

A STUDY OF THE LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT  
OF UTE INDIAN CHILDREN

by

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A thesis submitted to the faculty of the  
University of Utah in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of

Master of Arts

Department of Speech

University of Utah

August 1969

This Thesis for the  
Master of Arts Degree

by

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Has been approved  
August 1969

Chairman, \_\_\_\_\_ Committee

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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my appreciation to those who have aided me in this project. Phillip Ellis granted permission for the use of facilities and the testing of children in the Uintah School District. Gerald Mitchell, principal of the Todd Elementary School was always cooperative and supplied considerable information on the subjects in this study. A very special thanks is extended to the students tested and to their teachers.

I also wish to acknowledge the assistance given by my committee chairman, Dr. Marvin Hanson, and by Dr. Merlin Mecham. Their continual support and suggestions during the time of data collection and writing of the thesis were of tremendous help.

Finally, I give grateful acknowledgement to my wife, Mary Jane, who did all of the typing for this thesis and to our daughter, Kimberly, whose captivating smile and candid remarks kept us going even when we otherwise might have given up.

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to analyze three aspects of language development (grammar, receptive language and expressive language) in Ute Indian children so as to have more insight into their problems and thus be better able to recommend specific programs for English language development.

The review of the literature discussed (1) the American Indian and his education; (2) the Ute Indians; (3) the culturally disadvantaged; (4) bilingualism; (5) language.

The subjects consisted of sixteen randomly selected full-blood Ute Indian children from the kindergarten classes and an equal number from the third grade. The purpose of the testing was to discover any significant differences between the scores of these children and the norms.

Sixteen average white children were selected randomly from the same classes as the above Indian subjects (eight from the kindergarten and eight from the third grade). These children were tested in order to determine if they were handicapped in language development by attending public schools with a large group of Indian children.

The Utah Test of Language Development and the Grammatic Closure subtest of the revised (1968) edition

of the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities were administered to all subjects in that order. One fourth of the Indian subjects were retested on both measures.

Twelve null hypotheses were then analyzed by means of nonparametric statistics. The significance level set for rejecting the null hypotheses was the .05 level.

It was shown that kindergarten Ute Indian children scored significantly below the norms on all language measures used. Their scores reached the .001 level for expressive language, the .05 level for receptive language, and the .05 level on grammar.

The third grade Indian children scored below the norms at the .05 level on the expressive language section, but showed no significant difference for receptive scores. Their grammar scores, however, were below the norms at the .001 level of confidence.

Caucasian kindergarten children scored significantly above the norms for the total UTLD language score at the .05 level. There were no significant differences, however, between their grammar scores and the norms.

The third grade white children's scores did not differ significantly from the norms on either the UTLD or the grammar test.

Within the limits of this study, the investigator concluded that grammar seemed to be the greatest language deficiency among Ute Indian children. All of the Indian



children also displayed a weakness in expressive skills. Receptive language, however, seemed to constitute their area of least difficulty. White children attending public schools with a large percentage of Indian children are not handicapped in the acquisition of language skills.

Several recommendations that could help eliminate these language deficiencies in the Indian group were made. They included acquiring materials like the Tweedy Visual Lingual Reading Program or the Peabody Language Development Kits that would make language acquisition enjoyable. It was also suggested that expressive language be developed through discussions about experiences in the child's environment. Finally it was recommended that the curriculum of the older children who have not had the benefits of the above mentioned programs be revised so that they can receive extra language training in place of other class subjects.

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The founding fathers used the words, "all men are created equal," in the Declaration of Independence to denote equality before the law, but that phrase has also been interpreted to mean equality of opportunity for all men. In the 1890's, with this in mind, John Dewey lectured on the need of education to be a part of the social process, contending that its responsibility was to teach students to live and work together in a modern society. (Current, 1964)

Kirk (1962) expressed the opinion of most educators when he said that the responsibility of education today is to help each child (whether average, dull, bright or physically handicapped) to learn to his full capacity. With this concept in mind our government has invested millions of dollars in special services for the exceptional children of America. These services include special education for the mentally retarded, Head Start for the culturally disadvantaged, schools for the deaf and blind, remedial reading, and speech therapy. These programs not only help the exceptional children enrolled, but also ensure that the average children in the classrooms of

America will have more of their teacher's time to help with the problems that confront them.

In order for the United States to retain her greatness education must be made available to all of her people. It must not only be given to the average and exceptional middle class children, but to minority groups and the poor as well. The Indians of America number well over 500,000, and as such constitute a significant minority group. They also account for about 2% of this country's poor. As citizens of this country they are entitled to the opportunity to receive a good education and make of their lives what they will. We, as educators, have a responsibility to help them learn and achieve to their full capacity.

The Indians were first exposed to education in mission schools. Many of these schools were good, but we also hear of those missions in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries that had little or no respect for Indians as humans, treating them only as savages that were to be tamed by any means and whose traditions and sacred rites were to be destroyed. (Zintz, 1960) Beginning about 1850, the Federal government set up schools for the Indians under the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA). These BIA schools and the remaining mission schools of the 1900's did a great deal for the education of the Indians. In

1950, Congress passed Public Laws 815 and 874 which reimbursed public school districts for the cost of housing and educating Indian children. As these laws took effect, school districts throughout the country took steps to have the Indian children in their areas enrolled in public schools. At that time Uintah School District took over the BIA school in Whiterocks and established an elementary and junior high school near Fort Duchesne, Utah. Approximately 50% of the students enrolled in these schools today are Indians.

Coombs (1958) discovered that Indian children in public schools did significantly better than Indians attending BIA or mission schools. He also found, however, that despite their academic superiority, they didn't seem to learn their subjects as well as the caucasians, for they fell further behind national norms the older they got.

Coombs states, and is corroborated by Boyce (1960) that:

...whereas the mean scores of the area groups were close to the published norms of the California Achievement tests at grades four and five, they tended to fall progressively farther below the "National" Norms as the higher grades were reached. This phenomenon has characterized the scores of every area group in this study. (1958, p. 3)

The Ute Indian Tribe, although small (1600 members), is a relatively rich tribe with assets well over eight million dollars. Most of the families live in older frame homes, but they do have electricity, running water and some televisions, which to the Hopi and Navajo Tribes in

Arizona would be a luxury. The tribal language and traditions are still important to most of the older generation, but they express fear that some of the younger people are forgetting the language and customs of the tribe. Despite the fact that the younger generation is becoming more "Americanized" by the effects of television and schooling, they still spend most of their time on the reservation and are thus in constant contact with a culture different from that of the middle class in our society. This conflict between the middle class atmosphere at school and the Indian culture at home has some negative effect on the way in which Ute Indian children perform in school.

#### LANGUAGE

One of the basic skills required for appropriate school achievement is language. Without a fundamental knowledge of the language in which the school curriculum is taught a child has little hope of being able to do well in school. Being cognizant of this, one can understand the excitement of Erma Clark (1965, p. 407), director of the Ute Tribe Nursery School (school closed in 1965), as she spoke about her Ute nursery children, "Their increase in amount of verbalization and vocabulary is astounding."

Seago (1925, p. 2) says that:

Verbal language is the chief medium of thought, and therefore, it is of value to study growth and

facility in the use of language as an index of growth and facility in perceptual and thought processes.

Verbal language can be broken into two main parts, receptive and expressive language. It is through these channels that most of a child's communication occurs. Even reading and writing are based on the degree of oral language proficiency a child possesses.

Reese (1968, p. 3) says:

Therefore, when a child develops normal oral language ability, he acquires a vital tool in making it possible for him to meet the challenges and opportunities of our society. On the other hand, if a child does not have the opportunity to develop oral language, he is at an extreme disadvantage in meeting his full potential.

It is of the utmost importance that the public schools realize their responsibilities in helping children overcome their language disabilities so that they can compete effectively in our society. In order for this to be accomplished, the school district must be shown exactly what language problems exist and how they can be resolved.

#### STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this study is to examine the three main aspects of oral English language development (receptive language, expressive language and grammar) in Ute Indian children. Tests will be administered to children at the end of the kindergarten and third grades in order to

determine any language deficiencies.

#### JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

Many Indian children have language difficulties. Once the areas in which they encounter the most trouble have been determined, a strong language program devised to meet each specific problem can be initiated. In this way, these children can be helped to achieve a better control over the English language. The Uintah School Board apparently agrees with this thinking in that they granted permission for this researcher to work with the Ute Indian children in their schools under the stipulation that he recommend programs that can be used to overcome any language deficiencies discovered.

Some parents of white children attending these schools have expressed the opinion that their children's education has been hurt because the total educational pace has been slowed down to accommodate the slower learning rate of the Indian children. It was thought wise to test some of the white children in order to compare them with the Indian group and also with the printed norms for the tests used.

#### HYPOTHESES

This study has been designed to see if both kindergarten and third grade Ute Indian children will score signi-

ificantly lower than the norms on language tests that have expressive, receptive, and grammar scores.

When the following twelve null hypotheses have either been accepted or rejected, it is felt that enough information will be available to describe the specific language problems of the Indian children.

The twelve null hypotheses that form the base of this study are:

1. There is no significant difference between receptive and expressive social language scores of kindergarten Ute Indian children and norms.
2. There is no significant difference between receptive and expressive social language scores of third grade Ute Indian children and the norms.
3. There is no significant difference between expressive language scores of kindergarten Ute Indian children and the norms.
4. There is no significant difference between expressive language scores of third grade Ute Indian children and the norms.
5. There is no significant difference between receptive language scores of kindergarten Ute Indian children and the norms.
6. There is no significant difference between receptive language scores of third grade Ute Indian children and the norms.



7. There is no significant difference between Grammatical Closure scores of kindergarten Ute children and the norms.

8. There is no significant difference between Grammatical Closure scores of third grade Ute Indian children and the norms.

9. There is no significant difference between receptive and expressive social language scores of kindergarten caucasian children and the norms.

10. There is no significant difference between receptive and expressive social language scores of third grade caucasian children and the norms.

11. There is no significant difference between Grammatical Closure scores of kindergarten caucasian children and the norms.

12. There is no significant difference between Grammatical Closure scores of third grade caucasian children and the norms.

#### DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following definitions are considered basic to the understanding of this study.

Bilingualism will refer to varying abilities in the use of two languages. This will range from knowing only a few words in the second tongue to being highly proficient in both languages. (Malherbe, 1946)

Delayed language will refer to language abilities that have not developed at a normal rate within a child. It can be caused by any multitude of things like brain injury, cultural deprivation, or immaturity. (Wood, 1964)

Expressive language will be viewed as the means by which a person expresses or communicates his thoughts to others, usually through the avenues of speech or writing.

Grammatical Closure refers to the ability to close the gap or fill in the missing word through the use of habits or rules of grammar which have been acquired. For example, "Here is a dog. Here are two \_\_\_\_\_." The correct answer is dogs. (Kirk, 1968)

Language will refer to any means of communicating abstract ideas, feelings, or memories through the use of any organized symbols, such as speech, listening, reading, writing or gesture. (Wood, 1964)

Receptive language will refer to that channel of language which a person uses in order to understand others.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Five different areas of literature were reviewed in obtaining background information for this study. These areas will be presented and discussed in the following order: (1) the American Indian and his education; (2) the Ute Indians; (3) the culturally disadvantaged; (4) bilingualism and how it effects the Indian; (5) language, its importance and how it can be developed.

#### THE AMERICAN INDIAN AND HIS EDUCATION

Contrary to the opinions of many, the American Indian belongs to a flourishing community. Frost (1966, p. 2) estimates that by 1975, there will be approximately 750,000 Indians in the United States. He goes on to say that, "Impoverishment is characteristic of the half million Indians in the United States," and that Indians, as a group, make up a little less than 2% of the American poor.

In visiting different Indian tribes in Utah and Arizona, this investigator, although expecting some poverty, was shocked with the degree of poverty in the different tribes. Visiting them seemed like visiting people in the eighteenth century. To see one room homes made of mud,

stone and timber, many of them lacking electricity and running water, housing a good percentage of Navajo and Hopi Indian families was sad indeed. Other families on the Navajo and Hopi Indian Reservations lived in stone, cinderblock or frame homes with many modern conveniences, but they were in the minority. Poverty on the Ute Indian Reservation was less striking, although still evident as seen in their small frame homes; many of them broken down and in need of paint and repair.

Four common consequences of poverty are, delinquency, dropping out of school, mental retardation and educational retardation. Realizing that it is doubtful that government financial aid can remove these effects of poverty, Indian tribes throughout the country are concentrating on two things: (1) good educations for their children, and (2) finding employment for their labor force.

Dillan Myer, (1951) Commissioner of Indian Affairs, stated:

The object of work with and for the Indians is to fit them either to merge into social and economic life of the prevailing civilization or to live in the presence of that civilization at least in accordance with a minimum standard of health and decency.

These are the objectives of the schools.

Unlike public schools, Indian schools are controlled by a department of the Federal Government. National goals have been established and all BIA schools are required to

strive for these goals by teaching the curriculum outlined by the government. These Indian goals are good as a rule, but they have caused problems in the past. Back in the 1850's, the government decided that Indians would make good farmers, and as a consequence, the Indian school curriculum, as late as 1944, consisted of half a day of an academic program and half a day of agricultural training. Most Indian schools at that time supported dairies and school farms. In the 1950's, it was decided to increase academic learning and to introduce vocational training in the schools. As a consequence of this national goal, school farms passed from existence. (Jackson, 1965) In 1950, laws were passed that allowed the Indians to be integrated into the public school system. This, as Coombs (1958) showed, was to the benefit of the Indian children. When comparing Indians and white children on the basis of achievement, in different school systems, in order to discover where the maximum learning took place, he found the following descending order:

1. White pupils in public schools
2. Indian pupils in public schools
3. Indian pupils in Federal schools
4. Indian pupils in mission schools

It was also discovered that mixed bloods did better than full-blood Indians in school.

Indian education today occurs in three places --

BIA schools, mission schools and public schools with the trend being to enroll Indian children in public schools whenever feasible. The school curriculum today is more academic with some vocational training available. Indian children have had extremely high absentee and school drop out rates in the past, but more and more are now completing high school and many are going on for post high school education in colleges, universities and vocational schools.

#### THE UTE INDIANS

The present investigator feels that although it is unfair to stereotype groups, the Utes do fit into the typical Indian way of life. They aren't as poor as some, but they have had the same general education and experiences as the average American Indian.

The annual income of the Utes in 1949, was approximately \$1,525 per household. In order to sustain life, their income had to be supplemented by farming, fishing, hunting and gathering. Through settlements with the Federal Government over lands which had been taken from them, they have or will receive approximately twenty five million dollars. The first of this money was received in 1951. During the five ensuing years unearned income averaged from \$29,000 for four member households to \$40,000 for six member households. (Jorgensen, 1964) Unearned income

at the present time has ceased and almost all tribal members are receiving either state or tribal assistance.

According to Jorgensen, prejudice is widespread in the communities with the non-Indian population referring to the Utes as lazy, dirty, drunkards and brawlers. Relations between white and Indian are at a minimum and usually confine themselves to business transactions. (1964, p. 312)

Witherspoon (1961) made the following conclusions regarding Ute Indian children's attitudes about life, education, and the world in which they live:

Ute children view the world as a series of unrelated objects and events seen in general form. They do not question the source of the elements which make up their world. Things are as they are and the Ute waste little time on speculation on how they came to be. The adults believe that the natural objects, plants, and animals were brought into being at the time of the creation. Each category received its form and characteristics at that time and has retained them essentially unchanged ever since. The behaviors of people are ascribed in a similar way to the innate, perhaps predetermined characteristics of the particular person. The Ute children cannot reproduce the details of the myths, but they quickly acquire the notion that things and events are as they are because it is their nature. The notion of causality as a combination of factors, one of which is the behavior of the actor, is foreign to the Ute child.

The Ute child sees objects and events in their general outlines. They are oriented to wholes, to complete gestalts, with very little attention paid to details. They react to situations quickly, without taking the time to examine the intricacies that become apparent upon close scrutiny. Analytical thinking is very difficult for Ute children and adults, with the result that they approach problem situations on a superficial level.

In a similar way, the Ute are frequently satisfied

with superficial solutions to problems. They are prone to snap judgements and snap decisions.

The idea of alternatives is difficult for the Utes to understand. They usually act upon the first idea which occurs to them. If this solution fails, they simply refuse to tackle the problem again.

The Ute do not readily perceive relationships between people or between events. In a similar way, they frequently fail to perceive the consequences of their own behaviors. It is particularly difficult for them to discern the influence which their own behavior has upon other people and vice-versa.

This view of the world is antithetical to satisfactory performance in the school system in the Uintah Basin. It leads on the one hand to over-confidence in approaching problems and, on the other hand, to resignation and a ready acceptance of failure. The Ute students' lack of anxiety about this means that one source of motivation which teachers frequently use is inoperative. The ready acceptance of what the Whites view as failure leads the student to drop out of school upon slight provocation.

The unanalytical approach to the outer world is accompanied by a lack of comparison of self with standards set up by others. The Ute child measures his performance against his own evaluation of what he should do. What other people think he should do is a matter of small concern.

The Ute child sees the world as a place where unrelated events and things occur without help or hindrance from him. He has little curiosity about the genesis of these things and events, and he feels no responsibility for them. He takes from the world those satisfactions that come to him, and he spends little time in regret for those that pass him by. He expends little effort in changing things since he feels that such efforts would be a waste of time.

The Ute child, especially as he grows older, divides the world into two segments, the Indian and the White.

As he enters adolescence, this division becomes ever more marked. The White culture remains obscure and the behavior of the Whites never ceases to be an enigma. The White world is strange, unexplainable, and frequently frightening. The Indian world is less com-



plicated, more easily understood, and places fewer demands upon him.

This world view almost precludes the possibility of the Ute child doing well in the public schools.

The response to wholes and lack of attention to detail, the confident unanalytical approach, the lack of attention to other peoples' expectations and standards, the easy acceptance of failure, and the fear of the White Man's world are a combination so alien to the public schools as to almost guarantee failure. (Witherspoon, 1961, pp. 159-162)

Witherspoon drew these conclusions after extensive observations and interviews with the Utes. If these statements are correct, then they can be of great value to the teacher and should certainly be considered when developing a school program to take advantage of the assets in the Ute culture.

To further help understand the feelings of the Utes in regards to education, it is necessary to refer to history. Jorgensen (1964) gives a fairly clear picture of the educational history of the Utes in his doctoral dissertation.

Agent Critchlow, of the BIA, was the first man to set up schools for the Ute Indians. His first attempt was in 1876, but the school remained open only three months. During the next six years, schools were opened four times, but couldn't keep going. From 1883-1892, the school was open for only twenty months.

In 1901, sixty five children at the Whiterocks school got the measles. Many parents on hearing this

removed their children from the boarding school and brought them to their medicine men. Seventeen children died. Four other children died that same year while attending the Indian school at Randlett. In 1904, eleven children died. Needless to say, the Indian parents blamed the schools and the "white man" for these losses and were not too eager to send other children to the government schools. (Jorgensen, 1964) From 1933 to 1953, seventy one of 4% of the eligible Indian youth graduated from high school. During the same period, 90% had dropped out of school by the end of the eighth grade. (McClellan, 1953) Indian education seemed to be going nowhere.

Prior to the 1952-53 school year, most of the elementary aged Ute Indian children had attended the BIA boarding school at Whiterocks. In 1950, with the passage of Public Laws 815 and 874, the way was opened for attendance at public schools. The Ute Tribal Committee realized the potential importance of this and brought forth a number of reasons for desiring to transfer Indians to public schools. They felt that the segregated nature of the Indian BIA school tended to retard their children. They also felt that it instilled prejudices and led to a feeling of inferiority among the Utes. Their request was granted and some Ute children were integrated into public schools in the 1951-52 school year. The rest joined them in the fall of 1952. (McClellan, 1953)

Although Ute Indian children still exhibit poor academic performance and many of them still drop out of school, it is felt that a lot of progress has been made. Jorgensen, (1964) however, concludes his study with this paragraph:

Utes then are prejudiced against, but allowed to attend county schools. They receive graduation diplomas, but do not receive educations. Even when they attend post-high school institutions and acquire skills, they tend to wander back to the reservation, where they cannot find work. (1964, p. 319)

Jorgensen feels that Ute education has a long way to go before it can be considered up to par. He criticizes educators who allow Indian children in their classrooms, not for teaching purposes, but in order to receive Federal Indian support money.

Wennhold (1967) makes a statement which, when viewed along with Witherspoon's statements at the beginning of this section, could have a bearing on why the Indians seem to slip further behind their grade levels as they get older. He states that, "Peer group and tribal acceptance is related to withdrawal from white goals." (1967, p. 26) Jorgensen (1964) agrees with this and mentions that of ninety youths between the ages of thirteen and twenty two that he was acquainted with, all but four spoke their native tongue as their first language. Those four who spoke English as their first language and had to struggle with the Ute dialect were constantly harrassed and called names like

Mirakac (white man), Nimirakac (mixed blood) or anipakit nuc (crazy Indian).

If Ute Indian children fall below their grade levels because they have no desire to learn, the responsibility is ours to motivate them, for if the majority of the children develop a desire to learn, then the others will probably follow suit.

With a notion that learning could be fun, Erma Clark founded a nursery school for Ute children on the reservation. In a report written eighteen months after the school was organized, she noted "astounding" increases in the amount of verbalization and vocabulary that the children used. Clark also noticed an increased attention span and a greater feeling of self-worth among her Indian pre-schoolers. (Clark, 1965) The Ute Indian Tribe financed this entire program, but had to give it up after approximately two years, due to lack of funds. Since then, however, a full year Head Start program has been established and is receiving a lot of support even though it is controlled by the Federal Government.

Griffiths (1967) was also interested in the effects which a pre-school program could have on the Ute Indian child. He concluded that an intensive pre-school program was significantly effective (.0005) in increasing intellectual functioning. By intensive, Griffiths referred to a

half day class five times a week with a pupil-adult ratio of between 6:1 and 11:1, a program of sending materials home with the children and having meetings with parents every other week.

Griffiths also found significant results in the expected direction between children who had completed a nine week pre-school and children who had had no pre-school experience.

The one sad thing that Griffiths discovered was that children, while attending either kindergarten in the public schools or a less intensive full year nursery school, lost much of the intellectual functioning they had previously acquired (1967, p. 76)

#### CULTURAL DEPRIVATION

Although the Utes today can be considered poor, they are not as financially bad off as many other groups in our country. Cultural poverty or deprivation, however, seems to be a real obstacle to the progress of the Ute children in the schools.

Bloom (1964) describes cultural deprivation:

In the present educational system in the U.S. (and elsewhere) we find a substantial group of students who do not make normal progress in their school learning. Predominantly, these are the students whose early experiences in the home, whose motivation for present school learning, and whose goals for the future are such as to handicap them in schoolwork.

We will refer to this group as culturally disadvantaged or culturally deprived because we believe the roots of their problem may in large part be traced to their experiences in homes which do not transmit the cultural patterns necessary for the types of learning characteristic of the schools and the larger society.

A large proportion of these youth come from homes in which the adults have a minimal level of education. Many of them come from homes where poverty, large family size, broken homes, discrimination, and slum conditions further complicate the picture. (1964, p. 3)

When we speak of the culturally deprived, we usually think of the Negro, Puerto Rican, Indian or some other minority group. It is true that many culturally deprived children are found in these groups, but is also true, as Bloom (1964, p. 4) states, that as many as one third of the Negro population in our large cities are up to white educational norms. In order to identify the culturally deprived then, we must look at the individual family environment.

When middle class parents talk, read, and constantly introduce their children to new and interesting things in the environment, they are unconsciously teaching them to find pleasure in learning, to attend to other people, to engage in purposive action. These children are also taught to delay immediate gratification in order to achieve some distant objective. All of these elements are not necessarily absent in the culturally deprived home, but they do not, as a rule, play a central child rearing role in these homes. (Bloom, 1964)

Present school practices do not succeed in overcoming the initial differences between culturally advantaged and culturally disadvantaged children. Instead, what start as small measurable differences in the first grade become larger each year. By the end of the sixth year of school, there is a cumulative deficit in the school achievement of the culturally disadvantaged children which shows up most clearly in the tool subjects of reading and arithmetic. But, even in the measures of general intelligence many of these children appear to decline during the period of grade 1 to grade 6. It is this cumulative deficit which must be reversed as early as possible in the culturally deprived child's school career.

The first three years of the elementary school are critical. If learning is not successful and satisfying in these years, the entire educational career of the child is seriously jeopardized. The child's interest in school learning, the problems of the school dropout, and the educational and vocational career of the individual are largely determined by what takes place in the first few years of public school.

Even more serious than the lack of effective conventional school learning is the effect of continuous failure on the child's image of himself and his attitude toward others. It is a serious blow to one's pride to suffer failure time and time again. Success gives one courage to attempt more and more complex tasks -- failure does not. (Bloom, 1964, pp. 14-15)

Since the present school system's first few year's curriculum is unable to overcome the problems of these children, changes must be made. Research indicates that intensive pre-school situations must be established with a lot of parental involvement and that this program must be continued through the first three years of elementary school in order to maintain and establish any gains that are made.

Edward Zigler, (1967) a leader of the Head Start movement, made several comments as Head Start entered its third year. He said:

The purpose of Head Start is not one of teaching intellectual abilities like reading. I think the role of Head Start is best thought of in terms of changing the child's attitudes -- his motivations and values... to make him think of himself in terms of success and setting higher goals in life rather than doomed to failure. (1967, p. 72)

Zigler gives the opinion that if Head Start children go to poor elementary schools they will probably lose all that they have gained.

Throughout the literature (McConnel, 1969) (Griffiths, 1967) (Carlton, 1966) research is presented showing that the educational effects of cultural deprivation can be overcome. It must be overcome, not only because we owe these children a good education, but because we are wasting taxpayers money by putting them through school when they are not learning. (Bloom, 1964)

#### BILINGUALISM

It was felt that, although this study deals entirely with English language development, it would be wise to review the literature on bilingualism, since this condition exists among the Utes and will have some effect on English language scores of Ute children. The investigator noted that while all Ute children spoke English well, quite a few third grade and some kindergarten children spoke English with what appeared to be a "foreign accent."

Mahlerbe (1946) expresses the opinion that there are



many different stages of bilingualism varying from knowing only a few words in the second language to speaking both fluently. Singer (1956) agrees, but goes on to say that even though a person may be bilingual he is rarely ever equilingual (knowing both languages equally well).

Saer (1923) stated that having a knowledge of two languages leads to mental confusion. This opinion has received a lot of support from different researchers. Darcy (1953) reviewed scores of available research studies on the subject and came up with some interesting results. She found that those who believe bilingualism is favorable to scores on intelligence tests were in a definite minority. Many studies indicated that bilingualism had no effect on I.Q. scores, but the majority of the reliable studies available seemed to indicate that bilingual students will do worse than the monoglot in verbal I.Q. tests, but will do about the same on non-verbal tests.

Soffietti (1955) brings up a good point in saying that bilingualism is not simply a problem involving the use of two languages, because the person who is bilingual usually has a problem with conflicting cultures as well. Zintz (1960) agrees with this, saying that since a culture is passed on mainly through the native language, the person using that language is linked to certain beliefs, customs and value systems.

Most investigators, then, feel that bilingualism

causes problems in schooling and social activities. Persky (1954) and Manuel (1960), however, express the opinion that if a second language is learned at a young age and in a social context as opposed to the formal classroom, that it can be learned easily and without any mental confusion. Penfield (1953) concurs as he states:

If languages are learned at the right age, multiple languages may be learned perfectly with little effort and without psychological confusion. Physiological evolution causes the brain to specialize in the learning of language before the ages of 10-14. After that, gradually, inevitably, it seems to become rigid, slow, less receptive. (1953, p. 201)

Jamieson (1928) studied Canadian Indians who could speak English and understand their Indian dialect. He concluded that, despite the fact that only forty-five percent of the Indians could speak their own dialect, they did not use English with the facility of white children of a corresponding social status.

The Ute Indians have learned English in a social situation and appear quite adept with it, but we don't know if they are truly comfortable with it. As Mahlerbe stated, there are many different stages of bilingualism. This study will probably reaffirm this fact since it is assumed that different Indian children have mastered English in differing degrees.

## LANGUAGE

Language, according to Black (1962) requires two things: First, an expression of thought between two living beings, and, second, that there be an understanding between the two concerning a set of symbols that can be understood by both. It doesn't matter whether they be words or gestures as long as one symbol always stands for the same or approximately the same things.

In investigating the functions of language, Mussen (1960) reviews the work of several investigators. According to Mussen, Piaget collected 1500 remarks from two six year old children during periods of free play in 1926. Piaget concluded that 38% of their remarks were egocentric (children talking for pleasure and mainly to themselves), while 62% were social (talking to others, asking questions and threatening, etc.). McCarthy duplicated Piaget's study in 1930, with 140 children, but used pictures and toys to elicit words and sentences. She recorded fifty remarks from each child and concluded that only 3.6% of all speech was egocentric. Another investigator, Day, got the same results as McCarthy, while Fisher, in 1932, confirmed Piaget's findings. Mussen (1960) feels that the controversy between the two schools of thought arises partially by the methods of collecting data, but mainly through

differences in categorization. Mussen concluded that language is primarily used in a social sense (to express feelings and elicit responses), but that with younger children, it can also be used in an egocentric sense.

Groht (1958) doesn't like quibbling over minute functions of languages. For all purposes, to her and most other educators, language has a social function. She says:

True language cannot be taught by rote. It cannot be divested of its social significance nor removed from its social setting. To be real, language must be fraught with meaning. There must be reasons for using it and these reasons must spring from the individual's deep need for making known his thoughts, ideas, needs, desires, hopes, imaginations, joys and perplexities. (1958, p. 1)

She goes on to say that, "Language is the means through which all learning and growth takes place."

(Groht, 1958)

Laird (1953) states:

Man is sometimes described as a tool-using animal; language is his basic tool. It is the tool more than any other with which he makes his living, makes his home, makes his life. As man becomes more and more a social being, as the world becomes more and more a social community, communication grows ever more imperative. And language is the basis of communication. Language is also the instrument with which we think, and thinking is the rarest and most needed commodity in the world. (1953, p. 260)

Terman (1916) says that language development "mirrors" the entire mental development of a child. Along this same line of thinking, McCandless (1967) said, "Language development during infancy has been shown to be more highly related

to later tests of intelligence than any other measure of infant intelligence." (1967, p. 373)

One main theme that emerges from the literature about language is that it is a living, growing thing. A teacher can no more force language growth on a child than a parent can force physical growth. A child's language can be encouraged to grow, however, through the means of a good environment and the proper mental "nourishment."

Groht (1958) talks about vocabulary and language patterns as developing naturally from experiences in her classroom.

The vocabulary and language of the class should emerge from all the varied interests and activities engaged in throughout the year. Out of each activity should grow some particular concept of the world (from a child's point of view), some new words, some everyday expressions, some needed questions associated with the activity, and most important of all, the beginnings of a language pattern. (1958, p. 38)

There are four types of language vocabulary; (Miller, 1969) listening, speaking, reading, and writing. They are learned in this order, but grow at different rates so that by the fifth grade, reading language is the largest, followed by writing, listening and then speaking. Miller states that although these languages may interact with each other, they are essentially independent. He goes on to say:

Even though a person may comprehend the meaning of an uncommon word in its written form, this word may not exist in his spoken vocabulary unless a deliberate attempt has been made to incorporate it. (Miller, 1969)

## Language for the Culturally Deprived

McCandless (1967) has made a concise statement about speech and language as seen in culturally deprived children:

Vocabulary and general adequacy of speech vary by socioeconomic class. Speech is poorer in form and articulation, less in amount, more restrictive and less precise for children at lower socioeconomic levels than for those at higher social levels. (1967, p. 361)

He feels that these problems are due to a lack of certain environmental experiences. The available literature suggests that parents of a culturally deprived family do not talk with one another or their children to any great extent. When a child asks a question the parents may either nod their heads, shrug their shoulders or simply grunt rather than take time to explain things in detail. Williams (1968) suggests that the noise level in these homes (music, shouting, etc.) may be so high that children stop listening for speech because it requires too much effort to be understood.

The National Council of Teachers of English Task Force (1965) recommended that oral language receive greater stress for the disadvantaged at all ages from pre-school to adult since, "only as progress is achieved in oral language will there be substantial improvement in reading and writing." (1965, p. 272)

Demeke (1963) states:

Speaking patterns are largely formed during the first 8 years of an individual's life. Changes that

are made after that are slow to come, laborious to achieve and difficult to maintain. Primary teachers are charged with the tremendous responsibility of setting the stage for good speaking habits. (1963, p. 12)

Dunn (1965), one of the originators of the Peabody Language Development Kits, says that overall language abilities can be improved with individual as well as group therapy. In order to maintain language improvement, however, a continuous program must be established. Short term therapy gives significant progress, but is lost within a year after termination of therapy. It is for this reason that Zigler (1967) stresses the necessity of continuing with a strong language program in the early elementary school years.

#### Language Among the Indians

As previously mentioned, Jamieson (1928) discovered that Canadian Indians couldn't use the English language as well as Caucasians of a corresponding social status.

In 1944, Havighurst, feeling that Indians of the southwest were handicapped in their use of English, administered both the Kuhlman-Anderson verbal I.Q. test and the Arthur Scale (a performance or non-verbal) I.Q. test. The Indian mean I.Q. which Havighurst obtained on the Kuhlman-Anderson was 82.5, while on the Arthur scale it was 102.8.

Zintz (1960), realizing that Indian children have language deficiencies, hypothesized:

...when the curriculum is elaborated to provide wider learning experiences for children and when the teacher is acquainted with techniques specifically designed for instruction in oral English and reading readiness, a measurable increment in the achievement of pupils will be noted. (1960, p. 156)

This "elaborated" curriculum consisted mainly of the use of film strips, mounted pictures, three dimensional toys and tape recorders. Significant improvement at the .01 level in all but one school was recorded. Since special handicapping problems existed at that one school, Zintz accepted the original hypothesis.

Abraham (1969) recently completed a reading-readiness investigation of kindergarten Ute Indian children. She described reading-readiness as mainly a language development program which stressed the communication skills; listening, expressing ideas, understanding and interpreting, developing attitudes and values, problem solving techniques and critical thinking. She used the Tweedy Visual-Lingual Reading Program which employs colored transparencies, with overlays, and an overhead projector to evoke oral responses from the children.

Abraham matched the Indian children by sex and I.Q. and then trained the kindergarten teachers to use the program with their classes. After a nine week course, significant language improvement was seen in her experimental group.



Abraham's study with these kindergarten children indicates that Ute Indian children, after undergoing a language oriented pre-school program, need not lose their newly developed talents in the early elementary school period as long as the school system is willing to employ new ideas and programs in their curriculum.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

The main purpose of this study was to evaluate the language of Ute Indian children and thereby diagnose any language disabilities. This was to be achieved by testing and comparing to norms, the grammar, expressive social language, and receptive social language of kindergarten and third grade Indian children.

The following sections will include information on the subjects used and how they were selected, test instruments, investigator qualifications and testing conditions and procedures.

### SUBJECTS

The subjects for this study were 32 full-blood Ute Indians and 16 white school children from the W. Russel Todd Elementary School just outside of Fort Duchesne, Utah. The age range was from five years, eight months to ten years. Twenty four subjects (sixteen Indian and eight white children) were chosen from the two kindergarten classes and a similar number of subjects were chosen from the two third grade classrooms.

Four restrictions were placed on the selection of the Indian children. First, if a child had a hearing loss

he was excluded. Second, any children with gross physical defects were excluded. Third, if a child was considered emotionally disturbed he was not included in the study. Fourth, any children were excluded who were considered mentally handicapped by their teachers to the degree that they would be in a special education class if one was available.

There were no Indian children excluded from the study due to hearing losses or physical defects. One Indian child in the third grade was excluded because of an emotional problem and three Indian third graders and one kindergarten Indian child were excluded because of mental retardation.

There were eighteen eligible Indian children in the kindergarten and twenty in the third grade so the investigator, not knowing any of the children, arbitrarily crossed off four boys from the third grade list and one boy and one girl from the kindergarten list in order to obtain sixteen from each grade. It would have been desirable to have eight boys and eight girls from each grade, but since there were only seven Indian girls available in the third grade, nine boys were selected in order to make sixteen.

Because only two white boys and girls were tested from each of the four rooms, the teachers were asked to restrict selection of white children in one additional way.

After having applied the four above-mentioned subject restrictions to the white children, in their classrooms, the teachers were asked to select the two most nearly average boys and girls of the remaining white students. In this way it was felt that an average sample was obtained in all classes except possibly one kindergarten class where there were only two white boys. The teacher in this case felt that one boy was average, while the other boy was a little below average.

#### TEST INSTRUMENTS

Williams and Little (1937) described the characteristics of a good language test. They said:

A scale for obtaining linguistic age should have several features: (1) it should adequately cover language in its several aspects, (2) it should cover an adequate age range, (3) it should be quickly and easily administered and (4) it should not require extensive training for the tester. (1937, p. 51)

The present investigator feels that the Utah Test of Language Development and the Grammatical Closure subtest of the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities meet these requirements.

#### Utah Test of Language Development

The original version of the UTLD was published in 1958 under the title Utah Verbal Language Development Scale. It was an extension of the communication subscale of the

Vineland Social Maturity Scale, a universally accepted test of social maturity. (Barton, 1967, p. 32) Mecham, Jex and Jones, authors of the test state:

The original, unpublished edition of the Utah Test of Language Development (1958) consisted of 59 items, selected from various standard sources and arranged in order of the originally standardized age levels. The test consisted of both 'informant-interview' type items and items upon which the child was assessed directly. (1967, p. 2)

In 1959, the "informant-interview" form of the scale was published by the American Guidance Service as an extension of the Vineland Social Maturity Scale. The authors, realizing the inconvenience of this indirect form in school situations, however, felt a need for a direct-test form of this scale.

The experimental edition of the "direct-test" version was published in 1965. It was revised in 1967 and published as the Utah Test of Language Development.

The authors of the UTLD describe the test in the following manner:

The Utah Test of Language Development (formerly titled Utah Verbal Language Development Scale) provides the clinician with an objective instrument for measurement of expressive and receptive verbal language skills in both normal and handicapped children. It not only provides a broad overall picture of expressive and receptive skills, but utilizes the developmental approach for appraisal of language readiness. (Mecham, et al., 1967, p. 1)

Reliability studies of the original version of the UTLD were carried out by several investigators. Barnard (1959) found a test-retest reliability coefficient of .960

on 25 mentally retarded subjects. Hartley and Grine (1965) in a study of 28 mentally retarded children in public schools obtained a test-retest correlation on the informant-interview scale of .956. A preliminary norm-sample consisting of 117 randomly selected normal children were tested on both the indirect and direct versions. The correlation coefficient between the two was .967. (Mecham, et al., 1967) The norms as printed in the manual were established with approximately 300 Utah children. (Mecham, 1969)

Griffiths and Ingalls (1968) conducted a validity study of the revised form of the UTLD using mean length of response as the criteria for comparison. These are their conclusions:

- (1) The UTLD and MLR relate significantly.
- (2) The UTLD has better temporal reliability than MLR.
- (3) The UTLD correlates more closely with CA than does MLR.
- (4) The UTLD is more sensitive in discriminating differences in language development as a function of grade level than MLR.
- (5) Sex has no significant influence upon either UTLD scores or MLR.
- (6) SES affects MLR scores significantly but does not affect UTLD scores significantly.

From the analyses of the data the authors study concluded that within the limits of this study the UTLD demonstrates criterion-related validity as shown by its significant relationships with the criterion, MLR. (1968, pp. 69-70)

The UTLD, then, appears to be a reliable and valid test of language development.

#### Grammatical Closure Subtest of the ITPA

The experimental edition of the Illinois Test of

Psycholinguistic Abilities was published in 1960 with the hope that reliability and validity studies would be forthcoming. Approximately fifty studies have been completed since then with varied results.

Weener (1967) says that the ITPA is a fruitful beginning toward the goal of differential diagnosis based on a profile analysis, "but feels that more must be learned of its reliability and validity before the test can be freely used by researchers."

Mathews (1967) noted questionable reliability on five subtests of the ITPA (test-retest coefficients of .50 or less). She gives the opinion that the ITPA must undergo revising before it can be considered a sufficiently reliable and valid test instrument.

The authors were aware of the technically unproven validity of the ITPA, although they developed it with good construct validity. They also stated that when properly administered, reliability was good. (McCarthy, 1967) The norms for the 1960 edition were established with 1000 children having I.Q.'s from 80 to 120. The 1968 edition has new norms, but the authors did not state how these new norms were obtained.

The Auditory Vocal Automatic subtest of the experimental edition of the ITPA was the forerunner of the present Grammatic Closure test. The tests are very similar, the differences being that the 1968 version has seven more items and better accompanying pictures.

According to the authors (Kirk, 1960), the intent of the Auditory Vocal Automatic subtest of the ITPA was to assess grammatical ability. They state, "The test increases in difficulty by requiring the correct use of increasingly less familiar English inflections." (1960, p. 404)

Mathews (1967) found the Auditory Vocal Automatic test to be highly reliable.

Wiseland and Many (1967) found the test-retest correlation for the Auditory Vocal Automatic test to be .94. They also stated that the ITPA has substantial stability. (1967, p. 369)

The Grammatic Closure subtest, then, is the revision of one of the more reliable subtests of the original ITPA.

The revised edition was published in the fall of 1968, incorporating suggestions from many different researchers into its many revisions.

The authors of the 1968 revised edition are Samuel A. Kirk, James J. McCarthy and W.D. Kirk. They give the following explanation of the Grammatic Closure subtest:

The Grammatic Closure subtest tests a child's ability to make use of the redundancies of oral language in acquiring habits for handling syntax and grammatic inflections. In this test the conceptual difficulty is low, but the task elicits the child's ability to respond automatically to often repeated verbal expressions of standard American speech. The child comes to expect or predict the grammatic form so that when part of an expression is presented he closes the gap by presenting the missing part. (kirk, 1965, p. 11)

This test is simple to give and easy to score. It



is a rather complete quiz, testing grammatical habits which should have been acquired by age nine or ten. The test consists of thirty three phrases which the subject must complete. An example would be, "Here is a bed. Here are two \_\_\_\_\_." The correct answer is beds.

The UTLD, then, will test for receptive and expressive social language, while the Grammatic Closure will test the ability of the subject to express himself with correct grammar.

#### INVESTIGATOR QUALIFICATIONS

Before the study was initiated, preliminary testing was carried out in order to give the investigator practice in administration of the two tests and to allow the investigator to receive clarification on any questions or problems from one of the authors of the UTLD. (Mecham, 1969)

Twelve boys and girls from the kindergarten and third grades in Murray School District in Salt Lake County and three kindergarten Indian children attending the BIA school on the Hopi Indian Reservation at Second Mesa, Arizona, were the subjects for this preliminary testing.

#### TESTING

The testing for the actual study was done during the two weeks of May 5th and May 19th, 1969. The Indian children were tested during the week of May 5th, 1969.

A few Indian children were retested for a reliability check, and all white children were tested during the week of May 19th, 1969.

Testing took place in a small well-lit room next to the office of the Todd Elementary School. The investigator felt that although some noise was present during recess periods, the children undergoing testing were not distracted from the task at hand. The subjects were tested individually and sat across a table from the investigator. Materials not directly employed for the testing were placed on another table behind the investigator.

All children were tested at one sitting. This averaged forty minutes for kindergarten children and thirty minutes for third graders. The UTLD was always administered first and took from twenty to thirty minutes to give. A standard form of the test (revised edition, 1967) was used and testing procedures outlined in the manual were followed explicitly. Following the administration of the UTLD the children were complimented for doing so well and were told that the investigator now had some pictures to show them for a few minutes, after which they would be through. At this time instructions were given for the Grammatic Closure subtest of the ITPA (revised edition, 1968). Administration of the ITPA took from eight to fifteen minutes. It was noted that although some children seemed to tire a little during administration of the UTLD,

they all seem to "perk up" and enjoy the Grammatic Closure test.

Eight or one fourth of the Indian children tested were retested approximately two weeks after the first testing in order to have a reliability check on the study. The white children were not retested because the main purpose for testing them had been to see if their scores approximated the printed norms for the two tests.

## CHAPTER IV

### PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE DATA

Language, as was shown in chapter two, is of great importance for everyone, but especially for the child in school. The purpose of this study was to investigate the language abilities of Ute Indian children attending public schools in order to gain information on the type of language program they need. In order to accomplish this, expressive language, receptive language and grammar of kindergarten and third grade Ute Indian children were tested and compared to the test norms.

Since some white parents expressed the opinion that their children's schooling was being hurt due to their children being integrated with Indian students, it was felt wise to also test some white children and compare them with the norms for the different tests.

### STATISTICS

Twelve null hypotheses were established in order to achieve the above mentioned goals. The median test, a non-parametric test, was employed because of its "distribution-free" qualities and because the test scores of the children

in this study were compared against norms, not other test scores. The median test will give information as to whether two independent groups differ in central tendencies.

(Siegel, 1956) It was decided that the null hypotheses would be rejected if the level of significance reached .05.

All subjects were assigned a number and their scores were compiled in four tables. Table I is of kindergarten Ute Indian children, Table II of third grade Ute Indian children, Table III of kindergarten caucasian children and Table IV is of third grade caucasian children. All tables have the following twelve headings: subjects (Sub); sex; chronological age (CA); UTLD language age equivalent (UTLD, LAE); UTLD total raw score (UTLD, TRS); UTLD total norm score (UTLD, TNS); UTLD expressive language score (UTLD, ELS); UTLD expressive language norms (UTLD, ELN); UTLD receptive language scores (UTLD, RLS); UTLD receptive language norms (UTLD, RLN); ITPA Grammatic Closure scores (ITPA, GCS) and ITPA Grammatic Closure norms (ITPA, GCN).

#### TEST OF THE HYPOTHESES

Null hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference between receptive and expressive social language scores of kindergarten Ute Indian children and the norms.

The UTLD raw scores in the kindergarten classes of the sixteen Indian children were compared to the scores

TABLE I

## Compilation of Data on Kindergarten Ute Indian Children

Sub	Sex	CA	UTLD LAE	UTLD TRS	UTLD TNS	UTLD ELS	UTLD ELN	UTLD RLS	UTLD RLN	ITPA GCS	ITPA GSN
1	M	5-8	5-3	26	27	12	13	14	14	11	15
2	F	5-9	5-0	25	27	12	13	13	14	22	15
3	F	5-11	6-11	34	28	17	13	17	15	18	16
4	M	6-0	4-9	24	28	9	13	14	15	9	17
5	F	6-0	4-9	24	28	10	13	14	15	5	17
6	M	6-2	5-3	26	27	12	14	14	15	14	18
7	M	6-2	4-9	24	29	11	14	13	15	11	18
8	F	6-2	5-10	28	29	14	14	14	15	12	18
9	F	6-2	6-3	30	29	15	14	15	15	12	18
10	F	6-3	5-0	25	30	11	15	14	15	10	18
11	M	6-4	4-7	23	30	10	15	13	15	8	18
12	M	6-4	5-6	27	30	12	15	15	15	17	18
13	M	6-5	5-10	28	31	13	16	15	15	16	19
14	M	6-6	5-6	27	32	12	16	15	16	4	19
15	F	6-7	5-0	25	32	10	16	15	16	7	19
16	F	6-8	5-10	28	33	12	17	16	16	13	20

TABLE II

## Compilation of Data on Third Grade Ute Indian Children

Sub	Sex	CA	UTLD LAE	UTLD TRS	UTLD TNS	UTLD ELS	UTLD ELN	UTLD RLS	UTLD RLN	ITPA GCS	ITPA GSN
1	F	8-9	7-11	38	40	20	21	18	19	24	26
2	M	8-10	9-5	42	40	22	21	20	19	23	27
3	M	9-0	8-8	40	41	20	22	20	19	23	27
4	M	9-0	9-11	43	41	21	22	22	19	26	27
5	M	9-1	8-3	39	41	20	22	19	19	23	27
6	F	9-1	9-11	43	41	22	22	21	19	25	27
7	M	9-4	8-3	39	41	19	22	20	19	23	28
8	F	9-4	12-0	46	41	22	22	24	19	28	28
9	M	9-5	9-5	42	42	21	22	21	20	19	28
10	F	9-5	9-0	41	42	21	22	20	20	21	28
11	F	9-6	7-7	37	42	19	22	18	20	18	28
12	F	9-6	9-0	41	42	22	22	19	20	21	28
13	M	9-8	10-5	44	42	21	22	23	20	23	29
14	M	9-8	8-3	39	42	22	22	17	20	18	29
15	F	9-8	9-0	41	42	21	22	20	20	21	29
16	M	10-0	9-11	43	43	22	22	21	21	22	29

which each child should have received according to the published norms for their CA.

The median test yielded a  $X^2$  of 8.29 which indicated that there was a significant difference between the two sets of scores well beyond the .01 level. These Indian children did score significantly lower on the UTLD than did white children, who made up the norms, of corresponding age. The first null hypothesis, then, can be rejected at the .01 level of confidence.

Null hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference between receptive and expressive social language scores of third grade Ute Indian children and the norms.

These scores were compared in the same manner as those above. The median test yielded a  $X^2$  of 1.59 which was significant at the .21 level of confidence. This was not enough to enable us to reject the null hypothesis, so we must conclude that although many third grade Indian students tended to score below the norms, their scores were not far enough below normal to be considered significant.

Null hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference between expressive language scores of kindergarten Ute Indian children and the norms.

To test this hypothesis, the total UTLD raw score was broken into its receptive and expressive scores. The expressive score each child received was then compared with the expressive score he should have received according to



his total norm score which had previously been determined according to CA. In this case, the median test came up with  $X^2$  of 16.13, which was significant at the .001 level of confidence. The null hypothesis is, therefore, rejected and we can conclude that kindergarten Ute Indian children do score significantly lower than the norms on expressive aspects of language.

Null hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference between expressive language scores of third grade Ute Indian children and the norms.

These expressive language scores were obtained and statistically compared in the same manner as the scores under the third null hypothesis. In this case,  $X^2$  equalled 6.53, which was significant at the .02 level of confidence. Since the results surpassed the .05 requirement, we can confidently reject this null hypothesis and state that third grade Ute Indian students did score significantly lower on expressive language test items than did the children who made up the norms.

Null hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference between receptive language scores of kindergarten Ute Indian children and the norms.

These receptive language scores were derived from the child's test score in the manner mentioned above and when compared to the norms with the median test, a  $X^2$  of 4.98 was produced. This is significant at the .05 level of con-

fidence so this null hypothesis must be rejected and can be replaced with an alternative hypothesis stating that there is a significant difference between receptive language scores of kindergarten Ute Indian children and the norms, and that the difference is in the expected direction, i.e. lower.

Null hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference between receptive language scores of third grade Ute Indian children and the norms.

This hypothesis was tested in the same way as the previous hypothesis, but only achieved a  $X^2$  score of 2.07 which is not significant. We must, therefore, accept the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between receptive scores and the norms for these children.

Null hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference between Grammatic Closure scores of kindergarten Ute children and the norms.

The scores of these Indian children were compared to the published norms for the Grammatic Closure subtest of the ITPA by means of a median test. The  $X^2$  equalled 10.12, which was significant well past the .01 level of confidence. The null hypothesis must be rejected. Kindergarten Ute Indian children did score significantly lower than the norms for their age on this grammar test.

Null hypothesis 8: There is no significant difference between Grammatic Closure scores of third grade Ute Indian children and the norms.

The median test was also used to make this comparison. A  $X^2$  score of 21.125 was derived. This was the highest  $X^2$  value seen in this study and indicates a significant difference between the two sets of scores well beyond the .001 level of confidence. The null hypothesis must again be rejected because third grade Utes did score significantly below the norms for their age on the Grammatic Closure test.

In order to determine whether the Ute Indians in this study scored lower than norms due to being Indians or because of a poor education received in the public schools, caucasian classmates were given the same language analysis. The following four hypotheses were devised to quickly compare the caucasian classmates of the Indians in this study to the norms for the same two tests (UTLD and ITPA).

Null hypothesis 9: There is no significant difference between receptive and expressive social language scores of kindergarten caucasian children and the norms.

The median test was used for the comparison of the language scores of these white children to the test norms. A value of 4.06 was achieved for  $X^2$ . This was significant at the .05 level of confidence. It can be observed that the caucasian peers of the kindergarten Indian children in this study were scoring significantly above the published norms for the UTLD. Nevertheless, the null hypothesis must be rejected.

TABLE III

## Compilation of Data on Kindergarten Caucasian Children

Sub	Sex	CA	UTLD LAE	UTLD TRS	UTLD TNS	UTLD ELS	UTLD ELN	UTLD RLS	UTLD RLN	ITPA GCS	ITPA GCN
1	M	5-9	6-3	30	27	15	13	15	14	23	15
2	M	5-9	7-7	37	27	15	13	22	14	21	15
3	F	6-0	6-6	32	28	16	13	16	15	23	17
4	M	6-1	4-1	21	29	9	14	12	15	14	17
5	M	6-2	6-3	30	29	15	14	15	15	19	18
6	F	6-2	6-3	30	29	15	14	15	15	18	18
7	F	6-4	6-5	31	30	16	15	15	15	19	18
8	F	6-7	6-5	31	32	16	16	15	16	25	19

TABLE IV

## Compilation of Data on Third Grade Caucasian Children

Sub	Sex	CA	UTLD LAE	UTLD TRS	UTLD TNS	UTLD ELS	UTLD ELN	UTLD RLS	UTLD RLN	ITPA GCS	ITPA GCN
1	M	8-8	10-11	45	40	22	21	23	19	30	26
2	M	8-9	9-5	42	40	22	21	20	19	28	26
3	F	9-0	7-11	38	41	21	22	17	19	27	27
4	F	9-2	9-5	42	41	22	22	20	19	31	28
5	F	9-5	8-3	39	42	21	22	18	20	27	28
6	F	9-6	9-0	41	42	21	22	20	20	28	28
7	M	9-6	9-11	43	42	22	22	21	20	28	28
8	M	9-7	9-11	43	42	22	22	21	20	26	28

Null hypothesis 10: There is no significant difference between receptive and expressive social language scores of third grade caucasian children and the norms.

In solving for  $X^2$  in this case, the numerator in the formula for the median test was 0. This caused  $X^2$  to become 0. The null hypothesis of no difference was, therefore, accepted.

Null hypothesis 11: There is no significant difference between Grammatic Closure scores of kindergarten caucasian children and the norms.

The median test, when applied to this hypothesis, yielded a  $X^2$  of 2.25, which was significant well beyond the .20 level of confidence, but still short of .05. The scores of these children with two exceptions were above the median and considerably higher than the norms (see Table III). The null hypothesis of no difference must be accepted, even though scores were beginning to approach significance.

Null hypothesis 12: There is no significant difference between Grammatic Closure scores of third grade caucasian children and the norms.

The  $X^2$  value for this comparison was .255, which had no significance. The null hypothesis of no difference will be accepted.

## RELIABILITY

A study without reliability has limited value. In order to test the reliability of this study, one fourth or eight of the Indian children were retested on both the UTLD and the Grammatic Closure subtest of the ITPA approximately two weeks after the original testing. Test-retest scores were compared by use of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient. The test-retest correlation for the UTLD was .952, while the Grammatic Closure scores correlated at .944. These results can be seen in Tables V and VI. According to Garrett (1952, p. 184) both of these correlations are significant at the .01 level. The testing for this study, then, can be said to be very reliable.

TABLE V

Scatter Plot and Correlation of UTLD Test-Retest Scores

## UTLD RETEST

UTLD TEST	UTLD RETEST												
	23	26	29	32	35	38	41	f	Y	EX	EXY	EY	EY <sup>2</sup>
41							3	3	6	18	108	18	108
38							1	1	5	6	30	5	25
35								0	4	0	0	0	0
32								0	3	0	0	0	0
29								0	2	0	0	0	0
26			2	1				3	1	7	7	3	3
23	1							1	0	0	0	0	0
f	1	0	2	1	0	0	4	8		31	145	26	136
X	0	1	2	3	4	5	6						
EX	0	0	4	3	0	0	24	31					
EX <sup>2</sup>	0	0	8	9	0	0	144	161					

$$r_{xy} = \frac{NEXY - (EX)(EY)}{\sqrt{NEX^2 - (EX)^2} \sqrt{NEY^2 - (EY)^2}} = .952$$



TABLE VI

## Scatter Plot and Correlation of Grammatic Closure Test-Retest Scores

## GRAMMATIC CLOSURE RETEST

GRAMMATIC CLOSURE TEST	GRAMMATIC CLOSURE RETEST																
	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	f	Y	EX	EXY	EY	EY <sup>2</sup>
22									1	1		2	7	19	133	14	98
20								2				2	6	16	96	12	72
18												0	5	0	0	0	0
16					1							1	4	4	16	4	16
14												0	3	0	0	0	0
12					1	1						2	2	9	18	4	8
10												0	1	0	0	0	0
8	1											1	0	0	0	0	0
f	1	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	2	1	1	8		48	236	34	194
X	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10						
EX	0	0	0	0	8	5	0	0	18	9	10	48					
EX <sup>2</sup>	0	0	0	0	32	25	0	0	128	81	100	364					

$$r_{xy} = \frac{NEXY - (EX)(EY)}{\sqrt{NEX^2 - (EX)^2} \sqrt{NEY^2 - (EY)^2}} = .944$$

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to analyze three aspects of English language development (grammar, receptive language and expressive language) in Ute Indian children so as to have more insight into their problems and thus be better able to recommend specific programs for language development.

The review of the literature discussed (1) the American Indian and his education; (2) the Ute Indians; (3) the culturally disadvantaged; (4) bilingualism; (5) language.

The subjects consisted of sixteen randomly selected full-blood Ute Indian children from the kindergarten classes and an equal number from the third grade. The purpose of the testing was to discover any significant differences between the scores of these children and the norms. Sixteen average white children, eight from the kindergarten and eight from the third grade were also tested in order to determine how these white children who attend public schools with Indian students compare with the norms and the Utes on these language tests.

The Utah Test of Language Development and the Grammatic Closure subtest of the revised (1968) edition of

the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities were administered to all subjects in that order. One fourth of the Indian subjects were retested on both measures.

The twelve null hypotheses were then analyzed by means of nonparametric statistics. The significance level set for rejecting the null hypotheses was the .05 level.

It was shown that kindergarten Ute Indian children scored significantly below the norms on all language measures used. Their scores reached the .001 level for expressive language, the .05 level for receptive language, and the .05 level on grammar.

The third grade Indian children scored below the norms at the .05 level on the expressive language section, but showed no significant difference for receptive scores. Their grammar scores, however, were below the norms at the .001 level of confidence.

Caucasian kindergarten children scored significantly above the norms for the total UTLD language score at the .05 level. There were no significant differences, however, between their grammar scores and the norms.

The third grade white children's scores did not differ significantly from the norms on either the UTLD or the grammar test.

#### CONCLUSIONS

Within the limits of this study, the following

conclusions can be made:

1. English grammar seems to be the greatest language deficiency among Ute Indian children. The problem appears in the kindergarten children, but is most severe among the third graders. This study can not explain why the third graders were so far below norms, but it could be related to the fact that the kindergarten children in this study had attended at least a year of Head Start.

2. All of the Indian children in this study scored significantly below the norms on expressive English language skills. The third graders (at the .05 level) were closer to the norms than the kindergarten Indian children.

3. Receptive language items constituted the least difficulty for these Indian students. There was no real difference between receptive scores of third graders and the norms, while kindergarten Utes were below the norms at the .05 level.

4. White children attending public schools with a large percentage of Indian children were not handicapped in the acquisition of language skills.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS

This study has shown that the Ute Indian children attending public schools in Uintah School District need special help in the areas of grammar and expressive language. This investigator feels that if the following recommendations

are followed, many of the present language deficiencies of the Indian children will disappear.

1. The best teachers available should be hired to teach the critical first three to four grades in the elementary schools.

2. These teachers should be supplied with materials that can make language learning enjoyable for these children. Some examples are: (a) The Tweedy Visual-Lingual Reading Program. This can be adapted for all elementary children. It evokes speech from the children, which can be recorded in writing, and then discussed in detail. It is excellent for development of grammar and expressive language as well as reading skills; (b) the Peabody Language Development Kits. There are two kits available which cover the critical ages for language development. They consist of lesson plans, pictures, puppets and "walkie-talkies." All items are of excellent quality and designed to give children a desire to express themselves; (c) games and other self-learning devices which will make learning and talking enjoyable.

3. Obtain the assistance of specialists in speech and reading to help the classroom teachers.

4. Involve parents in their children's education, especially in the kindergarten and first grades, and get them to understand how language is developed through experiences.

5. Children from pre-school through the first three grades should be showered with field trips and films so as to obtain a large repertoire of experiences. The experiences, in and of themselves, cannot develop language, but a wise teacher can draw a great deal of language from the children regarding these experiences. If these expressions can be recorded or written down and then referred to repeatedly before being replaced by other comments, the children will gain a desire to speak and, at the same time, increase their feelings of self-worth.

6. Allow for a lot of unrehearsed dramatizations where children can, in their own words, tell and act out a story they have just heard or read.

7. More of the school day should be spent in conversation and other language related experiences, while less time should be spent on games that have no learning functions, and activities in which the children are required to be silent.

8. Revise the curriculum of the older children who have not had the benefits of the above mentioned programs so that they can receive extra language training in place of other class subjects.

#### SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

1. A similar study could be done within two to

three years and thus test these same kindergarten children in the second or third grade to measure their gains under any of the recommended programs that are initiated.

2. It would be interesting to compare UTLD scores with some quantified measurement of the amount of exposure a child has to the Ute language.

3. This same battery of tests could be given at the beginning of the school year, before a language enriched program is initiated, and then compared with test results obtained at the end of the school year. A control group might even be set up with which to compare results.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I. UTLD Test Items\*  
Classified According to Language Processes

Receptive Language Semantic Decoding	Age
Responds to name and "no-no"	0-9
Recognizes names of objects	1-6
Recognizes names of 3 body parts	1-7
Identifies names of pictures	1-10
Identifies action in pictures	2-8
Receptive vocabulary	2-11
Receptive vocabulary	5-10
Reads words in pre-primer	6-6
Receptive vocabulary	7-1
Receptive vocabulary	9-11
Receptive vocabulary	12-7
Receptive vocabulary	15-4
Receptive Language Sequential Decoding	Age
Responds to simple instructions	1-1
Can repeat two digits	2-5
Responds to simple commands	2-6
Can repeat three digits	3-1
Can repeat four digits	4-4
Carries out three commissions	4-7
Can repeat 12 syll. sentence	4-9
Can repeat 5 digits	7-7
Can repeat 16 syll. sentence	8-3
Can repeat 4 digits reversed	9-5
Can repeat 6 digits	10-5
Can repeat 20 syll. sentence	10-11
Can repeat 5 digits reversed	12-0
Can repeat 5 one-syll. words	13-5
Can repeat difficult sentence	14-6
Follows directional sequences	16-0

\*Taken from the Utah Test of Language Development (1967 Edition)

## APPENDIX I - (Continued)

Expressive Language Semantic Encoding	Age
Marks with pencil or crayon	1-4
Names common pictures	2-2
Names common pictures	2-3
Names a color	2-9
Names common pictures	3-5
Names primary colors	4-1
Draws with pencil or crayon	5-0
Prints simple words	5-6
Names penny, nickle, dime	6-1
Names quarter, $\frac{1}{2}$ dol., dollar	7-3
Can rhyme words	9-0
Expressive Language Sequential Encoding	Age
Word combination of two or more	2-0
Says full name	3-3
Says a nursery rhyme	3-8
Copies a cross	3-10
Copies a square	5-3
Writes numbers to thirties	6-3
Tells a familiar story	6-5
Counts by ones to fifty	6-8
Copies a diamond	6-11
Names the days of the week	7-11
Writes cursively	8-8

UTAH  
TEST OF LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

SCORE SHEET

Name \_\_\_\_\_ Age \_\_\_\_\_ Sex \_\_\_\_\_

Address \_\_\_\_\_  
(City) \_\_\_\_\_ (State) \_\_\_\_\_

Parent's Name \_\_\_\_\_

Father's Occupation \_\_\_\_\_

School \_\_\_\_\_ Grade \_\_\_\_\_

Referred by: \_\_\_\_\_

Note unusual  
test behavior  
or handicaps:

	Year	Month	Day
Date of Test	_____	_____	_____
Date of Birth	_____	_____	_____
Chronological Age	_____	_____	_____
BASAL SCORE.....			_____
ADDITIONAL POINTS			_____
TOTAL RAW SCORE			_____
*Language-Age-Equivalent			_____

\*Refer to page 8 in test manual

\_\_\_\_\_  
Name of Examiner

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Communication Research Associates  
Box 11012, Salt Lake City, Utah

APPENDIX II

UTAH TEST OF LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT SCORE SHEET



I - II YEARS

- \_\_\_ 1. Responds to name and 'no-no'.
- \_\_\_ 2. Follows simple instructions.
- \_\_\_ 3. Marks with pencil or crayon.
- \_\_\_ 4. Recognizes names of common objects.
- \_\_\_ 5. Recognizes parts of body when named.
- \_\_\_ 6. Recognizes parts of body (cont.).
- \_\_\_ 7. Identifies common pictures when named.
- \_\_\_ 8. Word combinations of two or more.

II - III YEARS

- \_\_\_ 9. Names common pictures.
- \_\_\_ 10. Names common pictures (cont.).
- \_\_\_ 11. Can repeat two digits.
- \_\_\_ 12. Responds to simple commands.
- \_\_\_ 13. Identifies action in pictures.
- \_\_\_ 14. Names one color.
- \_\_\_ 15. Receptive vocabulary.

III - IV YEARS

- \_\_\_ 16. Can repeat three digits.
- \_\_\_ 17. Says full name.
- \_\_\_ 18. Names common pictures.
- \_\_\_ 19. Says at least one nursery rhyme.
- \_\_\_ 20. Can copy a cross.

IV - V YEARS

- \_\_\_ 21. Names colors.
- \_\_\_ 22. Can repeat four digits.
- \_\_\_ 23. Carries out three commissions.
- \_\_\_ 24. Can repeat a twelve syllable sentence.
- \_\_\_ 25. Draws with pencil or crayon.

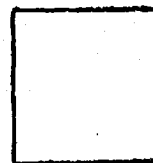
V - VI YEARS

\_\_\_\_\_ 26. Can copy a square.

Trial 1

Trial 2

Trial 3



\_\_\_\_\_ 27. Prints simple words.

\_\_\_\_\_ 28. Receptive vocabulary.

VI - VII YEARS

\_\_\_\_\_ 29. Names penny, nickel and dime.

\_\_\_\_\_ 30. Writes numbers to the thirties.

\_\_\_\_\_ 31. Can tell a familiar story.

\_\_\_\_\_ 32. Reads words on pre-primer level.

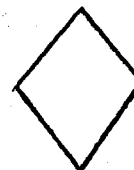
\_\_\_\_\_ 33. Recites numbers from one to fifty.

\_\_\_\_\_ 34. Can copy a diamond.

Trial 1

Trial 2

Trial 3

VII - VIII YEARS

\_\_\_\_\_ 35. Receptive vocabulary.

\_\_\_\_\_ 36. Names quarter, half-dollar, and dollar.

\_\_\_\_\_ 37. Can repeat five digits.

\_\_\_\_\_ 38. Can name the days of the week.

VIII - X YEARS

- \_\_\_ 39. Can repeat 16 syllable sentence.
- \_\_\_ 40. Can write cursively with pencil.
- \_\_\_ 41. Can rhyme words.
- \_\_\_ 42. Can repeat 4 digits reversed.
- \_\_\_ 43. Receptive vocabulary.

X - XV YEARS

- \_\_\_ 44. Can repeat 6 digits.
- \_\_\_ 45. Can repeat a 20 syllable sentence.
- \_\_\_ 46. Can repeat 5 digits reversed.
- \_\_\_ 47. Receptive vocabulary.
- \_\_\_ 48. Can repeat 5 mono-syllable words.
- \_\_\_ 49. Can repeat difficult sentence from memory.
- \_\_\_ 50. Receptive vocabulary.
- \_\_\_ 51. Is oriented on directions.

COMMENTS:

BASAL: NONE

CEILING: SIX YEARS AND ABOVE: NONE

BELOW SIX YEARS: 6 CONSECUTIVE FAILURES

## GRAMMATIC CLOSURE

SCORE

DEMONSTRATION (beds) \_\_\_\_\_

- |                          |                         |
|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| *1. (dogs) _____         | 17. (men) _____         |
| 2. (preposition) _____   | 18. (planted) _____     |
| *3. (his) _____          | *19. (soap) _____       |
| 4. (barking) _____       | 20. (more) _____        |
| *5. (dresses) _____      | *21. (most) _____       |
| 6. (opened) _____        | 22. (feet) _____        |
| 7. (of, for, with) _____ | *23. (sheep) _____      |
| *8. (John's) _____       | 24. (better) _____      |
| 9. (wrote) _____         | *25. (best) _____       |
| 10. (home) _____         | 26. (hung) _____        |
| 11. (at night) _____     | 27. (stole) _____       |
| 12. (painter) _____      | 28. (women) _____       |
| 13. (eaten) _____        | *29. (himself) _____    |
| 14. (any) _____          | *30. (leaves) _____     |
| 15. (bigger) _____       | 31. (children) _____    |
| *16. (biggest) _____     | 32. (mice) _____        |
|                          | *33. (themselves) _____ |

### APPENDIX III

### GRAMMATIC CLOSURE SCORE SHEET

Available in the Test Booklet for the Revised Edition of the ITPA

## VITA

Henrik George Lundgren was born in Jonkoping, Sweden, on November 22, 1943. His family immigrated to the United States in 1948, where they settled in the Salt Lake Valley. Mr. Lundgren's elementary education was obtained in different schools in the Murray City, Granite and Salt Lake City School Districts. He graduated from Salt Lake City's East High School in June 1962.

After graduating from high school, Mr. Lundgren returned to Sweden, where he served a two and a half year mission for the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints. He received an honorable mission release on July 22, 1965.

Upon returning to Salt Lake City, he enrolled at the University of Utah where he received his Bachelor of Arts degree in June of 1968.

Mr. Lundgren is married to the former Mary Jane Martin of Salt Lake City. They have one daughter, Kimberly Ann, age two.