitution	-	-	-
Noun Phrase			
(a) Omission	-	-	-
(b) Redundancy	1	-	-
Double Negation	1	-	-
Inversion Restriction			
(a) Subject-Object	-	-	-
(b) Verb Number	11	2	4
Pronoun Restriction	-	1	-
Verb Form			
(a) Omission	6	2	4
(b) Redundancy	-	-	-
(c) Substitution	-	-	-

The verb phrase (a) Omission form occurred only in Situation #1 at this level, and the number which occurred was only one compared to three at Level I in the same situation.

The noun phrase (b) redundancy form occurred here in Situation #1 only, it did not occur at Level I. Double negation also occurred here and not at Level I.

Inversion restriction (b) verb number form occurred at this level in all three situations. This form was the one more commonly exhibited at this level, the highest number occurred in Situation #1 and the lowest in Situation #3. (At Level I the inversion restriction (a) subject-object form occurred, only in Situation #1 and the number was relatively low).

As at Level I there was only one instance in which the pronoun restriction form occurred; this form occurred in Situation #1 at Level I, and Situation #2 at Level II.

Omission of the verb form was another form commonly exhibited at this level, it occurred in all three situations. The largest number occurred in Situation #1 and the smallest in Situation #2. This form did not occur at Level I.

Restricted forms as they occurred at Level III are presented in Table XXX.

Omission of the verb form occurred in Situation #1 at this Level also, and as at Level II the number of occurrence was the same. Other identical occurrences were redundancy of the noun phrase form, and double

negation in Situation #1

TABLE XXX

RESTRICTED FORMS: SITUATIONS #1,#2,#3 -- LEVEL III

Restricted Forms	Situation #1 No.of C-units 31	Situation #2 No.of C-units 24	Situation #3 No.of C-units 30
Verb Phrase			
(a) Omission	1	-	-
(b) Redundancy	-	-	-
(c) Substitution	-	-	-
Noun Phrase			
(a) Omission	-	-	-
(b) Redundancy	1	-	-
Double Negation	1		
Inversion Restriction			
(a) Subject-Object	-	-	-
(b) Verb Number	9	3	-
Tense Restriction	2	-	-
Verb Form			
(a) Omission	5	4	7
(b) Redundancy	-	-	-
(c) Substitution	-	-	-

Inversion restriction (b) verb number occurred in Situations #1 and #2 only at this level, the larger number of this form occurring in Situation #1 as did those at Level II. This is the only level at which the tense restriction form occurred, and it did in Situation #1.

At this level as at Level II omission of the verb form occurred in all three situations. Unlike Level II, the largest number occurred in Situation #3 and the smallest in Situation #1.

The absence of some of the forms in this sample does not indicate that they never occur in the speech of the subjects. It is important to note that these children are like children everywhere, and utilize forms restricted to children.

A number of patterns which were Creole influenced occurred in the oral sample. They are said to be Creole influenced because they are the literal translation of the acceptable Creole forms into English. Table XXXI is a presentation of those patterns.

These can be considered to be a very small number of patterns. They are the total number of Creole influenced forms which occurred out of a total of two hundred and forty two C-units.

A small number of Creole units were included in the sample. These occurred only in Situation #1 and at Level II. They functioned as mazes, and were used as holders. The same ones were used several times.

ma sav sa la	I don't know that one.
bɔ die	Oh God or My God
ma sav enkɔ en	I don't know again

TABLE XXXI

CREOLE INFLUENCED FORMS

Creole Forms	Non-Standard English Forms	Standard English Equivalent Forms
la pa te ni népot	There din had none.	There was none or there wasn't any.
ĉivè te a ʃɔn	His hair was in brong.	He had brown hair
i pa te ni pies mãẑè pu ẞiẽa	She don have no food for de dog.	She had no food for the dog.
i sɔti kastwi	It come from to Castries.	It came from Castries.
ikabɔ̃ mwẽ	She does give me.	She usually gives me.
mama mwẽ aste ɔbad bɔ mwẽ	My mudder bought a clothes for me.	My mother bought me a dress.
i te ni ɔ fijie blɔ̃	He was have a white face.	He had a white face.
se mamay-la te pèi	De chirren was fraid of him.	The children were afraid of him.
la te ni ɔ fam	Dere have a lady	There was a ldy.
mamati fi-a alè	De girl mudder go.	The girl's mother went.
i pa te ni ayẽ pu mãẑè	He din had nofing to eat.	He had nothing to eat.
u ka sevyé pu pyé-u pa sa fwèt	You use it for your foot cannot be cole?	Do you use it to keep your foot warm?
ʃab-la mãẑé se mamay-la	De devil eat de chirren	The devil ate the children.

4. Quality

(i) Story form: The stories told in Situation #1 were classified into four categories. In the following table classification of the stories produced at the three

levels is given.

TABLE XXXII

STORY EVALUATION

	Level I N = 8		Level II N = 10		Level III N = 7	
	No. of sub-jects	percent of sub-jects	No. of sub-jects	percent of sub-jects	No. of sub-jects	percent of sub-jects
Identi-fying	2	25	1	10	1	14.3
Descri-bing separate elements	2	25	2	20	1	14.3
Relating some parts	2	25	4	40	2	28.6
Selecting Relation-ships to form story	2	25	3	30	3	42.8

The ability to identify objects in a picture is the simplest form of story making considered in this study. A comparison of the three levels reveals that the youngest subjects made the largest percentage of responses in this category. It is reasonable to assume that the subjects at Level I used the simplest form because they are younger, and have not acquired skill in story making.

To describe separate elements in a picture, although relatively simple, is a little more complex than simply identifying objects. This story form was used by subjects at all three levels. There is a definite decrease in the number of subjects using this form as age increased.

It seems logical that being able to relate some parts of a picture in story making is a task involving much skill in formulating ideas and linking them sequentially. This being the case, the fact that the subjects at Levels II and III made up a larger percentage of stories which fell into this category than did those at Level I helps to explain the increase in this type of story making over the first two at Levels II and III.

In order to be able to select relationships from a picture to make a story, one must have some skill in organizing ideas and situations and relating these sequentially. This also entails a measure of linguistic competence on the part of the story-maker. Since linguistic competence and maturity is closely related to age, it is reasonable to conclude that subjects at Levels II and III would produce more stories which fell into this category than would subjects at Level I because they are younger. This point is supported by the evi-

dence in the above table.

The findings indicate that subjects at all levels use the various forms of story making, and that the more difficult forms are used by more of the older subjects.

(ii) Questions -- utility

The questions which were formed in Situation #2 were further analyzed. The relevance of the questions to the task was the factor used in deciding how useful the questions were in obtaining information about the stimulus object. Subjects at all three levels asked questions about the skates. The number of questions relevant to the stimulus object and those not related is given in Table XXXIIII.

TABLE XXXIII

NUMBER OF RELEVANT QUESTIONS: SITUATION #2

	Level I N=6	Level II N=9	Level III N=6
	No.of Questions 18	No.of Questions 21	No.of Questions 15
Relevant Questions	83.3%	90.5%	93.3%
Irrelevant Questions	16.7%	9.5%	6.7%

The number of relevant questions asked at the three levels increased with age, and the number of irrelevant ones decreased. The large number of relevant questions asked at all three levels indicates that the subjects understood the purpose of the task. It is possible, too, that the unfamiliar stimulus object was very effective in eliciting relevant questions.

In addition to examining the utility of the questions formed, it was decided to examine an interesting feature which occurred besides questioning. Subjects at all three levels proffered information about the stimulus object, and a small number used this stated information by changing the statement into questions. Table XXXIV illustrates the number of questions resulting from information stated by the subjects at all three levels. The questions formed as a result of stated information are included in Table XXXIV.

TABLE XXXIV

NUMBER OF QUESTIONS --INFORMATION STATED

Levels	Instances of Stated Information	Resulting Questions
I N=6	6	2
II N=9	9	2
III N=6	8	3

In the above table it can be seen that there is very little difference at the three levels in the number of instances in which information was proffered. The number of questions formed as a result of the proffered information are the same at Levels I and II, and slightly higher at Level III. It is reasonable to conclude that subjects at the three levels were able to form questions from statements they made.

The following is an example: 'Dat's boots' is a statement made by one of the subjects, then he said, 'What it is?' This was not always the case. It is obvious from the above table that most of the information stated was not rephrased into questions. It can be said that the task was very demanding, besides having to formulate questions, this had to be done about an unfamiliar stimulus object.

5. Content

The topics of conversation in Situation #3 were examined and classified. In all instances, at all three levels, the conversations were initiated by the siblings. It is interesting to note that the form of conversation was the question and answer form, with the sibling asking the questions in most instances. Only a few subjects asked questions during the discourses.

The conversations centered around topics such as Christmas, New Year activities, gifts, toys, playtime which included ideas about games and playmates. In one instance a pair talked about the subject's visit to a neighbouring island, and another pair about the subject's experiences when he participated in the tasks set out in Situations #1 and #2.

It is evident that the subjects talked about current activities and experiences. This is a very natural phenomenon. In addition to this the discourses were highly personal in content and reflected to some extent individuality in vocabulary and sentence structure. By talking freely about themselves and their interests, they can be guided to talk about and be introduced to topics of interest to others represented orally and in writing.

The content of the primer is not altogether foreign to the subjects, because the bat and ball game and skipping are activities in which they engage quite often. However, the characters represented and the way in which the pet is treated are aspects with which some children could not possibly identify. They treat their pets very differently.

Nevertheless, these children can be helped to care for pets in the same way if the activities in the primer are made meaningful.

The ideas and settings in the primer although not totally foreign, are unrelated to the experiences of the children. (See Appendix B: Settings of Ideas in the Primer and Comments; and sample page from Primer). The formality of the language used and the behaviour of the characters in the text are very unfamiliar to the subjects studied. These would have some bearing on the amount of meaning the children bring to and take from the reading task involving the text.

In addition to the comparison of the content of the oral and written samples, it is important to point out the similarities and differences in the language structure of the two samples.

Quantity: In the total of fifty T-units in the written sample there were no partials or mazes. The children, on the other hand, used mazes and partials frequently, especially in conversational situations.

Complexity: There seemed to be very little difference between the average length of C-units in the oral sample and T-units in the reader. For example in Situation #1, at Level I the average length of C-units was 6.8, at Level II 6.5 and at Level III 7.2. The average length of

T-units in the primer was 6.2 on page two, 5.0 on page six and 6.0 on page twenty one.

Unlike the oral sample, there were many of the simplest structural patterns in the written sample. However, the frequency of occurrence of the simplest patterns, and the occasional introduction of a few complex ones are about the same in both the oral and written sample.

There were no questions in the written sample. There were nine adjectivals in the written sample, all denoting size; it is interesting to note that "big" was used eight times and "small" once. There was a variety of adjectivals in the oral sample those denoting colour were most popular, size and number were also used. There were nine adverbials in the written sample denoting place and two denoting manner. Like the written sample adverbials denoting place occurred very frequently in the oral sample. However, those denoting time occurred in the oral sample, but not in the written, and those denoting manner occurred in the written sample but not in the oral sample.

Coordinating conjunctions occurred in the oral sample. The one most commonly used was "and." This was the only one which occurred in the written sample, and it was used only once. "But", "so", and "or" occurred only once in the oral sample. There were no restricted forms in the written sample; however, a few complex forms [illegible]

e.g. You bad dog, Nip. Dora has her doll Jane. It is felt that these are relatively complex forms for beginning readers.

SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to determine whether differences exist in the oral language of St. Lucian preschool children when certain aspects of their recorded speech are analyzed and compared with the written language of a primer.

The recorded language samples were analyzed and the results presented; the quantity of language produced, the percentage of the various types of grammatical constructions used and the average length of the structural units. Mazes, partials, question forms, adjectivals, adverbials, and other complex forms were analyzed in the same manner i.e. the number used at all levels. They were also categorized according to their types.

In addition, forms restricted to use by children, Creole influenced forms and the quality and content of the language produced was also examined. The written sample was examined in the same manner.

It is recognized by authorities that certain elements of oral expression require some degree of

maturity and experience for an increased use. The findings in this study indicate that this is true, because:

1. the quantity of language produced increased with age.
2. The length of C-units also increased with age.
3. The number of mazes and partials used decreased as age increased.
4. The quantity of language produced across situations varied and was related to the setting and the stimulus object used.
5. There was variety in the grammatical constructions used by the children, and the frequency in the use of the structures increased with age.
6. The use of certain coordinating conjuntions decreased with age and others increased.

Generally, the findings indicate that these children expressed themselves typically in short independent predications joined by conjunctions. In this study it was found that the children have a relatively rich oral language background, and exhibit a relatively high degree of competence.

In comparing the oral and written samples, a very significant aspect of this comparison is the fact that the differences are negligible. In the primer there were many of the subject-verb type.

In conclusion the findings appear to corroborate those of Strickland (1962), Loban (1963) and O'Donnell et al. (1967).

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study proposed to examine the nature of the language of St. Lucian preschool children, and to compare their language with the language forms in a typical beginning reader. In addition, it proposed to draw up implications for initial language arts experiences from the comparison.

The study was designed to answer four major questions. The findings related to the questions are summarized and discussed in this chapter. Important findings give rise to a number of important implications for teachers of reading. Suggestions for further research conclude this chapter.

In addition to the limitations given in Chapter 1, the following should be considered in the interpretation of the findings.

1. The intelligence of the subjects was not measured.
2. The nature of the siblings' language was not examined.
3. The co-existence of the two language systems i.e. Creole and Standard English was not examined.

The questions to be answered were:

1. What is the nature of the oral language of St. Lucian pre-schoolers?

2. What is the nature of the language of a popular and typical beginning reading text?

3. Does the oral language of these preschoolers differ from the language of the text?

4. If there are differences, where do they lie? i.e. which language features are different?

CONCLUSIONS

> The development of the child's language ability is indicated by the size and richness of his vocabulary, the length and structure of his sentences, the correctness of his speech, and his general effectiveness in expressing his ideas. (Strang, 1951, p. 275).

There is enough reason to believe that differences in environmental stimulation in early childhood and all through the formative years to adolescence, account for some of the measured differences in verbal ability between children.

The evidence in this study suggests that:

1. The language of the St. Lucian preschool children studied is well ordered.

2. The children are not linguistically deficient or different from children studied by other researchers.

3. The children's language very nearly approximates that of the primer.

The following are the findings which support the above conclusions drawn from the evidence provided in this investigation.

The most language was produced when telling stories

to their peers. Some of the children at all three age levels are not talkative. The adult-child situation, the one usually applied in the school setting did not elicit any language. In this case silence may have been used as a defence mechanism.

The structures and patterns used are not unlike those of other children studied. These findings corroborate those of O'Donnell et al. (1967) and Loban (1963) who found that the children they studied used many of the simpler structures and a small number of the complex ones. Many well-formed structures were used and within those there were many complex forms. The children produced acceptable forms and patterns. The children over five have acquired some degree of linguistic maturity which makes them relatively competent and consequently ready for pre-reading activities. The lack of research information on children's ability to ask questions precludes the reference to other studies. The unfamiliar stimulus object about which they were to ask questions may have contributed to little variety in questions. Many adverbials and adjectivals were used.

Some child-like forms often labelled "poor language" were used. These are forms unique to children who, in making generalizations, utilize rules where they do not apply. These forms were also found by other researchers in the language of children in this age group.

Second language influence seemed low, interference was apparent only in a few children who used creole forms.

The children's language is rich in content. They were able to verbalize and manipulate words to express ideas about their experiences and interests. The language of the primer is not too difficult and should not result in a lack of understanding. The major difference is the presence of many of the simplest structural patterns in the primer.

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Lefevre (1964) is of the opinion that reading readiness is constituted of language competence plus an understanding that the language one hears and speaks can be graphically represented.

A child's life is filled with activities and experiences that demand expression and these are basic to the improvement in oral language. The language the child brings to school should be accepted, and he should be helped to acquire vocabulary and facility to express himself without stifling spontaneity and initiative.

The findings in this study have many implications for the teaching of beginning reading. Although a major part of language growth occurs before school entrance, a significant portion remains for later development.

There is research to support the assertion that the development of syntactic and vocabulary aspects of language continue beyond the sixth year. The incompleteness of the language development of the school entrant and the observed interaction between reading comprehension and oral language usage and competence provides support for the promotion of oral language development.

1. Therefore, the language programme should embody a careful diagnosis and appraisal of the various language abilities, interests and limitations whic have been found to be related to succ ss in learning to read. There is justification for a comprehensive pre-reading and reading readiness programme. This rests upon the firm foundation of the present research that the children studied are verbally responsive and linguistically competent.

2. It would appear that in other settings these children have a great deal of untapped verbal ability of a highly imaginative nature. This remains latent primarily because the institutional arrangements of the school make passive recipients of the children since their language is not utilized in language and reading connected activities.

3. In order to attain better achievement in reading, one should insure development of particular

interests, information and skills which comprise reading readiness.

4. One characteristic of the effect of the child's oral language on his future literacy, is to serve as a guide on what to expect the printed page to say. Therefore, a personalized reading programme in which the child reads his own ideas is the basis for a quest for literacy. If the written material reflects familiar oral language, then learning to read will be facilitated. The implication here is that the child should see a graphical representation of what he has said in the standard form. Through such representation he is able to bring meaning and understanding to the printed form. Added to this should be encouragement to anticipate, predict, react and evaluate the recorded language.

5. By utilizing the children's experiences, building on them with the children's help, and representing them graphically on the blackboard, well charts and booklets, the transition to the printed page can be made easier and more interesting.

6. By providing first-hand experiences and encouraging children to tell stories about incidents and situations similar to those in the beginning readers, the teacher will be able to introduce her pupils to many words that they will meet in printed form later. This

should help to prevent failure and disillusionment on the part of the children.

7. Reading is a language related process. In the teaching of beginning reading, the children should be helped to relate and transfer auditory signals already heard to new visual signals. They should be helped to see that visual symbols on the blackboard and on paper are related to spoken language; then they must be helped to develop a habitual and increasingly more fluent response to the graphical marks which represent language.

The majority of young teachers do not have any background in the psychology of reading or the nature and development of language. Needless to say, some of the more recent methods have not been widely utilized and established.

A mismatch between the oral and written language was not evident in this study. It is therefore logical to conclude that the apparent failure in reading observed results from other related factors.

It is felt that the most important focus in the child's early education is oral language. Therefore:

1. Teachers should study the language of the children and the nature of language in general. They should also study language from a linguistic point of view.

2. Care should be taken in teacher preparation, and there should be a reassessment of the training programme for teachers of language and reading. It is the contention of this study that a misconception of the child's oral language competence and the teacher's lack of understanding of its relative appropriateness to literacy acquisition is probably responsible for the dilema of the school entrant.

3. There should be an extensive revision in the field of language arts and reading methods and techniques. The teacher should engage in course work which includes: the nature of language in general; the nature of Creolized English and Creole from a contrastive point of view; field work in child language i.e. gather data for analysis; the various methods of teaching English; and the relationship of oral language to reading.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

As a result of the evidence shown in this investigation, a number of questions were raised. Because of this, it is felt that more research is needed.

There is need for:

1. The results of this investigation to be verified with a larger random sample of subjects at the same level and through the Infant school in St. Lucia.

2. A longitudinal study of the language behaviour of the subjects in this investigation to observe linguistic growth and reading abilfty.

3. A contrastive analysis of the target language and the native language.

4. A survey of the techniques and methods used in teaching the language arts with emphasis on oral language and reading.

5. A comparison of the structure of the language of primary school children and that of the texts to determine the correlation that exists.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PROCEDURES

The following situations were developed to create an informal atmosphere and means to elicit oral language from the children.

Precise directions were given and the subjects were all given equal opportunity to speak. No time limit was set, they were free to say as much or as little as they pleased.

Situation #1. Five subjects were selected for each of the small groups. Five pictures, each depicting a Nursery Rhyme, an everyday activity, New Year's activity, familiar animals and a familiar masquerader was presented to the group.

Instructions: Here are some pictures. Choose one you like, and make up a story about it. Now tell us your story.

Situation #2. A pair of ice skates were placed in a bag. This was presented to individual children.

Instructions: I've got a surprise for you in this bag. Open the bag, look inside, take out whatever you see in the bag, and ask me questions about it. You may touch and do anything with it. What would you like to know?

Situation #3. Subjects were paired with an older sibling and left to converse with each other.

Instructions: I am leaving you to talk to each other about anything you like. When you are finished talking you may turn the switch off and call me.

Situation #4. A portrait of each subject will be taken with a polaroid camera and given to him.

Instructions: I would like you to tell me all about the person in this picture. You may tell me who is in the picture, what the person is doing and anything else that you would like.

Situation #5. The investigator will speak with each subject about Christmas. The following are the questions to be asked.

1. How did you feel when the Christmas tree on the square was lit up?
2. What did you do when Santa Clause arrived?
3. Did you get a present from Santa?
4. Did you like it?
5. What did you say to Santa?
6. Do you like Christmas? Why?

KEY TO THE SYNTACTIC ANALYSIS

[ ] C-units

( ) Mazes

_____ Partials

/ / Restricted forms

Sample of Analysis Sheet

Subject #17 Age: 5 years 1 month

Situation #1

[One day dere was a devil] (an' de devil) (ma have encore en) (an' de devil) (ma save encore en) [de devil hold a fork] [an' de devil hole his tail] [an' de devil has two horns] (horns) [an' de devil has a big large nose]

Number of C-units = 5
Number of words in C-units = 31
Average Number of C-units = 6.2

Number of mazes = 4
Number of words in mazes = 14
Average Number of mazes = 3.5

Types of Mazes	Type of Story
Edit = 4	Relating some parts

Situation #2

[What dis is?]

[What do you do (d do) wif dem?]

Number of C-units = 2
Number of words in C-units = 9
Average Number of C-units = 4.5

Number of Questions = 2
Number of Words in questions = 9
Average Number of words = 4.5
Types of Questions "wh" Number = 2

Number of Mazes = 1
Number of Words = 1 Type of Maze 'repeat'

Situation #3

Sibling	Subject
Age 8 years	Age 5 years 1 month
/How I spen' my Christmas/5	/I went to stroll/ 4
/I spen' my money on ice cream/6	/I spen' my money on ching gumps/7
/I spen' my money on cakes/6	/I spen' my money on Ju-C/6
(I spen' my money at) /I spen' my money on peanuts/6	/I went to Tirocher/4
/I spen' my money on Ju-C/6	(I wen) /I went to Tirocher yesterday/5
/I went to Castries on first Christmas/7	
/I was playing game on Blue Bird/7	/I was playing game on (on) Cinderella/6
/I was dancing all arrong de chilren/7	/I was dancing all about/5
/I went wif my mudder an' fadder/7	/Wif who do you went Castries?/6
/What you do in Tirocher?/5	/I play/2
/I dance an play arrong de chilren/7	/What you do in Castrie?/5
Total Number of Words = 62	Total Number of words = 57
Number of C-units = 10	Number of C-units = 11
Number of words in C-units = 57	Number of words in C-units = 54
Average Number of C-units = 5.7	Average Number of C-units = 4.9
Average length of C-units = 5.7	Average length of C-units = 4.9
Number of Mazes = 1	Number of Mazes = 2
Number of words = 5	Number of words = 3
Type of Maze Edit	Type of Mazes = 1 Repeat 1 Edit
	Number of Questions = 2
	Number of words in questions = 11

Average Number of
words = 5.5

Types of Questions "wh"

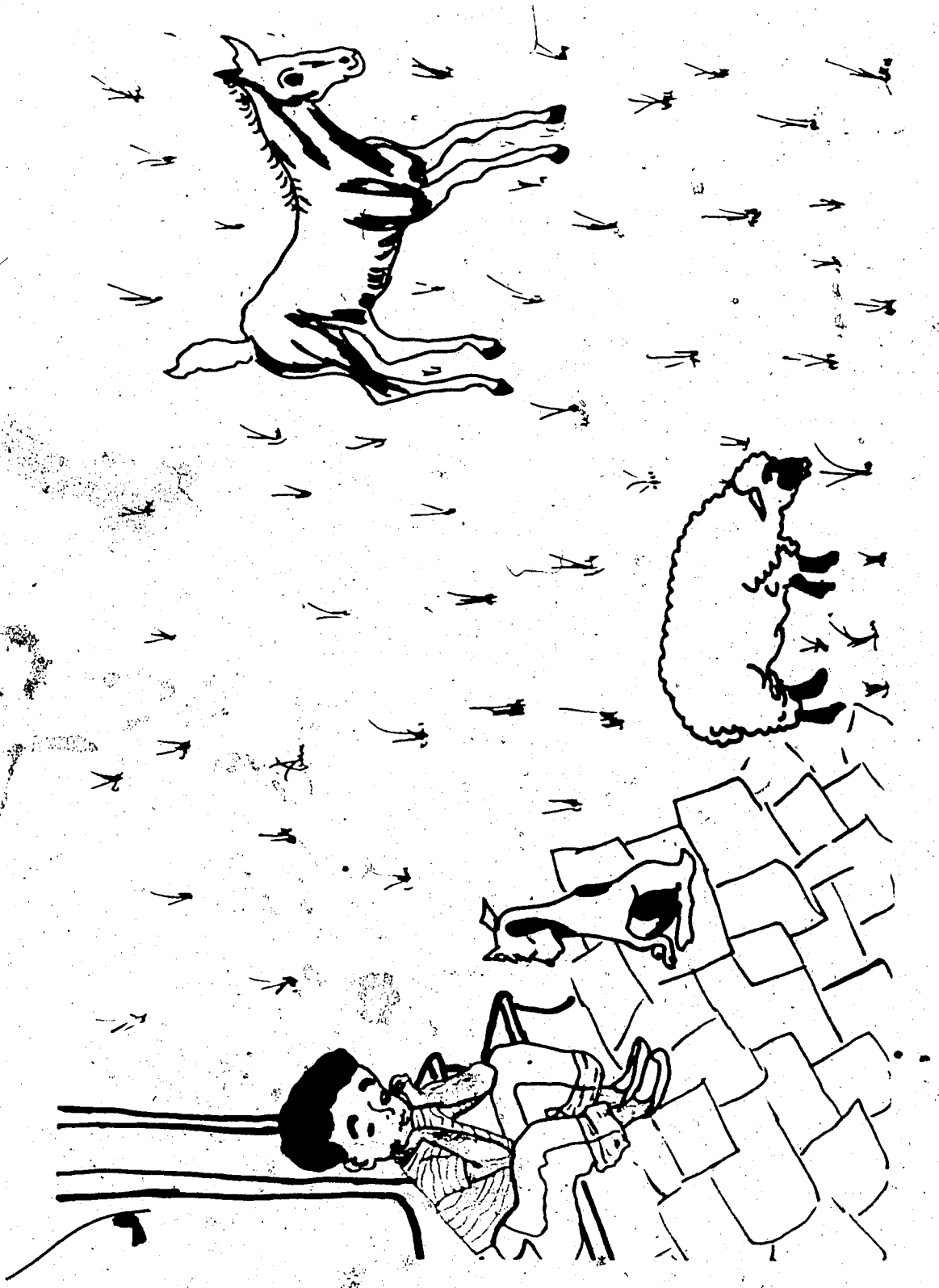
Number = 2

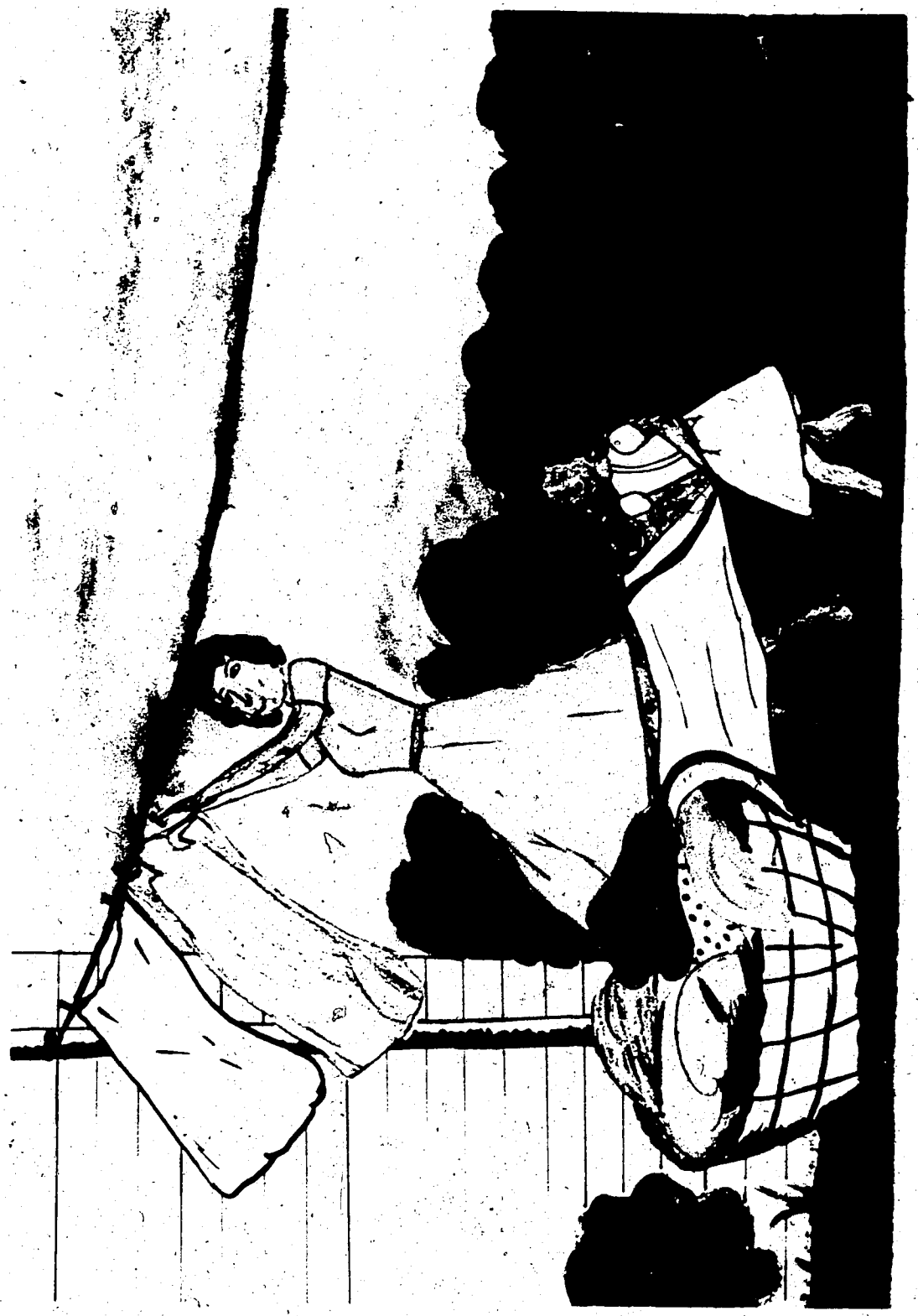
List of Pictures

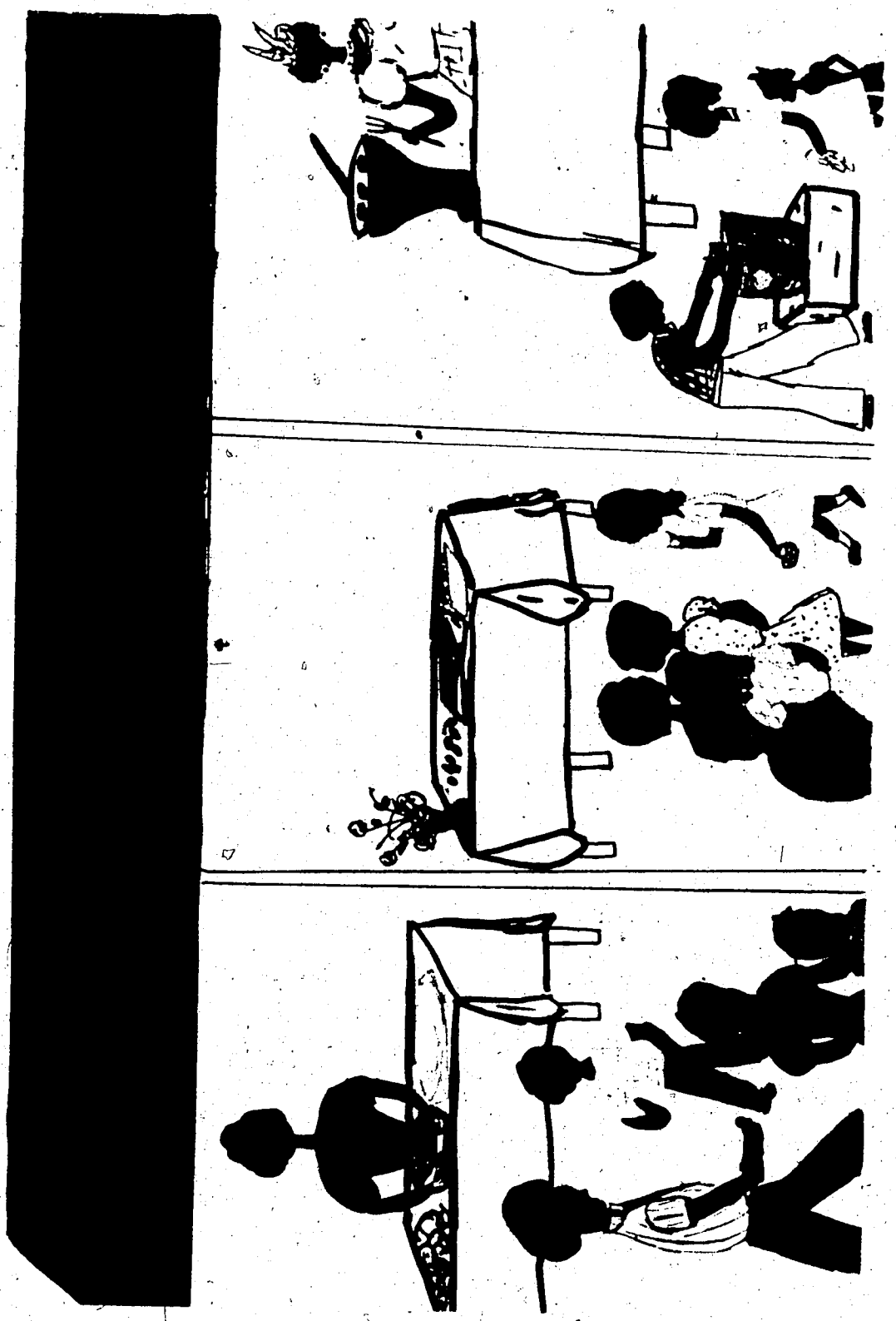
The pictures used in this study for story making were prepared by the investigator. They were relatively unbiased culturally and based on the common experiences of the subjects.

They were designed to provide visual experiences relatively rich in content and colourful in order to stimulate a natural flow of language.

Picture 1	-	Familiar animals
Picture 2	-	A Nursery Rhyme: Old Mother Hubbard
Picture 3	-	An everyday experience: Mother hanging out the laundry
Picture 4	-	A familiar Masquerader: Papa Jab -- The devil also called Toes
Picture 5	-	A New Year activity -- A visit to the Square -- at a Fair.







APPENDIX B

Communication Units

The following examples illustrate quickly the method of tallying communication units of language. A slant line (/) marks the completion of each communication unit. (The # marks the completion of a phonological unit.)

Examples of Communication Units.

Transcription of Subject's Actual Language	Communication Units	No. of words in each Communication Unit
I'm going to get a boy	3	11
'cause he hit me. // I'm going		13
to beat him up an' kick him		9
in his nose#/ and I'm going		
to get the girl, too. #/		

(Loban 1963, p. 7)

MAZES -- FUNCTIONS

Mazes were subdivided into four groups identified as (1) Noises, (2) Holders, (3) Repeats and (4) Edits.

Noises were unintelligible sounds such as "ah" "er", and the like.

Holders, such as "well," "you see," and "now uh," were used to hold attention.

Repeats were repetition of words such as "you--you," "I think--I think."

Edits were words used by the speaker which indicated a correction or change of direction in what he was saying.

(Strickland 1963, p. 24).

PARTIALS -- FUNCTIONS

A partial is a single word or group of words which do not fit categories such as C-units, T-units, and mazes. e.g. "Four." "A car and a book."

Partials were classified according to their functions in the samples.

Functions	Examples
1. Labelling	A boy, "a boy an' a girl."
2. Response to Questions	Q. What did you get for Christmas? A. Toys Q. What kind of pants it was? A. Blue pants.
3. Questions	"Why? For what? An' dat?
4. Expansion of previous speaker.	Wif you an' Sheila.

QUESTION FORMS

Questions are asked in four common forms: yes-no questions (can the boy drive a car?), Wh-questions (Where is he going?), tag questions (Mary's coming, isn't she?), and

indirect questions (She asked me if the boy can drive a car).

(Cazden 1972, p. 49).

STRUCTURAL PATTERNS

O'Donnell, Griffin and Norris (1967) classified C-units and T-units according to the sequential patterns of the main clause. The following are the descriptive labels and examples.

Subject-Verb: The bird flew away.
Subject-Verb-Object: The ant found another ball.
Subject-Verb-Predicate Nominal: They were friends.
Subject-Verb-Predicate Adjectival: Everything was calm.
Subject-Verb-Indirect Object-Object: The dove threw him a leaf.
Subject-Verb-Object-Object Compliment: I'd call it a flute.
Subject-Verb-Object-Adjectival: That made him happy.
Adverbial-Verb-Subject: Here came a hunter.
Expletive-verb-subject

(a) There-Verb-Subject: There was a bird in the tree.

(b) It-Verb-predicate adjectival-subject: It is better to be gentle. (p. 74).

COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

Coordinating conjunctions which appeared in the speech and writing of subjects studied by O'Donnell et al. (1967)

And
But
So
Or

(p. 55)

Coordinating Conjunctions

RESTRICTED FORMS

1. Exclusion from Grammar

   a. Article 'the'
   b. Adverbial Phrase of Time

2. Verb Phrase

   a. Omission - This green.
   b. Redundancy - I'll think I'll get a regular dog.
   c. Substitution - She's getting a bath.

3. Noun Phrase

   a. Omission - Can you do?
   b. Redundancy - My brother he's eleven.

4. Preposition

   a. Omission - Will you read us about the little baby?
   b. Redundancy - Mark is calling for me for a turn.
   c. Substitution - Will you share them for me?

5. Article

   a. Omission - Mine is big book.
   b. Redundancy - I pick the this one.
   c. Substitution - I want a soap.

6. Particle

   a. Omission - I'll put the shaving cream.
   b. Redundancy - He puts out the fire out.

7. Double Negation -- I don't have no spoon.

8. Contraction Deletion - I all finished.
   I never seen a dress like that.

9. Inversion Restriction

   a. Subject-Object - Baby triangles these are
   b. Verb Number - There's hearts

10. No Question - Where could be the shopping place?

11. There Substitution - Once upon a time it was a big bear.

12. Reflexive 3rd Person - They scratch theirselves.

13. Tense Restriction - They mixed colors and pour buckets

14. Pronoun Restriction - I don't know why she's mad but he's just mad.

15. Adjective Restriction - I spilled these coffee.

16. Relative Clause Restriction - There's a string what pulls.
She's dreaming about where is she.

17. Verb Form

a. Omission - the fireman say no
b. Redundancy - They kissted each other
c. Substitution - It blowed out.

18. Noun Form

a. Omission - He's next to a few stone.
b. Redundancy - There's furnitures.
c. Substitution - These are wolfs.

19. Possessive - This is my.
Mines is all ready.
Is it you ball?

20. Pronoun 1st Person - Me have this one.

(Menyuk 1963, p. 538).

SETTINGS OF IDEAS IN THE PRIMER AND COMMENTS

Page 2	Dick brings Fluff's big basket, sets it down by a tree, and Fluff runs and sits in it. *Comments: The children do see animals and own some. They know what a cat is, may own one, but seldom ever treat them kindly. The idea of a basket for their pet in most instances would be unheard of. The clothes worn by Dick are not in keeping with theirs.*
Page 6	Dora plays with her pets, a dog called Nip and a kitten. They all run and play. Nip does not stop running and is thought to be bad, therefore Dora does not take Nip with her. *Comments: The girls can hardly identify with Dora who is white and is not dressed like a local. They would run and play with the pets though.*
Page 6	Dick and Dora are playing. They hop toward each other. *Comments; The activity is quite common, and is the type that the subjects would participate in, but the way Dick and Dora are dressed and their physical features differ from the subjects'.*
Page 16	Jack and Dick are off to play bat and ball. They both run to the big tree, Dick carries his big bat and Jack the ball. Jack says he'll throw his ball and Dick says he'll hit it. *Comments: The activity is a common place one for our boys. The difference lies in the manner of dress and physical features.*
Page 21	Dora and May are playing out by the tree. Dora plays with her big doll while May skips. Dora puts her doll in Fluff's basket. *Comments: Skipping and playing with a doll are relatively common activities with the*

Page 21 (cont'd)	*subjects. Again, here the difference lies in the girls' manner of dress and physical appearance*
Page 26	Mummy plays with Dick and Dora, they run so quickly, that they tire mummy who has to sit and rest. Dick and Dora continue to run while mummy rests on a seta. Fluff sees her and jumps on the seat next to her. *Comments: Mummy is seldom if ever able to play with her kids. Only in the parks would seats be available under the trees. Physical appearance and dress differ.*
Page 31	Dick and Dora are out shopping. Dick gets a big bat and Dora a big ball. They decide to go to Mummy with their toys, when Nip asked to get him a small ball. *Comments: The idea of having money and going to shop on their own, is not one of these subjects' experiences. Some may be sent on errands to neighbourhood shops, but usually to buy what mother needs. Physical appearance and dress differ.*

THE PRIMER

Dora has her doll Jane.

"Jane is my doll. She is a big doll," said Dora.

Dora sits by the tree to play with her doll.

May will skip.

Dora will bring Fluff's basket.

She will sit the big doll in it.

LONGEST SENTENCES

These are examples of the longest sentences in (a) the oral sample; (b) the written sample.

(a) The oral sample

Once upon a time there was a boy sitting down by a step. (13 words)

The lady is hanging clothes on the line in her yard (11 words)

One day dere (there) was a lady wif a dog going in de safe (cupboard) and take bone for de (the) dog. (19 words).

De (the) devil have a long long tail two horn' an' a white face. (13 words)

You would like to play Beat an' Run wif (with) all de (the) chirren (children)? (12 words).

(b) The written sample

Fluff runs to the basket and sits in it. (9 words)

"I am to play bat and ball with Dick," said Jack (11 words)

Dick and Jack run to the big tree to play. (10 words)

Dora sits by the tree to play with her doll. (10 words)

Fluff jumps on the seat to sit with Mummy. (9 words)

"We will go with the toys to Mummy," said Dick. (10 words).