# TEACHER ATTITUDES TOWARD MOUNTAIN SPEECH IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILDREN

BY

PAMELA RICE UPCHURCH

APPROVED BY:

Edward C. Hutchinson, Chairman
Thesis Committee

R. Jane Lieberman, Instructor
Speech Pathology

David Thomas Robinson, Professor
Counselor Education and Research

Edward C. Hutchinson, Chairman
Department of Speech Pathology

Joyce V. Lawrence, Dean
Graduate School

# TEACHER ATTITUDES

# TOWARD MOUNTAIN SPEECH

# IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILDREN

A Thesis
Presented to
the Faculty of the Graduate School
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In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts

by
Pamela Rice Upchurch
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Chairman, Thesis Committee: Edward C. Hutchinson
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The purpose of this study was to examine the expressed attitudes of pre-service teachers toward mountain speech in elementary school children.

Nineteen children in kindergarten through third grade were referred by their teachers. Fifteen demonstrated mountain dialect and four demonstrated non-mountain dialect. The children were interviewed and recorded on audio-tape. Thirty-five pre-service teachers listened to the stimulus tape, consisting of thirty-seven speech segments, and completed a semantic differential type bipolar adjective-pair attitude scale for each speech sample.

Raw scale scores were examined for each sample for an indication of attitude intensity. Internal consistency, item-total correlation, and test-retest reliability were studied. A t-Test was employed to examine the difference between the three semantic differential factors for the mountain and non-mountain speech groups, and to examine the difference between attitudes for the two groups.

The analysis revealed a significant difference for the two groups on the Evaluative factor, with no significance for the Potency and Activity factors. A difference appears to exist between the attitudes of pre-service teachers toward mountain and non-mountain speech, with the judgment of mountain speech being lower and more negative than non-mountain speech.

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# Chapter 1

## INTRODUCTION

Language is the primary tool of communication. Producing messages and processing the messages of other people is a dynamic and unique human function (Wiig & Semel, 1980). Language diversity is a global phenomenon that people encounter daily in their communication experiences. Variations exist between two different languages, and frequently within a particular language. This fact is evident among the speakers of American English. Variations, or dialects, in American English are noticed in one way or another as individuals interact with persons from different regions, as well as social and ethnic groups, of the United States (Wolfram & Christian, 1976). The existence of regional dialects in American English has been directly associated with the patterns of immigration of the early settlers and the migratory patterns that developed with the westward movement. Regional dialects tend to be accepted readily by people, as there are valid and acceptable reasons for these differences (Jeter, 1977).

Williams (1970) indicates that "the characteristics of speech are salient cues to a person's social status" (p. 472). Understanding and acceptance of language variations are often found to be lacking when social assessments are based on a person's speech. Complex attitudes are held about social class, ethnicity, origin, and education which influence interactions and relationships with speakers of dialect based on social distinction (Jeter, 1977; Wolfram & Fasold, 1974). Varieties in Standard American English that are related to social differences are generally referred to as social dialects (Jeter, 1977).

## Statement of the Problem

According to Fries (1940), the speech pattern of the middle-class primarily white population of the United States is the accepted norm or standard against which all other speech and language patterns are judged. Fries states that not only is standard English the medium through which national affairs are conducted, but it is also the speech pattern of those individuals considered the most prestigious and highest on the social ladder. Standard American English is also the accepted norm in the American classroom and is rigidly supported and enforced by teachers (Adler, 1979; Shuy, 1967; Anastasiow & Hanes, 1976). When a child's speech does not concur with the pattern expected in the classroom, an educational disparity is created. This is especially true concerning disadvantaged children, as social dialects have always been a main concern of American education (Labov, 1970).

This concern about social dialects has primarily taken a negative form because when variations from the standard are noted, these variations are generally assumed to be deviant, deficient, and abnormal (Laffey & Shuy, 1973; Adler, 1979). Attitudes toward a child's dialect, either negative or positive, are usually transferred to the child himself. Davis and Dollard (cited in Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968) found that teachers tend to stigmatize the lower-class child on the basis of dialect, among other social characteristics. The attitude that a teacher holds about a child can significantly affect the interaction between teacher and child (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968). On this basis, it is presumable that the attitudes of pre-service teachers toward mountain speech in elementary school children differ from their attitudes toward

children who speak Standard American English. If this is true, then the attitude of a teacher who stigmatizes a child on the basis of a mountain dialect may adversely affect the academic performance of the child.

## Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present study is to examine the expressed attitudes of a group of pre-service elementary school teachers toward the social dialect of Appalachian English.

## Null Hypothesis

There is no statistically significant difference between attitudes of pre-service teachers toward mountain speech and standard speech in elementary school children. The .05 level of significance will be used to test the null hypothesis.

## Definition of Terms

Mountain Speech - a generalized term referring to Appalachian English.

Appalachian English - the social dialect of Standard American English associated with the working class rural population of the Appalachian region, varying in grammatical features, phonological and lexical aspects (Wolfram & Christian, 1976).

Standard American English - the real and accepted spoken language of the educated middle class (Wolfram & Fasold, 1974).

Appalachian Region - includes parts of Kentucky, southwestern Virginia, northwestern North Carolina, northeastern Tennessee, and all of West Virginia (Wolfram & Christian, 1976; Jamison, 1978).

## Limitations of the Study

1. The impact and influence of the school environment upon the children and their language must be considered.

2. All children participating in the study will be on the basis of teacher referral.

3. The measurement of attitude is a subjective measure and results are dependent on the responses of the pre-service teachers to the task.

4. The conclusions drawn from this study will be limited to the population from which the participants were drawn.

## Significance of the Problem

Children learn to speak the language of their environment. A child's language competence is the internalization of the language performance models into a set of habits operated by grammatical rules that have been extracted from the specific variation of American English modeled in the performance. A child's language performance is the externalization of production of the habits and rules in the child's specific version of American English (Nist, 1974). Children entering the first grade are producing a near match for the adult grammatical model that is provided in their particular language community (Higginbotham, 1972).

In the Appalachian Mountains, there is an extensive concentration of rural disadvantaged children (Frost & Hawkes, 1966; Jamison, 1978; Adler, 1979). There a child beginning school brings a dialect that has been functional in the home environment up to this point. As the

educational experience begins, the language variation comes into conflict with the language spoken and taught by the teacher (Frost & Hawkes, 1966), for it is well-established that the language of the American public school classroom is usually that of Standard English (Osser, Wang, & Zaid, 1969).

The treatment that the child's dialect receives creates far-reaching problems affecting many areas of life, the most profound being that of academics. The majority of teachers, using Standard English as their standard measurement, tend to assume that grammatical aspects varying from the norm are simply wrong (Burling, 1971). The primary thrust of the teacher becomes one of making the "different" child talk like the "normal" ones (Pietras & Lamb, 1978). The goal is to overcome the dialectal obstacle, rather than to study and understand it in the appropriate context (Labov, 1970). Frequently, teachers hold extremely unrealistic expectations of their degree of control over the dialect (Osser, Wang, & Zaid, 1969). The teacher assumes the responsibility of providing the child with the proper model and repeatedly corrects the child, attempting to restrict the use of "bad" language. Such correction of a child's language usually carries a disguise of the teacher's criticism of the child's background (Feitelson, 1968; Labov, 1970).

As the teacher attacks the child's language, irreparable damage is created if the child's own variety of English is perceived as inadequate and/or inferior (Guskin, 1971). This persistent attack on the child's language eventually becomes an attack on the child, for within a child's specific language are carried the priorities of the child's particular

society, its values, and its attitudes (Adler, 1979). The teacher's disapproving and intolerant attitude toward the child's language inevitably affects the general and overall attitude toward the child. Children who speak a social dialect, using "poor" language, are often expected by their teachers to fail. The expectations of such children are easily communicated by teachers to the children, who may readily fulfill the teacher's prophecy (Burling, 1971). As has been shown by Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968), teachers' attitudes and expectations can significantly affect the performance of their students.

# Chapter 2

## REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Language is primarily viewed in terms of two basic functions--the cognitive function and the social function (Wolfram & Fasold, 1974). Language is a cognitive behavior as a child uses language to express cognitions, or knowledge, of the environment (Muma, 1978). Anastasiow and Hanes (1976) point out that cognitive development precedes language. As the overall function of language is communication--the interaction between speaker and listener--language must also be considered in its social function.

In the United States there exists a great degree of dialect variation that separates the social classes, for social differences are reflected in language (Burling, 1971). Just as there are certain norms for standard or "proper" behavior in a culture, so there exists language standardization. As Wolfram and Fasold (1974) point out, "The notion of correctness as traditionally used in linguistics relates to societal norms of appropriate speech behavior" (p. 17). According to Nist (1974), Americans are drawn toward correctness in American English and this principle is stated in the following manner (p. 73):

The Principle of Correctness in American English

Correctness = linguistic usage + social acceptability

Other support for this tendency toward correctness is given by Lloyd (1952) in declaring there is a "national mania for correctness" (p. 283).

### The Social Variable

In relation to language, the social variable refers to the various

behavioral factors that contribute to the categorization of people into different and distinct groups that may be correlated with language diversity (Wolfram & Christian, 1976; Adler, 1979). Entwisle (1970) indicates that social stratification and social mobility are inherent in the variations of Standard American English and that it is the socialization in language which sets forth the model for all other forms of socialization. Following this course, Entwisle claims that educational opportunities and the resulting social mobility depend largely upon the linguistic habits developed by an individual during the first eight years of life. In a study by d'Anglejan and Tucker (1973), it was agreed that there does exist a true relationship between language and educational, occupational, and social mobility.

It would be a monumental task to isolate all of the social variables that interact to account for the linguistic diversities that provide the basis for social dialects. For the purpose of this study, two of the main variables will be briefly considered. It must be stressed that although the various social factors are discussed separately, it is their interaction that affects language (Wolfram & Fasold, 1974).

Region

It should be emphasized that only within the context of regional variation do social dialects exist. Three main factors form the foundation for the existence of regionally-correlated diversities in Standard American English. First, there is the factor of physical geography (Wolfram & Fasold, 1974). Physical obstacles and barriers, primarily mountains and rivers, have provided a natural situation for linguistic

diversification to develop. In the past, natural barriers have greatly inhibited physical mobility which, in turn, inhibited the spread of language. From areas isolated by such obstacles as mountains and islands, so-called "relic areas" have resulted in which the older forms of a particular language have been preserved. Older English forms, for example, are still found in the Appalachian and Ozark mountain ranges (Wolfram & Christian, 1976). In relation to this factor, language variation is viewed as being distributed across a map (Williams, Hopper, and Natalico, 1977).

Historical patterns of settlement have also affected the development of language variation. It is known that dialect areas often indicate the migration patterns of the early settlers from Europe. English influences are found to be more concentrated in certain areas than are German influences. Thirdly, the boundaries of various dialect areas are found to reflect upon the general pattern of population movement westward (Jeter, 1977). The predominant drift of the American white population has been from east to west. For this reason, the boundaries of the major white dialects primarily run horizontally, rather than vertically (Wolfram & Fasold, 1974).

## Social Status

Within a given geographical area, dialect may slightly vary with a particular locality and even between families (Berrey, 1940). People within a region who are in constant internal communication are grouped together to form different speech communities, each exhibiting a dialectal variation of its own (Shuy, 1967). Social status is greatly

influenced by the type of dialect with which an individual speaks (Nist, 1974). The most prevalent method used by researchers for grouping people is social status and Adler (1979) has cited the three most common factors used in judging the social status variable as (1) occupation, (2) education, and (3) income.

Social class and economic level have been found to correlate positively (Anastasiow & Hanes, 1976; Frost & Hawkes, 1966). Certain occupations are considered more prestigious than are others. Therefore, an individual having a more prestigious occupation, such as surgeon, will be rated higher in social status than will someone in a less prestigious occupation, such as a mechanic. Occupational status relates directly to the factor of educational level, although the majority of social-class scales consider only the father's educational level and years of formal schooling as the primary indicator (Anastasiow & Hanes, 1976; Jamison, 1978). Different educational levels are also grouped according to prestige. An individual holding a degree at the doctorate level will be considered more prestigious and higher in social status than an individual with a bachelor's degree. Also related to occupation and education is income. Earnings are generally based on occupational level and amount of education. However, income has been found to be an inaccurate indicator for social-class concerning minorities, who often are unable to acquire employment relative to their educational level (Adler, 1979). The interaction between occupation, education, and income forms a cycle that may best be summarized by Ortego (cited in Shuy & Fasold, 1973) who indicates that dialect is capable of reducing one's chances for educational and occupational success when the dialect evokes a prejudicial attitude in the listener.

## Difference versus Deficit

It is only when two forms of a language are compared that either of the forms can be considered different. In the comparison of dialects to Standard American English, and even to one another, two basic positions have emerged concerning dialect--the controversy of the difference theory versus the deficit theory. It has been shown that varieties in speech related to social differences are often viewed as erroneous, with errors being attributed to ignorance or perversity (Wolfram & Fasold, 1974). In this traditional view, the dialect used by a child is believed to be an imperfect and careless approximation of Standard English (Labov, 1970). Bernstein (1970) suggests that nonstandard dialects are often believed inferior to the standard and are thus stigmatized. In the work of early researchers in black dialect, it was believed that black speech represented a disorganized and poorly articulated version of the prestigious white standard speech; thus, a general conclusion was made that speakers of nonstandard dialects were deficient in grammer (Hopper & Naremore, 1973). The deficit theorists, primarily psychologists and educators, tend to view the language of lower class children as defective and deficient (Baratz & Shuy, 1969).

At the other end of the spectrum are advocates of the difference theory, consisting mainly of linguists. This group views the language of lower class children as different but highly structured (Baratz & Shuy, 1969). According to Muma (1978), sociolinguists have succeeded in showing that dialects exhibit a highly developed structure and merely reflect rules and habits that are grammatically, phonologically, and lexically different from those of standard speech. The frequency of

occurrence of those structures, rules, and habits is often the major difference between standard speech and a dialect (Laffey & Shuy, 1973). Houston (1970) indicates that regular rules govern the production of all forms of language, and that this holds true for all levels of language. Furthermore, many studies show that regardless of culture, all children acquire language at approximately the same time. It appears to be the variation in characteristics of surface structure, or syntax, that brings about the greatest differences (Hopper & Naremore, 1973). The underlying structures necessary for the expression of abstract thought and reasoning are present in dialects, as shown by studies of the language of black inner-city children (Labov, 1970; Baratz & Shuy, 1969).

## Appalachian English

Interest in the origin of Appalachian English is, by no means, a new field. Bradley (1915) described the speech of the mountain people as having Shakespearean flavor. According to Nist (1974), Appalachian English appears to be a direct descendant of an archaic British dialect. There is a survival of speech characteristics that mark the literary language of former periods, with the presence of "Elizabethan" characteristics being the most noticeable (Berrey, 1940). The general historical period that Appalachian Mountain dialect represents can be traced back to the days of the first Queen Elizabeth. The variety that is heard today is a Scotch-Irish flavored Elizabethan English (Dial, 1978). Dial noted that the language used by natives of Appalachia was once the standard of the highest ranking nobles in England and Scotland.

This has a valid basis as the original settlers of the Appalachian Mountains were mainly British, Scottish, Irish, and German. The German influence is not a highly noticeable one, however (Wolfram & Christian, 1976).

The Appalachian Mountain range has posed a physical barrier for its people, forming for them strong regional ties. Perhaps it is because of these ties that the linguistic features and problems relating to Appalachian English dialect have remained virtually ignored (Adler, 1979). Wolfram and Christian (1976) also add that although the Appalachian area is one of the most linguistically divergent, "it has been accorded minimal descriptive attention in contemporary studies" (p. 1).

The dialect of the mountain people becomes a socially stigmatized dialect only when it is transplanted outside of its native setting. Even then it is not to be considered the deficient constructions of ignorant folks, but instead a variety of American English that is ordered and systematic (Adler, 1979). Dial (1978) observed that descriptions of the Appalachian peoples' dialect oscillate from being "pure Chaucerian" at one extreme to "debased" and "ignorant" on the other (p. 49). Wolfram and Christian (1976) further disclose that just as there are rules that govern Standard English production, so are there intricate and detailed rules that dictate the form of Appalachian English. Two examples of Appalachian English grammar are the use of a-verbing (a-fishin') and expletive they (They's fish in the creek). Other characteristics and descriptions of Appalachian English are provided by Adler (1979), Wolfram and Christian (1976), Wiig and Semel (1980), and Jeter (1977).

## Dialect, Attitude, and Educational Implications

### Subjective Reactions to Dialect

Language features have been shown to correlate with the social stratification of speakers. With this in mind it is also shown that these language features serve as cues to the listener in formulating estimates of a person's social status (Williams, 1973). From studies in which subjects have provided a variety of evaluations based on spoken language samples, Lambert and his associates (1960) concede that "spoken language is an identifying feature of members of a national or cultural group" (p. 44). In this research the argument is made that an individual's initial and primary subjective reactions to language characteristics are associated with whatever stereotypes are held by the listener concerning the group in question. Fraser (1973) and Shuy (1967) agreed that the type and manner of language and speech a person uses is frequently coupled with stereotypic concepts such as level of education, social status, and degree of friendliness. A study by Williams, Whitehead, and Traupmann (1971) supported the process of social stereotyping in which certain language or speech characteristics are associated by listeners with social status, personality traits, educational background, and even appearance of the speaker.

In the process of social stereotyping, listeners appear to focus attention first on grammar, followed by phonology and semantics. Nist (1974) supports the attitude that a distractive grammar is a greater stigmatizer of people with social dialect than is a distractive phonology. The reason given is that a distractive grammar is a stronger indicator of an individual's lack of linguistic sophistication which has

been induced by isolation and alienation. By reason of their deviant grammar and phonology, people who speak a social dialect are stigmatized as members of the lower class. From this stems the attitude that such people are also socially disadvantaged and not as well educated as the middle-class members of society (Labov, 1969).

In summarizing the interaction of language, attitude, and social correlates, Williams (1970) related how reactions to speech might be linked to attitudes and other behaviors as follows:

> (1) Speech types serve as social identifiers. (2) These stereotypes are held by ourselves and others (including ones of ourselves). (3) We tend to behave in accord with these stereotypes, and thus (4) translate our attitudes into a social reality (p. 383).

It is indeed an undeniable phenomenon that attitudes inherently affect communication and consequent social interaction, thereby creating a tendency toward action of a positive or negative nature (Allport, 1935).

It is no wonder that as dialects are judged as substandard by society's majority, including educators, then the performance of students who speak these dialects is also judged as substandard (Nist, 1974). By the time a child has reached the fifth or seventh year of life, the basic patterns of the language system have been established (Hopper & Naremore, 1973). As previously mentioned in several studies, the basic patterns of a nonstandard English speaking child resemble those of standard English. However, the internalization of the basic linguistic system of a dialect, by the child who speaks the dialect, is often different enough from standard English to facilitate serious

problems in the classroom (Bailey, 1968). The disparity between the standard performance of Standard English-speaking children and the non-standard language performance of dialect-speaking children has been named as the "single greatest problem facing the educational system" in the United States (Nist, 1974, p. 3).

## Teacher Attitudes

The most valuable contribution of the study of social dialects lies in the area of attitudes (Wolfram & Christian, 1976). A study by Cazden, Baratz, Labov, and Palmer (1973) resulted in the finding that teachers actually do rate children more negatively when the speech they produce contains nonstandard forms of pronunciation and syntax. In another study it was concluded that teachers demonstrate a tendency to stereotype children solely on the basis of their speech characteristics (Guskin, 1971). In this study, Guskin examined the attitudes of white and black teachers toward children whose language reflected various racial and social backgrounds. Further comment is provided by Baratz (1968) who claims that "to devalue his language or to presume Standard English is a 'better system' is to devalue the child and his culture" (p. 145).

The American school is predominantly a verbal-oriented institution, which places primary emphasis on speaking, learning to read, and writing (Wolfram & Christian, 1976). A teacher's reaction to a child's language directly affects the child's attitude toward learning and conseqeuntly the child's success or failure in school (Marwitt, S., Marwitt, K., & Boswell, 1972). The majority of teachers who find themselves faced

with a child who speaks a social dialect view it as their duty to "upgrade" the child's dialect. This becomes a problem for the child, who finds the primary means of self-expression rejected by the one in authority (Houston, 1970). This rejection of the child's "poor" language leads the teacher to expect less, sometimes even failure, from the child. A child whose language labels him as socially disadvantaged, is often expected by the teacher to be unable to learn (Becker, 1952; Asbell, 1963; Katz, 1964). Through the teacher's interactions with the child, the expectations that are held are easily communicated to the child (Burling, 1971).

The behavior that teachers exhibit are reflections of their attitudes that influence, either positively or negatively, what children learn about language (Pietras & Lamb, 1978). A child's desire to learn may be stifled if his language is consistently and overtly attacked by teachers, resulting in the development of highly charged negative attitudes toward learning (Houston, 1970; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968). Wakefield and Silvaroli (1969) indicate that a child who feels overwhelmed by the language system forced on him at school may tend to withdraw from language in any form. The role of teacher attitudes toward social dialect can not be underestimated, for in the famous Oak School experiment by Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968), it was shown that teacher attitudes toward students can have a profound effect on the students' performance.

## Reading

Through extensive research, it has been well documented that a child's level of language development is related to the ability to

learn how to read. According to Anastasiow and Hanes (1976), a child's language and cognitive competence is measured by his reading ability. A child's language difference should be taken into account by the reading materials in the initial teaching stages. For the child who is unable to derive meaning from the passages, reading tends to become a meaningless, mechanical, and frustrating task (Feitelson, 1968). The child begins experiencing difficulty upon sensing that language is in conflict with that modeled by the teacher and presented in reading books. As school progresses, the child's difficulty with language is likely to increase unless the expected language of the classroom is learned (Adler, 1979; Frost & Hawkes, 1966).

Reading provides further portrayal for a child's teacher and classmates of the difference that exists between dialect and that of standard English used by the majority. The child may sense a two-fold struggle. First, there is coping with the linguistic interference or conflict. Secondly, there is the deprecatory attitude of the teacher and classmates toward the dialect (Burling, 1971). Because his language is different, many educators tend to misconstrue the child's language development and cognitive abilities, resulting in an underestimation of the potential for learning to read (Adler, 1979).

## Attitude and Measurement

Behaviors such as attitude which are not readily observable are difficult to measure. Attitude is not open to direct observation due to the fact that attitudes are reflected through behaviors and are not behaviors themselves (Allport, 1935). In order to measure attitude,

behavioral aspects must be identified that form an acceptable basis for making inferences about the underlying concept (Summers, 1970). From an individual's expressed reaction to, or opinion of, certain statements or concepts, an overall attitude may be estimated or inferred (Best, 1977).

There are several limitations to the process of inferring attitudes. An individual who may harbor extreme feelings toward a concept may conceal the real attitude held and express the attitude felt to be socially acceptable. At times, a person may be unable to express an attitude until confrontation with the issue in question has occurred (Best, 1977). The particular mood of an individual may also influence attitude toward a given concept (Allport, 1935). Sax (1974) indicates that attitudes vary in "(1) direction, (2) intensity, (3) pervasiveness, (4) consistency, and (5) salience" (p. 420).

Attitudes are measured primarily through the use of scales. Generally, a scale is a device for measurement which allows the assignment of numbers to individuals or behaviors (Isaac & Michael, 1971). Several types of scales are used in the assessment of attitudes, with the most common and widely used being Likert or Summed Rating scales, Thurstone or Equal-appearing Interval scales, Gutman-type or cumulative scales, and the semantic differential (Sax, 1974; Isaac & Michael, 1971; Best, 1977). Among the major uses of attitude scales are selection and placement of employees, planning remediation programs for certain students, and improving programs, courses, and curriculum implementation (Sax, 1974). There is considerable debate as to the reliability and validity of attitude measurement (Bohrnstedt, 1970; Osgood, Suci, & Tannebaum, 1961).

## The Semantic Differential

The semantic differential is a widely used technique for the assessment of attitudes (Williams, Whitehead, & Traupmann, 1971) which has proven useful to researchers in assessing highly subjective data (McCallon & Brown, 1971). The scales of the semantic differential are likely bases for making inferences about mediational processes. These processes account for what goes on covertly in the individual between perception of the stimulus and making a required decision about scale marking (Osgood, Suci, & Tannebaum, 1961). Research has supported the hypothesis of the polarization of attitude (Sadler & Tesser, 1973).

Often the semantic differential is referred to as if it were a type of test, having definite sets of items and a specific score. Quite to the contrary, the semantic differential is "a very general way of getting at a certain type of information . . . which must be adapted to the requirement of each research problem to which it is applied" (Osgood, Suci, & Tannebaum, 1961, p. 76). The flexibility of this technique is also discussed and supported by Askov (1971). A semantic differential scale was used by Lambert and his associates (1960) in measuring the impact of attitudes toward language and speech characteristics in Canada. Shuy, Baratz, and Wolfram (cited in Wolfram & Fasold, 1974) used a semantic differential in their study of speech identification in Detroit and Washington, D. C.

Three elements are contained in a semantic differential scale. First there are the concepts or stimuli to be evaluated. Secondly, the bipolar adjective pairs which make up the scale items are considered. Thirdly, there are the series of undefined scale positions with

seven steps (Isaac & Michael, 1971). For the purpose of consistency in scoring, "1" is uniformly assigned to the unfavorable poles and "7" to the favorable poles. Thus, one item on a semantic differential scale resembles the following:

beautiful ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ ugly
(7) (6) (5) (4) (3) (2) (1)

Presentation of the scales should be randomized either in order or direction (Osgood, Suci, & Tannebaum 1961). After scoring of the scales for each concept has been completed, a sum for each concept rating is obtained for the overall attitude score.

Osgood and his colleagues (1961) have found three factors to consistently play a role in meaningful judgments in a semantic differential. These are the Evaluative, Potency, and Activity factors. The Evaluative factor accounts for approximately three-fourths of all judgments made. From a semantic differential, the direction of an attitude can be derived by the selection of a polar adjective; if the score is closer to the favorable poles, then the attitude is taken to be favorable, and vice versa. Neutrality is indicated by a score of "4". Intensity of attitude is indicated by how far the score is from the neutral position in either direction. There are three levels of intensity for each scale, slightly (scores "3" and "5"), quite (scores "2" and "6"), and extremely (scores "1" and "7").

Osgood, Suci, and Tannebaum (1961) have conducted studies to evaluate the reliability and validity of the semantic differential technique as a measure of attitude. Reliability was assessed in one study through test-retest with coefficients ranging from .87 to .93, indicating good

reliability. Concerning validity, the conclusion was made that the evaluative dimension displays reasonable validity as an attitude measurement. Based on this evidence, the semantic differential seems to be an appropriate instrument for the present study.

# Chapter 3

# PROCEDURES

## Participants in the Study

Nineteen elementary school children, in kindergarten through third grade, served as speakers for the stimulus tape. All children interviewed were from two public schools, Mabel and Cove Creek Elementary, in rural Watauga County, North Carolina. Participation in the interview was based on full-time regular classroom enrollment; no child receiving any type of special services was interviewed. Appendix A contains descriptive information relevant to the speakers.

Respondents who scored the attitude scales were thirty-five preservice elementary teachers enrolled in undergraduate elementary education coursework. All respondents attended Appalachian State University and, upon request, agreed to participate in the study.

## Methodology

All teachers of kindergarten through third grade were requested, by letter, to make referrals from the children in their classes whom they considered to speak a mountain dialect (see Appendix B for the letter to teachers). After lists of children had been received, the teachers were then asked by the researcher to refer any children in their classroom who speak Standard American English. Parental permission was obtained for interviewing (the permission form is found in Appendix C).

## Sampling Procedure

All children referred for the study were interviewed and a high-fidelity audio-tape recording was made in a small classroom. The speech samples were recorded by a reel-to-reel recorder onto a professional quality seven-inch reel audio tape. Each interview session was approximately fifteen minutes in duration and consisted of a period for establishing rapport, followed by presentation of topics to the child (Williams, Whitehead, & Traupmann, 1971). The topics presented to each child were: (1) Tell me about your favorite television program, (2) Tell me about the games that you play with your friends, (3) Tell me about the funniest thing that has ever happened to you, (4) Tell me your favorite story, and (5) Tell me about your pets. A relaxed and informal atmosphere was encouraged.

## Stimulus Material

Thirty-seven randomly selected segments, each approximately thirteen seconds in length, were dubbed from the original taped samples onto a master stimulus tape. The four children referred as non-mountain dialect speakers provided two segments each, for a total of eight segments of non-mountain dialect. Fourteen of the children referred as mountain dialect speakers provided two segments each, with the fifteenth child providing only one segment. A total of twenty-nine segments of mountain dialect was obtained. No two speech segments from the same child appeared on the stimulus tape consecutively. For the respondents' convenience, each of the thirty-seven speech segments was referred to as a sample and was preceded on tape by an identifying sample number,

ranging in order from one to thirty-seven. Each sample was followed by an interval of thirty seconds during which respondents completed the scale items.

## Test Instrument

A semantic differential scale (see Appendix D) was constructed according to procedures set forth by Osgood, Suci, and Tannebaum (1961) and by Isaac and Michael (1971). Fifteen sets of bipolar adjective pairs comprised the scale items. Presentation order of the adjective pairs was randomized and the polar positions of the words were counterbalanced. Five scale items appeared for representation of each of the three factors of Evaluative, Potency, and Activity. The scale items for each factor appear in Table 3.

The scales were administered in three sessions. Each respondent was provided with a thirty-seven page packet of semantic differential scales. One numbered sample accompanied by one fifteen-item scale appeared on each page. The respondents were given verbal instructions, a scoring example, and time to ask questions concerning scoring. Instructions remained consistent for all respondents (see Appendix E). The thirty-seven recorded speech segments on the stimulus tape were then played for the respondents, with the entire task being approximately thirty minutes in duration. Time was provided at the end of scoring for the respondents to ask questions concerning the study.

## Statistical Treatment

For the purpose of treating and analyzing the data, mean raw scale scores were examined, correlations were determined, and the two-tailed

t-Test for determining the difference between two independent means was employed (Bruning & Kintz, 1968).

Raw score ranges were examined for an indication of intensity of attitude. Correlations for inter-judge reliability were ranked to assess scoring consistency among the thirty-five respondents. The Pearson product-moment correlation was used to determine test-retest reliability. Scale item means were computed in order to compare the factors of Evaluative, Potency, and Activity for the two speech groups, mountain and non-mountain dialect. A two-tailed t-Test was computed to determine the significance of the difference between the three factors for both groups and to determine the difference between the expressed attitudes for samples of mountain and non-mountain dialect.

## Summary

Nineteen children in kindergarten through third grade were first referred by their teachers on the basis of dialect, either mountain or non-mountain (standard) dialect. The children were then interviewed and tape-recorded. A stimulus tape was made, containing thirty-seven speech samples--eight samples of non-mountain dialect and twenty-nine of mountain dialect.

The stimulus tape was played for thirty-five pre-service teachers who served as respondents. The respondents listened to the taped samples and scored a semantic differential scale for each of the thirty-seven samples.

Raw score ranges were used for an indication of attitude intensity. Correlations were examined to determine the degree of inter-judge and

intra-judge reliability. The two-tailed t-Test, for determining the difference between two independent means, was employed to examine the differences between semantic differential factors for mountain and non-mountain dialect samples. The two-tailed t-Test was also used to examine the difference between expressed attitudes toward mountain and non-mountain speech samples.

# Chapter 4

# RESULTS AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

## Organization of Tables and Figures

Table 1 represents the frequency distribution and median of the raw scale score ranges for all samples. The mountain and non-mountain dialect subgroups are combined in this table. For each scale item score, a minimum of one point and a maximum of seven points is possible, All fifteen scale items combined yield a raw scale score with a minimum of fifteen points and a maximum of 105 points possible.

In Table 2, each sample is ranked in descending order by the reliability coefficient. Figure 1 shows the correlation coefficients for each sample, with and without the scale item "rough-smooth", which consistently yielded a negative correlation throughout the test. Appendix F and Figures 2 and 3 contain information on test-retest reliability, based on mean scale values for the mountain and non-mountain speech samples.

Analysis of the three semantic differential factors is provided in Figure 4 and Tables 3, 4, 5, and 6.

Figure 5 contains information concerning significant t-Test differences between mountain and non-mountain speech samples.

## Data Analysis

According to the information in Table 1, raw scale scores ranged from 15.0-29.9, indicating an attitude of extremely negative, to 91.0-

105, indicating an attitude of extremely positive, for all samples. Few extreme scores were obtained, with the majority of the scores falling from 30.0-44.9 to 76.0-90.0. Median scores, less affected by the few extreme scale scores, are included for each sample. The mean score for all samples was 61.85, indicating that no extreme attitudes were expressed toward either mountain or non-mountain speech.

Ranking of inter-judge reliability, indicating the extent of the internal consistency of the instrument, is contained in Table 2. The mean reliability coefficient of .69 suggests that the thirty-five respondents were relatively consistent in scoring each of the speech samples. It is interesting to note that, according to the reliability coefficients, reliability appeared to increase toward the end of instrument administration. This apparent improvement in reliability is corroborated by Figure 1. An example of item-total correlation is also contained in Figure 1. Examination of all fifteen bipolar adjective-pair scale items across all samples revealed two scale items that recurrently indicated a negative relationship with the total scale correlation. The two scale items revealed were "rough-smooth" and "rugged-delicate"; the correlation was found to increase with the deletion of these two items from the scales. An example is provided for the item "rough-smooth" in Figure 1.

In Figures 2 and 3, the intra-judge reliability was determined by computing the mean scale values for each of the two speech samples from each child (see Appendix F). The Pearson product-moment correlation $r$ (Bruning & Kintz, 1968) was applied to these data to determine the overall test-retest correlation for mountain and non-mountain speech samples.

Table 1

FREQUENCEY DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL RAW SCORE RANGES

FOR EACH SAMPLE

| Sample | Raw Scale Score | | | | | | | Median Raw Score |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 15.0-29.9 | 30.0-44.9 | 45.0-59.9 | 60.0-60.9 | 61.0-75.9 | 76.0-90.0 | 91.0-105 | |
| 1 | | 6 | 21 | 1 | 7 | | | 53.0 |
| *2 | | 1 | 13 | 2 | 16 | 3 | | 62.8 |
| 3 | | 1 | 25 | 1 | 8 | | | 54.9 |
| 4 | | | 1 | 2 | 26 | 6 | | 69.2 |
| 5 | | | 17 | 4 | 14 | | | 59.6 |
| 6 | | | 19 | 3 | 13 | | | 59.0 |
| 7 | | 1 | 5 | 2 | 22 | 5 | | 67.0 |
| 8 | | 1 | 4 | 1 | 27 | 2 | | 66.7 |
| *9 | | | 20 | 2 | 9 | 4 | | 58.3 |
| 10 | | 1 | 25 | 1 | 7 | | 1 | 57.6 |
| 11 | | | 13 | 4 | 16 | 2 | | 61.6 |
| 12 | | 4 | 26 | | 3 | 2 | | 53.7 |
| 13 | | 5 | 12 | 2 | 14 | 2 | | 59.7 |
| *14 | | | 4 | | 24 | 6 | 1 | 69.2 |
| 15 | | | 1 | | 25 | 8 | 1 | 70.8 |
| 16 | | | 12 | 2 | 18 | 3 | | 63.7 |
| *17 | | | 7 | | 20 | 8 | | 68.0 |
| 18 | | | 13 | 3 | 15 | 4 | | 62.0 |

Table 1 (Continued)

| Sample | Raw Scale Score | | | | | | | Median Raw Score |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 15.0-29.9 | 30.0-44.9 | 45.0-59.9 | 60.0-60.9 | 61.0-75.9 | 76.0-90.0 | 91.0-105 | |
| 19 | | | 10 | 1 | 21 | 3 | | 67.0 |
| 20 | 2 | 13 | 18 | | 2 | | | 46.7 |
| *21 | | 1 | 8 | 3 | 19 | 4 | | 63.1 |
| 22 | | 1 | 11 | 1 | 18 | 4 | | 64.7 |
| *23 | | | 22 | 1 | 11 | 1 | | 58.0 |
| 24 | | | 14 | 3 | 17 | 1 | | 60.7 |
| 25 | | 2 | 15 | 3 | 15 | | | 59.7 |
| 26 | 1 | 11 | 18 | | 5 | | | 49.4 |
| 27 | | | 8 | 2 | 22 | 2 | 1 | 64.0 |
| 28 | | | 2 | 1 | 18 | 12 | 2 | 73.3 |
| 29 | | 4 | 20 | 6 | 4 | 1 | | 56.2 |
| 30 | | 1 | 3 | 2 | 22 | 6 | 1 | 68.1 |
| 31 | | 1 | 2 | 1 | 20 | 10 | 1 | 69.7 |
| 32 | | 3 | 15 | 2 | 13 | 2 | | 59.2 |
| 33 | | 1 | 10 | 2 | 18 | 3 | 1 | 64.7 |
| *34 | | 1 | 8 | 1 | 24 | 1 | | 64.8 |
| 35 | | 1 | 12 | 2 | 20 | | | 61.3 |
| 36 | | 2 | 13 | 2 | 17 | 1 | | 60.7 |
| 37 | | | 15 | 1 | 18 | 1 | | 61.7 |

Mean = 61.88

Table 2

RANK-DIFFERENCE CORRELATION

OF INTERNAL CONSISTENCY

| Sample | Reliability Coefficient | Assigned Rank |
|---|---|---|
| 31 | .82 | 1 |
| 26 | .80 | 2 |
| 32 | .79 | 3 |
| 30 | .79 | 4 |
| 13 | .79 | 4 |
| 36 | .78 | 6.5 |
| 33 | .78 | 6.5 |
| 22 | .76 | 9 |
| *21 | .76 | 9 |
| 19 | .76 | 9 |
| 15 | .75 | 11 |
| 16 | .74 | 14.5 |
| 27 | .74 | 14.5 |
| 29 | .74 | 14.5 |
| * 9 | .74 | 14.5 |
| *18 | .74 | 14.5 |
| 10 | .74 | 14.5 |
| *34 | .72 | 18 |
| 28 | .70 | 20.5 |
| 12 | .70 | 20.5 |
| 20 | .70 | 20.5 |
| *14 | .70 | 20.5 |
| *17 | .69 | 24 |
| 24 | .69 | 24 |
| * 2 | .69 | 24 |
| 25 | .68 | 26 |
| 7 | .66 | 27 |
| 35 | .65 | 28 |

Table 2 (Continued)

| Sample | Reliability Coefficient | Assigned Rank |
|---|---|---|
| 3 | .61 | 29.5 |
| 37 | .61 | 29.5 |
| 8 | .60 | 31 |
| *23 | .58 | 32 |
| 11 | .57 | 33 |
| 1 | .53 | 34 |
| 4 | .52 | 35 |
| 5 | .44 | 36 |
| 6 | .43 | 37 |
| | | Mean = 68.89 |

*indicates non-mountain speech samples

Figure 1

COMPARISON OF CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR SAMPLES WITH AND WITHOUT SCALE ITEM "ROUGH-SMOOTH"

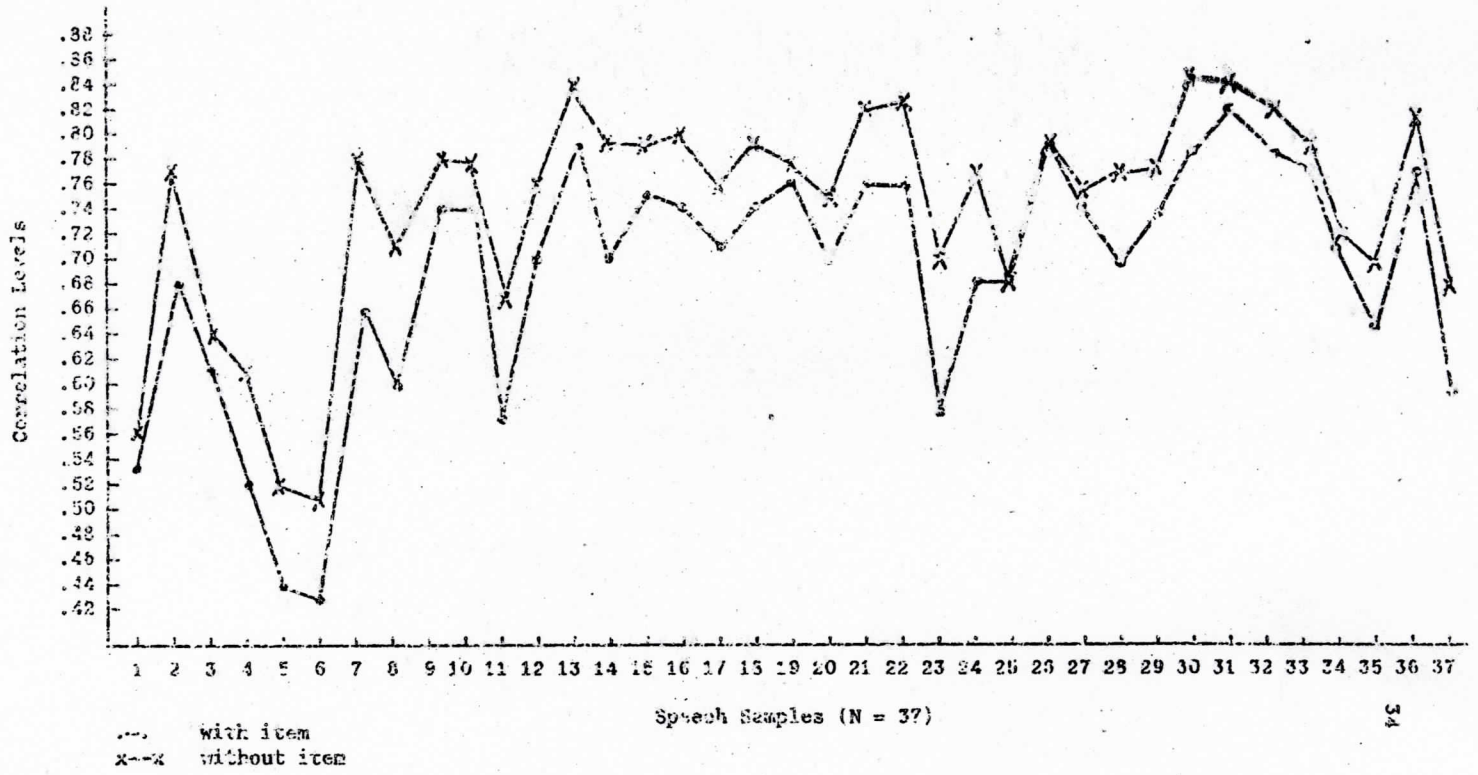
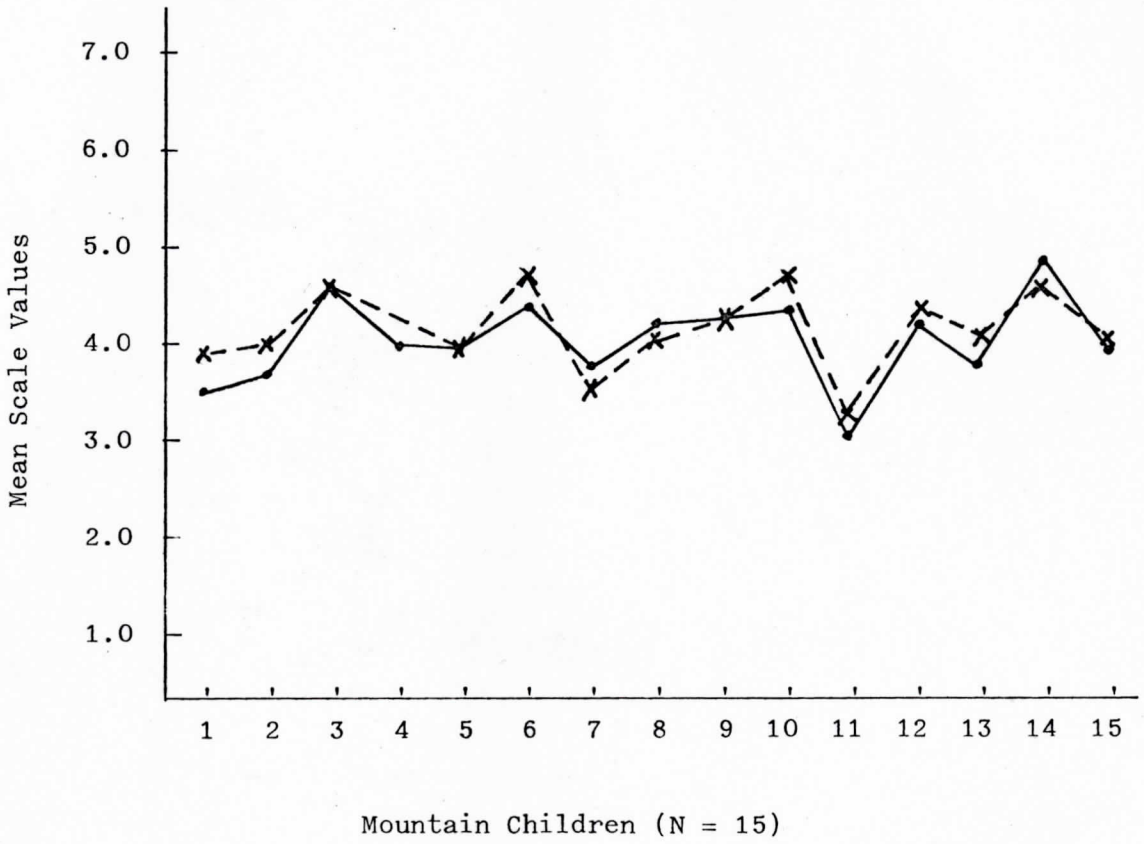


Figure 2

TEST-RETEST RELIABILITY FOR MOUNTAIN SAMPLES

BASED ON MEAN SCALE VALUES




.–. 1st trial

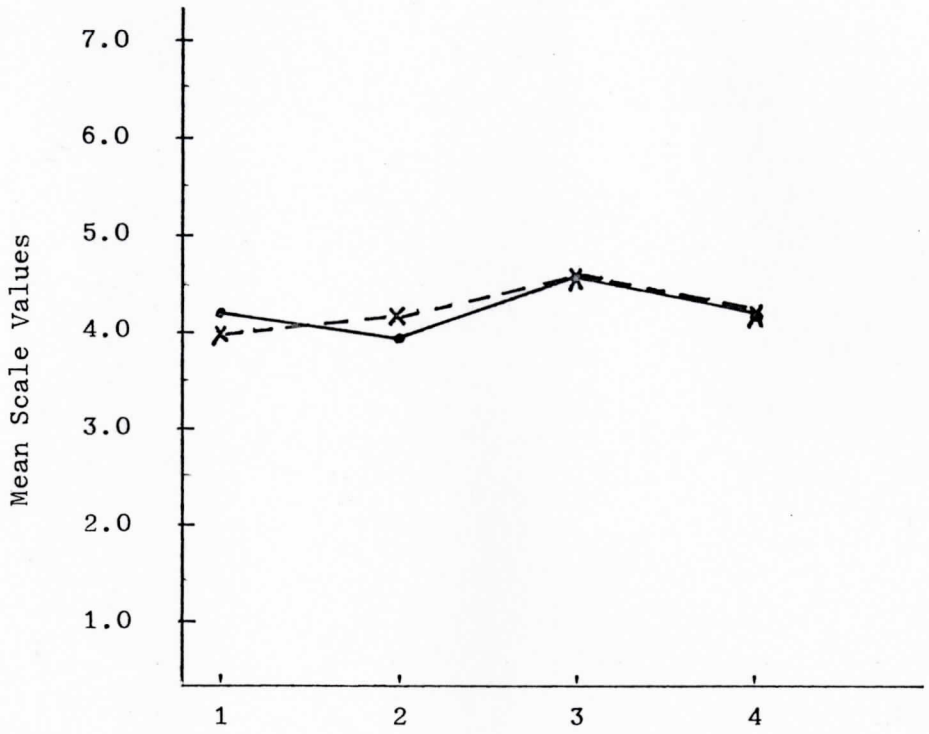
x--x 2nd trial

Child #4 gave only one sample

Figure 3

TEST-RETEST RELIABILITY FOR NON-MOUNTAIN SAMPLES

BASED ON MEAN SCALE VALUES




.—. 1st trial

x--x 2nd trial

The resulting value of $\underline{r}$ = +.87 ($p < .001$) indicates a high positive correlation for intra-judge reliability.

According to the information contained in Figure 4 and Tables 3, 4, 5, and 6, there was a significant difference in the judgment of mountain and non-mountain speech for the Evaluative factor ($t = 7.33$, $p < .001$). Judgment of the mountain speakers was significantly lower than judgment of non-mountain speakers for this factor. Concerning the Potency factor, no significant difference was found between the two groups ($t = 1.07$), although mean scores indicated that the children with mountain speech were judged slightly higher on this factor. No significant difference was determined between mountain and non-mountain speech for the Activity factor ($t = 1.00$). However, based on mean scores, the mountain dialect speakers were judged slightly lower than were the non-mountain speakers. The factor indicating a significant difference and the strongest attitude was the Evaluative factor.

Based on information from the two-tailed t-Test results in Figure 5, data indicates that among pre-service teachers, there does seem to exist a significant difference in attitudes toward mountain and standard speech in elementary school children.

## Summary of Results

No extreme scores were expressed toward either mountain or non-mountain speech. Respondents were relatively consistent in the scoring of each speech sample, with reliability increasing towards the end of instrument administration. Two scale items were found to recurrently

Figure 4

COMPARISON BY FACTOR OF SCALE ITEM MEANS

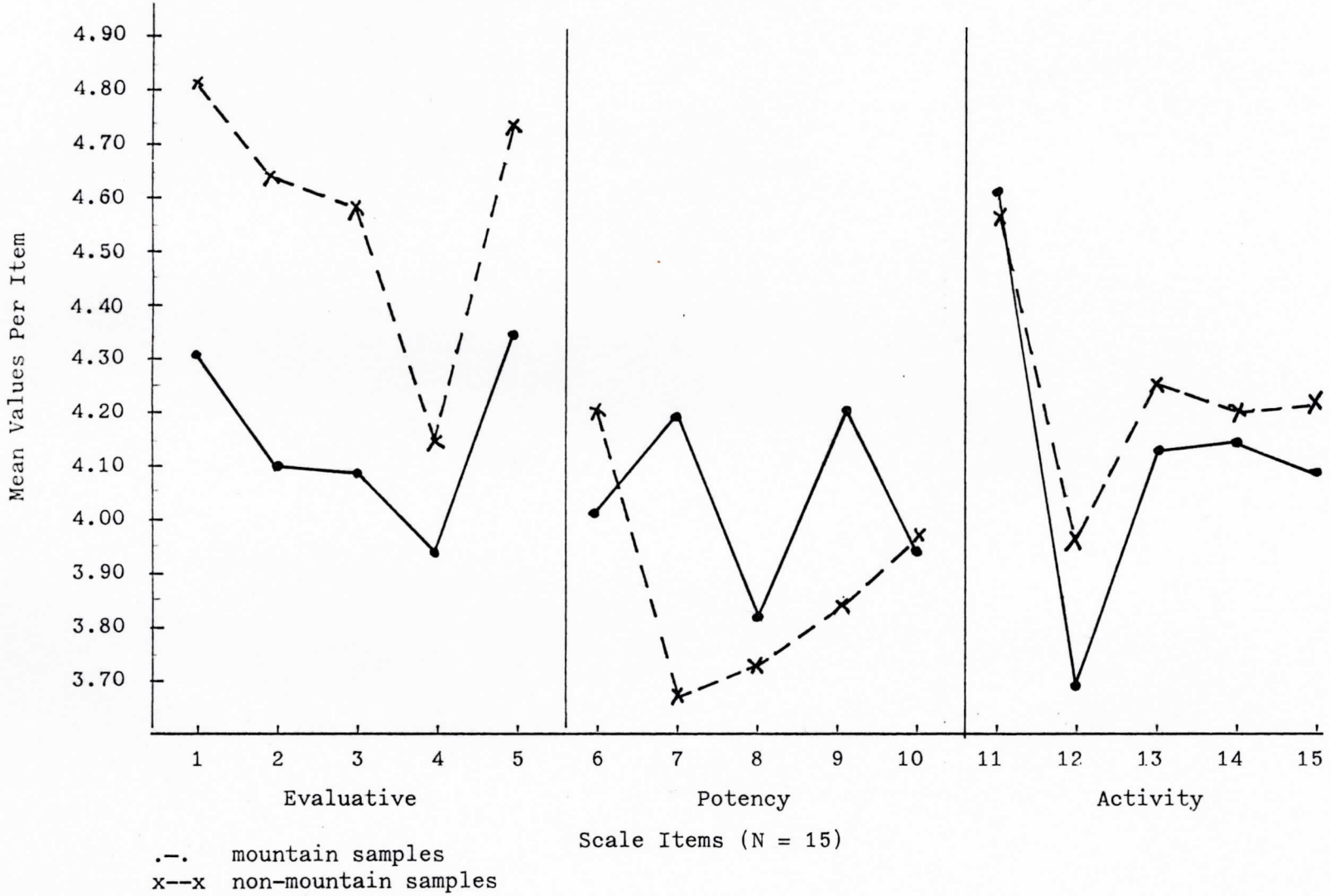


Table 3

COMPARISON OF MEAN SCALE VALUES BY SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL FACTORS

| | Scale Item | Mountain Samples (N = 29) Factors | | | Non-Mountain Samples (N = 8) Factors | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Evaluative | Potency | Activity | Evaluative | Potency | Activity |
| 1. | good-bad | 4.31 | | | 4.81 | | |
| 2. | nonstandard-standard | 4.10 | | | 4.64 | | |
| 3. | incomplete-complete | 4.09 | | | 4.58 | | |
| 4. | low-high | 3.93 | | | 4.14 | | |
| 5. | successful-unsuccessful | 4.35 | | | 4.83 | | |
| | | M = 4.16 | | | M = 4.60 | | |
| 6. | weak-strong | | 4.01 | | | 4.20 | |
| 7. | rough-smooth | | 4.19 | | | 3.67 | |
| 8. | light-heavy | | 3.83 | | | 3.75 | |
| 9. | rugged-delicate | | 4.20 | | | 3.84 | |
| 10. | large-small | | 3.93 | | | 3.94 | |
| | | | M = 4.03 | | | M = 3.88 | |
| 11. | active-passive | | | 4.62 | | | 4.56 |
| 12. | simple-complex | | | 3.70 | | | 3.96 |
| 13. | fast-slow | | | 4.12 | | | 4.24 |
| 14. | dull-sharp | | | 4.14 | | | 4.21 |
| 15. | hot-cold | | | 4.09 | | | 4.22 |
| | | | | M = 4.13 | | | M = 4.24 |

Table 4

t-TEST FOR THE EVALUATIVE FACTOR

BETWEEN MOUNTAIN AND NON-MOUNTAIN SAMPLES

| | Mean | t-Value | p Level |
|---|---|---|---|
| Mountain | 20.8 | 7.33 | p .001 |
| Non-Mountain | 20.8 | | |

Table 5

t-TEST FOR THE POTENCY FACTOR

BETWEEN MOUNTAIN AND NON-MOUNTAIN SAMPLES

| | Mean | t-Value | p Level |
|---|---|---|---|
| Mountain | 20.2 | 7.33 | NS |
| Non-Mountain | 19.4 | | |

Table 6

t-TEST FOR THE ACTIVITY FACTOR

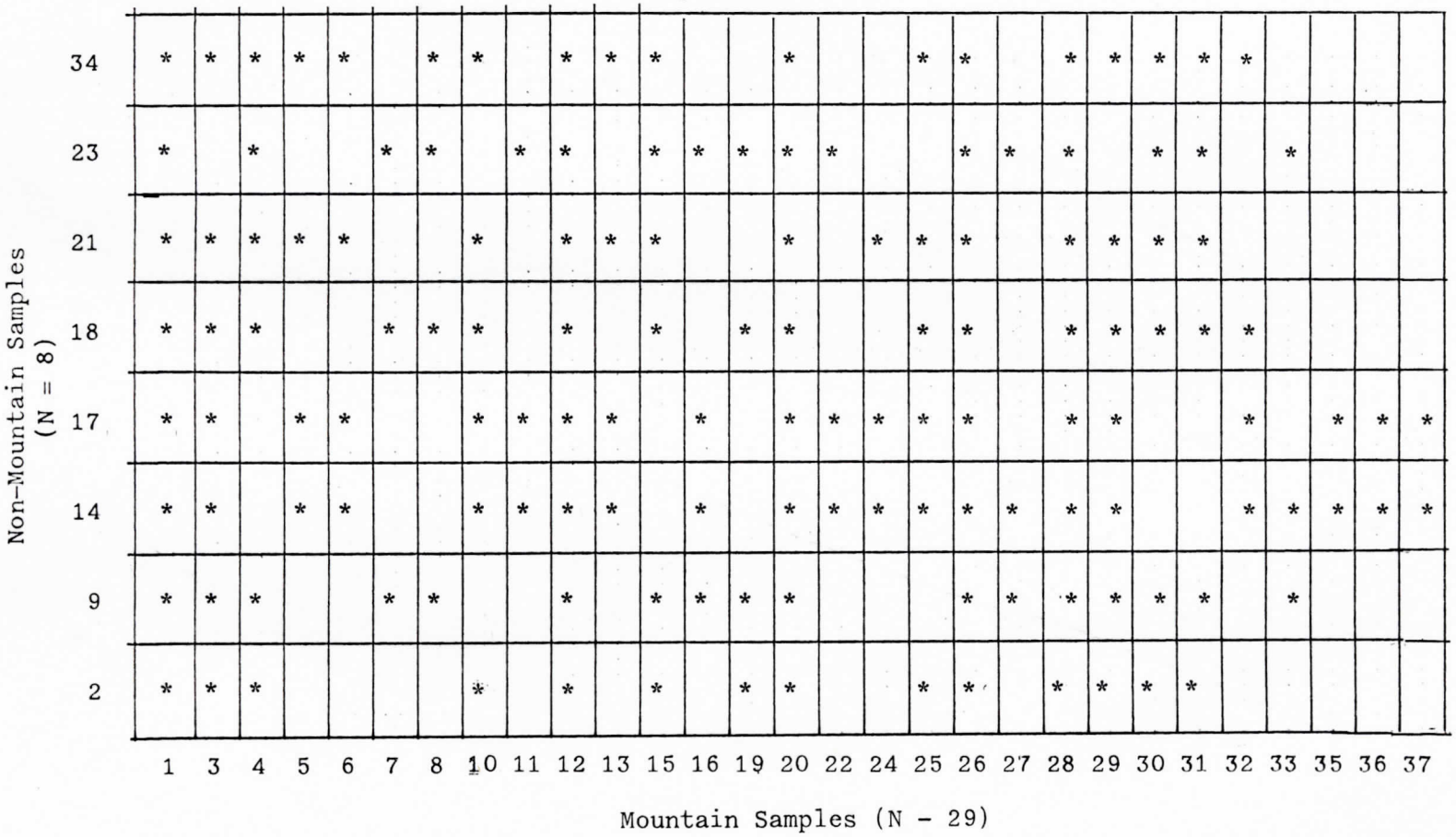
BETWEEN MOUNTAIN AND NON-MOUNTAIN SAMPLES

| | Mean | t-Value | p Level |
|---|---|---|---|
| Mountain | 20.7 | 1.00 | NS |
| Non-Mountain | | | |

Figure 5

SIGNIFICANT t-TEST DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MOUNTAIN

AND NON-MOUNTAIN SPEECH SAMPLES




* = t significant at p .05

exhibit a negative relationship with the total scale correlation. A high test-retest correlation was found, indicating a high degree of relationship for intra-judge reliability.

A significant difference was found to exist between expressed attitudes toward mountain speech and non-mountain speech for the Evaluative factor. No significant differences were found between the two speech groups for either the Potency or Activity factors. It was concluded that pre-service teachers do express different attitudes toward mountain speech than toward non-mountain speech.

# Chapter 5

# SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

## Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the expressed attitudes of pre-service teachers toward mountain speech in elementary school children. Reliability of the semantic differential scores was determined by total item correlation, item-total correlation, and a test-retest correlation. Each of the three semantic differential factors--Evaluative, Potency, and Activity--contained five items that were analyzed on the basis of mean scale values. A two-tailed t-Test was computed to determine the significance of the difference between the two groups, mountain and non-mountain speech samples, for each factor and to determine the difference between the expressed attitudes toward the mountain and non-mountain speech samples.

All nineteen children, from two different elementary schools, were referred by their teachers and then interviewed. The stimulus tape, consisting of thirty-seven taped speech segments, was played for thirty-five pre-service teachers who listened and then scored the semantic differential scales.

The following findings were based upon statistical analysis of the data during the investigation:

1. No extreme attitudes were expressed toward either the mountain or non-mountain speech samples.

2. The respondents were relatively consistent in scoring each of the speech samples.

3. Two scale items, "rough-smooth" and "rugged-delicate", were recurrently found to exhibit a negative relationship with the total scale correlation.

4. A high degree of relationship was found to exist for respondents' ratings of the two speech segments taped from each child.

5. There was a significant relationship between expressed attitudes for mountain and non-mountain speech samples for the Evaluative factor.

6. There was no significant difference between the expressed attitudes toward the mountain and non-mountain speech segments for either the Potency or Activity factors.

7. There does appear to be a significant difference between the expressed attitudes toward mountain and non-mountain speech, with mountain speech judged more negatively than non-mountain speech.

## Discussion

Results of the present study provide evidence that pre-service teachers do possess different attitudes toward children with mountain speech than toward children with standard speech. Significant relationships were found to exist between the majority of comparisons of mountain and non-mountain speech samples. For those sample comparisons in which a significant difference was not found, the degree to which the child's speech contained characteristics of either mountain or non-mountain dialect may have influenced the respondents' judgments.

Overall, the respondents expressed no extreme attitudes towards either speech group. This finding could be related to a possible

influence of a class on multi-cultural education, presented a few days prior to instrument administration. It is also possible that pre-service teachers actually do not possess extreme attitudes towards children who speak a mountain dialect due to the fact that they have had no teaching experience with such children and the difficulties they may present in a classroom.

Another finding of interest was the negative correlation coefficients between scores where the items "rough-smooth" and "rugged-delicate" were involved. Even when the correlations obtained were not negative, they were considerably lower than the coefficients for all other items. This finding could conceivably be due to the inability of the respondents to relate either adjective pair to recorded speech samples.

Perhaps the most significant implication of the study is that children speaking a mountain dialect do tend to be judged lower and more negatively on the Evaluative factor of the semantic differential. This is in accordance with findings by Osgood and his colleagues (1961) that the Evaluative factor plays the most important role in making judgments, accounting for approximately three-fourths of all judgments made. Given the effect that a teacher's attitude may have on a child's performance in school, the present instrument could prove of value in monitoring the attitudes of teachers presently in the field, as well as pre-service teachers.

## Recommendations for Further Research

The following suggestions are made as the result of the present study:

1. The fact that no extreme attitudes were expressed by the respondents indicates that scores for each sample tended to cluster around the mean. This may suggest that the accuracy of teacher referrals of children, based on dialect, should be explored. This should be examined in a replication of this study in which the researcher identifies children, in addition to accepting teacher referrals.

2. In the event that another study is conducted on the basis of the semantic differential scales used in this study, either one or both of the scale items "rough-smooth" and "rugged-delicate" should be deleted from the scales.

3. In an effort to modify the attitudes of pre-service teachers toward social dialects, the type of scale used in the present study should be administered at the beginning of coursework. Classes dealing in attitudes and social dialects should then be presented to the students. Re-administration of the scales should follow to ascertain the effect that exposure to social dialect and attitude had on the students.

4. A semantic differential scale should be administered to teachers presently in the field, in both mountain and non-mountain areas, on the basis of dialect. Teachers should also provide ratings for each child on intelligence and academic performance. These ratings should then be correlated with the scores obtained from the attitude scales.

5. A study similar to the present one should be conducted with parents and correlated with expressed expectations of their children.

Based on speech samples of other children, the differences in the expressed attitudes of children should be studied. In such a study, a modified semantic differential scale should be administered.

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# Appendix A

## RELEVANT SUBJECT CHARACTERISTICS

| Child Interviewed | Sex | Grade | Teach Referral |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Female | 2 | M |
| 2 | Female | 2 | M |
| 3 | Male | 2 | M |
| 4 | Male | 3 | M |
| 5 | Male | 3 | M |
| 6 | Male | 3 | M |
| 7 | Female | 3 | M |
| 8 | Female | 3 | N-M |
| 9 | Male | 3 | N-M |
| 10 | Male | K | M |
| 11 | Female | K | M |
| 12 | Male | 1 | M |
| 13 | Female | 1 | M |
| 14 | Male | 1 | N-M |
| 15 | Female | 1 | N-M |
| 16 | Male | 2 | M |
| 17 | Female | 1 | M |
| 18 | Female | 1 | M |
| 19 | Male | 3 | M |

M = Mountain Speech

N-M = Non-Mountain Speech

Department of Speech Pathology and Audiology
Speech and Hearing Clinic

Appalachian State University
Boone, North Carolina 28608

704/262-2185

Dear Teacher,

As part of our continuing program of research in speech and language, we need your help in locating children, grades K-3, who demonstrate speech or dialect prevalent in rural mountain areas. Would you please take the time to consider each child in your classroom and decide if his/her speech could be described as Appalachian Mountain dialect. Along with your name please list the name of each child you feel to be appropriate to participate in this study. Any child whom you identify will be individually considered by us, and if selected no child will be identified by name. We are interested only in collecting speech samples. Please return your list to the box of your school speech clinician, _____ as soon as possible. If you have any questions, comments, or concerns please feel free to contact Pam Upchurch at 262-2185 or 264-6734.

Thank you very much.

Department of Speech Pathology and Audiology
Speech and Hearing Clinic

Appalachian State University
Boone, North Carolina 28608

704/262-2185

Dear Parents,

We are studying children in this area and the way they communicate. To complete this study, we need to talk to several school children. We would like permission to talk to your child and ask him/her a few simple questions. Your child may also be tape-recorded. This would take about 15 minutes. Your child's name will not be used in this study; he/she will not be identified in any way.

If you agree for your child to talk with us, please sign here _____. Please have your child return this letter to his/her teacher.

Thank you very much for your time.

Sincerely,

Pam Upchurch

# Appendix D

## THE SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL SCALE

SAMPLE

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | GOOD | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ BAD |
| 2. | WEAK | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ STRONG |
| 3. | NONSTANDARD | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ STANDARD |
| 4. | ROUGH | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ SMOOTH |
| 5. | ACTIVE | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ PASSIVE |
| 6. | LIGHT | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ HEAVY |
| 7. | INCOMPLETE | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ COMPLETE |
| 8. | SIMPLE | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ COMPLEX |
| 9. | RUGGED | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ DELICATE |
| 10. | LOW | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ HIGH |
| 11. | FAST | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ SLOW |
| 12. | LARGE | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ SMALL |
| 13. | DULL | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ SHARP |
| 14. | SUCCESSFUL | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ UNSUCCESSFUL |
| 15. | HOT | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ COLD |

# Appendix E

## Instructions to Respondents for Scoring the Semantic Differential

The following instructions were provided verbally to each respondent prior to instrument administration:

You are about to listen to thirty-seven taped speech samples of children. The packet of score sheets before you contains thirty-seven pages, with one sample number and one set of scales appearing on each page. Each taped sample will be preceded by the number for that particular sample, which corresponds to the numbered sample on the score sheet.

In order to score the scales, listen to each sample carefully. Scoring is based on the way you feel about each particular sample you hear. Look at each adjective-pair item contained in each scale. If you feel the speech sample is extremely related to either of the adjectives for an item, place an "X" on the line of the space closest to the way you feel. For example, if you feel a speech sample is extremely good, place an "X" in the space closest to the adjective "good". The position of each space is labeled directly under the sample number. Indicate only one position--extremely, quite, slightly, or neutral--for each of the fifteen items. Please score all fifteen items for all thirty-seven sample scales.

It should be emphasized that there are no right or wrong answers. Scoring is based totally on your individual feelings toward each sample; your first impressions and immediate reactions are to serve as the basis for scoring.

The purpose of this study will be explained at the end of the task so as not to bias your judgments prior to scoring. Are there any questions?

# Appendix F

## RAW DATA FOR TEST-RETEST OF MOUNTAIN AND NON-MOUNTAIN SPEECH SAMPLES

### Mountain Samples

| Child | Stimulus Tape Sample Number | Mean Scale Value |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | 1 | 3.5 |
| | 25 | 3.9 |
| 2 | 3 | 3.7 |
| | 13 | 4.0 |
| 3 | 4 | 4.6 |
| | 7 | 4.6 |
| 4 | 5 | 4.0 |
| 5 | 6 | 4.0 |
| | 24 | 4.0 |
| 6 | 8 | 4.4 |
| | 15 | 4.7 |
| 7 | 10 | 3.8 |
| | 12 | 3.6 |
| 8 | 11 | 4.2 |
| | 37 | 4.1 |
| 9 | 16 | 4.3 |
| | 27 | 4.3 |
| 10 | 19 | 4.4 |
| | 31 | 4.7 |
| 11 | 20 | 3.1 |
| | 26 | 3.3 |
| 12 | 22 | 4.2 |
| | 33 | 4.3 |
| 13 | 28 | 3.7 |
| | 30 | 4.1 |
| 14 | 29 | 4.9 |
| | 36 | 4.6 |
| 15 | 32 | 4.0 |
| | | 4.1 |

Appendix F (Continued)

Non-Mountain Samples

| Child | Stimulus Tape Sample Number | Mean Scale Value |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 4.2 |
| | 23 | 4.0 |
| 2 | 9 | 4.0 |
| | 21 | 4.2 |
| 3 | 14 | 4.6 |
| | 17 | 4.6 |
| 4 | 18 | 4.2 |
| | 34 | 4.2 |