

A PRAGMATIC DESCRIPTION OF LANGUAGE CONTENT AND
LANGUAGE USE IN A FIRST GRADE CLASSROOM

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Master of Arts

by
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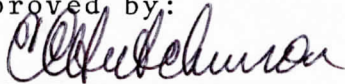
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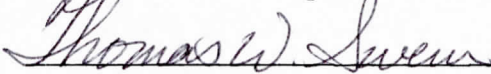
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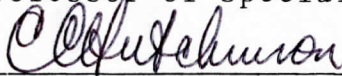
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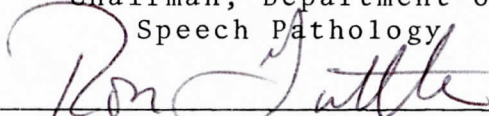
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ABSTRACT

This descriptive study was designed to yield normative data on the content and use areas of children's language in a first grade classroom. Videotape recordings were made of the children's conversational turns as they communicated in academic and nonacademic settings. Analysis of the data revealed differences in both language content and use between the two task settings.

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Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The study of the functions of language in the classroom is a small portion of the larger and more general study of children's language. A complete protocol for studying language in the classroom would include a system for examination of the child's language use, the content of the language, and the effect of different social contexts on communication patterns. Past research has not emphasized these three parameters, but has concentrated on the view of language as primarily a set of grammatical rules. This view dealt with the actual utterance which could be broken down and studied through phonological, morphological, and syntactical structures. However, these "functions in structure" when semantically interpreted lead to a "function in language" (Halliday, 1950). Thus, starting with an understanding of grammatical structure, functional language goes beyond the words themselves to functional communication.

This leads to the current state of the art, namely, viewing language in terms of functional communication. Yoder (1977) described functional communication as the intentional or interpreted results of a motor, vocal, or

verbal behavior. Language does not exist as an end in itself, but serves as a means for specific communicative acts. This aspect of language is referred to as *pragmatics*. Bruner (1974) described pragmatics as the function and intent of speech one uses in order to affect the behavior of others. Bates (1976) expanded the definition of pragmatics to describe the communicator's ability to use language in order to convey a variety of intentions and meanings, all of which are dependent upon the context and social setting of the communicative act. The concept of pragmatics has been acknowledged in the field of language study for some time, but the present interest has created a sudden influx of literature on pragmatics from different backgrounds of research. This interdisciplinary quality is important to establish a strong basis for research, but often disturbing for the reader since the material must be understood within the framework of that particular discipline.

For the purpose of this study, language will be viewed in a pragmatic fashion--as a communicative act determined by use, content, and context. Halliday's (1975) research in language use, Lieberman and Kelly's (1977) content areas, and Hopper and Naremore's (1973) study of situational context were basic sources for this study.

Language Use

The philosopher's interest in language has emphasized the shift from the structural analysis toward the

study of language use and intent. Austin (1955) asks, "Can saying make it so?" To make a bet, make a promise, swear, or declare war are all only words. The utterance is usually the leading incident of the performance, but it is far from being the only thing necessary if the act is to be performed. For example, the bride who says, "I do" at the appropriate time during a wedding ceremony; she is not merely reporting the act, but is participating in it also. Austin (1955) labeled these acts as "performatives." It is obvious that "performatives" are often dependent on authorized persons or appropriate circumstances, which are labeled "felicity" conditions. Austin (1955) pointed out the need to have a system describing language intentions, and the necessity to further refine the system. It was in this refinement that he noted some utterances were not performatives or not purely performatives. These he labeled as examples of the "locutionary act"; the act of "saying something." When the locutionary act is performed, it is equal to uttering a sentence with a certain sense and reference which is meaningful. Further investigation into the use of locutions led to illocutionary and perlocutionary acts. The illocutionary act is one that informs, orders, warns; these are utterances which indicate force. The perlocutionary act is the effect made on the listener: it is reached when a person becomes convinced, persuaded, surprised, or misled.

Searle (1969) continued research in speech acts with the hypothesis that talking is performing acts according to rules. He contrasted the study of language without action to baseball as a set of formal rules without an actual game. It is consistent with this same hypothesis that Searle introduces the "principle of expressibility," which states that "whatever can be meant can be said." Since most of our speech acts are expressed in sentence form, it is necessary to combine the study of sentence meaning with the study of speech acts (Searle, 1969).

Searle (1969) defined and described four types of speech acts:

1. Utterance acts are the simple behaviors of uttering words. Other speech acts depend on this basic utterance act, since speaking words is necessary for understanding verbal expressions. However, an utterance act may take place without performing any other type of speech act, since one can utter words without saying anything.

2. Propositional acts are those speech acts which refer and predicate. Searle defines predicates as expressions which can be said to be true or false of objects, while reference expressions are those utterances which identify or set apart one particular object, event, or person. Propositional acts are found in the production of meaningful sentences, those which say something about something.

3. Illocutionary acts are those meaningful utterances which state, question, command, or promise. Rees (1976) simplifies the definition of the illocutionary act as "the way the speaker intends his utterance to be taken." It should be noted that condition and context of utterances should be known for full understanding of illocutionary acts.

4. Perlocutionary acts are those consequences or effects of speech on attitudes, thoughts, beliefs, or actions of listeners.

Searle's (1969) research indicates that every sentence in communication performs some type of act. He established a framework for looking at sentences in terms of the speaker's intent and the listener's understanding.

Intent is often difficult to measure, if an attempt is made to determine whether something was "really" or "consciously" intended. At this point in time, it is customary to speak of language in terms of functions or use (Burner, 1974). Researchers have questioned the functions that language serves and how it is fulfilled. Another question debated by many is regarding age and the onset of language. When does the child actually start to communicate? The concept of pragmatics was developed by linguists and much of their research deals with the spoken word. Therefore, an abundance of literature revolves around children of 18 months or older. It is during this period of time a child will produce one-word utterances and most

researchers have agreed this marks the beginning of language. One-word utterances are believed by some to imply a complete thought and have been labeled "holophrase," meaning one-word sentences.

During the 1970s, an abundance of research dealing with children and the emergence of language function has been completed and published. Two major examples of the many works in this area are presented.

It is appropriate to start with Dore's (1973) Primitive Speech Acts (PSA) since his work is based on Austin's (1955) and Searle's (1969) research in speech acts. The PSA is a descriptive term for speech acts of children's single-word utterances.

Dore (1975) described PSA as having a "rudimentary referring expression," which enabled the child to use one word as a reference to several different ideas. This is supported by Clark's (1973) theory of "semantic feature acquisition." Clark accounts for over-extension of words in a child's language. For example, the word "dog" may first mean four-legged animal. Therefore, cats, cows, and horses are all referred to as dog. The second feature of the PSA is the "primitive force device," usually an intonation pattern, which is indicative of the child's intentions. It is within this intonation pattern that the illocutionary force of the word is expressed. Dore (1975) analyzed the PSA of two children's one-word utterances and identified nine different types of speech acts.

He listed labeling, repeating, answering, requesting (action), requesting (answer), calling, greeting, protesting and practicing as examples of PSA.

Dore's (1975) PSA theory enabled the child to express several different intentions at the single word stage of language development. Different intonation patterns and contextual features add clues as to which intent is being expressed. Dore does not claim PSA to be a holophrase of the adult speech act, although it does have some similarities. It is obvious that PSA does not have a propositional structure, but it does assume that the child is able to linguistically represent a single concept. As the child begins to combine words grammatically, his intents are organized and expressed in terms of the speech act theory.

Halliday's (1975) research focused on earlier stages of functions in language development. His basis of research was a semantic theory system. Semantics was defined as a "totality of meaning in language" which may or may not be in the form of words. Therefore, it is possible for a child to have a two-level language system before words are developed. This two-level system consists of content, which at this point was defined as functions the language serves, and expression. Halliday placed two restrictions on the language system: (1) the sound (expression) and the content (function) must be in constant relationship; and (2) the sounds must be functional; the listener interprets

the content by reference to a previously established set of functions. His theory hypothesizes that a child six to nine months old may establish vocal sounds (which may or may not represent the adult sounds of his environment) as a language system.

Halliday (1975) formulated the following functions of language:

1. *Instrumental* is the function of language which enables the child to obtain material needs. It is known as the "I want" function. It may refer to general or specific desires or objects. In early development, context is necessary for complete understanding of the object desired.

2. *Interactional* is the "me and you" function of language. It is used to establish interaction with other individuals in the environment. It includes the generalized greetings "Hi," "How are you," to the specifics such as names of the individuals. This would also include using objects of common interest for focusing attention as channels for interacting.

3. *Regulatory* is the "do as I tell you" function which regulates behaviors of particular individuals. This function is usually easy for the child to learn since he observes that his own behavior is manipulated through the language of others. This function is similar to the instrumental, but distinct in the fact that language is directed toward behaviors rather than material objects.

4. The *personal* function which enables the child to express his uniqueness or individuality, leads to the development of personality. It is known as the "here I come" function.

5. The *heuristic* function enables the child to learn about his environment. This may develop initially as the child begins to categorize or name objects of the physical world and leads to questions of more specific types. It is regarded as the "tell me why" function.

6. The *imaginative* function allows the child to use language to create an environment that is not present in his own environment. This function is known as the "let's pretend" and leads from story telling and make believe into the area of poetry and imaginative writing.

7. The *informative* is the "I've got something to tell you" function which is dominant in the adult's use of language. This is the last function to emerge in the child's language system and represents the idea of using language to inform others of information which you possess.

Halliday's (1975) functional interpretation of development shows how language serves the child and an idea as to how adult language has evolved. He expresses this development in three phases.

Phase I covers the period from nine months to about 18 months. The instrumental, regulatory, interactional, personal, heuristic, and imaginative functions appear as meaningful vocal expressions or utterances. These

utterances or expressions are not necessarily imitations of the adult language system. Phase I utterances never perform more than one function. Halliday (1975) suggests that these initial functions may be universal in language development.

Phase II starts with the chronological age of 16 to 18 months. This phase is a transitional period from Phase I to the adult language system. There are several major occurrences during this phase.

First, the child develops a larger vocabulary and this may be in terms of holophrases, which show he is adopting the language of his environment. This increase in vocabulary generates new meanings within the functions and allows for the combination of functions. Halliday defines two language uses that are combined from the original language functions. The pragmatic use which is derived from the combination of instrumental and regulatory functions, is an example of language as doing. This use will eventually develop into the interpersonal component of the adult language system (Phase III). The mathetic use originates from the combination of the personal and heuristic functions and is language used for learning. This mathetic function leads to the ideational component of the adult language (Phase III). Halliday observed an explicit form in distinguishing between these two forms of language use. The child he observed used a rising tone of voice to express the pragmatic use and a falling tone for the mathetic use. Children in this phase are still working

within their own systems and may have different and varied ways of expressing their system.

It is during this phase the child begins to adopt and assign communicative roles and participates in dialogue. The child realizes he can both interact and observe in communication. Toward the end of Phase II, the child begins to use the instrumental function of language.

Phase III takes place when the child is about two years old. Halliday (1975) notes that the original functions of Phase I have not disappeared but have grown in greater depth and are now described as language uses. It is during this third phase the child adopts the adult semantic language systems which comprised the three major components.

The ideational component is related to the content of what is said. Here the speaker expresses his opinions of the external world and those of his own internal consciousness. Halliday refers to this as the observer function of language since the individual speaks of the world around him.

Secondly, there is the interpersonal component which reflects the use of language as the individual participates in speech situations. It is this component that enables the speaker to accept or deny different communicative roles and in turn assign roles to other participants. The speaker expresses his personality, his beliefs, attitudes, and judgments, which may have effect on the listeners.

The third semantic component enables the first two components to be effective and is referred to as the textural function. This function gives texture to the communication act which keeps it from being a mere citation of words.

The work of Halliday (1975) and Dore (1975) present the same perspective, of language as a vehicle through which specific communicative functions are achieved. Through their description of the emergence and existence of pragmatics in language, they present a means of viewing language use which is necessary for the present study.

Language in Context

Both Halliday (1975) and Dore (1975) focus on language learning as a system of meaning in functional communication. They maintain a child's learning takes place in social context; children learn to act and interact in social situations.

Labov (1971) stressed the importance of studying language in terms of social interaction. In this approach language is viewed as a socially determined communicative process influenced by structure and culture of the community as well as different aspects of the individual speaker. The aspects of the individual speaker to be considered are:

1. The role of the individual; the role and status he assumes for himself plus the way he is viewed by others.

2. The earning and production capacity plus his consumption of goods; his life style.

3. The most manageable characteristic in terms of description is the individual's occupation, education, and income (Labov, 1971).

Whorf (1958) hypothesized that values and attitudes of particular societies are passed down through their language forms and speech patterns. This led to research examining different attitudes and traditions of family units in different population sections. The work of Basil Bernstein (1971) set precedence in this area. His research showed a significant difference between children's language according to social class.

Bernstein (1971) divided the population into two social classes. The middle class family was described as the father having completed grammar school education or some form of vocational training while the mother received more than elementary school training or an occupation other than manual type labor. All families with occupations at this baseline or above are considered middle class while those with occupations below are labeled working class.

He described the middle class family as having instrumental attitudes toward social relations. These parents use and teach decisions geared toward distant goals. Usually behavior is controlled by explicit sets of rewards and punishments. Children are encouraged to

verbalize their feelings and language is used to describe the abstract. Educational and emotional growth are encouraged as steps toward a better future. The child is seen and responded to as an individual having individual rights.

Bernstein (1971) labeled language use by middle class families as formal. Formal language is used by children to verbalize relations in a personal, individual way. Children in middle class environments are exposed to a complex use of language which influences their relations to objects and individuals.

Working class families are described as being less organized in concerns of childhood development. The system of rewards and punishments, for controlling behavior, is less established than the middle class family. Perceptions of time and objects differ between the two classes. Working class children view the content of objects while the middle class child will also pick up on structural and other type clues which lead to conceptive hierarchies. The working class works for immediate gratification and finds it difficult to postpone immediate rewards for future pleasure.

Language used by the working class is called public. This language is used only in terms of tangible, concrete, and visual symbolism. Therefore, language is discouraged for emotional expressions or abstract uses. Bernstein states,

Consequently the emotional and cognitive differentiation of the working class is comparatively less developed and the cues responded to in the environment will be primarily of a qualitatively different order.

These differences in language are not problematic until the child is forced into an environment which differs from the home. The child's first significant exposure to a different environment will be in school. The organization and expectations of schools are similar to middle class families in opposition to the working class (Bernstein, 1971).

Brick and Tucker (1976) found all children could benefit from additional aid in using speech as they enter the first grade, especially the lower class children. Their research indicated a need to increase the use of explicit features and decrease ambiguous features of the language.

Tough (1974) wrote of the communication problems involved in the classroom. Her theory is similar to Bernstein's. She viewed the lower class child as having communication problems due to the differences in the language used in the home and that used in the classroom.

The work of Bernstein (1971) and Tough (1974) reflects British research which supports the theory that there is a significant difference between the language used by children from different social classes. Bernstein's theory has not been accepted without criticism. In the United States, those against dividing people into

class systems criticized his work and accused him of attempting to impose middle class values on all society. Others stated if teachers accepted his theory they would automatically lower their expectation of the "lower class" child. Bernstein's work is believed by some to be lacking in scientific procedure and considered not applicable to the problem (Bernstein, 1971).

In the United States, the majority of research has examined language between different cultures rather than social classes. Since children have learned a language pattern by the time they attend school, much of the research has focused on language interaction between mother and child (Tough, 1972). Phillips (1970) and Snow (1971) found that mothers reduce grammatical complexities when talking to younger children. Hess and Shipman (1965) found that mothers' teaching styles at home carry over and influence their children's school performances.

Researchers have also focused on the importance of context in terms of situational influence on language and communication. Leech (1974) listed the following as ways context aids in specifying meaning:

1. Context enlightens the listener so certain ambiguities or possible multiple meanings in words or phrases are not confused.

2. Context aids in clarifying the referents of words such as this, that, or there and of more definite expressions such as I, you, he, John, the man, or them.

3. Context supplies information which the speaker or writer omits because he assumes the listener or reader has previously obtained this information.

Hopper and Naremore (1973) found that children show an early awareness of speaking according to situational context. Young children were found to speak differently to friends than to parents. They speak differently to younger children than older children. They speak differently to the same person when placed in different situations. The major thrust of Hopper and Naremore's research is neither adults nor children speak the same way all the time and the variety of speech is due to situational context. They discussed five aspects of situational context that influences the communication of individuals.

1. Personal Context--Children learn to adjust their speaking behavior according to the listeners and it is automatic for adults.

2. Message Context--This includes what was said before and after a particular communicative act. Most communicators do tend to flow with a particular message.

3. Content Context--Children and adults enjoy and tend to talk about things in which they are knowledgeable and interested.

4. Task Context--This involves the reason the person is talking, his particular goal or task. Most children talk about the actual task in which they are presently involved.

5. Physical Context--People are more relaxed and more talkative in familiar surroundings. Hopper and Naremore believe children to be more sensitive to the physical context of communication than adults.

In summary, context is an important factor involved in language learning. It is also a factor present in all communication, acting as an aid in clarifying and enlightening the listener. Language in context may be an important factor in classroom language which affects the child's learning. One of the major problems involved with language in context is the lack of a scientific rule which successfully predicts man's response. However, researchers do believe eventually we will be able to predict and describe rules of language in context just as we do rules of grammar (Hymes, 1974).

Language Content

Words or signs combine to form sentences which express a message or thought. This message relates to a particular idea or object which is considered the topic of the message. It is *the* person, *the* house, and *the* car spoken of in a sentence (Bloom, 1974). Bloom (p. 12) described language content as "the broader, more general categorization of topics that are encoded in messages . . ." Content is the information and meaning relayed in a communicative act (Haney, 1971). Clark and Clark (1971) describe content as "the 'something' that conveys the ideas the

listeners are to be informed of, asked about, warned about, or requested to fulfill." Content establishes the particular object or event the communicator speaks about and describes it so that an idea or message is formed (Greenberg, 1977).

McClellan (1978) presents language content in relation to the studies of semantics and cognitive functions. He stated children's early language utterances appear as expressions of perceived semantic relations; these expressions reflect the child's cognitive functions. Slobin (1973) hypothesized that cognitive development of a child establishes semantic intent and the child proceeds to express those intentions. Individuals do not talk about things or relations which they do not know or understand. Usually the speaker incorporates his personal knowledge of the content with the knowledge he believes the listener to possess. Success in this area adds to the success of the communicative act (Olson, 1970).

The idea of talking about things you understand supports the findings of Hopper and Naremore (1973). They found children talking about things of high personal interest. The topic influences how much a child will speak and the message he relates. Wood (1976) states the greater number of topics a child knows increases his options for talking and this provides more experiences for improving the art of communication.

Bloom (1978) speaks of the "continuity of language content." This relates to the belief that children and adults talk about the same content areas. Even though the broad area of content is the same, the more specific topic varies according to the age, personal interest, knowledge, and culture of the speaker (Bloom, 1978). A child may speak of the toy car while the adult speaks of the car he drives. Nelson (1973) analyzed the first 50 words spoken by 18 different children between the ages of 9 and 24 months. She found children learning similar words; the words consist of food, people, animals, and things involved in movement (McClellan, 1978). Language of children from different and varied cultures has been studied and similar content areas were discovered (Slobin, 1973; Bowerman, 1973).

Shirley (1938) noted children in nursery school talk about the same topics in a similar fashion. She questioned the influence of nursery school environment on the language content of these children. A list of verbal responses of children between the ages of 2 and 5 years old who were not attending school was obtained and studied. She designated two categories for the analysis of the responses. The response was either an expression of common needs and desires of personal involvement or an expression relating to the environment and imposed by the culture or setting. The findings indicated these children had learned a large number of similar words and concepts. At least

half of their responses were reported to be of a personal nature, while the remainder consisted of fantasy or terms used as explanations.

Metraux (1950) studied speech dynamics of 205 pre-school children with emphasis on how the child reveals himself. The content consisted of talk about personal involvement in activities and relationships with those in the immediate environment.

Hahn (1948) studied the speech of 116 first grade children in terms of content. He chose to record topics discussed during "share and tell" time. The topics most commonly discussed were: objects displayed, home play, family activities, family outings, movies, and animals. Overall, the children's speech was considered to be highly personal relating to the child and his family experiences.

Holland (1975) wrote of the importance of language content in relation to different context when planning children's language therapy programs. She expresses the belief that the content of normal children's language centers on the "here and now" (p. 515). She presents a core lexicon believed to be compatible in content and context for teaching the language disordered child.

Content analysis was developed under the leadership of Lasswell (1927) at a time when the content of mass communication was believed to invade and overpower a passive audience. Further studies indicated the listener's

social and personal relations greatly influenced his response to mass communication.

One major problem involved with the use of a content analysis was the manual coding system. The development of a computer programming system, the General Enquirer, by Stone et al. (1962), has improved the coding system for content analysis. This program allows content words or phrases to be placed in specific categories; if necessary these category titles can be changed without altering the overall system (Montague et al., 1975). The categories for content analysis are chosen from content dictionaries appropriate to the study. *The Harvard III Psychosociological Dictionary* (Stone et al., 1966) has been used with the General Enquirer system to investigate the psychological and social aspects of verbal behavior (Montague et al., 1975; Greenberg, 1977). This computerized analysis system has been used in several research programs. Montague, Hutchinson, and Matson (1975) compared the speech of 20 institutionalized retarded children to the language of 20 noninstitutionalized retarded children. Their findings indicated no significant differences between the language content of the two groups.

Relyea (1976) used a computerized content analysis system to study the language content of 30 different children. They were placed into three different groups according to age; they were three, five, and seven year old children. The differences in the content of the

speech samples were attributed to developmental trends in semantic maturity (Greenberg, 1977).

The children's language samples used by these two studies, Montague et al. (1975), and Relyea (1976), are examples of language content studied through a word by word analysis. Word by word content analysis does not consider the context or intent of the communication act; therefore the effectiveness of the communication is not considered.

The Functional Communication Observation Profile (Lieberman & Kelly, 1977) defines six parameters of communication (Appendix B) and includes twelve areas of language content. They are as follows:

1. People
2. Places
3. Basic Concerns
4. Feelings
5. Entertainment
6. Nature
7. News
8. Transportation
9. Occupations
10. Occupation
11. Language
12. Work Related Talk

These twelve areas of content will be used for content analysis of language samples in the present investigation.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Currently the language clinician is viewing language in terms of communication effectiveness. In order to understand the communicative needs of children, it is necessary to gather knowledge of their different environments and the language used in these different settings. The classroom is one environment that most children face, yet little is known about the communication skills necessary to be successful.

Language literature, with emphasis on pragmatics, describes language use and content in regard to context. The language clinician knows more about these areas of language and their importance in communication than ever before. Yet, research has not presented scientific normative data which would aid the clinician in determining language to be normal or disordered in the areas of use and content. A systematic procedure for measuring and assessing the pragmatic areas of language is also needed if the clinician is to make proper diagnosis and appropriate therapy procedures.

The purpose of this study was to present a description of language used in a first grade classroom. The study was designed to observe and describe children's language in terms of content and use in the context of the classroom setting. A comparison was made of the children's language use and content recorded in nonacademic

activities to the language use and content recorded while involved in academic tasks.

Chapter II

METHOD

SUBJECTS

The subjects involved in this study were members of a first grade regular education classroom at Miller's Creek Elementary School in North Wilkesboro, North Carolina. Audio and video recordings were made as they conversed in a designated setting during a particular time period. The children were not given a schedule of when or where the camera would be used. Individual patterns of the children were not investigated; their verbal responses were considered representative of language use and content of children in a first grade classroom. The class utilized in the investigation consisted of 15 boys and 12 girls ranging from the age of 6 years 7 months to 8 years 5 months and was selected because they had previous experience with audio and video equipment in the classroom. The audio and video recordings took place on April 7 and 8, 1978, from 8:30 a.m. to 11:30 a.m. This was the eighth month of the academic school year so it was assumed the children were familiar with the classroom setting and their peer group.

Miller's Creek Elementary School is part of the Wilkes County School System and is located in a rural non-farming mountain county.

DATA COLLECTION

Prior to the recording session, a meeting was held with the teacher to discuss the nature of the project. Since the success of the study was dependent on obtaining language samples from children involved in routine classroom activities, the teacher was encouraged to continue with the regular daily schedule. It was suggested that the observer make two morning visits to the classroom, since this period involved the children participating in academic and nonacademic tasks.

The equipment was placed in the classroom before the children arrived. Two microphones were used: one was placed in an area where the children would be involved in an academic task, and the second one was placed in an area for nonacademic tasks. The video camera was placed central to these two microphones and this allowed the observer the option of recording in either of the two areas with minimum effort or movement.

The camera was focused on one area for a period of twenty minutes then changed to the second area for a twenty-minute period of time. If at any time the children left the area being recorded, the camera was turned to the second designated area.

Two hours of conversation were recorded on the first day and another two hours of recording were completed on the second day.

EQUIPMENT

A Panasonic portable video and audio tape recorder (Model WV-3085) was used to record the subjects' spontaneous conversation during their involvement in academic and non-academic tasks. Thirty-minute one-half inch, black and white, reel to reel tapes were used for the recordings.

CODING OF DATA

The audio and video tape recordings were viewed and transcribed in conversational turns which served as the basic unit of analysis. A conversation turn (Markel, 1975) is defined as a verbal response spoken by an individual. For the purpose of this study, a turn started when an individual began speaking and ended when he stopped. The individual also lost his turn if an event or activity occurred which changed the direction of attention of the speaker. For example, if Child A and Child B were playing together, Child A started talking and Child B decided to leave the room and later returned, Child A would receive a new turn when he spoke again due to the change in activity. This definition of conversational turn included the focus of attention while speaking; if a child were talking to himself, he would receive a new turn each time he changed the focus of his attention or activity (Greenberg, 1977).

For the purpose of this study, only the conversation which was clearly audible and intelligible was included.

A total of twenty minutes of the recordings was not used due to unintelligible conversation.

The conversational turns were counted and a total of 953 turns was reached according to two settings: the conversation which took place while the children were involved in academic (A) tasks, and the conversation which occurred while involved in nonacademic (NA) tasks. From the total of 600 turns in A, a random sample of 100 different turns were transcribed, then a second 100 different turns were randomly selected and transcribed. This procedure was followed for the selection of turns in the NA setting. Each of the 400 conversational turns was coded for language content and language use (Appendix C). The content areas used were those included in the Lieberman and Kelly (1977) Functional Communicational Observation Profile. The language use was classified according to Halliday's seven functions.

During the coding of the conversational turns, it was noted that one turn may have reference to two or more content areas; this is illustrated in the following examples:

Turn: Dawn, I need to know two words for spelling.

Content: *People*--reference to Dawn and I

Numbers--reference to two

Language Related--reference to words

School Related--reference to spelling

Some content areas could not be identified due to lack of knowledge of the context of the reference.

Turn: Mrs. Buckles mixed them up.

Content: *People*--reference to Mrs. Buckles

--content of them is not understood out of context.

Some references were not applicable to the twelve content areas used.

Turn: Shut up--not coded.

Similar coding was noted in the area of language use; some statements contained more than one function.

Turn: I'll get you one, but you can't get your hand in there.

Language Use: *Informative*--informs listener of what speaker will do

Regulatory--limits the listener's behavior or action

Turn: If you had this hand broken.

The language use of this turn could not be coded appropriately without knowledge of the context.

Intrareliability

The recorder was given a random sample of 100 turns, taken from the original 400 coded turns, for a second coding. There was a 92 percent agreement between the first and second sample which indicated adequate reliability.

Chapter III

RESULTS

This study investigated the language content and language use of children in a first grade classroom. The results of the frequency of content and use categories were taken from spontaneous conversation of children in academic and nonacademic settings.

LANGUAGE CONTENT

In the area of language content, a sample of 400 turns (Appendix C) indicated 572 content items categorized into twelve areas (Table 1). The content area with the highest frequency count was *people*; this was categorized 305 times or 53 percent of the total content items noted. The next most frequently occurring area was *school* related items, with a frequency count of 67 or 12 percent. The other content areas ranged from 43 items or 8 percent in the area of *places* to a frequency count of 6 or 1 percent in the area of *occupations*. The only content category which was not noted in the coding was that of *news related* items.

Table 1
Language Content Areas with Frequency

CONTENT AREAS	*NA		NA		NA		**A		A		NA + A	
	1st 100		2nd 100		Total		1st 100		2nd 100		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1. People	76	52	71	50	147	51	78	55	80	61	158	57
2. Places	16	11	9	6	25	9	9	6	9	7	18	6
3. Basic Concerns	6	4	9	6	15	5	10	7	8	6	18	6
4. Feelings	2	2	4	3	6	2	2	1	0		2	
5. Occupations	3	2	1	1	4	1	1	1	1		2	
6. Entertainment	8	6	7	5	15	5	1	1	0		1	
7. Nature	6	4	5	4	11	4	9	6	11	8	20	11
8. News Related	0		0		0		0		0		0	
9. Transportation	3	2	3	2	6	2	1	1	1		2	
10. Numbers	10	7	24	17	34	12	7	5	4	3	11	4
11. Language Related	0		1	1	1		4	3	5	4	9	3
12. School Related	17	12	7	5	24	8	21	15	22	16	43	15
TOTAL	147		141		288		143		141		284	
												572

*NA--Non-structured academic

**A--Academic

LANGUAGE USE

The results in the area of language use are found in Table 2. From a sample of 400 turns, a total of 487 language uses were coded into seven different categories. The highest frequency count was found in the *informative* use of language; this function of language was coded 256 times or 53 percent of the total functions categorized. Second in the frequency count was the *regulatory* use of language with a count of 71 or 15 percent. The *heuristic* use was similar in count with 71 or 15 percent. The *imaginative* function of language was not used in the language samples taken for this investigation.

ANALYSIS

The complex chi square formula was used to compare the relationship of the responses in each category of the two samples in the nonacademic setting and the two samples taken in the academic setting (Bruning & Kintz, 1968). The analysis indicated ($\chi^2 = 2.02$, d.f. = 5, $p < .05$) for the nonacademic setting and ($\chi^2 = 10.77$, d.f. = 5, $p < .05$) for the academic setting of content and ($\chi^2 = 14.92$, d.f. = 10, $p < .05$) for the nonacademic setting and ($\chi^2 = 4.87$, d.f. = 10, $p < .05$) for the academic setting of language use. The scores indicated no significant difference between the responses in each category of the two samples which allowed the total of the 200 samples to be used for further analysis.

Table 2
Language Functions with Frequencies

LANGUAGE USE AREAS	*NA		NA		NA		**A		A		A		NA + A	
	1st 100		2nd 100		Total		1st 100		2nd 100		Total		Grand Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1. Informative	64	48	70	54	135	51	60	53	62	56	122	43	256	53
2. Heuristic	15	11	17	13	32	12	25	22	26	24	51	23	83	17
3. Instrumental	5	4	1	1	6	2	2	2	0		2		8	2
4. Regulatory	20	15	19	15	39	15	16	14	16	15	32	15	71	15
5. Interactive	18	14	15	12	33	13	10	9	7	6	17	8	50	10
6. Imaginative	0		0		0		0		0		0		0	
7. Personal	11	8	7	5	18	7	7		0		1		19	4

*NA--Non-structured Academic

**A--Academic

The complex chi square formula was used to determine the relationship of setting to content and the relationship of setting to use (Brunning & Kintz, 1968). Setting was found to be significantly related to content ($\chi^2 = 44.86$, d.f. = 11, $p < .005$) and significantly related to language use ($\chi^2 = 25.26$, d.f. = 11, $p < .005$).

With the knowledge that setting and content are dependent, each content area was analyzed in relation to the academic setting and the nonacademic setting. The significant difference between each category in relation to the two settings is represented by Z scores in Table 3 (Mendenhall, Ott & Larson, 1974).

Those categories which indicated significant differences between the two settings were *entertainment*, *numbers*, *school*, and *language related* content references and *heuristic* and *personal functions* of language.

Table 3
Language Content Areas and Z Scores

Content Areas	Z Scores
1. People	-1.100
2. Places	1.062
3. Basic Concerns	- .579
4. Feelings	1.404
5. Occupations	.804
6. Entertainment	3.522*
7. Nature	-1.702
8. News Related	--
9. Transportation	1.404
10. Numbers	3.523*
11. Language Related	2.575*
12. School Related	2.531*

*Z scores higher than ± 1.96 are significant ($p < .05$).

Table 4
Language Functions and Z Scores

Language Use	Z Scores
1. Informative	- .678
2. Heuristic	-3.059*
3. Instrumental	1.213
4. Regulatory	.207
5. Interactive	1.827
6. Imaginative	--
7. Personal	3.651*

*Z scores greater than ± 1.96 are significant ($p < .05$).

Chapter IV

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to present a description of language content and use in the first grade classroom. The results of language content indicated the system of coding and measurement was adequate since all but one category was used. The results also indicated the frequency of content areas coded was dependent on the setting and the task involved. The most frequently used content area was the child's reference to himself and others which was coded as *people*. This content area did not differ between settings within the classroom. However, these results when compared to a study by Greenbert (1977), on children's content in the home environment, showed a significant difference between the reference to *people*. This category was coded 53 percent of the total content in the present study involving the classroom environment and 8.6 percent in Greenberg's study of content in the home environment. The restrictions of the classroom environment plus the number of people involved may account for this difference.

The settings observed included children involved in academic tasks and nonacademic tasks. The content areas showing a significant difference according to setting were *entertainment*, *numbers*, *language*, and *school related* talk.

Children involved in nonacademic tasks talked about *entertainment* and *numbers*, and children involved in academic tasks talked about *language* and *school related* topics. Greenberg (1977) found a high percentage of talk about *entertainment* and *basic concerns* in the home environment while *language* and *school related* topics accounted for less than 1 percent of the total content.

The results of data on language use in the classroom indicated first grade children use the *informative* function most frequently. These results coincided with Halliday's (1975) research which described the 6-year-old as a mature language user. The main function of language for the mature language user is giving information. Blair (1977) found similar results in a study of children's intent in the home environment.

The *heuristic* and *personal* functions of language showed the most significant differences according to setting. The *heuristic* topics were second in the overall frequency count and occurred more often in the academic setting. Questions may be associated with learning or influenced by the particular teaching style of the teacher. Blair (1977) found the *heuristic* content used by children in the home to be less than 1 percent.

The *personal* use of language was low in the overall occurrence but differed significantly in relation to setting; it occurred primarily in the nonacademic setting.

Blair (1977) found a high percentage of language directed toward the *personal* use in the home environment.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The minimum length of observation time or number of utterances necessary for an adequate language sample has not been determined. Lee (1974), and Tyack and Gottsleben (1974) suggested a minimum of 50 to 100 utterances should be used for analysis. Bloom (1977) stated that a sample of 200 utterances was necessary for language data. She also suggested that a minimum of one-half hour in observation time was necessary for an accurate sampling. This information indicated the number of conversational turns and the amount of video recording time was adequate for the present study. The limitation present is the lack of variety in the academic setting. Due to the time and the days of the observation, the recordings were limited to the children involved in spelling and grammar tasks.

The process of collecting data for the present study included the presence of the observer plus audio and video recording equipment in the classroom with the children. This presence possibly altered the children's normal behavior by inhibiting certain language or actions while encouraging others. Even with the possible limitations, it is believed that audio and video tape recording is the best method of data collection when working with groups of normal, active, and mature language users (Bloom, 1977).

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The results of this study allowed a look at language in the classroom in both a general and specific fashion. The measures gave an overall view of language content and use in the classroom and divided the information into specific categories according to specific settings. This information is valuable for the language clinician and the classroom teacher as they add language pragmatics to present language programs and therapy procedures. Their efforts to aid the disordered child should be based on information of the normal language user.

This study presented a method of describing language content and use in the classroom environment. Further research in this area should include:

1. A description of children's communication with teachers and other school personnel.
2. A description of language content and use of individual teachers and the possible influence on class members.
3. A description of language content and use of the disordered child.
4. A study of language content and use in relation to age and school grade levels.

SUMMARY

A pragmatic description of language in a first grade classroom is presented. The results represent normative data which can be used by language clinicians and classroom teachers concerned with children's communication in the classroom setting.

The study suggests that language content and use can be measured and these measured results should be considered in relation to setting and task involvement. The procedure used for this study can be easily duplicated for further research or used by the clinician to gather baseline information and developed into therapy guidelines.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

Functional Communication Observation Profile (Lieberman & Kelly, 1977)

I. Participants

The individual or media involved in the communication event.

A. Roles of Participants

1. Source--
2. Target--
3. Auditor--
4. Disengaged--

B. Types of Participants

1. People
 - a. Relatives
 - b. Playmates
 - c. Service people
 - d. Professional people
 - e. School personnel
 - f. Self
 - g. Other
2. Communication device
3. Pets
4. Inanimate objects (toys)

II. Setting

The time and place of the communication event.

A. Home

1. Indoors
2. Outdoors

B. Others' Homes

1. Indoors
2. Outdoors

C. School

1. Academic
2. Nonacademic

D. Church

E. Community Setting

F. Vehicles

III. Channels of Communication

The medium through which the communication is relayed.

A. Speaking

B. Listening

C. Reading

D. Writing

E. Nonverbal

1. Facial Expressions
2. Gestures
3. Vocalics
4. Haptics

F. Performing

IV. Content of Communication

The subject matter or topic of the communication event.

- A. People
- B. Places
- C. Basic Concerns
- D. Feelings

APPENDIX B

Conversational Turns with Appropriate Code

		<u>Code</u>	
<u>Language Use</u>	<u>Code</u>	<u>Language Content</u>	<u>Code</u>
Informative	1	People	A
Heuristic	2	Places	B
Instrumental	3	Basic Concerns	C
Regulatory	4	Feelings	D
Interactive	5	Occupations	E
Imaginative	6	Entertainment	F
Personal	7	Nature	G
		News Related	H
		Transportation	I
		Numbers	J
		Language Related	K
		School Related	L

Conversational Turns

1. Timmy, your supposed to get to your desk.
(1, 4, A, L, B)
2. You shouldn't built it right there on the cord.
(1, E, B, A)
3. You better not cause I'm not getting them all.
(4, 7, A)
4. You're not getting much of them.
(1, A)
5. Now, I need one more.
(7, 3, 1, C, J, A)
6. I knocked these two down.
(1, A, J)
7. Me and my sister built the same thing.
(1, 5, A, E)
8. I put my bad self in the commode and flushed it.
(7, 1, A, B)
9. Can I have one?
(3, A, C)
10. How come you do?
(2, A)
11. Can you get up the commode?
(2, A)
12. He flushed the diaper down the commode.
(1, A, B)
13. Right.
(1)
14. How much?
(2, J)
15. One, two, three, four, five, six.
(1, J)
16. Do you see that; I was picking it up and it come back?
(1, 2, A, C)
17. Give me one.
(4, 3, J)

18. I'll take all of them.
(1, 3, A, J)
19. I already gave you one.
(1, 5, A)
20. Is this yours?
(2, A)
21. What's the matter with Chris?
(2, A)
22. My birthday is May 19th.
(7, 1, A, J)
23. Give me some fire wood in there.
(4, 3, A, G, B)
24. Hey you better quit it.
(4, 1, A)
25. Very funny, very funny.
(1)
26. I'm gonna build me a school.
(71, 1, A, E, L)
27. Barbie, we gonna be playing barbie. No we ain't. Yea.
(1, 5, A, F)
28. Yea, I am.
(7, 1, A)
29. What are we going to do now?
(5, 2, A)
30. We need a yellow next.
(1, 5, A)
31. I'm not going to land in the school.
(7, 1, A, L)
32. Timmy's turn.
(1, 4, A)
33. Back in the school.
(1, L)
34. I think you don't have any luck Dana.
(7, 1, A, D, J)
35. I got brown.
(1, A)

36. I got that one, silly.
(1, 5, A)
37. I got brown.
(1, A, L)
38. I got blue.
(1, A, L)
39. Riding in a car.
(I)
40. I with you Dawn.
(5, 1, A, B)
41. Back in to the school.
(1, B, L)
42. Shut up, Timmy.
(4, 5, A)
43. Your in school.
(1, A, L, B)
44. Yes, of course, I'm in school. This is a school and
I'm in school.
(1, A, B, L)
45. Look at what I got. I got a G, I got a G.
(5, 4, A, L)
46. I got green.
(1, A, L)
47. Is it my turn?
(2, A)
48. Vicky loves you Dana.
(1, 5, A, D)
49. I got orange.
(1, A, L)
50. I got blue.
(1, A, L)
51. It's sorta like swimming but you do it under water.
(1, A, G)
52. That's no fair, you went like this.
(1, 5, A)

53. I am not.
(7, 1, A)
54. We give up.
(5, 1, A)
55. It begins with an M.
(1, L)
56. We give up.
(1, A)
57. I didn't know this is the way to ride a motorcycle.
(1, A, I)
58. All right, I was a mailman.
(1, E, A)
59. What does it begin with?
(2)
60. You gotta raise your hand.
(1, A, L)
61. Searching for a whale.
(G)
62. I know something.
(7, 1, A)
63. Oh, yea, now I've got a good one.
(1, A)
64. Mr. McGoo?
(2, A)
65. Caught a fish?
(2, G, F)
66. Riding a car?
(2, I)
67. Acting like a fool?
(2, A, F)
68. Do ponies makes sound?
(2, G)
69. No, I'm doing it.
(1, A)
70. Well, I wanna do one.
(1, A)

71. We need two more boys.
(5, 1, C, A, J)
72. Act like you're playing a guitar.
(4, C, A)
73. Put the boy's clothes on the girl.
(4, C, A)
74. Who wants this?
(2, A)
75. They must have not put them in the box when they were cleaning up.
(1, 5, A, B)
76. Look at this pretty girl, Miss Buckles.
(4, A, B)
77. Would you please get away from here; this is a private book.
(4, 1, A, L, B)
78. For Brownies and nobody else.
(1, 5, A, L)
79. Come in.
(4, B)
80. If you show anything in the brownie book you won't be a brownie.
(1, A, L)
81. Now I can turn it back.
(1, A)
82. Sing it with me and don't sing silly.
(4, 5, 1, F, A)
83. Two for the cat.
(1, J, G)
84. No, I won it.
(1, A, F)
85. This is the cat. I've won one and you've won zero.
(1, A, G, F)
86. Let's put it up.
(5, 1, A, B)
87. You wanna put a puzzle together?
(2, A, F)

88. I know who put this together.
(7, 1, A)
89. Please, please I'll be your best friend. I'll be
Nancy's, too.
(4, 5, A)
90. No, I'm doing it.
(1, A)
91. Wait till I go to the mirror.
(4, A, B)
92. Go back to your group.
(4, 5, A, B)
93. Give me an ear if there's one in there.
(4, C)
94. Right here.
(1, B)
95. Here's a purple.
(1, B)
96. Wait! Wait!
(4)
97. I got brown.
(1, A)
98. You can't do that.
(4, A)
99. Back in the school.
(A, B, L, 1)
100. Can I have some?
(A, 2)

1. Don't get all the big ones.
(4, J)
2. Get that one that fell off.
(4, J)
3. You got all of em, Michelle.
(1, A, J)
4. Hey, don't use all of em.
(4, 5, J)
5. I'm not building what you are, Michelle.
(1, A)
6. No, I did not. Look how much you got; look how much I got.
(1, A, J)
7. Now I need one more.
(7, 1, C, J)
8. Here is one.
(1, J)
9. Yea.
(1)
10. Quit knocking the table cause mine will knock down in a few minutes.
(4, 1, A, J)
11. I thought you was going to do it like me.
(4, 1, A)
12. I don't have one.
(1, A, J)
13. We're playing the butt family.
(5, 1, A, F, C)
14. Dawn, you're so crazy.
(1, 5, A)
15. You have brown mud all over you.
(1, A, G)
16. How come you do?
(2, A)

17. Dana, Dana Commode.
(5, A)
18. Is this mine?
(2, A)
19. When Richard was a baby Mama had a diaper on him and so when Richard used the bathroom Mama put the diaper in the commode like she always does and then Daddy went and used the bathroom.
(1, A, B, C)
20. You've got more blocks than me.
(1, A, J)
21. Now then how does mine look?
(2, A)
22. How much?
(2)
23. One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten, eleven.
(1, J)
24. There's one.
(1, J)
25. I need two more cause I only have one.
(1, 7, C, J)
26. This is getting crazy.
(1)
27. I'll take all of em.
(3, A)
28. There's one, I see one.
(1, J, C, A)
29. One for me, one for you, one for you.
(5, J, A)
30. I know something.
(1, A)
31. When did you say your brother's birthday was?
(2, 5, A)
32. I need a black.
(7, 1, C, A)

33. I'm making me a road.
(1, A)
34. That's what I said.
(1, K, A)
35. Hey, you better quit it.
(4, A)
36. How do you like that?
(2, A, D)
37. I'm glad, ain't you?
(7, 1, 2, A, D)
38. It's my turn now.
(1, 4, A)
39. Picking pears?
(2, G)
40. What are we going to do now?
(2, 5, A)
41. Think of something.
(4)
42. I'll sit in this chair; you sit in that one.
(4, 5, A)
43. Hey, you need to give them out cause it never turns
out right. They get all messed up.
(4, 1, A)
44. No, I gotta get a green.
(1, A)
45. I know that one.
(1, A)
46. I don't need that silly.
(1, 7, A, C)
47. Better go that way.
(4, 1, I)
48. I'm getting out of the school this time.
(1, A, L, B)
49. Back in, you're still in school.
(4, 1, A, L)
50. I gave it to you, didn't I?
(2, 3, A)

51. Oh, green, alright, green, alright.
(1)
52. Back into the school.
(1, L)
53. I'm ahead of you, Dawn.
(1, A)
54. You're in school.
(1, L, A)
55. Yes, of course, I'm in school. This is a school and
I'm in school.
(1, A, L, B)
56. I don't love him.
(1, 7, A, D)
57. You got the wrong one.
(1, A, J)
58. How come there not any more things?
(2, J)
59. Because this is a four-person game.
(1, J, F)
60. Let's replace this.
(5, 4, A)
61. I don't care, Timmy's cheating.
(7, 1, A, D)
62. If I can only get me a Y.
(1, A, L)
63. If I could only get that thing.
(1, A)
64. I don't cheat.
(1, A)
65. Hey, ya'll, I get 2 B's.
(1, 5, A, J, L)
66. It's on blue.
(1)
67. We give up.
(1, 5, A)
68. You gotta raise your hand.
(4, A)

69. Searching for a whale?
(2, G)
70. You said this was the last time, so I'm quittin'.
71. Timmy, you guessed it.
(1, A)
72. Riding a motorcycle?
(2, I)
73. Do you give up?
(2, A)
74. We give up.
(1, 5, A)
75. Flying a airplane; I was flying a airplane.
(1, A, I)
76. I'm not doing it.
(1, A)
77. We need two more boys.
(1, A, J)
78. I guess I'll have to do something else.
(1, A)
79. Only a boy can.
(1, A)
80. Will you volunteer Marty? Please, all you have to do is act like you're playing a guitar and act like you're singing and I'll act like I'm singing. OK?
(4, 1, 2, A, F)
81. Alright, I'll act like I'm playing a guitar.
(1, A, F)
82. Put this on the girl.
(4, A, B)
83. Put the boy's clothes on the girl.
(4, A)
84. I can't find it, there is this fancy, there it is, there is a fancy dress.
(1, C, A)
85. Would you please get away from here; this is a private book.
(4, A, L, B)

86. OK, now we can look at it.
(1, 5, C)
87. There is here, then plain 0, 6 counts, 1 count.
Let's see if we can sing it.
(1, 5, A, F, J)
88. Hey, you want me to show you something that Nancy
gave me?
(1, 5, A)
89. Not now.
(1)
90. Rolling up a string on a piece of wood?
(2, G)
91. Are these the ones?
(2, J)
92. It looks like he is a baller. .
(1, E)
93. I won that one.
(1, J, A)
94. The cat wonned it.
(1, G, F)
95. One for you.
(1, A, J)
96. You wanna put a puzzle together?
(2, F, A)
97. I can get that one right.
(1, A)
98. It's my turn.
(1, 7, A, B)
99. Can I have some?
(2)
100. It's my turn.
(1, A)

1. I put he hopped me.
(1, A)
2. I put he hopped. I put he, I am hop, I hopped, I hopped already.
(1, A)
3. What is that?
(2)
4. That's Huckleberry.
(1)
5. See what the eighth word is?
(3, L, J)
6. Hippotamus.
(1, G)
7. Hip-po-pot-mus. Hippy pot a mus.
(1, G)
8. Let's see, without, without holding your own paper.
(4, 1, C)
9. If you had this hand broken.
(C, A)
10. Cause my cousin got her hand broken and she can't even hardly, she got both hands broken and she can't even write. That's why she's not going to school anymore but she's still living though.
(1, A, C, L, D)
11. What's the second word down?
(2, A, B)
12. I'm gonna put, Where is Miss Huckleberry."
(1, A)
13. Why did youse do your reading first?
(2, A, L)
14. Cause we can get it done faster.
(1, A)
15. We can get spelling done faster.
(1, A, L)

16. Reading's better than spelling anyway.
(1, L)
17. Where is Miss Huckleberry?
(2, A)
18. I got all them.
(1, A, J)
19. I'm gonna put I have a vote, you know like you a vote,
like if, you know.
(1, A)
20. Does it mean, is it, Marty is it hippotamus? Is
that hippotamus?
(2, 5, A, G)
21. I'm put here is a hippotamus.
(1, A, G)
22. Miss Buckles mixed them up.
(1, A)
23. I know.
(1, A)
24. Did you read it?
(2, A, L)
25. How do you spell four or for?
(2, A, L)
26. For.
(1, L)
27. How do you spell came?
(2, L)
28. C-o-m-e I think. No, that is come. I don't know
how.
(1, L, A)
29. That's car.
(1, I)
30. You write different.
(1, A, L)
31. Shut up.
(4)
32. How do you spell to.
(2, A, L)

33. Teacher said you better not say that to me again.
(1, 4, A, L)
34. She said not. You lie.
(1, A)
35. We will all go to the. How do you spell the?
(2, A, H)
36. Let me see it.
(3, A, C)
37. No, don't let her.
(4, 1, A)
38. I brought it back for you, cause I ate the others.
(1, A, B, C)
39. Would you like something else?
(2, A, D)
40. Kit Kat, I brought it back from the beach, too.
(1, G, A)
41. Marty, what's a good sentence? Oh, I know a good sentence with cat. The cat is, how do you spell cat?
(2, 1, 5, A, G, K, L)
42. R-e-d--red.
(1)
43. What's the ninth word?
(2, K, J)
44. It's look like pink.
(1, C)
45. That's all I need to color. I want mine to be white.
(1, 7, A)
46. I want it to be brown.
(1, A, D)
47. Mark, Mark, Mark, hurry up with that blue.
(5, 4, A)
48. Have you heard him read?
(2, A, L)
49. That's mine, that's mine; it's plain white.
(1, A)
50. Are you somebody?
(2, A)

51. There's one of the crayons.
(1, B)
52. You want this.
(A)
53. You're coloring that brown.
(1, A)
54. Now everybody when they need a crayon get it out of
here.
(4, 1, A, B)
55. Whose is it?
(2, A)
56. Hey, Marty Bowen.
(5, A)
57. Yellow, I ain't got the yellow.
(1, A)
58. I want green.
(1, A)
59. Mark, Mark, look behind you.
(4, A, C)
60. Look at mine; I have even colored the hand.
(4, A, C)
61. I hadn't. I've got lots to go. I ain't got as much
as you but I got lots to go.
(1, A, J)
62. I hadn't colored the grass.
(1, A, G)
63. Yea, you gotta color the barn.
(4, A, B)
64. What?
(2)
65. Why don't you copy me?
(2, A)
66. I'm through with it.
(1, A)
67. Anyways, I wasn't through with it.
(1, A)

68. You wanna see mine?
(2, 5, A, C)
69. I don't know.
(1, A)
70. Dana, that burns.
(5, 1, A)
71. You'll break it.
(1, A)
72. I used Greg's big old fat one.
(1, A)
73. After we get through, we gotta put them in the box.
(4, 1, A, B)
74. You need green.
(A)
75. I'm just gonna put anything.
(1, A)
76. Look at this sky.
(4, G, C)
77. Gah, I've used yellow a lot, ain't I? Right there.
(1, 2, A)
78. Did you read it?
(2, A, L)
79. Yes, I read it.
(1, A, L)
80. What did you put?
(2, A)
81. My girl is pretty.
(1, A)
82. I'm gonna put here is a pippotamus.
(1, A, G)
83. How do you spell grey?
(2, A, L)
84. Don't ask me.
(1, A, 4)
85. What's the second word?
(2, A, L)

86. How do you spell store?
(2, A, L, B)
87. Dawn, how do you spell got?
(5, 2, L, A)
88. I put, Winnie is big.
(1, A)
89. I put it first.
(1, A, J)
90. You'll never get through.
(1, A)
91. Look what I put, I put Windy where is your good
smile. I went to Jan's house.
(4, 1, 5, A, B)
92. I do not have much dolls.
(1, A, J, F)
93. Teacher said everybody. If you don't I'm gonna tell
on you.
(1, 4, A, E)
94. Shut up.
(4)
95. Shut up.
(4)
96. David, David, she put girl had a bat.
(5, 1, A)
97. I do.
(1, A)
98. Come here a minute.
(4, J)
99. Dana, come here a minute.
(5, 4, A, J)
100. I put it first.
(1, A)

1. I put he hopped me.
(1, A)
2. What is that?
(2)
3. I know.
(1, A)
4. Hippotamus
(g)
5. You're a hippotamus.
(1, A, G)
6. I can write with one hand.
(1, A, L)
7. If you had this hand broken.
(A, C)
8. Cause my cousin got her hand broken, and she can't even hardly, she got both hands broken and she can't even write.
(1, A, C, L)
9. Well, most of them does.
(1, J)
10. I'm gonna put, Where is Miss Huckleberry.
(1, A)
11. Well, here is a huckleberry.
(1, G)
12. I didn't know which is huckleberry and which is polar bear.
(1, A, G)
13. Why did youse do your reading first?
(2, A, L)
14. Nancy done the same thing I did.
(1, 5, A)
15. Mary, don't forget to underline Miss Huckleberry.
(4, A, L)
16. I got all them.
(1)

17. Mary, don't forget to underline Miss Huckleberry.
(4, A)
18. I'm gonna put I have a vote.
(1, A)
19. My girl is pretty.
(1, A)
20. Does it mean is it, Mary is it hippotamus?
(2, A, G)
21. I'm put here is a hippotamus.
(1, G)
22. What's the eighth word?
(2, K)
23. Dawn, I need to know two words for spelling. The last word up at the top and this side of the blank after third.
(1, L, A, K, J)
24. Did you read it?
(2, A, L)
25. Yes, I read it.
(1, A, L)
26. How do you spell for?
(2, L, A)
27. F-o-r.
(1, L)
28. How do you spell came?
(2, A, L)
29. C-O-M-E, I think. Come, no that's come; I don't know.
(1, A, L)
30. My girl is pretty.
(1, A)
31. That's car.
(1, I)
32. Would that be a question mark?
(2, L)
33. You write different.
(1, L, A)

34. Shut up.
(4)
35. How do you spell to.
(2, A, L)
36. Teacher said you better not say that to me again. She said not.
(4, 1, A, L)
37. She said not, you lie.
(1, A)
38. How do you spell to?
(2, A, L)
39. We will all go to the. How do you spell the?
(2, A, L)
40. T-H-E, I told you.
(1, A, K)
41. Come here, Nancy.
(4, A, B)
42. Let me see it.
(4, A, C)
43. No, don't let her.
(4, A)
44. I brought it back for you, cause I ate the others.
(1, A, C)
45. Kit Kat. I brought it back from the beach, too.
(1, G, A)
46. Marty, what's a good sentence? Oh, I know a good sentence with cat. The cat is, how do you spell cat?
(2, 1, G, K, L)
47. The cat is a
(G)
48. It look like pink.
(1, C)
49. I want it to be brown.
(1, A)
50. Have you heard him read?
(2, A, L)

51. That's mine, that's mine. It's plain white.
(1, A)
52. Are you somebody?
(2, A)
53. There's one of the crayons.
(1, B)
54. I don't want that.
(1, A, C)
55. I want that brown next.
(1, C, A)
56. When everybody get through, when everybody get through,
put the crayons in there.
(4, 1, B, A)
57. You're coloring that brown.
(1, A)
58. Now everybody when they need a crayon get it out of
here.
(4, 1, A, B)
59. Hey, Marty Bowen.
(4, A)
60. Yellow, I ain't got the yellow.
(1, A)
61. Mark, Mark, look behind you.
(1, A, 4)
62. You do it.
(4, A)
63. Color some more sky.
(4, G)
64. Look at mine; I have even colored the hand.
(4, C, A)
65. I hadn't even colored the chair.
(1, A)
66. I hadn't colored the grass.
(1, A, G)
67. I want you to copy me.
(4, A)

68. What?
(2)
69. I'm through with it.
(1, A)
70. Anyway, I wasn't through with it.
(1, A)
71. How come I did that?
(2, A)
72. I'm just taking a guess.
(1, A)
73. Where's the black?
(2)
74. I put a little orange in.
(1, A, B)
75. Dana, that burns.
(5, 1, A)
76. Dana, where's green?
(2, 5, A)
77. I used Greg's big old fat one.
(1, A)
78. After we get through, we gotta put them in the box.
(1, 5, A, B)
79. I only need green.
(1, A)
80. You need green.
(1, A)
81. Gah, I've use yellow a lot, ain't I. Right there.
(1, 2, A)
82. Yes, I read it.
(1, A, L)
83. What did you put?
(2, A)
84. What's the second word? Went?
(2, K)
85. What did you do, tear your paper?
(2, A)

86. How do you spell store?
(2, A, L, B)
87. Dawn, how do you spell got?
(2, 5, A, L)
88. Did you put Windy is good?
(1, A)
89. I put Windy is big.
(1, A)
90. You better not put, I put that.
(4, 1, A)
91. I put it first.
(1, A, J)
92. Where did you come from?
(2, A, B)
93. I grabbed my pet rug.
(1, A)
94. Wait on me.
(1, A, J)
95. Everybody posed to put answers on the back.
(4, 1, A, B)
96. Teacher said everybody; if you don't, I'm gonna tell
on you.
(4, 1, A, E)
97. Shut up.
(1)
98. David, David, she put girl had a hat.
(1, 5, A)
99. I do.
(1, A)
100. The girl had a hat.
(1, A)