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ABSTRACT This collection of abstracts is part of a continuing series providing information on recent doctoral dissertations. The 32 titles deal with a variety of topics, including the following: (1) the development of young children's metalinguistic understanding of "letter," "word," and "sentence"; (2) modifications in speech to elderly conversationals; (3) temporal characteristics of speech among preschool children and the elderly; (4) person perception as expressed by young children; (5) an interdisciplinary basis for the investigation of language; (6) language acquisition; (7) the genetic basis of language; (8) syntactic reflection of semantic categorization in the English verbal system; (9) the effect of audience on the expressive language of working class children; (10) the social and situational conditioning of phonetic variation; (11) main-verb ellipsis in spoken English; (12) early thought and language; (13) children's referential communication skills; (14) the nonverbal and verbal communicative skills of language-impaired and normal speaking children; (15) the frequency and usage of the English passive; (16) discourse connectives in English; (17) kindergarten children's concepts about print; (18) J. Piaget's conservation and children's oral language production; and (19) side sequences and coherence in children's discourse. (FL)

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Language Use, Language Ability, and Language Development:

Abstracts of Doctoral Dissertations Published in Dissertation Abstracts International, January through June 1980 (Vol. 40 Nos. 7 through 12)

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LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT AND INITIAL ENCOUNTERS WITH WRITTEN LANGUAGE: A CASE STUDY IN PRESCHOOL READING AND WRITING

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF YOUNG CHILDREN'S METALINGUISTIC UNDERSTANDING OF "THE", "IT", "HIS", "HER", "WORD", AND "SENTENCE." Order No. 8007536

The purpose of this study was to examine the development of children's metalinguistic understanding of the basic unit in reading: the word. Metalinguistic understanding was defined in terms of two components of cognitive clarity: (1) the understanding of linguistic segments and (2) the comprehension of reading terminology.

The children's understanding of the word as a linguistic segment was measured by their ability to segment aural sentences and visual sentences into words. The repeated measures segmentation task consisted of eleven test sentences which varied in sentence type and length. The sentences were composed of familiar words which varied in the number of syllables and in their visual configurations.

The children's understanding of reading terminology was measured by their proficiency on an explanation task and a recognition task involving the terms letter, word, and sentence.

Fifteen children in each grade level (pre-school, kindergarten, first grade) were randomly selected from the schools in a small rural suburban town in central Wisconsin. The total sample of 45 children were reclassified according to the reading abilities of non-readiness, readiness, or leader.

When the children's increasing proficiency on the segmentation tasks was tested by ANOVA, significant differences at the 0.01 level occurred among each grade level and among each level's proficiency. The differences between performances within the aural context and the visual context were not significant. An interaction effect between reading ability and context was significant at the 0.05 level. Using Scheffe's method, the non-readiness children's performances were found to be significantly different (at the 0.05 level) from the reader's performances with the two contexts. An analysis of the segmentation errors indicated (1) length and configuration cues may have been used on the visual task, and (2) children altered their intonation when performances with the terms letter, word, and sentence were tested, since a majority of the children performed correctly.

Although proportionately fewer children correctly completed the explanation task, the results paralleled the recognition task results. It was concluded that developmental trends in children's metalinguistic awareness of the word can be described.

A multivariate analysis of variance showed that, at the 0.05 level of significance, the staff members of the rest home modified their speech to both types of elderly residents as predicted for five of the seven characteristics: MLU, complexity, repetition, interrogatives, and imperatives. Staff members of the rest home did use a slower rate of speaking not significantly more occurrences of pronominal substitution to the elderly groups. Volunteers also modified their speech to the elderly groups for only two of the characteristics: repetition and interrogatives.

Further analyses of differences between speech to the two elderly groups showed that staff members used significantly more interrogatives to the nonalerted residents than to the alert residents, while volunteers did not significantly differ between the alert and nonalerted groups. However, when the absolute rate of occurrences in the staff members' and volunteers' speech was considered, it indicated a stronger effect for the nonalerted residents than for the alert residents for five of the seven characteristics: MLU, complexity, repetition, pronominal substitution, and interrogatives. In addition, staff members also used more imperatives to the nonalerted group.

The results showed that speech to elderly residents was modified in ways similar to adult speech directed to children, especially when the adults were staff involved in caretaker activities and when the elderly residents were not alert.

This evidence indicates that speech modifications are influenced by the speaker-addresser relationship as well as by variables of the addressee, such as age and degree of alertness. It also provides support for the position that some of the modifications in adult-child speech are primarily to facilitate communication and express the functional context of the interchange, rather than to reach a language.

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT AND INITIAL ENCOUNTERS WITH WRITTEN LANGUAGE: A CASE STUDY IN PRESCHOOL READING AND WRITING Order No. 8003807
BAGHEAN, MARCIA JOAN MOSES, Ed.D. Indiana University, 1979. 239 pp. Chairperson: Dr. Anabel P. Newman

In the light of semantic analyses of language and research findings on early reading and writing, this dissertation used a case study approach to examine the language development of one child from birth to three years of age in order to map the similarities and differences in the acquisition of oral language, reading, and writing, and to provide insights into the popular query, "Why isn't learning to read and write as naturally easy as learning to talk?"

The sources of data for the study were daily tape recordings of oral language, the child's transcriptions of interactions between the child and the researcher, and a log of time spent in interaction, complemented by a monthly one hour cassette of oral language and reading and a half hour videotape Books, reading interests, writing and drawing samples, play equipment, and activities were catalogued chronologically.

The child began spontaneous reading at 14 months, five months after babbling in oral language, and distinguished HOW PEOPLE SOUND WHEN THEY TALK from HOW PEOPLE SOUND WHEN THEY READ. She used labeling, associating, and categorizing to separate one schema for storytelling and one schema for story reading by 30 months. The time span from the onset of babbling in oral language to the storytelling schema was 21 months, while the time span from the onset of babbling to the story reading schema was 16 months. Although she began her association with reading later, she learned faster because she could build on an ever-expanding oral language base as well as her physiological and cognitive maturation. Oral language, which had satisfied early, immediate needs, became fun as well through songs, rhymes, and the stories found in her books. Early reading fun, in which she could participate through action and dialogue, was supplemented by oral language and evolved into satisfying her needs as well. From HOW PEOPLE SOUND WHEN THEY READ at 14 months, she determined HOW BOOKS TALK IN A SPECIAL WAY at 30 months.

The child began reading books at 17 months with unorganized scribbling. By 20 months, her writing became predominantly vertical and horizontal, and by 24 months she demonstrated consistent letter formation. She talked and sang the same words and practiced pictorial writing on her writing. While at this time she did not label any of her products "drawing", she created samples which could be labeled drawings. Based on real life experience, she associated writing with her parents and drawing with her grandparents at 26 months. Using these categorizations, she perceived and categorized...
TEMPORAL CHARACTERISTICS OF SPEECH AMONG
PRESCOLLERS AND THE ELDERLY
Order No 8010709
BASSETT, MARY RISA, Ph D. Saint Louis University, 1979. 100pp.

There is a paucity of archival literature on the temporal speech characteristics of both preschoolers and elderly age groups. The extant literature suffers from many inconsistencies of definitions for the temporal measures as well as for the variables themselves.

The present study was undertaken to fill in the lacunae regarding these two extreme age groups and to do so with consistent methodology for which a body of comparable data was readily available. This research was intended as a continuation of the developmental investigation completed for the 6-49 year age groups, and replicates as nearly as possible the methodology used in the previous research.

Speech samples for all age groups in this research consisted of tape recorded spontaneous narrations told in response to a set of cartoon pictures. The three elderly age groups also read a short paragraph and immediately retold what they had just read. These tapes were transcribed as literally as possible. From the magnetic tapes, paper tapes were produced representing the acoustic energy in terms of amplitude over time, from which temporal measures could be directly and objectively obtained.

It was found that preschoolers use both more frequent and longer silent pauses relative to older age groups. This, along with a slightly slower articulation rate results in an overall slower speech rate for the preschool age groups.

Results for the elderly groups compare quite favorably with the middle age and young adult groups for all tasks with the exception of the 85 year old group in the reading task. It is inferred from comments by the subjects as well as from the nature of the reading errors, that much of the difficulty were not significantly higher than those of five-year-olds. This sample of three- to six-year-olds used an average of 28 units per description and had a range of 4-74 units per description.

Although the investigator did not test for significant differences between categories, additional findings meriting report. Ninety-eight percent of the highest recorded of the children used internal referents in their descriptions. Both three- and four-year-olds tended to use external referents followed by each sex referents as their main focus for the six-year-olds. Five- and six-year-olds used internal explicative referents in their descriptions but their usage was not as great as the two younger age groups.

Physical referents were alluded to by 48 percent of the respondents, but the mean percent of time physical referents were actually used only 2.995; physical referents were the least used of the nine categories for four- and five-year-olds and were next to least used for three- and four-year-olds. Three-year-olds used demographic referents less than the other age groups. There was an increase from three to four years, but the data showed that use of demographic referents appeared to stabilize.

There was no significant difference found between sex groups in comparing each content category but results showed group means for explicative referents per cent were higher for males; group means for females were higher in the usage of internal referents per cent. Little usage of egocentric referents was made by either males or females.

Results of this investigation present evidence which shows that children under the age of seven years can, in fact, describe persons in several dimensions contrary to implications and/or findings of previously related studies.

PERSON PERCEPTION: AN ANALYSIS OF ORAL DESCRIPTIONS OF SIGNIFICANT OTHERS ELICITED FROM THREE- TO SIX-YEAR-OLD CHILDREN
Order No 7925853
BOWDEN, Carolyn May, Ph.D. The University of Iowa, 1979. 100pp. Supervisor: Associate Professor Margaret G. Weiser

This research study examined person perception in 50 three- to six-year-old children and resulted in evidence to support the notion that children at these ages are capable of describing significant others in terms which can be classified into at least nine different categories.

Each child was individually interviewed and given an oral description of a person by the investigator before he was asked to describe a person of his/her choice. Descriptions were recorded, transcribed, and coded into individual units. A unit was defined as a single thought or modifier of a thought unit. From these units, they were classified into one of nine category referents: (1) demographic, (2) physical, (3) internal, (4) respondent, (5) other/subject/subject, (6) miscellaneous, (7) explicative, (8) possessive, and (9) egocentric.

Scores for each student consisted of the percent of usage in each of the nine categories by that student. Analysis of variance was used to compare four different age groups: three-, four-, five-, and six-year-olds on each of the nine category scores plus the total score. There were no significant differences (at the 0.05 level) between age groups. Comparisons between sex for each of the nine category scores plus the total score were analyzed by use of the t-test.

Results showed: There was a significantly higher difference (at the 0.05 level) in the mean number of referent percentages used by six-year-olds versus three-year-olds and four-year-olds; the mean number of referents for six-year-olds was not significantly higher than those of five-year-olds. This sample of three- to six-year-olds used an average of 28 units per description and had a range of 4-74 units per description.

Although the investigator did not test for significant differences between categories, additional findings meriting report. Ninety-eight percent of the highest recorded of the children used internal referents in their descriptions. Both three- and four-year-olds tended to use internal referents followed by each sex referents as their main focus for the six-year-olds. Five- and six-year-olds used internal explicative referents in their descriptions but their usage was not as great as the two younger age groups.

Physical referents were alluded to by 48 percent of the respondents, but the mean percent of time physical referents were actually used only 2.995; physical referents were the least used of the nine categories for four- and five-year-olds and were next to least used for three- and four-year-olds. Three-year-olds used demographic referents less than the other age groups. There was an increase from three to four years, but the data showed that use of demographic referents appeared to stabilize.

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Results of this investigation present evidence which shows that children under the age of seven years can, in fact, describe persons in several dimensions contrary to implications and/or findings of previously related studies.

THE DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION OF AN EXPERIMENTAL ACTIVITY-BASED INSTRUCTIONAL DIALOGUE PROGRAM DESIGNED TO FACILITATE FIRST GRADE CHILDREN'S RECEPTION AND EXPRESSION OF ORAL LANGUAGE
Order No 8010023

The purpose of the study was to develop and evaluate an experimental Activity-based Instructional Dialogue (ABID) program designed to facilitate first grade children's reception and expression of oral language. The ABID program and testing program was designed to: (1) questions asking for information from children relating to the organization and sequencing of actions or events, (2) questions asking children to predict outcomes in actions or events, and (3) questions which elicited description or labelling.
The ABID program also required the teacher to: (1) Structure the classroom environment to facilitate opportunities for language usage by the children, (2) Provide time and focus for oral reception and expression in formal and informal settings, (3) Supportively elicit through three specific forms of questioning oral expression from children relating to their actions, ideas, products, and experiences as well as objects within the classroom environment, and (4) Respond to oral expressions using precise vocabulary and slightly more complex syntax.

Subjects for the study were 32 first grade children who had scored at or below the mean on a battery of kindergarten screening measures which had been administered by the school district near the end of their year in kindergarten. The ten week study was conducted during the second semester of the first grade. None of the subjects had been able to identify a list of twenty words which was part of the criterion for mastery of the prereading stage of the district's informal reading inventory. The 32 subjects, 17 in the experimental group and 15 in the control group, had scored significantly lower on three of the seven pretest measures than 10 randomly selected first grade children who were making normal progress in the first grade.

Two hours daily for ten weeks were devoted to the experimental program. The study utilized a pretest-posttest control group design. A computer program, ANOVAR, was used to test for significant differences within and between groups and for interaction. Pearson product moment coefficients of correlation also were computed among age and subjects' pretest, posttest, and gain scores on the evaluative measures employed in the study.

Evaluative measures employed in the study were (1) the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, (2) the Northwestern Syntax Screening Test-receptive, (3) the Northwestern Syntax Screening Test-expressive, (4) the Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty-listening comprehension, (5) total number of words produced in oral response to a visual stimulus, (6) number of words per T-unit in oral response to a visual stimulus, and (7) vocabulary diversity in oral response to a visual stimulus.

The hypotheses under consideration were that the ABID program would enable children to increase their scores on the seven criterion measures and that these increases would be greater than those of children in the control group.

Data revealed that the experimental group made statistically significant gains on two of the seven evaluative measures: the Northwestern Syntax Screening Test-receptive and the Northwestern Syntax Screening Test-expressive. However, only the gain on the expressive portion was significantly greater than that of the control group. While no other pretest-posttest comparisons were statistically significant, all of the experimental group's posttest means were higher than its pretest means, suggesting trends in the desired direction. The control group made gains on three measures, only one of which was statistically significant; its means regressed on four of the seven measures.

Variables which may have prevented the ABID program from eliciting statistically significant gains were its duration, its requirements of dialogue between individual children and the teacher in a classroom setting, the nature of the evaluative measures employed, and the complex interrelationships between measurements of oral language and intelligence.

PRESCHOOL CHILDREN'S CONTROLLING AND FACILITATING VERBAL BEHAVIORS USING COMMERCIAL TELEVISION AS A MEDIATOR FOR PARENT-CHILD INTERACTION

BRUNO, Barbara Mrzlak, Ed.D. University of Southern California, 1979. Chairperson: Professor Margaret E. Smart

Purpose. The problem was to ascertain if preschool children's controlling and facilitating verbal behaviors would increase or decrease when commercial television was used as a stimulus for interaction between parent and child. Independent variables selected for study were: (1) two preschools, (2) type of preschools, (3) children, (4) topic-setting utterances, (5) facilitating behaviors.

Selected Findings. (1) No statistically significant differences were found among groups or pre- or posttests when hypothesized were tested. When pretest/posttest means were examined, changes did occur: (2) total number of utterances increased for PCTI-SP; (3) controlling behaviors decreased in PCTI groups of both schools with greatest decrease occurring in SP; (4) topic-setting utterances accounted for most controlling behaviors across groups with the greatest decrease occurring in PCTI groups across schools; (5) facilitating behaviors increased in PCTI across schools favoring SP; (6) extensions accounted for most facilitating behaviors across groups with greatest increase occurring in PCTI groups favoring SP.

Conclusions. (1) It is possible for commercial television to serve as mediator of parent-child interaction. (2) Commercial television stimulates children to talk more with mothers. (3) Children use more facilitating utterances and extend language when commercial television is used as stimulus for conversation. (4) Children use less controlling utterances and fewer topic-setting utterances when commercial television is used as stimulus for conversation.

Recommendations. (1) Preschool children should be encouraged to assume facilitating roles in adult-interaction. (2) Parent training programs should be designed which emphasize positive effects of television. (3) Analysis of videotapes might be done with consideration given to paralinguistic features in interaction. (4) A follow-up study utilizing larger population, longer treatment, and more extensive training should determine television as mediator in parent-child interaction.
TOWARD AN INTERDISCIPLINARY BASIS FOR THE INVESTIGATION OF LANGUAGE


Linguistics in the late seventies offers a picture of uncertainty as to scope and goals of the discipline and a multiplicity of specific methodological propositions. Motivated by an interdisciplinary dissatisfaction with the priorities of transformational generative grammar, this struggle for reconstruction receives additional extralinguistic support from a growing awareness today among scholars in general of the limitations of currently accepted theories and methods in each of the separate disciplines involved in the study of language. The calls for an interdisciplinary approach reflect the conviction that the perpetuation of the primary fallacies in much of the work in the social sciences can be explained by the continued existence of rigidly defined and confined disciplines.

With this belief as its underlying assumption, the dissertation proposes an interdisciplinary analysis of the bases of language which will contribute to establish a set of constitutive characteristics of language which any theory must consider and take account of; clarify the characteristics of interaction of component parts, and identify those significant aspects of language which have been falsely neglected or excluded.

In keeping with the interdisciplinary approach, discussion evolves from various foci within the triadic relationship language, the individual, and society, and towards these aspects insights from the different disciplines will be directed. Among them, social aspects receive special emphasis, reflecting the belief that in the present situation of language investigation, the greatest gains can be expected from the most careful weighing of this evidence.

The overall progression is as follows: Chapter I establishes a foundation for characterizing language as a sign system. Using Morris's terminology, some insights are provided in conjunction with the semantic, pragmatical, and syntactical dimensions of semiosis. Language as form is the topic of Chapter II, which summarizes the preponderance of contributions of linguistics. Key concepts of Saussure's model and their subsequent elaboration serve to point out the limitations of equating language investigation with form investigation. Attempts to establish the nature of the relationship between linguistic and social facts, which were made from a broadened viewpoint within linguistics, constitute Chapter III. The debate surrounding the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis points to their key problems.

Adding a philosophical and a stronger social perspective we arrive at the basic tenets of speech act theory. Highlights of the main directions in sociolinguistic fieldwork conclude the chapter. Chapter IV is concerned with the relationship language and the individual from a developmental perspective and draws specifically on biological and psychological evidence. The progression leads from studies with a formalist viewpoint to those with an interdisciplinary functionalist viewpoint. These investigations point to biological foundations for man's propensity towards language but also necessitate the inclusion of sociocultural considerations and the viewpoint of social psychology. In Chapter V, Mead's social psychology serves as background for an investigation of two areas of language function, cognition, as well as individualization and socialization, an inquiry which integrates a number of observations previously made.

The implication arising from the evidence is that in order to avoid not only limited but also wrong underscoping of language and consequently theories that are a clear mismatch to the dynamic, changing, goal-directed use of language by historical, social, thinking man, linguistics must reach out to other disciplines--for the sake of the wholeness of its topic, the wholeness of its theory, and both the wholeness and soundness of its discipline.

The first step in the study was background research on George Kelly's theory of personal constructs. In this phase of the investigation, relevant research in language studies was considered.

The second step was descriptive in nature. Sixty 12 and 13 year olds attending a suburban middle school were randomly selected. During a 15 month period the language constructs of these students were identified by the following methodologies:

1. Careful classroom observations of students to collect data in the following areas:
   a. Language employed while interacting with the teacher.
   b. Language employed while interacting with the other students.
   c. Language employed in different classroom settings.

2. Individual dialogues with the investigator during which students discuss their views of language inside and outside of school.

3. Use of student response in writing about language.

4. Formulation of a Language Construct Survey based on the observations, interviews, and student writings.

5. Analysis of the findings of Language Construct Survey sheets utilizing "Exact Test for Correlated Proportions" by McNemar.

6. Individual selected profiles of six students with emphasis on their personal constructs.

The study was an attempt to answer the following questions:

I. Do students have different constructs for viewing language inside of school and outside of school?

II. Do the constructs affect language growth?

III. Is there a language of the classroom with its own special emphasis?

IV. What suggestions can be made to allow for language growth in school curricula?

The findings were as follows:

I. There was a statistically significant difference in the personal constructs when viewing language inside and outside of school.

II. Constructs do seem to have an effect on the language growth of an individual. This was evidenced in classroom observations, student writing, student discussions, and profiles of individual students.

III. Language in the classroom had its own special emphasis. It had the following characteristics:
   a. There was a predominance of factual over thought provoking questions.
   b. Most questions were those that elicited a definite response.
   c. Technical language was often employed by the teacher.
   d. The teacher set up a framework and students learned to fit within the framework according to the teacher's expectations.
   e. Pupils rarely initiated conversation in the formal class situation.
   f. Students reflected in their use of language what the teacher expected of them.
   g. Most language in the classroom was an external imitation of forms rather than a pupil's representation of his reality to himself and others.
   h. On the playground and in the cafeteria, language was more exploratory, active, and flexible than in the classroom.
I. Students were able to figure out the constructs held by the teacher and adapted themselves to them.

J. One group of students adopted the jargon and ways of using language employed by the school and thereby succeeded in school. Another group rejected school language, decided they were not good in "English" and, in effect, mentally dropped out.

K. Language in the classroom was a form of pseudo-communication.

L. Expression was stylized and formal in the classroom.

M. Repetition of facts was overwhelmingly the mode of language use in the classroom.

N. Students addressed themselves most often to the teacher rather than other students.

O. Rarely did any conversation arise from pupil suggestion.

P. Little time was spent in reformulating ideas in the students' own language.

In conclusion, this study recognizes the importance of understanding language constructs and utilizing them to enhance language growth.

LANGUAGE ACQUISITION: THE INDUCTION OF SYNTACTIC GENERALIZATIONS FOR PROCESSING SENTENCES

Order No. 7923272

CHANDLER, Steven Roy, Ph.D. The University of Texas at Austin, 1979. 182pp. Supervisor: Royal Skousen

This dissertation is a study into the development of a psycholinguistic model. It is an investigation of the paired questions of what kinds of syntactic generalizations people actually do acquire and use in the production and comprehension of language and how those generalizations are learned.

This paper is divided into four parts. In chapter one I explore why syntactic transformations play no empirical role in either a model of language processing or a model of language acquisition. In chapter two I describe the problems of language processing as special cases of much more general questions in cognitive psychology. Language production is characterized as goal directed behavior in which the output results from a complex decision making process, and language comprehension is described as a special case of pattern recognition. Both procedures refer to probabilistic rules which relate surface syntactic structures directly to "meanings". In chapter three I demonstrate how children can induce these generalizations directly from the language sample to which they are exposed. This induction is accomplished through general learning mechanisms and in no way presuppose specific "innate" knowledge of language structure. This induction process predicts that the single most important variable in predicting the course of language acquisition will be the relative frequencies of structures in the speech addressed to a child. Further predictions that children's speech will include no structures or usages which are not well motivated in the surface constituent structures of the speech addressed to them.

Chapters four through six present an extensive reanalysis of child language data (English and German) on the acquisition of those kinds of syntactic structures: the use of word order to signal subject-verb-object relationships, the use of the auxiliary verbs in English to signal questions, and the early use of recursive rules to produce complex clauses. When possible, the child data is compared to the parental speech. Otherwise it is compared to the author's own computation of the relevant structures in German and English.

These comparisons confirm the predictions of chapter three and indicate that children are indeed making such inductions via the learning mechanisms described there.

This line of research suggests that language is not the autonomous mental faculty that linguists have traditionally assumed it to be. Rather it arises through the complex interaction of much more basic and general mental capabilities.

Understanding language as a human phenomenon means understanding the nature of this interaction.

CHILDREN'S ACQUISITION OF LINGUISTIC MEANS FOR EXPRESSING CONDITIONALITY

Order No. 806235

CHAPMAN, Diane Leggett, Ph.D. The Florida State University, 1979. 125pp. Major Professor: C Glennon Rowell

Much of the research on how children learn to use connectives is based on the assumption that the logic of natural language connectives corresponds to formal logic. There is linguistic evidence, however, that this is not the case. For example, Fillenbaum (1976) found that adults use a variety of terms to express conditionality in natural language, including if, when, and, or, unless, and others. In the present study, ten linguistic constructions involving these terms were investigated to determine whether they were available to children ages five through thirteen for expressing conditionality.

A modified sentence completion task involving sentence repetition was used to determine which of the ten constructions were available to 100 subjects (including twenty each at kindergarten and grades two, four, six, and eight). Data were analyzed to determine (1) whether increasing numbers of constructions were available to subjects as they matured, and (2) whether an observable developmental order was present among the ten constructions.

Analysis of the data revealed that increasing numbers of constructions were available to subjects as they matured. Seven or fewer of the ten constructions were passed by 90% or more kindergartners, while eight constructions were passed by 90% or more of the second and fourth graders. All ten constructions were passed by 90% or more of the subjects in grades six and eight.

Application of the Cochran Q test revealed differences significant at the .01 alpha level among the frequency of successes rates associated with each of these constructions for all 100 subjects and for subjects in kindergarten, grade two, and grade four. A ranking of the ten constructions according to the average age of subjects who failed each construction suggested the following developmental order among the ten constructions: if not A; B; if not A; if A; B; if A; B; when A; when A; B and A; B and A; or B; unless A; B; unless A. (When alternate error tabulations were made, the suggested order was somewhat different: if A; B; B; if A; B; if A; B; or A; B; unless A; B; unless A. (When alternate error tabulations were made, the suggested order was somewhat different: if A; B; B; if A; B; B; if A; B; B; unless A; B; unless A.)

Application of the McNemar test revealed differences significant at the .001 alpha level between constructions involving unless and all other constructions for the 100 subjects. Kindergartners were the only grade-level group for which significant differences between constructions were found. B, unless A was significantly more difficult than constructions involving if, if not, when, and for kindergartners. Unless A was significantly more difficult than constructions involving if + not, when, and for kindergartners. Unless A was significantly more difficult than constructions involving if + not for kindergartners.

The conclusion that unless constructions were more difficult than were other constructions was supported by findings of an error analysis. Nearly one-half of all errors involved using one connective inappropriately as another, and the great majority of these errors involved the use of unless as if. Alternate error tabulations were performed due to one set of responses for which clear-cut judgments of appropriateness could not be made. When these responses were counted as errors, the number of constructions passed by 50% or more of the kindergartners was five. The Bonferoni inequality was used to control for family Type I error over repeated tests; with the sum of the alphas equal to .01, each test was evaluated at the .001 alpha level.
THE GENETIC BASIS OF LANGUAGE

Cluvre, Asatru Dauwin Viljoens, PhD/ART University of South Africa (South Africa), 1911. Promoters: J. A. Poulenc and P. De V. Pietun.

One of the central theses of modern linguistics is the statement that in underlying language usage, there is a unique innately determined structure that enables the young child to analyze linguistic data in a special way. Innate factors also provide a schema that determines the class of possible grammars. This leads to the view that language acquisition does not take place in terms of imitation, association, reinforcement, and generalization. It appeared that these terms are often used rather loosely. Behaviour as such, cannot be inherited. Neurological structures, however, can be inherited. When the correct stimulus is perceived, these structures will process it in a specific way. This process results in a characteristic form of behaviour. These facts are apparently ignored in most psycholinguistic arguments. The clear relationship between language structures and neurological structures were illustrated by examples from neurologistics and aphasiaology. The relationship between neurological structures and communicative ability was further illustrated by an analysis of the communication systems of various animals. It was found that the rigidity so typical of a genetically determined form of behaviour is seen in animals (and man) must be seen against the background of the rest of their behaviour. An analysis of the prelinguistic child indicates that imitation plays a very important role during language acquisition. It appeared that, due to neurological immaturity, the child's imitations (linguistic as well as non-linguistic) do not stand in a direct relationship to the model. Because language is a product of man's brain, and is structured in a way compatible to the brain, the child is able to learn and to use it in a relatively short term. Learning, for the young child, is not possible without imitations. It seems that a genetically determined desire to imitate has taken the place of genetically determined forms of behaviour. It seems unlikely that man has a special innately determined language learning ability.

THE EFFECT OF AUDIENCE ON THE EXPRESSIVE LANGUAGE OF WORKING CLASS CHILDREN

Fleming, David Russell, PhD University of Birmingham (England), 1979

This investigation dealt with the effects of audience and functional set on the expressive language of grade three and four working class children. The experiment followed a 2 X 2 factorial design with two levels of audience and functional set. The audience levels were child speaking to child and child speaking to teacher and the functional set levels were interruption and no interruption.

First it was hypothesized that expressive fluency would be greater when child speaks to child than when child speaks to teacher and that expressive fluency would be greater for both levels of audience when speakers were not interrupted. Secondly, it was hypothesized that in selected samples of the S's protocols there would be more references to the puzzle when child speaks to teacher than when child speaks to child and this would be true for both levels of audience when speakers were interrupted. Thirdly, it was hypothesized that in the selected samples, aspects of modality, would occur more frequently when child speaks to child than when child speaks to teachers and would occur most frequently when the audience was not interrupted.

There were twenty six grade three and four working class subjects used in this experiment. The subjects were randomly assigned to each of the four experimental groups.

The data from the experiment was processed using analysis of variance and regression analysis to establish significance for differences in expressive fluency and puzzle references. Correlational analysis was used to establish interrater reliability.

It was found that expressive fluency was significantly greater when child speaks to child than when child speaks to teacher. However, when the S's were interrupted there was a significant difference when child speaks to child but not when child speaks to teacher.

Raters were used to assess the number of puzzle referents spoken about in the protocols. Interrater reliability was established by correlational analysis. Significantly fewer referents were generated when child speaks to child than when child speaks to teacher in the selected parts of protocols. There were also significantly fewer referents generated for the no interruption conditions of audience than for the interruption conditions.

A qualitative analysis of the occurrence of aspects of modality showed that there were more aspects of modality in selected parts of the protocols when child talks to child than when child talks to teacher. Noticeably fewer aspects of modality were generated by the interruption, when child speaks to child but the interruption made little difference in the number of aspects of modality when child speaks to teacher.

The study concludes that there are two contexts of situation, audience and interruption, that make significant differences in the levels of expressive fluency generated by working class children. The absence of explicit speaking constraints provides an important characteristic of verbal exchanges between peers that allows for more speculative and expressive language. Teachers, on the other hand, direct language and constrain the free flow of speculative language through the use of directive language.

Interruption limits the use of expressive language by constraining speakers' comment on the puzzle and by forcing S's to reframe their intentions so that they must communicate their second best puzzle solution.

Both the teacher's directive language and the interruption limit the number of possibilities that can be communicated by S's through the use of aspects of modality. The increased frequency of aspects of modality in the S's speech corresponds with the greater occurrence of expressive fluency in the S's speech.

The study has shown that certain conditions encourage greater expressive fluency. These conditions prompt working class children to speculate about the possibilities present in the situation. This leads to a greater success in problem solving.
SOCIAL CLASS DIFFERENCES IN PRESCHOOL CHILDREN'S COMPREHENSION OF WH-QUESTIONS

GULLO, Dominel Frederic, Ph.D. Indiana University, 1979. 135pp. Chairperson: Dr. Sadie Grimmett

Social class (SES) differences in preschool children's comprehension of wh-questions (who, what, where, when, how, why) were investigated. Previous research had suggested that children's abilities to comprehend wh-questions may vary depending on the amount of information available to the child when the question was asked (Ervin-Tripp, 1970; Tyack and Ingram, 1977). In this study, comprehension of wh-questions was assessed in two stimulus conditions. In one stimulus condition subjects were presented with pictures designed such that only one type of wh-question could be answered from the picture (Multiple Option Stimulus Condition). In a second stimulus condition subjects were presented with pictures designed such that only the stimulus question could be answered from the pictures (Single Option Stimulus Condition).

Subjects were 60 middle and 60 lower SES children, ranging in age from 3 years, 6 months to 5 years, 2 months. Each subject was asked to respond to 5 of each of the 6 wh-question types in both of the Stimulus Conditions. Thus, each subject responded to a total of 30 wh-questions. The dependent variable was the Total Number of Questions Correct (TQC).

The findings indicate that statistically significant effects were found for SES, F(1,114) = 78.05, p < .0001, as evidenced by higher TQC for middle SES subjects. Further analyses revealed that there were some wh-words for which there were no SES differences. There were no SES differences for those wh-words which are acquired early developmentally (who, what). For wh-words which are acquired developmentally later (when, why, how) SES differences were great, p < .01.

Statistically significant effects were found for Stimulus Condition, F(1,114) = 82.14, p < .0001, as evidenced by higher TQC for all subjects in the Single Option Stimulus Condition. It was found that for some wh-words the Stimulus Condition did not affect comprehension. The findings suggest that: (1) Stimulus Condition differences are not statistically significant for wh-words if the understanding of that word appeared to be beyond the developmental level of the child. These effects were demonstrated for the youngest subjects for "when" and "how"; (2) Stimulus Condition effects were not statistically significant for wh-words if it appeared that the child's language development was beyond that necessary for comprehending the wh-word. These effects were demonstrated for all subjects for "who"; (3) Stimulus Condition effects were statistically significant for wh-words if it appeared that subjects confused the meanings of wh-words which were semantically similar (who, what, where). When confusion such as this occurred, the likelihood of responding with a categorically correct answer was increased in the Single Option Stimulus Condition.

The results were interpreted and discussed within the framework of normal language development as well as SES differences in children's language use.

THE SOCIAL AND SITUATIONAL CONDITIONING OF PHONIC VARIATION


This dissertation addresses the problem of the social embedding of sound change. It focuses on the choice of phonetic variants in different interactional settings in relation to the sociolinguistic patterns of the Philadelphia speech community.

This work has two complementary parts. First, a random telephone survey of the Philadelphia dialect area provides the background for understanding current vowel variation and change. And second, a detailed study of a single Philadelphia woman in various social situations establishes the interactional significance of this variation. For each of these parts, the vowels of tape-recorded speech are analyzed acoustically, and the resulting first and second formant frequencies are used as an estimator of vowel color.

Multiple regression analysis is used to identify social influences. The Philadelphia vowel system shows the extensive variation typical of urban dialects. Age grading of vowel quality, interpreted in the light of earlier records of the community, shows many ongoing phonetic changes at several levels of development. Some changes are led by women, some by men. The individual speaker shows a range of pronunciations for these changing vowels, which may be identified as more or less advanced in the direction of change. The same social situation has different effects on different vowels. In the female peer group, the speaker uses the most advanced forms for changes that women lead, but the least advanced forms for the change that men lead. This pattern of shifting occurs when she is talking to women in the office. At home, in a relaxed setting, she uses the less advanced variants.

This study shows how phonetic variants that develop in a community are used in interaction. While part of the motivation of these interactional shifts is to talk more like conversational partners, other shifts can only be understood as expressive use of linguistic variants. The most advanced forms are not used when the speaker is most relaxed. When phonetic variants acquire social meaning, their use expressively can promote sound change. But the expressive potential can linger after a change is completed and the community correlates have disappeared.

A STUDY OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT, DRAWING DEVELOPMENT AND SPONTANEOUS SPEECH AMONG CHILDREN AGES FIVE THROUGH EIGHT

KOLS, MARLEN RAE, Ph.D. Claremont Graduate School, 1980. 191pp.

This was an exploratory investigation concerned with examining certain relationships between children's drawings, levels of cognitive development and the functional use of language within a problem-solving context. Based on the rationale that drawing development is part of the child's social situation, shifts in the child's use of language can be representative of the child's cognitive development. Piagetian's cognitive developmental model provided the psychological foundation for examining stage-specific drawing development in relation to levels of cognition.

Seventy-six children ages five through eight were categorized into three cognitive groups on the basis of their responses to four Piagetian tasks: (1) conservation of number, matter, area and weight. Drawing development was assessed by (2) the Goodenough-Harris Draw-a-Man test used to measure drawing level as a product of increasing naturalism, (2) the Luquet House-Tree-Thumb (HTT) test used to examine dimensional problem-solving strategies, and (3) the Cup sequence copying task to examine stage-specific drawing development in relation to use of perspective and egocentric effort. Spontaneous speech samples were recorded during the drawing tests.

The language data were classified according to procedures suggested by Fox (1969). Speech samples were classified within Piagetian categories of egocentric and socialized speech. Codification of data allowed for quanifiable comparative analyses.

Parametric statistical procedures were used to examine the data. Three one-way ANOVA comparisons were used to determine if the mean scores on the drawing tests differed among the cognitive groupings (conservers, transitional conservers and nonconservers) at the .01 level. The results showed significant differences in the performance on each of the drawing tasks among the three cognitive groups. Conservers scored consistently higher than the transitional and nonconservers on each of the three drawing tasks. Conversely, the nonconservers, although displaying the
Chapter Four examines a type of verbal reduction in which the target V is infinitival copular of passive be, and its complement is anaphoric, as in He could easily be more cooperative. But he won't [be avoided]. Because he doesn't have to be avoided. The problem is to determine when anaphoric infinitival be may be elliptical. The data I have gathered from natural conversation show that he is usually overt. In cases where it is elliptical, the element preceding it is a modal, rather than a V or Adv requiring a marked (to) infinitive. Deletion of be after improves slightly if the state of affairs described in he's complement is one which, as under the immediate control of the subject. Hence the rule deleting anaphoric infinitival be must be sensitive to both syntactic (left context) and pragmatic (right context) properties.

Chapter Five contains a summary and possible extensions of this research.

EARLY THOUGHT AND LANGUAGE
LONG, Beverly Jean, Ph D. University of Toronto (Canada), 1979

There are three major theories about the relationship between the origins of concepts and their labels (Piaget, Vygotsky, Carroll and MacNamara). Unfortunately until now all research in this area has been with postlingual children or adults.

The present research used several different classification tasks as an overt manifestation of a concept. Five different sets of materials were used in each of the three different classification tasks so that the effects of the materials could also be investigated. The children's knowledge of receptive and expressive labels for the materials was tested. Thirty seven children (age 3 to 30 months) were tested individually once per month for a six month period.

Results showed that the classificatory tasks and materials used were part of a developmental scale. There was a positive correlation between the child's age and score on the classification tasks. The children had some level of development before they were able to label the items but the more difficult classification tasks showed that there were many children who could label without being able to classify. The five different sets of materials showed that the more abstract the materials the more difficult they were to classify, and suggested that geometric materials should be used with caution.

A DEVELOPMENTAL STUDY OF CHILDREN'S REFERENTIAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS
McGREGOR, Deborah J., Ph D. University of Delaware, 1979. 68pp. Professor in Charge: Linda Berg-Cross

Previous research on referential communication has repeatedly demonstrated that young children perform poorly on communication tasks as compared with older children and adults. The two predominant paradigms used to study referential communication have produced inconsistent findings. Results of experiments done with the Glucksberg (1966) paradigm indicated that a child's egocentrism interferes with their communication, while studies using the Rosenberg and Cohen (1966) paradigm found no evidence of egocentrism. The current research incorporated aspects of both paradigms to determine whether egocentrism is an artifact of the Glucksberg paradigm. Additional goals of the research were to investigate the child's understanding of the stimulus words and the relationship between Piaget's stages of cognitive development and communication skills. The data was discussed in terms of the two-stage model of communication proposed by Rosenberg and Cohen (1966).

Kindergarten, second, and fourth grade children served as subjects. The content of each task required the child to generate a clue which would allow a listener to choose the correct word from a word pair. Each child generated one clue for each of 15 word pairs.

As expected, kindergarten children were found to be less effective communicators than second and fourth grade children. More theoretically important, the children's ability to communicate to themselves and to adults was found to be related to their understanding of the stimuli; their comprehension ability; and the restrictions placed on the clues generated. Egocentrism was found when the children were free to generate multi-word clues, but was not present when the children were restricted to one word clues. The data indicated that young children have deficits which interfere with their performance in both of the stages of communication suggested by the Rosenberg and Cohen model.
THE ROLE OF PHONOLOGICAL INPUT IN THE CHILD'S ACQUISITION OF THE VOICED/VOICELESS CONTRAST IN ENGLISH STOPs: A VOICE-ONSET TIME ANALYSIS

Order No 8007039

MOSIN, Barbara Joyce, Ph.D., Brown University, 1979 - 298pp

The linguistic interactions over a six month period of six English-speaking mothers and their children were analyzed phonetically in order to determine whether mothers play a significant role in the child's acquisition of a phonological contrast, i.e., the voiced/voiceless distinction in stop consonants. The phonetic parameter chosen for measurement was voice-onset time (VOT), the duration between the release of stop closure and the onset of phonation. VOT has been shown to be a reliable measure for distinguishing between voiced and voiceless stops in a number of different languages.

The six children represented three different stages of linguistic development. When the taping sessions began, the two youngest children, aged 6 months and 8 months, were babbling their first CV syllables. The two children from the "middle" group, aged 15 months and 16 months, were producing primarily vowel utterances. The two oldest children, aged 2, 5, and 5, were producing sentences which were fairly complex syntactically. Monthly tape recordings were made over the six month period of the mothers and their children, convening while they were engaged in a play situation. Each mother was also taped while she spoke to another adult. The VOT of each occurrence of /t/, /d/, /n/, and /N/ uttered by both the child and the mother was measured on an oscillographic display of a 10MHz computer.

Results showed that neither the mothers of the two youngest children nor the mothers of the two oldest children spoke any differently to their children than they did to other adults along the phonetic dimension of VOT. Mothers of children of the middle group, however, phonetically simplified their speech to their children along the VOT dimension. That is, in the production of word initial stops to their children, both mothers reduced the overlap of VOT values between voiced and voiceless categories which exists in normal adult adult discourse. This reduction in VOT overlap was effected primarily by an increase in the mean VOT value of the voiceless stop. It was proposed that mothers employ special physiological gestures when speaking to children who are producing their first words, in order to phonetically enhance or exaggerate a phonological contrast. Hence, mothers provide their children with linguistic interaction.

Analysis of the children's productions showed that the earliest initial stops produced by infants have VOT values which fall within the short lag region of the continuum. During the latter half of the babbling period, the infants begin to produce a number of long lag stops. The stops produced in the latter part of the babbling period form a bimodal, English-like distribution, a number of months before the child has acquired his first lexical item. Middle children at the one-word utterance stage produced word-initial voiced and voiceless stops with mean VOT values that exceeded not only the normal adult mean VOT values, but which also exceeded the exaggerated Mother Child mean values. In addition, it was found that the distributions of VOT values for the middle children's first voiceless stop productions were more variable than those of their mothers in the M-C speaking condition. Finally, it was found that even the oldest children in the study produced exaggerated tokens of the voiceless stop, despite the fact that their mothers were no longer clarifying the voiceless contrast to them.

The data are consistent with an interactionist model of language acquisition. As children begin to produce their first words, their mothers are signaled to maximize the phonological distinction of voicing by producing "super-distinct" tailored segments. Children then appear to imitate these contrast tokens. Once the child has acquired a sufficient number of lexical items which contrast in the voicing feature, and once he begins to develop his syntactic abilities beyond the three word stage, the mother ceases to provide the child with phonetically simplified input. The older child, despite his syntactic sophistication, continues to produce voiceless stops with exaggerated VOT values.

A COMPARISON OF CERTAIN SEMANTIC AND SYNTACTIC SKILLS OF FOURTEEN AND EIGHT-YEAR OLD CHILDREN

Order No 8010482

RASMUSSEN, AlexĠerard, Ph.D., University of Northern Colorado, 1979-11pp

Purpose: Through the use of a comparative research format, this study was an attempt to ascertain if measurable semantic and syntactic differences existed between the language of eight year old children and the language of fourteen year old children.

Subjects: The subjects chosen for this research consisted of 57 academically average students attending Jefferson County, Colorado, Public Schools. Two groups of children, one elementary and one junior high, were chosen for participation in the research. The Elementary group consisting of 10 children, had a mean age of 8.05 years and were enrolled in the second grade. The junior high group consisting of 27 children, had a mean age of 14.07 years and were enrolled in the fourth grade. Both rural and urban areas were represented.

Procedure: Spontaneous language samples were obtained from each child on an individual basis and scored according to the procedures for Developmental Sentence Scoring as outlined by Lee (1974). The linguistic measures used to compare the semantic and syntactic characteristics of the subjects' language consisted of the following:

(1) The total points from Developmental Sentence Scoring
(2) The total points from each category within the Developmental Sentence Score
(3) Mean number of syllables per word
(4) Mean number of syllables per utterance
(5) Number of prefixes per sample

Instrument: Stimulus material used to obtain the spontaneous language samples consisted of three subjects from the Detroit Tests of Learning Aptitude (Baker and Eldand 1958), (1) Pictorial Absurdities, (2) Verbal Absurdities, (3) Skenesses and Differences.

Statistical Analysis: A T test for Independent Samples was applied to the data in order to test the significance of the difference of the means for the two groups.

Findings: The analysis of the data led to the following findings:
(1) Syntactic Complexity was found to be statistically significant for five of the ten measures tested. The statistically significant measures were Developmental Sentence Score, Indefinite Pronouns, Negatives, Conjunctions, and Sentence Point. The remaining five measures were not statistically significant as follows: Personal Pronouns, Main Verbs, Secondary Verbs, Interrogative Reversals, and Wh-Questions.
(2) Semantic Complexity was found to be statistically significant for one of the three measures tested. The statistically significant measure was mean number of syllables per utterance. The remaining two measures, mean number of syllables per word and number of prefixes per sample, were not found to be statistically significant.

Recommendations: The following recommendations for future research were made:
(1) Similar investigations should be made which investigate linguistic maturation in the nine to thirteen year age range. (2) Similar investigations should be made which investigate linguistic maturation beyond the age of fourteen years. (3) The thirteen characteristics of language which were observed in this research are only a few of the many measurable aspects of language. Additional research should focus on identifying linguistic maturation using other characteristics of language. (4) Additional research should focus on identifying specific remedial approaches for language disordered adolescents. (5) Two actors which were not controlled in this research were sex and socio-economic level. The control of these factors may lend additional informational to the existing knowledge. (6) Research which investigates the linguistic abilities of children who do not use Standard American English should be conducted. (7) Replication of the present research was encouraged.
The purpose of this study was to explore the magnitude, direction, and significance of relationships between semantic understanding and arithmetic reasoning as presented in set comparison tasks. Although the adult domain of use are not necessarily developed at the time the child enters school, many first- and second-grade students continue to overextend the meaning of "more" to encompass the words "less" and "same." 

Assessment of pragmatic skills was performed by observing nonverbal and 10 speech act behaviors. The nonverbal behaviors observed were distance, physical contact, vocalization, looking, smiling, and playing. The speech acts observed were initiating, describing, repeating, answering, acknowledging, requesting, action, practicing, self-expressing, and protesting. All the observations were conducted during free play situations. The results suggested that the LI children are delayed in pragmatic behaviors of nonverbal and verbal communication, as they function more similarly to NSV subjects than to NSO subjects. The LI children exhibited significantly more physical contact to peers than NSO subjects, similarly to NSV subjects. The LI appeared to use physical contact as a compensatory means to offset their reduced verbal skills. The LI subjects, similar to NSO subjects, exhibited less social play behaviors than the NSO. Coordinated play activities appear to be beyond the linguistic level of the LI because they are language mediated.

The LI, like the NSO, expressed significantly fewer utterances than the NSO subjects. The LI were restricted in their linguistic abilities, and therefore, did not use frequently verbal communication. When the frequencies of the different speech acts were compared, some differences were obtained among the groups. The LI and the NSO subjects used less describing and acknowledging than the NSO. These two speech acts occur in most adult conversations. Therefore, the LI and the NSY seemed to be less advanced than the NSO in carrying on a conversation. In addition, the NSY used more requests for action than the NSO and the scores obtained by the LI fell between these groups. Requesting for action in a speech act typically used by young children and is not a major component of adult conversation.

Language impairment appears to involve a delay in all three components of language, form, content, and use. The language impaired use all of these components relatively infrequently and the environment consisting of peers and adults, provides fewer models of these functions. Implications for language evaluation and remediation are presented which stress that nonverbal and verbal behaviors should be part of a complete intervention program.
Cognitive representation in this study was depicted as manipulative (chips), pictorial (drawings), and symbolic (numerals). The manipulative level was one in which stimuli were presented on a manipulative level and a response was generated by the child on a manipulative, pictorial, and symbolic level. This format was used to identify the manipulative, pictorial and symbolic levels of representation. In addition, two other combinations of cognitive representation were used: Symbolic with words and symbolic with graphic notation were used in written form to which the child responded with a written numeral.

The child's response at all levels of cognitive representation was nonverbal. The child was then asked to provide verbal explanations of relational terminology. This clinical study synthesized three bodies of literature: semantic, mathematical, and cognitive representation. The purpose of exploring relationships among semantic, mathematical, and cognitive variables was to ascertain the plausibility of generating hypotheses dealing with these variables in an instructional setting. Research questions inquired into the following relationships emphasizing semantics—Does a relationship exist between:

A. The polarity of "more-less" and the correctness of response to "more than" and "less than"?
B. The polarity of "same" and the correctness of response to "same as"?

Research questions inquired into the following relationships emphasizing cognitive representation—Does a relationship exist between:

A. Identical and nonidentical input-output levels?
B. Written words and written graphic notation?
C. Manipulative and pictorial representation?
D. Pictorial and symbolic representation?
E. Manipulative and symbolic representation?

Results indicate that the child's definition or word lexicon is qualitatively different from the adult's, and relational terminology develops in a sequence of "more," "same," and "less." A moderate and significant relationship exists between verbal and nonverbal responses at the second-grade level but not at the first-grade level. Correlations were significant for all relationships among all cognitive representational levels for both grade levels. A pattern was evident with the coefficients being generally lower among the second-grade students.

THE LANGUAGE OF ACCESS AND CONTROL: MASKING AND MITIGATING BY INNER-CITY HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Schwarz, Marian Lapsley, Ph.D. Columbia University, 1979: 342pp. Chairperson: Professor Marianne Celese Murcia

In the ESL/EFL context the passive is generally regarded as a grammatical item that is "easy to teach" and "easy to learn." This strongly held assumption is probably due to the fact that most people only consider the passive in relation to its corresponding active form.

This study explores the passive with the purpose of eventual pedagogical application. It is based upon the frequency and usage of the passive in contemporary American English. The data, both spoken and written, were drawn from the following genres: spoken (five sources) and written (novels, academic journals, newspaper editorials/articles, and readers' letters to newspaper editors) with the total words examined being roughly 150,000.

The study is the result of the literature on the English passive. It deals with how the passive has been described in the following theoretical frameworks: traditional descriptive grammar, structural grammar, generative transformational grammar, and generative non-transformational grammar. However, this study does not use or side with any of the above established syntactic theories. This is essentially a surface-based study, but more coherent and systematic than the old descriptive or structural approaches.

The frequency study of the passive is carried out in Chapter II. My working definition of the passive is rather broad in that it includes all past participle forms of verbs, except for those of intransitive verbs (e.g., gone, come). The major past participle categories—with illustrative sentences from the text—are: (1) Ordinary passive sentences. In the years between 1801 and 1857, the law was actively used by judges, attorneys, and legal writers as an instrument of social change. (2) A verbal past participle. The chloroform phase from the enzyme reaction was analyzed by TLC in solvents A and B and by HPLC as described above. (3) A deject past participle. This is a letter of acceptance or rejection by the UC Irvine newspaper. (4) Past participles used in other miscellaneous structures. Patton said soberly: "Someday might get hurt taking him." Each past participle found in the data was placed in one of the above four categories according to the discourse type in which it occurred.
The role of mothers and firstborn female siblings in teaching and encouraging language skills

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PIAGET'S CONSERVATION AND CHILDREN'S ORAL LANGUAGE PRODUCTION

DISCOURSE CONNECTIVES IN ENGLISH
number and types of complex communication units, mazes, elaboration, and expanded verb forms. A t-test was used to determine whether there was a relationship between the presence or absence of children's cognitive abilities to conserve and their oral language production. An alpha of .10 was accepted as the level of significance.

The relationship of children's conservation abilities and their uses of semantic oral language was one area investigated. The study indicated that there were no differences between conservers and nonconservers in their uses of egocentric oral language features. No differences were reported between the groups for the total number of socialized oral language examples used. There was a significant difference favoring the conservers for use of the adapted information type of socialized oral language. The groups did not differ in the frequencies with which they used other types of socialized oral language.

The relationship between children's abilities to conserve and their uses of syntactic oral language was another area for investigation. Significant differences in favor of the conservers were reported for uses of the syntactic features of (1) mazes, (2) total number of complex communication units, (3) insertion types of complex communication units, and (4) nominalization types of insertions. No differences between the groups were reported for (1) elaboration, (2) expanded verb forms, (3) the joining type of complex communication units, and (4) adverbal and relative clause types of insertions.

A comparison by sex between the groups of conservers and nonconservers in relation to their uses of semantic and of syntactic oral language production was also reported in this study. Male conservers used significantly more examples of the following language features when compared to male nonconservers: (1) repetition; (2) mazes; (3) insertion types of complex communication units; (4) nominalizations. Female conservers, compared to their nonconserver counterparts, used significantly more examples of: (1) complex communication units; (2) insertion types of complex communication units; (3) nominalizations.

The study did not confirm Piaget's assumption that children who exhibited the cognitive feature of conservation would use more examples of socialized oral language except for their use of the adapted information type of socialized oral language. The results of the study indicated that levels of cognitive conservation were related to the syntactic complexity of children's oral language production.

The study indicated that children's chronological ages are not the sole determiner for children's abilities to use syntactic complexity, and children who are in the same chronological age range may differ in the syntactic complexity of their oral language production. Educators and speech clinicians should be aware of the cognitive differences reflected in children's syntactic oral language production and not rely on age appropriate norms to determine whether or not the children's oral language is appropriate. The rationale for assessing children's cognitive and language abilities should be to assist individuals to critically review types of language activities designed for children and determine which types of activities may be appropriate for children who are at different stages in the development of their cognitive thought. 

WRATKER, Nancy Jane Duresky, Ph.D. The University of Texas at Austin, 1979. 327pp. Supervisor: Robert W. Hopper

SIDE SEQUENCES AND COHERENCE IN CHILDREN'S DISCOURSE
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Recently, some communication research has focused on coherence in discourse, attempting to describe how seemingly disjointed utterances at the surface level cohere at some other level of analysis. Other scholars have examined Side Sequences (SS), conversational techniques which address situations problematic to conversations. This dissertation is a synthesis between these two research areas. The primary goal of the present study is to account for the connections between SSs and their respective ongoing sequences.

Chapter I reviews literature concerning three related notions emerging in research attempts to describe discourse coherence: semantic presuppositions, Felicity Conditions and Conversational Maxims. Chapter II reviews current research concerning SSs and develops some notions of SSs previously undeveloped.

1. Describing surface-form types of SSs and their related characteristics.
2. Describing phases occurring within SSs.
3. Expanding the analysis of Demand Tickets, they can be viewed as involving two separate SSs.
4. Discussing multiple SSs and demonstrating that three types can occur: serial, embedded, and co-occurring.

Based on the literature review, Chapter III presents a method which accounts for connections between SSs and their ongoing sequences. The method involves four steps: identifying SSs, classifying SSs based on surface-form, conducting a functional classification of SSs, and analyzing SSs in terms of semantic presuppositions, Felicity Conditions and Conversational Maxims. This method was applied to a sample of first-grade children's discourse.

The results of identifying SSs and classifying them according to their surface-form is presented in Chapter IV. It was discovered that a form-based classification did not account for all SSs occurring in the data and did not prove useful in the present analysis as a classification based on communicative function.

Chapter V presents the results of the final two stages of the method. There were three advantages in using a functional based rather than form-based classification of SSs: the functional classification accounted for all SSs occurring in the data, it allowed patterns of connections between SSs and ongoing sequences to occur; and, it brought the analysis closer to the question of coherence by describing the communicative work performed by an SS on some problematic situation found in the ongoing sequence. Chapter V also presented the results of describing the connections of SSs and ongoing sequences in terms of current notions in discourse coherence research. Two patterns of connections between SSs and ongoing sequences emerged. Each Functional Category of SSs was identified with one pattern of connection. Chapter VI summarizes the research and discusses its implications.
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