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I am submitting herewith a thesis written by A. Renee Hinton entitled "Development of Formality Across Various Communicative Intents in School-Aged Speakers of Appalachian English and African-American English." I have examined the final copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts, with a major in Speech Pathology.

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We have read this thesis
and recommend its acceptance:

Accepted for the Council:

Associate Vice Chancellor and
Dean of The Graduate School

Development of Formality Across Various Communicative Intents in School-Aged Speakers of Appalachian English and African-American English

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my grandmother

Margaret T. Hinton

who has provided me with strength and encouragement all my life.

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Abstract

The dialects of Appalachian English (APPE) and African-American English (AAE) are spoken in the United States. All aspects of language production, including semantic, syntax, phonology and pragmatics, need to be studied to have a full understanding of any dialect. There is increasing research in the area of dialects, but the areas of intent and formality for APPE and AAE need to be further assessed. With increased knowledge of these functions of each dialect, a more complete understanding of the use and production of dialectal language can be formed.

This study researches speakers of APPE and AAE productions of intent and formality using a test similar to the Let's Talk Inventory for Children (Bray & Wiig, 1987). Fifteen speakers of APPE and 15 speakers of AAE were administered the Test of Formality (TOF; Swanson, 1995) at each of the following age levels: 5 years, 6 years, and 7 years. The TOF was designed to assess the ability to express both intent and formality in the following areas: ritualizing, controlling, informing, and feeling. Stimuli contained both peer and adult European-American and African-American interactants. The children's productions were analyzed for Total Intent Scores and Total Formality Scores. Alternate scoring provided a finer assessment of each child's use of formal markers.

A significant difference existed between the two groups of dialectal speakers on Total Intent Scores. Speakers of APPE had higher means than speakers of AAE. Significant differences exist between the five- and seven-year-old groups and the six- and seven-year-old groups. Subtests were analyzed to provide a picture of each dialect's performance on various communicative functions.

The analysis of Total Formality Scores did not provide a significant difference between speakers of APPE and AAE. Due to the low Total Formality scores received by all subjects on the TOF, a significant difference was not determined. A developmental progression was also not determined due to the low scores received by all subjects. The Alternate Scoring provided trends in dialectal use of increased usage of formal markers with each age level. Trends were seen in age group productions with a decrease in the use of the auxiliary verbs "can" and "may" accompanied by and increase in the use of past tense modal verbs.

This study analyzed the effect of multicultural interactants presented in stimuli. Both speakers of APPE and AAE performed higher on stimuli that contained pictures of African-American interactants.

Evidence was provided that differences between APPE and AAE exist in their productions and use of intent. The expression of intent increased with each age level. Speakers of APPE and AAE varied in their productions and use of formality. The expression of formality increased with each age level.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER PAGE

I. INTRODUCTION 1

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE 4
Introduction to Dialects 4
Appalachian English 6
African-American English 6
Development of Intent 9
Development of Formality 11
Variables Affecting the Development and Use of Formal Language 14
Listener 14
Age 15
Gender 16
Culture 16
Socioeconomic Status 17
Intonation 17
Cultural Differences in the Learning of Language 18
Code Switching 19
Dialects 19
Formal Language Continuum 19
School Performance 21
Testing Bias 22
Effects of the Race and Dialect of Examiner, Testing Materials, and Reinforcement 25
Race of Examiner 25
Dialect of Examiner 26
Materials 26
Reinforcement 27
Summary 27
Purpose 30
Research Questions 30

III. METHODS 32
Subjects 32
Subject Description 32
Data Inclusion 34
Stimuli 36
Procedure 39

CHAPTER PAGE

Data Analysis **42**
Procedure for Determination of Significance 44
Determination of Reliability **45**
Intratranscriber Reliability 45
Intraexaminer and Interexaminer Reliability 46

IV. **RESULTS** **48**
Reliability **48**
Statistical Analysis **54**
Differences Between Total Intent Scores 54
Analysis of Total Intent Scores on Subtests 56
Differences Between Total Formality Scores 56
Analysis of Total Formality Scores on Subtests 60
Alternate Scoring 60
Differences in Performances for Items Involving European-American Interactants and African-American Interactants 64

V. **DISCUSSION** **70**
Total Intent Scores and the Development of Intent **70**
Total Intent Scores on Subtests for APPE and AAE 72
Total Formality Scores and the Development of Formality **73**
Total Formality Scores on Subtests for APPE and AAE 76
Alternate Scoring of Formality **79**
Relationship of Formal Oral Language to Literacy **80**
Emergent Literacy and the Development of Formality **81**
The Relationship of Standard American English Productions to the Production of Formality **82**
Race of Picture Interactants **83**
Limitations of the Current Study **83**
Suggestions for Future Research **85**
Summary **87**

REFERENCES **88**

APPENDICES **96**
Appendix A: Examples of Stimuli Presented in the Test of Formality 97
Appendix B: Test of Formality Speech Act Items 106
Appendix C: Research Study Guidelines for Administration of the Test of Formality 108
Appendix D: Test of Formality Scoring Form 111
Appendix E: Scoring Criterion for the Test of Formality 116
Appendix F: Test of Formality Alternate Scoring Form 131
Appendix G: Interexaminer Reliability Training Procedures 135

VITA **136**

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
1.	Distribution of Age, Gender, and Grade Level for Subjects in Schools A and B	35
2.	Subjects' Total Intent Scores on the Test of Formality	49
3.	Subjects' Total Formality Scores on the Test of Formality	50
4.	Total Intent Scores of Speakers of APPE and AAE for All Age Groups	51
5.	Total Formality Scores of Speakers of APPE and AAE for All Age Groups	52
6.	Determination of Significance for Interaction of Dialect and Age on Total Intent Scores	55
7.	Tukey's Honest Significant Difference Test on Total Intent Scores by Age Group for Speakers of APPE and AAE	57
8.	Total Intent Scores on Subtests for Speakers of APPE and AAE	58
9.	Nonparametric ANOVA of Differences Among Total Intent Scores on Subtests from the Test Of Formality Between Speakers of APPE and AAE	59
10.	Nonparametric ANOVA of Differences Among Speakers of APPE and AAE on Total Formality Scores	61
11.	Nonparametric ANOVA of Differences Among Age Groups 5-, 6-, and 7-Year-Olds on Total Formality Scores	62
12.	Total Formality Scores on Subtests for Speakers of APPE and AAE	63
13.	Subjects' Alternate Scoring on the Test Of Formality by Age Group	65
14.	Subjects' Mean Productions of the Auxiliary Verbs ("Can," "May") and Formal Word Choice ("Should," "Could," "Would") by Age Groups	66
15.	Subjects' Alternate Scoring on the Test Of Formality by Dialect	67
16.	Speaker's of APPE and AAE Responses to African-American Picture Interactants and European-American Picture Interactants	69

Chapter I

Introduction

Recent research has concentrated on the understanding of all aspects of the emerging 21st century multicultural society. This research has studied dialects from the broader view that the evolution of a dialect comes from not a single factor but from the culture as a whole. This evolvement has begun to not only consider the spoken language, but any communication factor that is affected by a speaker's social, linguistic, economic, and cultural community. To understand the communication of a dialectal speaker, all the above factors must be understood during assessment and treatment. Without this understanding, a dialectal speaker may be misdiagnosed with speech or language disorders, or misinterpreted due to unrecognized cultural factors. The misinterpretation of such a speaker can affect a person in all communication interactions. This particularly applies to children, who will probably be most affected by this misinterpretation in a school setting, where he/she may be expected to produce Standard American English (SAE), a form of language with which the child may have had little exposure.

During the production of SAE at school, children are expected to maintain a certain level of formality during interaction with peers, and an even higher level of formality in interaction with adults. One recent study by Cady (1997) reviewed the responses of Appalachian English (APPE) and African-American English (AAE) speaking children in their use of both intent and formality with the normative sample composed mainly of Standard American English (SAE) speakers through the

administration of the Let's Talk Inventory for Children (Bray & Wiig, 1987). This study analyzed responses to determine development and use of pragmatic abilities in child-adult and child-peer situations. Cady (1997) stated that speakers of APPE and AAE differed significantly from the normative sample on Total Intent Scores. Only speakers of AAE differed significantly on their Total Formality Scores. To better understand this initial research, the use and production of intent and formality by dialectal speakers requires further assessment.

Both APPE and AAE are rule governed spoken dialects spoken by children in schools, particularly in the Southeastern region of the United States. Appalachian English and African-American English cultural factors may affect a child's development and production of formality and intent. Formality may be associated with the perception of "politeness" of the speaker. Politeness has been defined by James (1978, p. 308) as a "reflection of pragmatic knowledge." Intent may be defined as "as that which a person wishes to achieve or plans to accomplish by communicating" (Bray & Wiig, 1987, p. 12).

Factors that may also affect a child's productions and usage are the child's exposure to various listeners and adult/child interactions. Other developmental factors that can affect the formal productions of dialectal speakers are gender, the culture the child has the greatest exposure to, the socioeconomic status of the child, and the use of intonation to indicate formality as used by the child's culture. Every dialect should be examined to give professionals a better understanding of the child's communicative intent and the level of formality used.

Research has proven that children with mature language systems can code switch from one dialect to SAE along a language continuum. Wolfram (1976) discusses and illustrates this continuum as a progression from formal Standard English to informal Standard English to informal Non-standard English. A progression is also presented that represented the type of language used. This continuum ranges from the language of testing to natural conversation. The use of language parallels the form of English to be spoken. This language continuum can also represents the use of formal and informal language. Children can move from one dialect to SAE, and also use language that moves along the continuum from informal to formal. The majority of testing materials used to assess dialectal speakers have been designed and normed on children who are speakers of SAE. Some attempts have been made to modify current tests to adapt to dialectal speakers, but few tests are designed from the outset to equally assess speakers of all dialects.

In order to avoid children being penalized for speaking a dialect that academic professionals may not be familiar with, non-culturally biased testing needs to be developed. Also, a greater knowledge of how cultures affect the development and production of formality and intent in speakers needs to be researched. With this knowledge a greater understanding of cultural differences can be understood and used to enhance the lives of children.

Chapter II

Review of the Literature

Introduction to Dialects

A dialect is associated with a "variety of language spoken by members of a given speech community" (Adler, 1993, p. 49). Smitherman (1977, p. 191) states that dialects are rule-governed varieties of a language. Dialects may be shaped by region, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, gender, age, and in multilingual speakers, the influence of other languages (Wolfram, 1986). Therefore, a dialect may not be defined solely as being used by a regional or social community, even though a close relationship can be maintained among these variables. Wyatt (1995) stated that some dialects have been referred to as "nonstandard dialects," meaning "those varieties of any language that deviate to some extent from the standard variety of that language, which represents for most native speakers the most socially and grammatically correct variety" (p. 8). Appalachian English (APPE) and African-American English (AAE) are non-standard dialects of Standard American English (SAE) spoken within the southeastern region of the United States.

"Cultural or social dialects must be studied within their regional contexts" (Adler, 1993, p. 52). Regional dialects are impacted by the underlying historical patterns that have led to the present-day pattern of variation (Wolfram, 1986). Geographic location may have significant impact upon regional dialects, whereas, Adler (1993, p. 51) states that social dialects are closely related to social-scale values ("e.g., income, education, and occupation, as well as subcultural membership, and perhaps racial and ethnic group").

The specific classifications of dialect can intermingle when discussing a dialect that maintains a specific social value within a definite region. Language behaviors displayed by any cultural group are influenced by socioeconomic status and cultural factors (Saferstein & Taylor, 1995).

To investigate and obtain an understanding of a dialect, one must not look solely at the semantic and phonological features apparent during the production of the dialect, but also observe and study other factors. This will include an understanding of the behaviors of a culture. A culture can impact a child's communicative style with regard to the interactive pattern of functions for each dialect (Blake, 1984). Wolfram (1986, p. 74) defines dialect as the reflection of "basic behavioral differences between groups of individuals within a society." Adler (1993, p. 49) suggests a broad review of the dialects, cautioning that the "attempts of members to control or impose order on their environment, how they view their own speech and language in terms of what is good speech, bad speech, appropriate speech, inappropriate speech, defective speech, and how these views are acquired" will affect a speaker's acquisition of language.

Each dialect must be analyzed with respect to the aforementioned variations, realizing that these aspects can be acquired in various social mechanisms. Current perspectives on dialectal speakers have not been well developed. Due to this children who are speakers of dialects may have been considered to have disordered speech or to be less intelligent than speakers of SAE. Research has yet to establish "the relative benefits or disadvantages of the type, quality, and quantity of verbal stimulation in culturally different homes" (Adler, 1993, p. 46).

Appalachian English

"Appalachian dialects are a series of subcultural dialects that are similar enough to be included in one category" (Adler, 1993, p. 49). Appalachian English (APPE) is typically used by some residents of the southeastern United States (e.g., East Tennessee, North Carolina, Kentucky). The origins of Appalachian English include verbal combinations of Scotch-Irish and English settlers, and reflects the influences of Southern Midland migration and settlement (Wood, 1971). The evolution of APPE may have resulted from the highland isolation which fostered the resistance to change that Standard American English (SAE) enveloped (Wolfram, 1986). It is noted that a change in APPE is occurring, due to factors such as younger speakers deleting the prefix "a" on words ending in "-ing" (e.g., a'runnin', a'layin) (Wolfram, 1986). Little knowledge of the developmental sequence of APPE is known. Some previous researchers have stated that speakers of dialects are deficient (Terrell & Terrell, 1993). Wolfram and Christian (1975) refuted this hypothesis, stating that children who speak with an APPE dialect do not acquire their language more slowly than other children who are speakers of SAE.

African-American English

Numerous names and definitions for African American English (AAE) exist, including: African American Language, Black English, Vernacular Black English, Black English Vernacular, Black Vernacular English, nonstandard and Negro English, Black dialect, Black English dialect, and Ebonics (Proctor, 1994). Adler (1993) determined that AAE has a different origin from SAE. Other dialects, such as SAE, Southern White English, and Appalachian English, share common core grammatical, phonological, and

lexical features with AAE (Wyatt, 1995). It is believed by most sociolinguists that present day African-American dialects are derived from a Creole variety of English that was spoken by the earliest slaves.

Terrell and Terrell (1993) suggest that the type of AAE produced today varies with age, geographic location, and socioeconomic factors. McGregor, Williams, Hearst, and Johnson (1997) define AAE as "a variety spoken in the United States that is most common among, but not limited to, rural and urban working class African Americans with little formal education." Blake (1984) supports this definition when she states that the characteristics of Black English are found predominantly in the speech of working-class African-Americans.

The difference between AAE and SAE is more visible in Northern urban areas, where it is quite evident that the "working class Blacks often use a variety of English that is much different from their working-class counterparts" (Wolfram, 1986, p. 87). The further South in which dialectal comparisons are made, less differentiations between both AAE and SAE are found. This is related to the fact that "most vernacular varieties of Black speech had their origin within the United States in rural Southern environments" (Wolfram, 1986, p. 87). Within environments where AAE is spoken, there is pressure exuded upon children to use AAE as a form of cultural identity that can increase unity within the African American community (Seymour & Miller-Jones, 1981).

The study of African-American English (AAE) began with federal research during the 1960s. It portrayed Black children in a negative perspective, stating that these children "failed to grasp the nature of their language and their world..." (Wiggins, 1976,

p. 243). This hypothesis has never been supported by research. Blake (1984) discovered that children learn both SAE and AAE in the same manner, and that the "distinctive features of Black English do not appear to interfere with early language learning." Terrell and Terrell (1993) stated that there is a developmental sequence in which AAE is learned, and with age increase, children will consistently produce more of the characteristics of AAE. They also stated that there is a difference in language development between AAE and SAE once children reach around three years of age. Washington and Craig (1994) studied a group of 45 urban, African-American preschool boy and girls and found that 17% of the utterances solicited contained the selected AAE forms they were researching. This provided evidence that young speakers produce forms in their language characteristic of their dialect. Ramer and Rees (1973) stated that there is not only a developmental use of AAE, but also a development of SAE. Blake (1984) supported this research when she found that there was not a difference in children's acquisition of form and meaning of language, in regards to their dialect. Children will encode the same basic meaning from materials presented, but may vary the presentation of this material based on cultural aspects of intent and formality. McGregor et al. (1997, p. 52) stated that "more information is needed about the semantic and pragmatic development of normal and impaired AAE speakers."

Two theories have been espoused about children's use of AAE. One theory states that children who speak AAE are deficient, using fewer words and "errored" grammatical patterns. The other theory states that there is a difference in the language produced by children who speak AAE, not a deficiency. The deficiency theory has since been proven

inaccurate by research (Terrell & Terrell, 1993). Some theorists believe that the children who speak AAE are less formal due to the short and "errored" productions. However, these productions may be formal within the confines of their dialect, therefore, they are different and not deficient.

Development of Intent

Children learn to communicate various intents to convey desired results. The interpersonal meanings imparted by the intents used by a child are part of the imbedded perceptions the child has of what is acceptable under non-linguistic conditions (Garvey, 1974).

Bray and Wiig (1987) developed the Let's Talk Inventory for Children (LTI-C) to assess children's intent. They selected four major communication categories to display intent: ritualizing, informing, controlling, and feeling. Cady (1997) summarized these categories from pages 11-28 in the LTI-C's manual as follows:

> The communication function which develops first is ritualizing. The ritualizing function refers to a series of speech acts specific to a particular context (social, religious, educational, or cultural) which may regulate such social interactions as greeting or turn-taking, and may indicate status or identify for the individuals who use them.
>
> The informing function, which tends to develop next, occurs in speech acts which give or request information and is realized in many speech acts that occur in classrooms. In order to effectively impart information, the speaker must be able to present the basic concepts of the message in a way that meets the needs of the listener.
>
> One of the later-developing communication functions is the controlling function, which is characterized by attempts to influence the listener's behavior. Speakers may try to influence the behavior of listeners through either direct or indirect means. The decision of whether to use direct or indirect means depends on factors such as age, status, personality, and the relationship between the speaker and listener. Individuals lacking maturity or perspective may have difficulty developing appropriate controlling speech acts.

> The last communication function to develop is the feeling function. This function is realized in speech acts that reveal or respond to feelings. Expressions of feelings may be deliberate or impulsive, and may occur in many different forms depending upon context. (pp. 12-13)

Cady (1997) evaluated the Total Intent and Total Formality scores received by 45 school-aged speakers of APPE and AAE on the LTI-C (Bray & Wiig, 1987). These scores were compared to those of a majority SAE speaking normative sample. Cady (1997) found that speakers of APPE had lower Total Intent Scores than the normative sample. She stated that speakers of APPE develop their communicative intents differently than speakers of SAE, particularly the controlling and feeling intents. Speakers of Appalachian English (APPE) may be affected in their expression of the feeling function by the reluctance to express emotion that is conveyed within their culture. A child's use of the controlling function may be affected by the situations he/she is presented with as a child. In Kovarsky, Stephan, and Braswell's (1994) study it was revealed that children in an Appalachian preschool often have conflicts negotiated for them by preschool teachers. Also, these children are rarely found to negotiate conflict in front of teachers or to verbally confront their teachers. Thus affecting a speaker of APPE's development of the controlling function.

Wyatt (1995) discusses Blake and Bridgeforth's research that states that African-American children use language to accomplish the same communication functions as do other children (e.g., informing, controlling). Blake and Bridgeforth also postulated that the development of these communication functions occurs in the same manner for all children. As previously mentioned Cady (1997) discussed the results of speakers of AAE

on their scores from the LTI-C. She stated that speakers of AAE may express controlling and feeling intents through different means than speakers of SAE. Speakers of AAE may develop the controlling function through the use of verbal play and subtle behavioral cues (Cady, 1997). Feeling intents are influenced by the impact a culture may have on the child expressing his/her feelings. Dialectal speakers will develop all intents with increased exposure to SAE, primarily through school interactions (Cady, 1997).

Development of Formality

The formality of language may be associated with the perception of the "politeness" of a speaker. Politeness has been defined by James (1978) as a "reflection of pragmatic knowledge" (p. 308). Therefore, politeness will develop under the auspices of pragmatic abilities. The ability to convey formality or politeness is a fundamental component of one's ability to communicate (Nippold, Leonard, & Anastopoulos, 1982). Wolfram (1986) proposed that formality is produced when the child attends to his/her speech. Therefore, formal styles are determined by the productions made when a child is attending closely to his/her language, and informal styles are determined by those produced with the least amount of speaker monitoring. Wolfram (1986) stated that this singular definition of formality is not complete without exploring other aspects that affect the child's language development.

Types of formal or polite language may include the use of politeness forms (e.g., "Please," "Excuse Me," and "Thank you"). Direct addresses and the use of personal pronouns also increase the value of a polite statement. Formal addressing terms such as "Ma'am, Sir, Mr. and Mrs." give greater formal value to a child's statement. An increase

in the use of modal verbs (should, could, and would) indicate an increase in the child's use of formal language. Owens (1992) stated that four- and five-year-olds understand most indirect requests containing "can" or "will," but have much greater difficulty with the modals "must" and "should." James (1978) developed a numeric scoring system for formality that increases in value as the production of formal language increases. The least formal interactions appear as imperative statements. The value of productions increase when children begin to combine imperative statements with the explanations, polite forms and modals. The forms given the highest rating are those using interrogatives with modals, personal pronouns, and polite forms. Interrogative forms appear to be more difficult for the young child to comprehend than declarative forms (Owens, 1992).

These scales used to assess formality can be adjusted to allow for various productions of the intended modals. For example, "would" may be produced "woulda" or "would've", "could" as "coulda" or "could've", and "should" as "shoulda" or "should've." Other phonological rules of a dialect will affect the production of the utterance, and in turn, affect the degree of formality.

The development of Standard American English (SAE) rules for formality are probably difficult for dialectal speakers. Schieffelin and Schieffelin and Eisenberg's studies (as cited in Blake 1984) stated that the amount, type, and level of formality that is learned by a child is culture specific. A child will first learn their dialect and the rules of formality used within their culture. With more exposure to situations where SAE is demanded, for example in school, a child will begin to incorporate the usage of SAE into

their dialect. Since formality is known to be a late developing pragmatic ability, young children who are still developing a code switching mechanism between two dialects, must be given time to develop the production of formal language in SAE. Formal language will be developed with use and exposure to formal situations where SAE is spoken. A child should not be penalized for the use of formal dialectal pragmatics found a significant difference in the performance of speakers of AAE in comparison to the normative sample of SAE speakers on the Total Formality Scores received on the LTI-C. Speakers of APPE did not differ significantly from speakers of SAE on Total Formality Scores. Both groups of dialect speakers produced more formal markers during the Feeling subtest, when addressing adults with positive implications. Subjects performed lower on Speech Acts that highlighted adult faults (e.g., when an adult was performing an action incorrectly). These scores revealed a developmental progression in the use of formality with both groups of dialectal speakers.

The learning of language in context affects the formal productions of a child. Children acquire the form, content, and function of language through social interactions with both adults and peers (Anderson & Battle, 1993). Due to familial and social context a child will be provided with a model of language to be learned (Blake, 1984). Formality can be learned in formal situations and through exposure to the language modeled under these circumstances. Since there are a variety of dialects spoken within English, there are different tendencies exhibited in terms of stylistic repertoires, for example, formal versus informal.

Variables Affecting the Development and Use of Formal Language

Listener

James (1978) found that children produced adjustments in their formal productions according to the listener's age. The understanding and presentation of the formal register can be based upon the intended receiver (Nippold et al., 1982). As previously stated by Wolfram, the production of formal language is dependent upon with whom the conversation occurs. Children will make adjustments that are not confined to adult-child interactions, but vary based on the age of the listener. Within adult/child interactions children are given status in relation to adults, and this affects the amount and type of verbal interactions that are expected to occur between the two. When speaking to a person considered to be superior, for one reason or another, a formal, polite manner of speaking is used (Terrell & Terrell, 1993). This can be affected by cultural rules of speaking. Due to *in loco parentis*, many African-American children are exposed to other adults listeners than their biological parents (Willis, 1992). This may affect a child's development of intended use of formality. Anderson and Battle (1993) provide the example of an African-American community in Louisiana, where children were expected to provide minimal responses to adult initiation conversation as a sign of respect within their culture. The "different use of respect terms such as 'sir' and 'ma'am' by children to parents in the North and South" are also examples of the effect of culture upon formal productions.

Age

As a child ages, there is a development of language that can be seen. Cady (1997) found a development of formality and intent for speakers of APPE and AAE across five-, six-, and seven-year-olds. James' (1978) research provided evidence that with an increase in age of the child, a greater number of politeness values will be performed. There are certain behavioral patterns considered appropriate for various stages of life (Wolfram, 1986, p. 90). These production of these behaviors, including formality, will increase with the age of a child.

Age is an important factor when assigning the status given to a child's formal level (James, 1978). Various polite or formal language forms are produced in a developmental sequence. This correlates to the sequential development of a child's pragmatic abilities. "Please" appears early in a child's repertoire of formal register device (Nippold et al., 1982). The formal register increases in vocabulary and variety with maturation of the child. Various age levels of children may be expected to perform at higher levels of the formal register with increasing age. Five-year-olds use fewer requests than older populations. The more frequent use of "please" in interrogatives increases with the age of children. The more a child produces an interrogative with "please," a decrease in the use of an imperative with "please" can be seen (Nippold et al., 1982). James (1978) found a higher use of politeness variables in request versus command situations. Her research discovered that three-year-olds produced more imperatives with other peers than with adults; however, during adult discourse more interrogative requests were produced.

Gender

Gender has proven to be a moderating variable that will interact with other variables such as region and dialect during the production of language (Wolfram, 1986). Females demonstrate a higher socialized sensitivity for the production of prestige features of their language. Although both genders use specific aspects of their dialects, males use those dialectal structures more frequently. Thus, it would be expected that females would be less consistent in their use of dialectal features but have a higher usage of certain pragmatic features, including formality. Landreth and Johnson (1953) used a picture insert test to assess children completion patterns based upon different races. This picture insert test consisted of one picture of a child on one race, and allowed the examinee to choose from a three options to complete the picture. The choices included options of three different races. Different inserts were created for both boys and girls. On the selection of the appropriate answers, the authors found no significant sex differences in the children assessed in their research.

Culture

The amount of formal language a child is exposed to by a culture will affect his/her productions of formality. Children are expected to have communication competence as it relates to the social rules of their culture. Different cultures place different expectations on children in regards to the amount of formal interactions they are exposed to and allowed to participate in. African-American families tend to have a greater exchange across generations (Anderson & Battle, 1993). Elderly African Americans are very active within their families. This increases the amount of adult

interactions, and therefore formal interactions, these children are exposed to and involved in. A child will be expected to be more formal with an older family member and therefore increase their usage of formal register.

Peters and Peterson (1985) reported that both low-income African-American and Appalachian mothers in the Appalachian region tend to value as desirable traits for their children conformity and obedience more highly than the mainstream middle-class values of self-direction and imagination/internalization, respectively. This places greater value on politeness.

Socioeconomic Status

Anderson and Battle (1993) state that socioeconomic status is "more critical to the development of language than race or ethnicity" (p. 180). Middle-class families involve children in dyadic verbal exchanges, which provide the child with direct child-parent type interactions (Anderson & Battle, 1993). A middle-class family will involve a child in more situation-centered conversation, expecting the child to adapt to the social situation, and not exclude them from adult conversations. Through these various types of adult interactions, children have increased exposure to formal language. A greater factor affecting the child language production maybe the parent's education levels, which in turn, may affect the child's socioeconomic status.

Intonation

Intonation may be an indication of the use of the formal register. In formal situations a greater use of falling final contours is observed. Different cultures have different uses of intonation. For example, African-Americans have a wider pitch range,

that may affect the rising and falling contour of pitch in speech. Appalachian English, on the other hand, has little or no pitch variations. Without proper knowledge of the common usage of intonation, a teacher may misinterpret this as rude or demanding (Adler, 1993).

Cultural Differences in the Learning of Language

Saferstein and Taylor's (1995) research hypothesized that middle socioeconomic status learning disabled African-American children and learning disabled European-American children may "share universal attributes with respect to pragmatic language behaviors." The development of both normally developing and learning disabled children are similar in regards to the universally learned pragmatic attributes. Wyatt (1995) confirms that many researchers have determined that dialectal speakers and SAE speakers acquire language in the same manner during the early stages of language development. However, there are specific cultural differences that are observed with different groups in regards to their dialectal usage.

Little acknowledgment of racial significance in "skin color" by preschool children was observed by Landreth and Johnson (1953, p. 63). However, by five years of age, children will perceive skin color as "possessing both racial and social significance" (Landreth & Johnson, 1953, p. 63). "Persons who are proficient only in Black English tend to be less talkative, use fewer words, and give shorter, more truncated responses with little elaboration in formal situations, such as in school, especially those involving unfamiliar white listeners" (Terrell & Terrell, 1993, p. 22). Therefore, children who are speakers of AAE can be considered to have less formal language in these situations.

Code Switching

Code switching has been defined as "the speaker's ability to make judgements on what linguistic style (formal or informal), dialect, or language... that is most appropriate for communicating with someone" (Terrell & Terrell, 1993, p. 21). A Formal Language Continuum exists where speakers of two dialects may vary language production between two codes along a continuum.

Dialects

Saferstein and Taylor (1995) discovered duality among children through the maintenance of both vernacular and standardized styles of communication. Children may establish separate codes dependent upon several variables. These variables may include audience, and purpose, or intentions of conversations (Saferstein & Taylor, 1995). A child may develop the ability to code switch from his/her dialect to SAE. Standard American English may be triggered by formal situations such as "job interviews and classroom settings" (Terrell & Terrell, 1993, pp. 21-22). Code switching has been researched in various dialects.

Formal Language Continuum

To some extent, every speaker of the English language produces varieties on the continuum of formality (Wolfram, 1986). Children will assign rank along the formal continuum, determining the level of formality used with each listener. Wolfram (1976) discusses and illustrates this continuum as a progression from formal Standard English to informal Standard English to informal Non-standard English. A progression is also presented that represented the type of language used. This continuum ranges from the

language of testing to natural conversation. The use of language parallels the form of English to be spoken. A speaker will move along this continuum for various reasons. A hierarchy will be developed with the adult receiving superior status, a peer will receive equal status, and a younger child receiving lower status (James, 1978). Cultural expectations of a child will influence their shifts on the formal language continuum. African-American children may use a "silent code" when interacting with unfamiliar white speakers, as a possible affect of cultural mistrust. A shift in register can be made in speech to accommodate person entering and leaving speech situations (Darian, 1981). As children mature their patterns of code switching will vary to adapt to new social situations (Owens, 1992). This shift can be from the informal to formal register and vice versa. For example, a more formal *school register* and an informal *nonschool register* may develop (Terrell & Terrell, 1993).

An informal dialect may produce a more "fluent, elaborated communication code" (Terrell & Terrell, 1993, p. 22). This informal dialect may be used in less formal situations involving family members and friends. In contrast, a more formal dialect will be used in communication situations that are placed further along the continuum. A formal dialect is expected to be devoid of "taboo terms and certain socially stigmatized features", with these terms and features surfacing a great deal in informal dialects (Wolfram, 1986, p. 91).

School Performance

A dialectal variation can affect a child's performance in school.

> Dialectal and attitudinal differences often result in low academic achievement in the classroom and low scores on intelligence tests. If teachers or clinicians have little knowledge of the nonverbal language of students or patients, they are likely to impose and project their own code on a child, which could cause an increasing withdrawal pattern and alienation of a child. (Adler, 1993, pp. 15, 64)

Cecil (1988) states that teachers' expectations will be lowered in regards to intelligence, reading ability, and overall academic success based upon the dialect a child speaks. The acceptance of "nonstandard" speech continues to be opposed by some researchers and educators (Blake, 1984).

Before a professional assesses a child's communicative purpose, a base of knowledge about the culture's verbal and non-verbal communication styles should be acquired. A misunderstanding with a person may occur due to the lack of knowledge about the rule systems of their culture. Battle (1993) suggests that professionals not only review phonological contrasts, but also the roots of the culture.

Several resources may be accessed in increasing knowledge of a dialect. McGregor et al. (1997) suggest published literature, the comparison of the examinee's language to that of another family members, and the collection of normal local data. As previously mentioned, dialects can vary within a regional and social communities. With the collection of local normative data an examiner can collect a better sample of the examinee's dialect.

Battle (1993) contends that "the sources of miscommunication between persons from different cultural groups are not related to the particular words that are used for the

phonologic or syntactic contrasts that exist between two languages, but are more deeply rooted in misunderstandings in communication style and lack of appreciation of the relation between culture and language" (p. xxiii). This misunderstanding can be interpreted within the deliverance of formal information. Due to misunderstandings of communication styles, verbal context can be also be misinterpreted. Professionals working with children of other cultures need to understand not only the verbal, but also the communication context, in which children can present information. Understanding of such information may increase the ability of the child's intent to be conveyed.

Testing Bias

The formal Standard English that is required by the language of testing may be absent in some dialectal speakers. Wolfram (1976) stated that based on the formal language continuum there would be an interference for a testee, who is a speaker of a dialect, due to the distance between the speaker's natural conversation and the formal language of testing. Therefore, assessment measurements that test on the level of natural conversation need to be developed to assess a dialectal's speakers use of formality.

The effects of testing bias can be seen in all aspects of cultural assessment. It has been proven as a consistent finding that African-American students tend to score lower on standardized intelligence tests than European-Americans (Loehlin, Lindzey, & Spuhler, 1975). This can foster doubts about children's abilities, which can affect the expectations placed upon children. "The language competence of Black children continues to be questioned in educational, psychological, and linguistic circles" (Blake, 1984). If this effect can be seen in the African-American population, other cultures may be affected as

well. Non-biased testing needs to be created to avoid this problem. Taylor and Payne (1983) define culturally valid, non-biased assessment as the following:

> a data collection process wherein testing, measurement, and evaluation are conducted using instruments and procedures that discriminate only in those areas for which they were designed (i.e., normal versus pathological behavior) and do not discriminate unfairly either for or against a client for cultural reasons or because of social variations within a culture based on such factors as age, gender, socioeconomic class, and dialect. (p. 11)

Professionals have tried to create non-biased testing measures through a variety of techniques including: "observation of functional communication in naturalistic settings, assessment of portfolios, evaluation of language learning ability, and use of local normative samples for interpreting results" (McGregor et al., 1997, p. 45). These authors also offer contrastive analysis as a form of analysis for clients who speak dialects. It may, however, be an appropriate tool for the assessment of the formal aspects of expressive language in distinguishing dialect differences from disorders in nonstandard speakers (McGregor et al., 1997). Several barriers exist in the correct assessment of nonstandard dialect speakers. These barriers include: "a lack of normative information regarding speech and language development in nonstandard speakers," and "very few appropriately norm-referenced standardized tests for nonstandard speakers" (McGregor et al., 1997, p. 46).

Children acquire vocabulary in gradual stages. Words that are necessary for the formal register may not yet be in a child's vocabulary, based upon his/her current staging. Children's increase their vocabulary based upon exposure to new vocabulary in the home, the community, or the school (Carroll, 1976). A child can be exposed to the formal

vocabulary expected in Standard American English either at home or in the community. Only after such exposure can a child be expected to be at a level of readiness for certain productions. A child will be at a significant disadvantage when he/she is asked to produce a formal language response on a test that he/she has not been previously exposed to in formal language. "Certain socialization processes with respect to language usage may place particular groups at an advantage when it comes to utilizing their prior experience in test performance" (Wolfram, 1976, p. 270). The advantage for one group will be another groups' disadvantage. Wolfram (1976) argues that one of these socialization skills that low income families may never expose themselves to is the beurocratics of test taking. For any speaker of a dialectal English there will be a discrepancy of the language style of testing and the language style of ordinary conversation (Wolfram, 1976).

To ensure reliability, McGregor et al. (1997) suggest the use of the "same materials, activities, and time limits with each individual" tested (p. 46). Tape recordings may also be useful in ensuring accuracy of results. The assessment of formality must first consider the situation in which the information is gathered. A formal setting versus and informal setting will influence a child's productions. The more formal a setting, the more formal language will be produced, and the more informal a situation, the more informal language will be produced.

Effects of the Race and Dialect of Examiner, Testing Materials and Reinforcement

Race of Examiner

The examiner has been suggested as a starting place for creating non-culturally biased tests (Taylor & Payne, 1983). There are several aspects of the examiner that may affect the performance of a subject, including the language, manner, and the cultural rules used in the presentation of materials. Seymour, Ashton, and Wheeler (1986) argue that the influence of the examiner will be dependent upon the task content, the age of participants, and the socioeconomic level of the participants. Terrell, Terrell, and Taylor (1981) provide a study that examines the race of the examiner with the level of mistrust an examinee holds in regards to the examiner's race. African American students with low levels of mistrust in the examiner scored significantly higher than students with a high level of mistrust when both were presented material by a European-American examiner. This does not guarantee that the race of the examiner will always affect testing. Seymour et al. (1986) state that "clinicians need not assume, by virtue of race, that their interactions with a child of the opposite race will impede the language sampling process" (p. 150). Landreth and Johnson (1953) state that Black children are influenced by skin color earlier than White children. Race does not need to be an automatic disqualification of a researcher when eliciting information from a participant of another race. This is not to say that a race effect does not occur in culturally sensitive areas, for example, the Southern United States, where an overlap of African-American English and Appalachian English occur.

Dialect of Examiner

There is conflicting research on the effects of the dialect of an examiner on an examinee. Agerton and Moran (1995) found that the race and dialectal pattern of the examiner will have the greatest impact upon the examinee. The research of Terrell, Terrell, and Golin (1977) compared adolescents speaking to one group of their ethnic background and to another group of a different ethnic background. Total language productivity measures and mean length of utterance were used as measures. This research postulated that situations when dialectal speakers are speaking with persons of their own dialect, they will have greater language productivity. An effect may occur on the person being tested by an examiner who speaks a different dialect. This can be seen in the increase in mean length of utterance used by children when speaking with members of their own ethnic group versus members not within their own ethnic group (Terrell et al., 1977). On the contrary, Agerton and Moran (1995) found no conclusive evidence as to whether the specific dialect or race of the examiner affected the examinee's productions.

Materials

Conflicting research also exists on the presentation of culturally relevant information to an examinee. The content and presentation of material may or may not have an effect on the results produced by examinees. Terrell, Taylor, and Terrell (1978) stated that students received higher scores when assessed on culturally relative information. Memory and categorization may improve with the presentation of conceptualized culturally relevant information (Seymour et al., 1986). Seymour et al.'s

(1986) research provided no evidence that the material presented to a child will yield greater verbal output when it reflects the child's racial identity.

Landreth and Johnson's (1953) research compared different social groups with their options to choose varying social groups through a picture presentation. This study,- American and African-American children would choose their first preference as the other color option. For example, the European-American children choose African-American pictures more often, and African-American children choose European-American pictures more often.

Reinforcement

Culturally relevant rewards have improved test scores. Terrell et al. (1978) provided evidence that culturally relevant verbal praise enhanced test scores better than social reinforcement.

Summary

Each dialect spoken that varies from Standard American English (SAE) must be reviewed in regards to the development of that language variety, particularly production, within that culture. Dialects have developed several different definitions encompassing different meanings (Adler, 1993; Wolfram, 1986; Wyatt, 1995). Two dialects in particular, Appalachian English (APPE) and African-American English (AAE) have been reviewed with regard to their development and current usage of intent and formality.

Through the use of intent children will convey a desired result. Bray and Wiig (1987) in the Let's Talk Inventory for Children separated intent into four separate categories: ritualizing, informing, controlling and feeling. Cady's (1997) research, using

the LTI-C, found significant differences in the performance of both speakers of APPE and AAE from that of the normative sample of primarily SAE speakers in regard to Total Intent Scores. With age, both subject groups performance improved, indicating that these subjects were acquiring the pragmatic skills necessary to express the required communicative intents.

Formality may be expressed in a variety of ways. It has been associated with the perception of "politeness." The context in which a child learns language, and formality, can have a significant impact on his/her production of the language (Blake, 1984). Different types of polite markers and their use by dialectal speakers have been reviewed. There are several variables that affect the development and use of formal language. The following variables were discussed: listener, adult/child interactions, age, gender, culture, socioeconomic status, and intonation. Further, the results of Cady (1997) revealed no difference between the performance of speakers of APPE and the normative sample, and a significant difference in the performance of speakers of AAE from the normative sample on Formality Scores.

Speakers of dialects can switch from one code to another along a continuum (Terrell & Terrell, 1993). This continuum exists with the switching from dialects to SAE, and the switching from informal to formal language styles.

Children who are speakers of dialects may be affected in their school performance due to usage of their dialect (Adler, 1993). Children can be judged as unintelligent, when they are simply misunderstood. There are several sources of information for professionals working with dialectal speakers, although these resources are not always

known about or accessed. A basis for the misunderstanding of dialectal speakers can be seen in the testing bias that exists for children. Children are judged to be of lower intelligence by a test that assumes the usage of SAE, without consideration of their dialect. There is a need for the assessment of the development and usage of intent and formality by speakers of APPE and AAE. As previously mentioned, Cady (1997) researched both APPE and AAE speakers in their use and development of intent and formality. However, due to the limited number of adult interactions provided in her study, and the stimulus material that presented only one culture, more thorough assessment measures could be used.

During the creation of a non-culturally biased test, several factors must be taken into consideration: the race of the examiner, the dialect of the examiner, testing materials, and reinforcement. If the race of the examiner differs from that of the examinee, a level of mistrust may exist before testing begins (Terrell et al., 1981). Greater language productivity will occur when an examiner speaks the same dialect as the examinee (Terrell et al., 1977). If the materials presented to a child are culturally relevant, then a higher score may be received (Terrell et al., 1978). If reinforcement is culturally relevant it may increase a child's productivity (Terrell et al., 1978). Another factor that contributes to non-culturally biased assessment relates to scoring of the subjects' responses. A non-biased assessment procedures must allow for the use of dialectal forms. Authors of tests frequently provide alternative responses for the evaluation of dialectal speakers. For example, the Test Of Formality (TOF; Swanson, 1995) has alternative

scoring procedures for both speakers of APPE and AAE. These alternative scoring procedures represent an effort to prevent a child from being penalized for using dialectal features.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine if a difference exits between speakers of APPE and AAE in regards to the production of various intents and formality as assessed by the TOF, a test created to accompany the Let's Talk Inventory for Children (Bray & Wiig, 1987). The TOF was designed to provide a greater assessment of children's production of intent and formality through the use of child-adult and child-peer interactions. Alternative scoring mechanisms that assess the use of formal markers were used in the TOF. This study provided information in regards to the developmental sequences for both intent and formality in speakers of APPE versus AAE. Thus, in this study, I sought to determine the following:

1. Is there a difference for Total Intent Scores between speakers of Appalachian English and African-American English as determined by the Test of Formality?
2. Is there a difference in intent usage between speakers ages five, six, and seven years who are speakers of Appalachian English and/or African-American English?
3. Is there a difference for Total Formality Scores between speakers of Appalachian English and African-American English as determined by the Test of Formality?
4. Is there a difference in formality usage between speakers ages five, six, and seven years who are speakers of Appalachian English and/or African-American English?

5. Is there a difference in the performance of the two groups of subjects (Appalachian English and African-American English) for items involving African-American versus European-American pictured interactants as determined by the results on the TOF?

Chapter III

Methods

Subjects

Subject Description

A subset of data previously collected for a larger investigation were analyzed for this study. The subjects for the larger investigation resided within the limits of Knoxville, Tennessee, and attended either School A or School B. The classroom teachers involved in this study were European-American, except for one African-American kindergarten teacher in each school. The students were classified as either speakers of Appalachian English (APPE) or speakers of African-American English (AAE) based on assessment of communication characteristics. The children from School A included in this study exhibited major characteristics of APPE in their speech, and the children from School B included in this study exhibited major characteristics of AAE in their speech.

Davis (1998) analyzed subjects' responses from School A for the presence of eleven APPE syntactic features and nine APPE phonological features. She analyzed responses produced during the administration of the LTI-C for the following syntactic features characteristic of APPE: the use of "done," a-prefixing of verbs, use of double modals, absence of "be," subject-verb agreement, use of irregular verbs, absence of -ly, use of intensifying adverbs, multiple negation, use of prepositions, and the use of "ain't." The following phonological features characteristic of APPE were also analyzed: consonant cluster reduction, deletion of /r/ and /l/, unstressed final /ow/, deletion of initial /w/, unstressed syllable deletion, unstressed -ing, production of /ð/ and /Θ/ as a

substitution or omission, and deletion of initial /ð/. For the purpose of this study, an absent feature of each dialect can be referred to as a "zero" feature. Each "zero" feature is optional, permitting the feature to be either present or "absent," depending on certain linguistic and social constraints that govern its usage (Seymour, Bland-Stewart, & Green, 1998). The means for APPE syntactic features per sample for each age group are as follows: five-year-olds, 1.8; six-year-olds, 0.9; and seven-year-olds, 0.9. The following percentages for the total number of utterances containing one or more syntactic features used during the sample were as follows: five-year-olds, 5.1; six-year-olds, 2.5; and seven-year-olds, 2.2. The means for APPE phonological features per sample for each age group are as follows: five-year-olds, 6.8; six-year-olds, 5.5; and seven-year-olds, 4.7. The following percentages for the total number of words containing one or more phonological features used during the sample were as follows: five-year-olds, 15.9; six-year-olds, 10.6; seven-year-olds, 6.6. Due to the consistent use of syntactic and phonological features used by these children in a structured communication task, and the qualification of dialectal speakers as defined by previous research, it was determined that these children were speakers of APPE.

The responses from the LTI-C produced by the children from School B were also analyzed. These speakers' utterances were analyzed for the use of the following syntactic features, as listed by Washington and Craig (1994): zero copula or auxiliary, incorrect subject-verb agreement, the use of "finta/spousta/bouta," "ain't," undifferentiated pronoun case, multiple negation, the absence of or zero possessive, zero past tense, zero "-ing," invariant "be," zero "to," zero plural, double modals, regularized reflexive pronouns,

indefinite articles, appositive pronoun, and the remote past "been." The means for AAE syntactic features per sample for each age group were as follows: five-year-olds, 3.64; six-year-olds, 3.78; and the seven-year-olds, 4.73. The following percentages for total number of utterances containing one or more features used during the sample were as follows: five-year-olds, 14.88; six-year-olds, 12.44; and seven-year-olds, 13.50. Based on criteria used in previous research, Washington and Craig (1994), these children were determined to be speakers of AAE.

Variables controlled within this study included age, gender, and ethnicity. Children were categorized according to chronological age rather than grade in school. The age categories were: 5 years, 0 months to 5 years, 11 months; 6 years, 0 months to 6 years, 11 months; and 7 years, 0 months to 7 years, 11 months. Scores of subjects were reported by age group, and not by grade level. The study's sample population included 42 males and 48 females; with 45 European-American children from School A and 45 African-American children from School B. Table 1 indicates the counterbalance of children for gender and age range.

Data Inclusion

Data for the study included responses from 90 children enrolled in regular classroom settings. Chapter One pull-out reading services were being received by five subjects from School A (8.9% of subjects) and 4 subjects from School B (11.1% of subjects). These children were included in data collection because this was not considered special services due to the Chapter One designation of the school. Data did not include children receiving services for special education, learning disabilities, and/or

Table 1

Distribution of Age, Gender, and Grade Level for Subjects in Schools A and B

			Gender		Grade		
Age	Range	M	M	F	K	1	2
			School A				
5	5:2-5:11	5:7	7	8	15	0	0
6	6:1-6:11	6:7	7	8	1	14	0
7	7:0-7:11	7:6	9	6	0	9	6
			School B				
5	5:2-5:11	5:7	7	8	15	0	0
6	6:0-6:11	6:5	8	7	6	9	0
7	7:0-7:11	7:4	8	7	0	12	3

Note. Abbreviations are defined as follows: School A = school composed of primarily APPE speakers, School B = school composed of primarily AAE speakers, M = male, F = female, K = kindergarten. Age ranges and means are reported as years: months. From "Expression of communicative intents and formality by African-American English and Appalachian English speaking children," by M. E. Cady (1997), unpublished master's thesis, University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

speech-language disorders. Excluded from analysis were 19 children, (other than the 90 subjects included) based on these factors: inappropriate race for school in question (8), noncompliance during testing (4), recipient of special services (3), failure of recording equipment (2), inappropriate age level (1), and interference of extended absence during testing (1). Thus, a total of 11 children from School A and 8 children from School B were excluded from data analysis.

Stimuli

Two sessions were conducted in which data were collected. During the first session the Let's Talk Inventory for Children (LTI-C; Bray & Wiig, 1987) was administered; during the second session the Test of Formality (TOF; Swanson, 1995) was administered. Data from the first session which involved the LTI-C were analyzed by Cady (1997). Only data from the second session which involved the TOF were analyzed in the present study. The LTI-C (Bray & Wiig, 1987), a standardized test of pragmatics, was administered to assess each subject's functional or social use of language during adult and peer interactions. The TOF was created to assess in greater detail child-adult interactions. The number of child-adult contexts was expanded upon in the TOF to better assess children's formality usage. The TOF presented a greater number of adult-directed stimuli versus peer-directed stimuli, to garner a better assessment of formal adult-directed speech acts. Only child-adult and child-peer interactions were presented. The TOF's pictorial stimuli were created with two different cultural interactants (European-American and African-American). Each picture stimuli represented only one culture as primary interactants, either European-American or African-American (see Appendix A for

example of stimuli). The TOF contains 32 narratives. Each narrative of the TOF introduced new interactants. The number of adult-directed items versus peer-directed items on the TOF is 24:8, with 6 adult-directed items for each of the four speech categories (ritualizing, informing, controlling, feeling). Peer-directed interactions for each category were presented. The eight peer-directed items were interjected as foils to break the pattern of consistent adult-directed interactions. Each of the four categories is represented by six child-adult items and two child-peer items (4 categories X 8 experimental items = 32). See Appendix B for the order of Speech Act Formulation Items.

The TOF elicited responses from children through the presentation of pictures with corresponding narratives that described the intent of communication. Each narrative provided an instruction for the child to formulate the Speech Act appropriate to the context and the audience represented in the pictorial stimuli. A Speech Act is the response to stimuli presented. Written in third person, these narratives contained a child as the main participant. An example of a narrative designed to elicit a call for attention is: "This is James. This is his teacher, Mrs. Williams. They were on the playground at school. She was talking to another teacher. James wanted Mrs. Williams to come over and see a bug he had found. What did James say to Mrs. Williams?" The child directed a response to the one intended adult (or peer) described in the narrative. The narratives for the items on the TOF were similar in length and format to those of other standardized tests, like the LTI-C. Each narrative contained an average of 3.8 sentences per narrative, with each narrative ending with a question posed to the child.

Bray and Wiig (1987) stated that due to the later emergence of formal features, the LTI-C used "10 of the more difficult speech acts... to feature both a peer and an adult context" (p. 5). The two Speech Acts categories included in the LTI-C analysis of formality were Controlling and Feeling. These two more advanced categories were chosen due to the late emergence of formal features. Peer-directed items were only assessed with regard to intent in all Speech Act formulations, whereas, adult-directed items were assessed for both intent and formality. All Speech Act item categories (ritualizing, informing, controlling and feeling) were used in the TOF to better complete formality assessment. Twelve child-adult pairs of speech acts administered included each of the four communication function categories assessed. Each category contained eight Speech Acts; within each category a type of Speech Act may have been presented twice. Duplicate speech acts within a category were separated by two different speech acts. The following Speech Acts in these categories were as follows: ritualizing- call for attention, introduction of self, request to repeat, and telephone calls; informing- ask for reason, ask for location of object, ask for action/function of object, ask for location, and ask for directions; controlling- offering help/assistance, suggesting, asking permission, and negotiating; feeling- questioning/feeling, agreeing, expression of like, questioning/feeling state, and congratulating. See Appendix B for a complete reference of category and Speech Act order.

The TOF's 32 items were created with 16 pairs. Within each pair, one item had African-American interactants, the other item had European-American interactants. Each of the 16 pairs represented one Speech Act. This design allowed for the variable of race

to be analyzed, and the effect of the addressee to be examined more thoroughly. Test items were ordered with regard to succession of age (adult, peer) and race of interactants. The order of appearance of addressee (adult, peer) was counterbalanced across the communication function categories. No more than three adult items appeared in succession, and no more than three items illustrating one race appeared in succession. Two items addressing the same speech act did not occur in succession. Items assessing the same speech act were always separated by two or three acts that assess different acts. The items in the TOF were contained in an easel picture manual.

Procedure

Each subject was seen in two individual sessions at his/her own school. No more than one week elapsed between sessions. The Let's Talk Inventory for Children (LTI-C; Bray & Wiig, 1987), and the Test Of Formality (TOF) were administered during the first and second sessions, respectively.

Data for this research were collected by seven graduate research assistants (GRAs), although four GRAs served as primary test administrators. Examiners were selected based on their availability and experience. All GRAs participating were European-American females, speech-language pathology graduate students in their early twenties who had prior experience working with children. During administration of the TOF, all GRAs spoke Standard American English (SAE).

Prior to test administration, each GRA was trained in administration of the TOF and in the use of the scripted guidelines (see Appendix C). This training included administering the LTI-C and TOF to three normally-developing children, who were all

approximately the same age as the subjects in this project. Test administration procedures for the TOF closely follow those of the LTI-C. Graduate Research Assistants were instructed to display a neutral but friendly demeanor with all subjects, to ensure that examiners would not display exaggerated enthusiasm with some subjects and indifference with others, but that all subjects would receive the same treatment.

Each testing session was audio- and video-recorded for later transcription and scoring. Equipment used during test administration to record each session included an audiocassette deck (Sony model RX606ES), tie-pin microphones (Sony model ECM-T150), and a video camera and recorder (Panasonic model AG-195MUP). The GRAs were trained prior to testing in the use and placement of this equipment.

The following procedures, as described by Cady (1997), were used:

> Participating children were selected from the returned consent forms at each school. The classroom teachers and participating children mutually agreed upon times for testing to occur. An examiner met each child at his or her classroom and escorted him or her to the room which had been set aside by the school for testing. Following scripted guidelines (see Appendix C), the examiner introduced herself to the child, briefly explained test procedures, and obtained verbal assent to participate from the child. (p. 53)

Administration time of each session was approximately 30 to 45 minutes in length. Both sessions were administered by the same GRA for each child. During initiation of the second session each child was reminded of the examiner's name and testing expectations (pretend, look, listen, and talk).

To complete the tests, each child had to exhibit the ability to pretend. If the child stated that he/she could not pretend during either session, prompts were given (e.g., "Pretend to be a monster. What kind of noise would a monster make?"). If the child was

unable to pretend after modeling, the session was discontinued. The child was then thanked and returned to his/her classroom.

Each subject who demonstrated or confirmed the ability to pretend was administered the TOF. The following setup, as described by Cady's (1997) study, was used:

> During each session, the subject was seated across the table from the examiner so that the subject might easily see the stimulus items. The video camera was positioned behind the examiner at an angle in order to obtain the best possible view of the subject's face and upper body during testing. The audio recorder was placed on the table near the subject. If a subject experienced difficulty in phrasing responses as if he or she were speaking for someone else,..., the examiner again provided examples of appropriate responses during test administration. (pp. 53-54)

During Session 2, the same trial items from the LTI-C were presented to the child before TOF testing began to reassimilate the child to the testing situation and re-test the child's ability to pretend.

Other guidelines were specified to GRAs for administration. General reinforcement (e.g., "Good work!" and "You're working hard") was given and a pleasant facial expression was maintained during testing administration. Speech Formulation Act Items were read at a normal rate with normal intonation and no exaggeration. If a child wished to stop testing, the examiner maintained a neutral expression, closed the booklet, said, "All right, thank you for helping me again," and escorted the child back to his/her classroom. Upon completion of each session, one sticker was given to each child. After testing, the examiner said, "Thank you for helping me again, you have really worked hard today. Let's go back to your classroom." Behavioral guidelines (e.g., "Don't touch the

tape recorder.") were included in the administration protocol. General verbal reinforcement was used to elicit continued participation and cooperation (e.g., "Keep listening carefully!"). If necessary, testing was discontinued if the child was unable to be conditioned to testing procedures.

Data Analysis

The 24 child-adult items of the TOF assess both intent and formality, whereas the eight child-peer items assess only intent. The scoring procedures for the TOF were similar to those used in other standardized tests. Scores were analyzed using both the original and the alternate scoring forms.

Intent "may be defined as that which a person wishes to achieve or plans to accomplish by communicating" (Bray & Wiig, 1987, p. 12). Various requirements were set for credit for intention. The child must have conveyed that he/she realized the intent of the speech act and expressed it in the response. Examples of intents expressed are greetings and formal interruptions in a calling tone. Credit was not received if the verbal expression given by the child in response to the Speech Act did not convey the correct intent. The TOF allowed for dialectal differences presented by speakers of APPE and AAE dialects, in their productions of intent. When scoring the LTI-C Cady (1997) also considered dialectal responses during the assessment of intent, but not during the assessment of formality. Cady (1997) assigned credit to each response if the correct intent was expressed without strict adherence to Standard American English (SAE) productions.

The original form scored responses based on intent and formal markers as listed by Bray and Wiig (1987) in the LTI-C. Within each scoring mechanism there is an opportunity for the indication of repetition of the question (see Appendix D). Point assignment coincided with each response to the preset criteria (see Appendix E). In the original scoring, each item on the TOF was scored with either a zero (incorrect) or a one (correct). Due to the fact that peer-directed items were only scored for intent, a child could receive a maximum of one for these items. Child-adult items could receive a maximum of two points (one for intent, one for formality). For the child-adult items, the original form considered the attenuation of formal markers through politeness markers ("excuse me" or "thank you"), the direct addressing of a person by name, formal word choice (a variety of modals: could, would/should), and amplified support (amplification through adjective modification) to be features of the formal register (Bray & Wiig, 1987, p. 40). For example, a call for attention with explanation/reason was defined by Bray and Wiig (1987), as "starting a speech act with a formal feature and then proceeding to a direct, informal command, question or suggestion" (p. 40). Another feature of the formal register was a direct reference to objects, with the pronoun forms also being accepted. The number of formal features required for credit on each item is stated for each narrative. There are guidelines to indicate if certain statements are scored zero. Thus, commands and statements that express only required elements, and direct statements are scored zero.

The alternate scoring form was created by the primary investigator (see Appendix F) to more critically analyze formality by determining what formal markers the child used

in each utterance. In the alternate scoring mechanism, the following formal markers were assessed: call to attention with explanation or response (CAE/R), the auxiliary verb "can," the auxiliary verb "may," politeness markers (please, excuse me; PM), direct addresses (DA), formal word choice (the past tense modal verbs: "would, could, should"; FWC), amplified support (really like, perfect; AS), and direct reference to object (DRO). Children were given credit for each formal marker used per response and per subtest. At the end of the test the total number of each type of formal marker used was calculated. Credit was assigned based upon the formal markers listed by Bray and Wiig (1987) and those stated by James (1978).

Upon completion of testing, numeric scores from the original form were totaled for each child. Scores were also totaled by subtest. The Total Intent and Total Formality scores were separately analyzed for each subtest within the TOF. For the alternate form, the number of formal markers used by each child in each subtest was totaled. Compilation of the scores created a basis for interpretation of data in various contexts. Children in age groups of 5, 6, and 7 years old were analyzed, as well as the variability in speakers of APPE and AAE dialects.

Procedure for Determination of Significance

In order to determine if there were significant differences among the speakers of APPE and AAE in Total Intent and Total Formality Scores obtained on the TOF, histograms were first plotted in order to determine whether or not the data were normally distributed. The Total Intent Scores and Total Formality Scores for speakers of APPE and AAE were not found to be normally distributed when histograms were plotted. Nine

subjects (4 APPE, 5 AAE) were found to be outliers whose lower performances upon the TOF were affecting the distribution of the entire data sample. Upon reexamination of the test forms of these outlying subjects, it was observed that these subjects did not condition to the assessment task (i.e., provide responses in first person). Due to the fact that these nine outlying subjects did not appropriately perform the assessment task, their responses were omitted from statistical analyses. When a histogram was again plotted without these nine outliers, the Total Intent data were found to be normally distributed, allowing parametric statistical analysis to be performed. However, the Total Formality data were still found to not be normally distributed. In order to provide consistency to the data analysis, the responses of these subjects were excluded from all further data analyses.

Determination of Reliability

Intratranscriber Reliability

The determination of intraexaminer reliability was done by the primary investigator through examination of the Graduate Research Assistants' (GRAs) transcriptions. In order to determine intraexaminer reliability for the transcription of responses, each of the four GRAs primarily responsible for data collection randomly drew two numbers from the pool of subjects they tested, for a total of eight subjects. Without access to the original test forms, each GRA recorded verbal responses for the randomly selected subjects a second time. After approximately one week had elapsed, the GRAs checked one another's transcriptions for accuracy. The primary investigator selected and rescored two transcriptions from each GRA without access to the original test forms. All eight transcriptions were checked for accuracy and reliability. Transcriptions were

considered reliable if the word order was preserved and if the intent/formality of the subject's responses was unchanged. When a GRA obtained a reliability average of less than 90%, all subject responses recorded by that GRA were transcribed again by this investigator for data analysis.

Intra- and Interexaminer Reliability

After the subject responses were scored by the investigator, subjects were numbered from 1-90, without the numbers of outliers. Numbers were randomly drawn by an assistant in order to select two subjects at each age level from both schools. The responses of these 12 subjects were rescored by the primary investigator without access to the original scores. The investigator then calculated intraexaminer reliability for original and alternate scoring.

In order to determine interexaminer reliability for original and alternate scoring, a GRA in speech-language pathology was trained. The GRA was trained by the primary investigator in scoring of the responses (see Appendix G). During the training session, the GRA became familiar with the stimuli, test forms and scoring procedures for the TOF. Scoring procedures were discussed and examples were provided. For training purposes, the GRA was required to score the responses of subjects previously scored by the investigator. The GRA's scoring was then compared to the investigator's scoring for reliability. The GRA continued to practice scoring responses until an average of 93% agreement with the investigator's scoring was obtained. The value of 93% agreement corresponds with the interexaminer values reported by the authors of the LTI-C (Bray & Wiig, 1987, p. 50). An assistant randomly drew two numbers from each age level at both

schools from the 81 subjects included in data analysis. The responses of these 12 subjects were rescored by the GRA without access to the original scores. Interexaminer reliability was calculated for both original and alternate scoring.

Chapter IV

Results

The Total Intent Scores and Total Formality Scores of the study's 81 subjects included in data analyses are summarized in Tables 2, 3, 4 and 5. In general, the Appalachian English (APPE) dialectal speakers and African American English (AAE) dialectal speakers differed significantly in regard to Total Intent Scores. A developmental progression can be seen in the Total Intent Scores among the three age groups. A significant difference exits between the five- and seven-year-old age groups, and the six- and seven-year-old groups. The Formality Scores obtained by speakers of APPE and AAE did not significantly differ from one another and no developmental progression was determined. This may be due to the low Total Formality Scores obtained by all subjects. Certain politeness markers used by both groups of dialectal speakers showed a general progression of usage with increase in age. The two types of racial picture interactants (European-American, African-American) did produce a statistically significant finding.

Reliability

Following transcription, intra-transcriber reliability was calculated by the investigator. Eight subjects were randomly selected and retranscribed by each of the four primary examiners. On original scoring, intra-transcriber reliability for three of the four primary GRAs on Total Intent scores were maintained at an overall mean of 95%, with a range of 92% to 100%. On original scoring, intra-transcriber reliability for three of the four primary GRAs on Total Formality scores were maintained at on overall mean of 96%, with a range of 90% to 100%. The intra-transcriber reliability for the Alternate

Table 2

Subjects' Total Intent Scores on the Test Of Formality

Age	M	SD	Range
	APPE		
5	21.67	3.89	15.00 - 29.00
6	23.21	4.14	15.00 - 29.00
7	26.33	2.79	20.00 - 30.00
	AAE		
5	18.69	4.21	10.00 - 25.00
6	20.00	4.16	14.00 - 28.00
7	24.60	4.10	15.00 - 29.00

Note. The maximum Total Intent Score possible = 32. Scores of subjects determined to be outliers, as discussed in the Data Analysis section, are not included in these summary statistics. Results are reported on 41 speakers of APPE and 40 speakers of AAE. Age is reported in years.

Table 3

Subjects' Total Formality Scores on the Test Of Formality

Age	M	SD	Range
	APPE		
5	1.17	1.95	0.00 - 6.00
6	1.14	2.32	0.00 - 7.00
7	2.07	2.37	0.00 - 7.00
	AAE		
5	0.54	0.88	0.00 - 2.00
6	2.17	3.51	0.00 - 11.00
7	2.67	3.52	0.00 - 10.00

Note. The maximum Formality Score possible = 24. Scores of subjects found to be outliers, as discussed in the Data Analysis section, are not included in these summary statistics. Results are reported on 41 speakers of APPE and 40 speakers of AAE. Age is reported in years.

Table 4

Total Intent Scores of Speakers of APPE and AAE for All Age Groups

		95% Confidence Level			
Dialect	M	Lower	Upper	SD	Range
APPE	23.90	22.60	25.15	4.04	15.00 - 30.00
AAE	21.30	19.75	22.85	4.83	10.00 - 29.00

Note. Means (M) and standard deviations (SD) were derived for each dialect's Total Intent Scores and compared with one another. Speakers of APPE have a significantly higher mean on Total Intent Scores. A confidence interval is reported for each mean. There is a 95% confidence that the mean falls between these two scores. An overlap between the two confidence intervals can be seen.

Table 5

Total Formality Scores of Speakers of APPE and AAE for All Age Groups

		95% Confidence Level			
Dialect	M	Lower	Upper	SD	Range
APPE	1.49	0.79	2.19	2.23	0.00 - 7.00
AAE	1.83	0.86	2.79	3.00	0.00 - 11.00

Note. Means (M) and standard deviations (SD) were derived for each dialect's Total Formality Scores and compared with one another. Means for both groups of dialectal speakers were not statistically different. A confidence interval is reported for each mean. There is a 95% confidence that the mean falls between these two scores. An overlap for the two confidence intervals can be seen.

Scoring was also scored by the second transcription done by the primary examiners. Reliability on the Alternate scoring was maintained with a 96% average, with a range of 93% to 100%. Percentages were calculated by determining if differences in transcription affected scoring.

For one of the four transcribers, reliability fell below 90%. All fifteen of these examiner's subject responses were re-transcribed by this investigator for data analysis. These transcriptions were analyzed for word order preservation and for any changes that would affect intent or formality. All transcriptions were determined to maintain word order and the intent and formality of the responses were unchanged. After one week, and without access to the original scripts, two subjects were randomly selected, re-transcribed and re-scored. On the Original Scoring, the Total Intent and Formality Scores were maintained at 100%.

Intra- and interjudge reliability for the scoring of intent and formality were also calculated by the investigator. Twelve subjects were randomly selected to be used in these reliability procedures. Intrajudge reliability for the Total Intent Scores on the original scoring was 97%, with a range from 92 - 100%. Intrajudge reliability for the Total Formality Scores was 100%. Intrajudge reliability for the alternate scoring was 99%, with a range of 90 - 100%. Interjudge reliability for the Total Intent Scores on the original scoring was calculated at 96%, with a range from 88 - 100%. Interjudge reliability for the Total Formality Scores was calculated at 100%. Interjudge reliability for the alternate scoring was 93%, with a range from 75 - 100%. The one reliability score of 75% was determined by the exact agreement of the eight total scores of the formal

markers. Although two of the eight scores differed for this reliability score (75%), the differences were slight, and therefore deemed acceptable.

Statistical Analysis

Differences Between Total Intent Scores

A histogram was plotted to determine if the data were normally distributed. Total Intent Scores were not found to seriously violate the assumption of normality. The Total Intent Scores were analyzed using a parametric two-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to determine if there were significant differences between the two dialectal groups and among the three age groups on Total Intent Scores. The two levels for dialects were APPE and AAE, and the three levels for age were five-, six-, and seven-year-olds. The parametric two-way ANOVA yielded $p = 0.01$ for the factor of dialect, indicating a significant difference between the scores received by the two dialects (see Table 6). Speakers of APPE generated a M of 23.90, speakers of AAE generated a M of 21.30 ($\propto$ = 0.05 for all statistical analyses). This difference, although significantly different is only slightly higher.

This parametric two-way ANOVA yielded $p = 0.01$ (see Table 6) for the factor of age, indicating significant differences among the three age groups. To determine what differences existed between the groups for Total Intent Scores, post-hoc analyses were performed. The Tukey's Honest Significant Difference (HSD) indicated a significant difference between the scores of the five- and seven-year-olds ($p = 0.01$); the six- and seven-year-olds also revealed a significant difference ($p = 0.01$). The mean difference between the five- and seven-year-olds was higher than the mean difference between the

Table 6

Determination of Significance for Interaction of Dialect and Age on Total Intent Scores

Variable	Sum of Squares	df	F	Significance
Dialect	139.97	1	9.24	0.01
Age	418.25	2	13.80	0.01

Note. Both dialect and age had significant effects on intent. These factors were further analyzed.

six- and seven-year-olds. A significant difference between the five- and six-year-old age groups was not revealed ($p = 0.31$; see Table 7). In Table 7, the confidence intervals represents the confidence interval for the mean difference between each of the two age levels.

Analysis of Total Intent Scores on Subtests

As previously mentioned children's Total Intent and Total Formality scores for each subtest from the Test Of Formality (TOF; Swanson, 1995) were further analyzed. The subtests of the TOF (Ritualizing, Informing, Controlling, Feeling) were first analyzed to further compare speakers of APPE and AAE on their production and use of communicative intents. To determine whether there were significant differences between the performance of the two dialectal groups by Total Intent score on one or more of the subtests of the TOF, a nonparametric ANOVA was performed. The nonparametric ANOVA was chosen because the data seriously violated the assumption of normality. Speakers of APPE had higher means on all subtests (see Table 8), although only the scores from the Controlling subtest produced a significant difference ($p = 0.04$; see Table 9).

Differences Between Total Formality Scores

A purpose of this study was to compare speakers of APPE and AAE on their Total Formality Scores. The data were plotted on a histogram and were found to seriously violate the assumption of normality. The data were skewed due to the subjects' low Total Formality Scores on the TOF. Due to data distribution, a parametric ANOVA could not be performed. Instead, a nonparametric ANOVA was used to analyze data. This analysis

Table 7

Tukey's Honest Significant Difference Test on Total Intent Scores by Age Group for Speakers of APPE and AAE

Age Group Comparison	Significance	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
5 vs. 6	0.31	-1.61	-4.22	1.00
6 vs. 7	0.01	-3.74	-6.23	-1.24
5 vs. 7	0.01	-5.35	-7.87	-2.83

Note. Age groups were compared with one another. Significant differences were found between the five- and seven-year-old age groups, and between the six- and seven-year-old age groups. No significant difference was found between the five- and six-year-old age groups. Confidence level represents the confidence intervals for the mean difference between the two age levels.

Table 8

Total Intent Scores on Subtests for Speakers of APPE and AAE

Subtest	M	SD
	APPE	
Ritualizing	4.22	1.83
Informing	6.73	2.33
Controlling	6.49	2.34
Feeling	4.51	2.07
	AAE	
Ritualizing	3.53	2.07
Informing	6.27	2.33
Controlling	5.62	2.56
Feeling	3.78	2.02

Note. Each subtest contained eight Speech Acts. Means were determined from these eight responses of all dialect speakers' scores for each subtest. Subtests were analyzed by dialect. Means for speakers of APPE are consistently higher than those of speakers of AAE.

Table 9

Nonparametric ANOVA of Differences Among Total Intent Scores on Subtests from the Test Of Formality Between Speakers of APPE and AAE

Subtest	Z	p (2-Tailed)
Ritualizing	-1.84	0.07
Informing	-1.64	0.10
Controlling	-2.10	0.04
Feeling	-1.81	0.07

Note. Significance is reported between speakers of APPE and AAE on each subtest. Only the Controlling subtest showed a significant difference.

yielded no significant differences between the dialects ($p = 0.979$; see Table 10). Differences in age were also assessed with the nonparametric ANOVA. The scores of this sample were all low and did not reveal a developmental sequence. No significant difference was determined ($p = 0.146$; see Table 11) for the effect of age groups.

Analysis of Total Formality Scores on Subtests

As previously mentioned, the subtests of the TOF (Ritualizing, Informing, Controlling, Feeling) were analyzed to further compare speakers of APPE and AAE on their Total Formality Scores. To determine whether there were significant differences between the performance of the two dialectal groups, a nonparametric ANOVA was performed. The nonparametric ANOVA test was chosen because the data from the Total Formality Scores were not normally distributed. Both speakers of APPE and AAE had their highest mean on the Ritualizing and Feeling subtests. The comparison between the two dialectal groups provided no significant differences. See Table 12 for distribution.

Alternate Scoring

The responses made by subjects were scored in an alternate manner to further assess each subject's use of formal markers. Each response on the TOF was assessed for the presence of any of the following formal markers: call to attention with explanation or response (CAE/R), the auxiliary verb "can," the auxiliary verb "may," politeness markers (please, excuse me; PM), direct addresses (DA), formal word choice (the past tense modal verbs: "would, could, should"; FWC), amplified support (really like, perfect; AS), and direct reference to object (DRO). Each child had the following number of opportunities to produce each feature: CAE/R (2); Can (22); May (7); PM (16); DA (24);

Table 10

Nonparametric ANOVA of Differences Among Speakers of APPE and AAE on Total Formality Scores

Chi-Square	df	Significance
0.001	1	0.979

Note. Total Formality Scores were compared between the two groups of dialectal speakers. There was not a significant effect for dialect on the Total Formality Scores.

Table 11

Nonparametric ANOVA of Differences Among Age Groups of 5-, 6-, and 7-Year-Olds on Total Formality Scores

Chi-Square	df	Significance
3.854	2	0.146

Note. Total Formality Scores were compared among the three age groups of dialectal speakers. There was not a significant effect for age groups on the Total Formality Scores.

Table 12

Total Formality Scores on Subtests for Speakers of APPE and AAE

Subtest	M	SD
	APPE	
Ritualizing	1.33	1.32
Informing	0.11	0.36
Controlling	0.04	0.12
Feeling	0.40	0.80
	AAE	
Ritualizing	1.18	1.40
Informing	0.01	0.09
Controlling	0.07	0.22
Feeling	0.73	1.49

Note. Each subtest contained eight Speech Acts. Means were determined from these eight responses of all dialect speakers' scores for each subtest. Subtests were analyzed by dialect. Means for both speakers of APPE and AAE are higher on the Ritualizing and Feeling subtests.

FWC (18); AS (2); and DRO (2). The data were analyzed to determine if a specific feature was used more frequently by age group or dialect. Table 13 shows the results obtained for age group differences. The five-, six, and seven-year-olds provided the highest usage of the combination of formal word choice, the verb "can," and the verb "may." An increase can be seen between the production of the five- and seven-year-olds on Direct Address, Politeness Markers, and Formal Word Choice. The use of Formal Word Choice increases while the use of the auxiliary verbs "can" and "may" decrease (see Table 14). Each child's use of formal features directly correlates to the number of opportunities the child had to use that particular feature. With greater opportunity to use a feature, the child had more productions of that feature. Due to the low number of possibilities for children to produce CAE/R, AS, and DRO trends could not be determined for these features.

Table 15 demonstrates the scores from the alternate scoring for each dialect. Each dialect produced every formal marker. Both dialects appear to use formal markers in the same proportion, with the exception of Direct Address. Speakers of AAE use Direct Address more than the speakers of APPE.

Differences in Performance for Items Involving European-American Interactants and African-American Interactants

A purpose of this study was to determine if children's scores were significantly different on stimuli with interactants of varying race. Pictures from the TOF contained two types of racial interactants (European-American, African-American). Sixteen of the 32 stimuli had European-American as the primary interactants and 16 stimuli had

Table 13

Subjects' Alternate Scoring on the Test Of Formality by Age Group

	5	6	7
FWC/CAN/MAY	3.80	4.99	5.23
DA	1.80	3.46	4.20
PM	0.76	1.23	1.93

Note. Each age group's mean use for each formal marker is listed. Ages are reported in years. DA = Direct Address, PM = Politeness Marker, FWC/CAN/MAY = a combination of Formal Word Choice, the auxiliary verb "can," and the auxiliary verb "may." The following opportunities were available for each formal maker: FWC/CAN/MAY (47), DA (24), and PM (16).

Table 14

Subjects' Mean Production of the Auxiliary Verbs ("Can," "May") and Formal Word Choice ("Should," "Could," and "Would") by Age Groups

Age Group	Can/May	Formal Word Choice
5	2.84	0.96
6	4.12	0.89
7	3.63	1.60

Note. The means between the ages of the six- and seven-year-olds almost double their usage of the Formal Word Choice, while decreasing their usage if the verbs "can" and "may."

Table 15

Subjects' Alternate Scoring on the Test Of Formality by Dialect

	APPE	AAE
FWC/CAN/MAY	4.45	4.96
DA	2.32	4.15
PM	1.54	1.15

Note. Each dialectal group's means are reported for the formal markers. FWC/CAN/MAY = formal word choice (the past tense modal verbs: would, could, should), the auxiliary verb "can," and the auxiliary verb "may;" DA = direct addresses, and PM = politeness markers (please, excuse me).

African-Americans as the primary interactants. Only Total Intent Scores were used in the analysis of interactant types. A Repeated Measures analysis, with both European-American and African-American interactants as separate measures, revealed a significant difference between dialect and interactant type ($p = 0.13$). Both speakers of APPE and AAE consistently performed higher on stimuli involving African-American interactants (see Table 16). A comparison of the dialectal groups' scores on the stimuli with the two types of interactants was performed. The speakers of APPE revealed a $\underline{M}$ of 10.76 correct responses on stimuli with African-American interactants, and a $\underline{M}$ of 10.36 on stimuli with European-American interactants. A difference of 0.4 exists between the performance on stimuli with the two types of interactants. The speakers of AAE revealed a $\underline{M}$ of 9.64 and a $\underline{M}$ of 8.69 correct responses on stimuli with African-American and European-American interactants, respectively. A difference of 0.95 exists between the performance on stimuli with the two types of interactants. The mean difference for the two dialects on stimuli with European-American and African-American interactants was 0.7, which is not considered clinically significant. The total number of responses analyzed for picture interactant types was 32. Given that the difference in mean correct responses was less than one out of 32, a clinical application should not be drawn.

Table 16

Speaker's of APPE and AAE Responses to African-American Picture Interactants and European-American Picture Interactants

	African-American Interactants		European-American Interactants	
	M	SD	M	SD
APPE	10.76	3.79	10.36	3.52
AAE	9.64	3.80	8.69	3.85

Note. Only Total Intent Scores were used in this analysis. Speakers of APPE and AAE performed significantly higher on stimuli with African-American interactants.

Chapter V

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the development and use of intent and formality by school-aged speakers of Appalachian English (APPE) and African-American English (AAE) through the utilization of the Test of Formality (TOF; Swanson, 1995). The Total Intent Scores for both APPE and AAE subjects were significantly different from one another, with speakers of APPE receiving higher scores. The Total Formality Scores for both subject groups were not significantly different. This may have been an effect of the low Total Formality Scores received by all subjects. Subjects could respond to the test items, as reflected by their high Total Intent Scores, but not in a formal manner. These low Total Formality Scores on the TOF are consistent with Cady's (1997) overall low Total Formality Scores derived from the Let's Talk Inventory for Children, Revised (LTI-C).

Total Intent Scores and the Development of Intent

The speakers of APPE received significantly higher Total Intent Scores than the speakers of AAE. Cady (1997) compared school-aged speakers of APPE and AAE with the normative sample (speakers of Standard American English, SAE) of the LTI-C (Bray & Wiig, 1987), as well as with each other. Cady (1997) found speakers of APPE and AAE differed significantly from normative sample, as well as, from each other. Speakers of SAE received higher scores than both dialects on Total Intent Scores. Both studies revealed that speakers of APPE obtained higher Total Intent Scores than speakers of AAE.

A developmental progression in Total Intent Scores was demonstrated by speakers of APPE and AAE, indicating that these subjects were acquiring the pragmatic skills necessary to express the desired communicative intents. This study found that a significant difference exists between the five- and seven-year-olds, and between the six- and seven-year-olds. The five- and seven-year-olds had a higher mean difference than the six- and seven-year-olds; indicating that there is a greater increase between the ages of five- and seven-years. Cady (1997) also found a significant increase in Total Intent Scores between five- and seven-year-old subjects. Both the present study and Cady (1997) did not find a significant difference between the five- and six-year-old groups.

The Total Intent Scores for children who are speakers of AAE may have been affected by the examiner's race and dialect. All examiners in this study were European-American and spoke Standard American English (SAE). Some of the older children involved in this study, through exposure to their European-American teachers, may have been more accustomed to working with European-American persons. It appears that increased exposure to communication exchanges with European-Americans allowed these children to improve their Total Intent Scores. If children were unfamiliar with communication exchanges involving European-Americans, the examiner's race and dialect could have prohibited a child from performing at his or her highest level due to mistrust. For the children who have had greater exposure to European-Americans and speakers of SAE, the affect of the examiner's race and dialect may not have been so great. Speakers of AAE may have scored lower on Total Intent Scores due to the use of a "silent code" of cultural mistrust toward the European-American examiner.

It is likely that the academic environment the six- and seven-year-olds were being introduced to affected their production of various intents. Most of these children were in the first grade, and were being placed in classroom situations where communication is contingent upon a child's ability to convey intent. With greater exposure to demanding communication situations, it appears that these children were able to learn and apply higher functioning language skills, like code switching. Cady (1997) postulated that younger children could compromise their ability to convey intent in oral language due to immature attempts to code switch. Similarly, Scott and Rogers (1996) stated that in written language, children who are speakers of AAE must devote a proportionately greater amount of their energies to the form of language produced, rather than to the content and meaning. In oral language, a child may also devote a great amount of their energy to the form of the language, rather than to the intent expressed. This may cause poorer expression of intent until a more sophisticated code switching mechanism is developed. With greater exposure to SAE, through academic environments, children are more likely to develop better code switching abilities. The increase in Total Intent Scores of speakers between the ages of five- and seven-year-olds supports these statements.

Total Intent Scores on Subtests for APPE and AAE

To further examine the development of communicative intents, the subtest scores for Total Intent on the TOF were analyzed. For each subtest, speakers of APPE received higher scores. This is supportive of these speakers' overall higher Total Intent Scores. Speakers of APPE and AAE exhibited mean correct intent subtest scores that ranged form highest to lowest in the following order: Informing, Controlling, Feeling, and Ritualizing.

Note that speakers of APPE and AAE develop their abilities to convey communicative intents in the same order.

The dialectal speaker's performance on subtests may have been due to several factors related to their culture. The speakers of APPE may have performed higher on the Controlling subtest due to unknown cultural factors. Craig and Washington (1995) state that speakers of AAE are more linguistically "robust" in their discourse productions. This may increase AAE speakers' use of the Controlling communicative intents. Speakers of AAE often participate in verbal play such as dozens and signification (Heath, 1983). Cady (1997) noted the use of verbal play as evidence of their high performance on the Controlling subtest.

Total Formality Scores and the Development of Formality

The Total Formality scores of the speakers of APPE and AAE were not significantly different with one another and a developmental sequence was not found. This lack of significance is probably due to low Total Formality Scores received by all subjects on the TOF. However, upon closer examination courses of development within the age groups of each dialect could be seen. Speakers of APPE received the following means on Total Formality Scores: five-year-olds, 1.17; six-year-olds, 1.14; and seven-year-olds, 2.07. Speakers of AAE received the following means on Total Formality Scores: five-year-olds, 0.54; six-year-olds, 2.17; and seven-year-olds, 2.67. The speakers of AAE and the speakers of APPE in the five-year-old group show a discrepancy between the two dialectal groups, with the speakers of APPE receiving higher scores. The six-year-old groups show the reverse, with the speakers of AAE performing at a higher level

than the speakers of APPE. In the seven-year-old groups, the comparison narrows to a slight margin, with the speakers of AAE being higher. Thus, speakers of APPE have similar increases between the five- and seven-year-old groups and between the six- and seven-year olds groups. These increases are proportionately larger than the decrease between the five- and six-year-old groups. The speakers of AAE have their greatest increase between the five- and seven-year-old groups.

What does this say for the development of formality among speakers of APPE and AAE? Speakers of APPE, at an earlier age than speakers of AAE, may acquire some formal features that are similar to SAE due to the common linguistic background of APPE and SAE. Children who are speakers of APPE may not increase their usage as rapidly as speakers of AAE due to cultural constraints on their language production. Peters and Peterson (1985) reported that low-income Appalachian mothers tend to value conformity and obedience as desirable traits for their children. The cultural environment where the child is expected to conform to the expectation of waiting one's turn to talk, and not interrupting conversations, can be contradictory to the school environment, where a child is expected and encouraged to talk. The APPE cultural environment may also discourage a child from participating in formal interactions, thus limiting a child's practice in the production of formal language. School interactions may entail breaking some of the pragmatic rules that are ingrained in the child. The more comfortable the child becomes with these types of communication exchanges, the greater the transformation of his or her rule system for production of formality.

Unlike the speakers of APPE, speakers of AAE (ages of five and seven years) may become aware of the types of formal language that they are expected to produce, and begin to use them in their language productions. Speakers of AAE increase their awareness of formality by noticing the exchange across generations that are demonstrated within their culture (Anderson & Battle, 1993). Some of the formal features observed and used by these children may be the same formal features used in SAE. Children who are speakers of AAE may begin to acquire and use the more formal features demonstrated in these familial exchanges. The increasing emergence of formal features with the increase in age may be attributed to a combination of exposure and their knowledge of what is expected of them.

Some variability on task performance can be observed among the three age groups. Although the seven-year-olds as a group outperformed the five-year-olds, there were five-year-olds in the study who performed as well as the average seven-year-old, and seven-year-olds who performed much like the average five-year-old. This demonstrates that the Total Formality Scores produced may have varied not only due to cultural influences, but also other factors. Examples of such factors are, the amount of the individual child's exposure to the formal register, or the expectations for production of formality in the child's environment.

Subjects in this study may have not demonstrated their optimal formal language production skills on the formal language continuum (Wolfram, 1976) due to an effect of testing situation. The amount of formality used by a child will be contingent upon their listener and the situation. Children who were not familiar with the examiner may not

have been comfortable enough with the situation to maximally utilize their formal language continuum. Wolfram and Christian (1980) state that "it takes a special attitude to give answers freely about hypothetical situations" (p. 180). If a child does not have this attitude or is not comfortable in the testing environment which is requiring him or her to respond, he or she may not be able to maximally produce their language. The language of testing, which is considered more formal, is placed at the higher end of the continuum than natural conversation, which is considered less formal. In response to TOF stimuli, children were conditioned to produce responses that were similar to those used in natural conversation. This automatically places the language they produced further along the continuum away from the formal language of testing.

Total Formality Scores on Subtests for APPE and AAE

An item-by-item analysis of the subjects' responses to the items requiring formal register revealed trends. Both speakers of APPE and AAE had the highest performance on the Ritualizing subtest followed by the Feeling subtest. Previous research (Cady, 1997) only assessed formality for the Controlling and Feeling functions, but did not assess the use of formality for the Ritualizing and Informing functions. This study revealed that children who are speakers of APPE and AAE are formal more often when expressing a Ritualizing intent than other intents. This may be due to the early development and ease of production of the Ritualizing intent. When an intent is easier to express, the child is capable of using more demanding formal language. On the Ritualizing subtest, subjects produced a M of 1.36 correct responses on the Call for Attention with Explanation or Response (CAE/R) Speech Acts and a M of 1.30 correct

responses on Request to Repeat Speech Acts. In contrast, subjects produced the following M of .060 and 0.33 correct responses for the Introduction of Self and Introduction during Telephone Calls, respectively. Possible reasons for higher percentages on the CAE/R and the Request to Repeat may be the ease in which children were able to call the addressee's name and share new information about the situation in the interactions. Subjects had a poorer performance on Speech Acts that required the Introduction of Self and the Introduction during Telephone Calls. Cloud (1994) discussed the effects of culture upon these Speech Acts. Cloud (1994) stated, "The manner in which we answer the telephone, offer salutation, maintain a certain distance from a speaker, gesture, or maintain eye contact all provide examples of pragmatic skills that are encultured through personal experiences as we acquire communication skills" (p. 84). Thus, the production of these Speech Acts may be affected by cultural expectations.

Upon examination of all the subtests, the following items were not answered in the formal register by any subjects: ask for reason (Informing) and offering help/assistance (Controlling). No speaker of APPE answered the following items in the formal register: suggesting (Controlling), or agreeing (Feeling). No speaker of AAE answered the following: request to repeat (Ritualizing) and ask for location of object (Informing). In the following two paragraphs, the reasons for the absence of these formal markers are discussed.

Speakers of APPE missed a greater number of items on the Controlling subtest (offering help/assistance, suggesting). Cady (1997) postulated that children who are speakers of APPE could develop the controlling function differently. This could be a

factor influenced by the amount of conflict they have negotiated for them. Kovarsky, Stephan, and Braswell (1994) studied children who attended an Appalachian preschool and found that they had conflict resolved for them, and rarely negotiated with teachers or confronted them verbally. Speakers of APPE could develop the skills necessary to perform Controlling communicative intents later in development than children who are speakers of AAE. Within the Feeling subtest, agreeing was missed by all children who were speakers of APPE. This may be due to cultural factors influencing the child. Loof (1977) reported that speakers of APPE are reluctant to express their feelings. This could also affect speakers of APPE developing the skills to express Feeling communicative intents later than speakers of AAE.

The speakers of AAE missed items, from the Ritualizing and Informing subtests, that both involved a request to repeat and asking for the location of an objects. Both of these items are similar in that they must be phrased in the form of a question. Perhaps children who are speakers of AAE request information in different forms than speakers of APPE. Heath (1983) stated that in some African-American cultures, asking and answering known-information questions or test questions is not valued. African-American mothers do not ask their toddlers known-information wh-questions and yes-no questions as much as European-American mothers. The lack of question models, and the combination of cultures where answering such questions is not valued may have influenced the speakers of AAE not to answer requests to repeat or requests for the location of an object. It is likely that the items that were not answered in the formal register require greater linguistic skill than children between the ages of five and seven

have acquired. Early adolescence may be the initial period in which children acquire the subtle skills necessary to be considered formal.

Alternate Scoring of Formality

The responses of each subject were further analyzed to determine how often and what types of formality markers were used by children who are speakers of APPE and AAE. All formal markers were produced similarly by APPE and AAE, with the exception of Direct Address, which was used more by speakers of AAE. Perhaps this trend is due to their interaction with older family members, where a Direct Address is produced as a sign

of respect. Also, within the school environment, children may be required to use Direct Address to gain a teacher's attention. The simple use of the term "teacher" to gain attention was probably discouraged or prohibited. As previously stated, due to the low number of possibilities for some formal markers, trends were not able to be determined for all items.

Speakers of APPE had more instances of the following features versus AAE: 1) Call for attention with an explanation or response (CAE/R; e.g., Come look at my bug.) 2) Politeness markers. (e.g., Excuse me, can I please help you?) Speakers of AAE had more instances of the following features versus APPE: 1) The verb "can." (e.g., Can I go to the bathroom?) 2) Direct Address. (e.g., Mr. Johnson, why are you sad?) A comparison of the age groups showed that the seven-year-olds had the highest number of productions of the following formal markers: Politeness Markers, Direct Address, and Formal Word Choice.

At each age level, the subjects in this study had a higher production of the combination of the auxiliary verbs "can" and "may" versus a production of Formal Word Choice (past tense modals: "could, would, or should"). Children often used the auxiliary verbs "can" and "will" instead of the past tense modals "could" and "would." The subjects produced more questions similar to "Can I go to the bathroom?" versus "Could I go to the bathroom?" The use of Formal Word Choice increased while the use of the auxiliary verbs "can" and "may" decreased. Each child's use of formal features directly correlates to the number of opportunities the child had to use that particular feature. With greater opportunity to use a feature, the child had more productions of that feature. This study provided evidence that supports the hypothesis that children develop past tense modals later in language development. Although a significant increase did not occur, the five- and six-year-olds were similar, and an increase is apparent with the productions of the seven-year-olds. This suggests that with an increase in age, a child is more likely to substitute a modal for an auxiliary verb.

Relationship of Formal Oral Language to Literacy

Van Keulen, Weddington, and DeBose (1998) state that the "formal standard that governs written and formal spoken language is different than any spoken dialect." That is, children who are speakers of dialects must acquire their written and formal spoken language by separate processes than the one used to acquire their language. Through exposure and experience in reading and writing these children acquire a formal register that differs from the informal spoken English that occurs in casual exchanges with peers or teachers who are speakers of SAE. With increased exposure to formal language the

gap between formal written language and formal spoken language decreases. Perera's study (as cited in Scott and Rogers, 1996) states that by the age of 10, children's formal written and spoken language production will be reciprocal of one another. Until a reciprocation occurs, a significant increase in the production of formal spoken language will not be seen. Although formal language may be produced before written language, the growth of formal spoken language will be enhanced by the production of formal written language. Written language provides very little allowance for dialectal variations from SAE, and therefore, requires the child to produce written language with more SAE features. With increased formal production in the written form, the spoken language of a child will continue to become more formal.

Emergent Literacy and the Development of Formality

Some children who are speakers of dialects and are members of lower socioeconomic status may not be provided with multiple opportunities for emergent literacy. The story-telling abilities of APPE and AAE dialectal speakers have been described as topic-associated narratives. Taylor (as cited in Campbell, 1994) defines topic-associated narratives as those "characterized by a series of segments implicitly linked to a topic, but with no explicit theme" (p. 116). The topic associated narratives produced by these children vary from the topic-centered narratives that are the basis of mainstream children's early learning experiences. Children of lower socioeconomic status may not have great exposure to storybooks, which are topic-centered narratives. Topic-centered narratives "presume little shared knowledge between speakers and listeners and therefore require precise detail" (Campbell, 1994, p. 115). Taylor (as cited

in Campbell, 1994), stated further characterized topic-centered narratives as: "a linear, single topic or series of closely related topics with no major shifts in perspective; and a thematic focus or temporal orientation" (p. 115). The ability to produce topic-centered narratives is important to be able to participate in many reading and writing activities required in school. The inability to fully comprehend academic reading and writing activities, which are topic-centered, will hinder the growth and production of formal written and spoken language. Thus, children who are speakers of dialects may have different rates of development for formal written and spoken language.

The Relationship of Standard American English Productions to the Production of Formality

A child who speaks a dialect will be exposed to and learn Standard American English (SAE) most prominently through verbal exchanges in the academic environment. Van Keulen et al. (1998, p. 189-192) summarized three ways for children who speakers of dialects acquire features of SAE in school. One way is for the child to have SAE modeled for him/her in a consistent reinforcing manner. This does not include correction of the child, which has not proven to be effective. Another way to improve a child's production of SAE is to let the child role play situations where the production of SAE is more appropriate than a dialectal production. The last technique used in increasing a child's production of SAE features is to provide a child with immersion experiences where speakers of dialects are exposed to environments where SAE is primarily spoken. Increased exposure to SAE will enhance a child's ability to produce more formal language.

Race of Picture Interactants

As previously stated, the TOF was created using both European-American and African-American picture interactants. This assessed whether children who are speakers of various dialects have different language productions when asked to respond to interactants that vary in cultural representation. In this study, both speakers of APPE and AAE performed significantly better on interactions that depicted African-American interactants. Although a statistically significant mean difference between dialect spoken by a child and interactant type was found, caution must be used when determining clinical applications without further research.

Speakers of AAE, more than speakers of APPE, performed significantly higher on stimuli containing African-American interactants versus European-American interactants. Stimuli containing African-American interactants may be more culturally relevant to speakers of AAE, thus increasing their scores on these interactions. This supports the results of Terrell, Taylor, and Terrell (1978), who found that African-American students received higher scores on tests when presented culturally relevant information.

Limitations of the Current Study

The current study examines the development of communicative intents and formality among speakers of APPE and AAE. The TOF elicited responses from children to picture stimuli rather than collecting spontaneous language samples during interactions that occur within the child's daily living activities. In addition, several potential subjects were unable to appropriately complete the assessment task, thus eliminating some potentially important sources of variation in responses. In order to more thoroughly

examine the development of pragmatics among these dialectal speakers, spontaneous language samples should be collected. Spontaneous language samples would provide information on dialectal speakers productions in a variety of communicative settings.

Although the information obtained is believed to be representative of dialectal speakers of the southeastern region, realizations about the pragmatic, phonological, semantic, and syntactic differences of dialects spoken throughout the United States must be taken into account. This study included a limited number of subjects, therefore inhibiting widespread generalization because dialectal usage varies across regions of the country. Washington and Craig (1994) postulated that varieties of African-American English could exist between inhabitants of the Northern and Southern United States.

This study examined the responses produced on the TOF by only speakers of APPE and AAE. A group of Standard American English (SAE) speakers or speakers of other dialectal groups were not sampled. In order to provide a more comprehensive look at dialectal speakers' use and production of intent and formality, SAE speakers and other dialects need to be administered the TOF. Also, groups of dialectal and SAE speakers could be grouped by socioeconomic status, to determine if this factor affects language production.

Due to the fact that all examiners were European-American, the effect of the race and dialect of the examiner needs to be examined. Agerton and Moran (1995) and Taylor and Payne (1983) both suggest that the race and dialect of an examiner can have a great effect upon examinee's responses. Results may have varied for these dialectal speakers if the race and dialect of the examiners had been different.

Scores were reported by age group, not by grade level. Thus different age groups, contained children who were at different academic levels. Seven-year-olds involved in this study were both in first and second grade. This factor could have affected the age groups scores, considering that the children in higher level academic environments, would have greater exposure to formal written and spoken language.

Suggestions for Future Research

Given the intriguing results of this study, future research is warranted. While the present study begins to examine the communicative intents and formality productions and usage among school-aged speakers of APPE and AAE, this study should be reproduced to assess children five to ten year of age in naturalistic settings. These interactions could occur with both peer and adult interactants to determine the level of formal markers produced with various interactants. The results could be compared to the results of the elicited responses of the study. The assessment of formality beyond the age range of the current study needs to be explored to determine developmental trends.

For future research, the data collected for this study could be further analyzed. The alternate scoring could be calculated to weight subject's responses, with each subject receiving a plus or minus for the presence or absence of any formal marker. A total could be assigned to each child, and then a comparison among dialects could be done. This would provide a finer look at each speaker's use of formal markers. Also, the requirements for formal markers could be broadened to include the auxiliary verb "will" for the past tense modal "would." This would help provide evidence that children first use the auxiliary verb "will" before their production of past tense modals at seven-years

of age. An example is the less formal question, "Will you let me check out this book?" versus the more formal question, "Would you let me check out this book?" Another variation in scoring is to consider giving formal credit when child are asked to offer help and used the word "help." Children in this study who used the word "help" were generally more formal in the rest of their productions, versus other children who simply offered to do the task. An example is the more formal, "Do you want me to help you get the can?" versus the less formal "Do you want me to get the can?"

A complimentary study to the one previously mentioned would involve assessing children's recognition and understanding of formality. A child would be shown a stimulus similar those in the TOF and read the accompanying narrative that ends with a question. These children would be given four possible responses to choose from and asked to state which response was most formal or polite. The responses would contain one option with a formal marker and three foils. This study would provide information on the ages when children begin to recognize formal markers as being more formal or polite.

It is also important to investigate the use of dialect forms in the children's responses on the TOF. This could be done by placing children in groups of high, moderate, or low users of each dialect based on the number of dialectal features produced in responses to the TOF. After these children are grouped according to the percentage of dialectal feature use, their scores from the TOF could be compared. This would provide evidence as to what formal markers are used by each group. These data could be compiled to create a list of formal markers used by each dialectal group (high, moderate,

and low).

Finally, this study could be replicated using examiners who are of the same race and dialect as the children being assessed. This could affect children's responses, and a comparison to this present study could be made. This would provide further information on the effect of the race and dialect of the examiner on the productions of the examinee.

Summary

The results of the current study indicate that a significant difference exists among the expression of communicative intents for speakers of Appalachian English and African-American English, based upon the Test of Formality. Developmental differences were found between age groups. Significant differences on Total Formality scores were not found between the two groups of dialectal speakers or among the three age groups. Alternate scoring of the responses by subjects revealed trends between dialectal groups and among age groups. Speakers of AAE had more usage of Direct Address than speakers of APPE. Trends were seen in age group productions with a decrease in the use of auxiliary verbs ("can" and "may") accompanied by and increase in the use of past tense modal verbs ("could," "should," and "would"). The varying racial types of picture interactants did not provide a clinically significant finding. These findings provide valuable data, such as developmental trends, within the area of pragmatic research with speakers of APPE and AAE.

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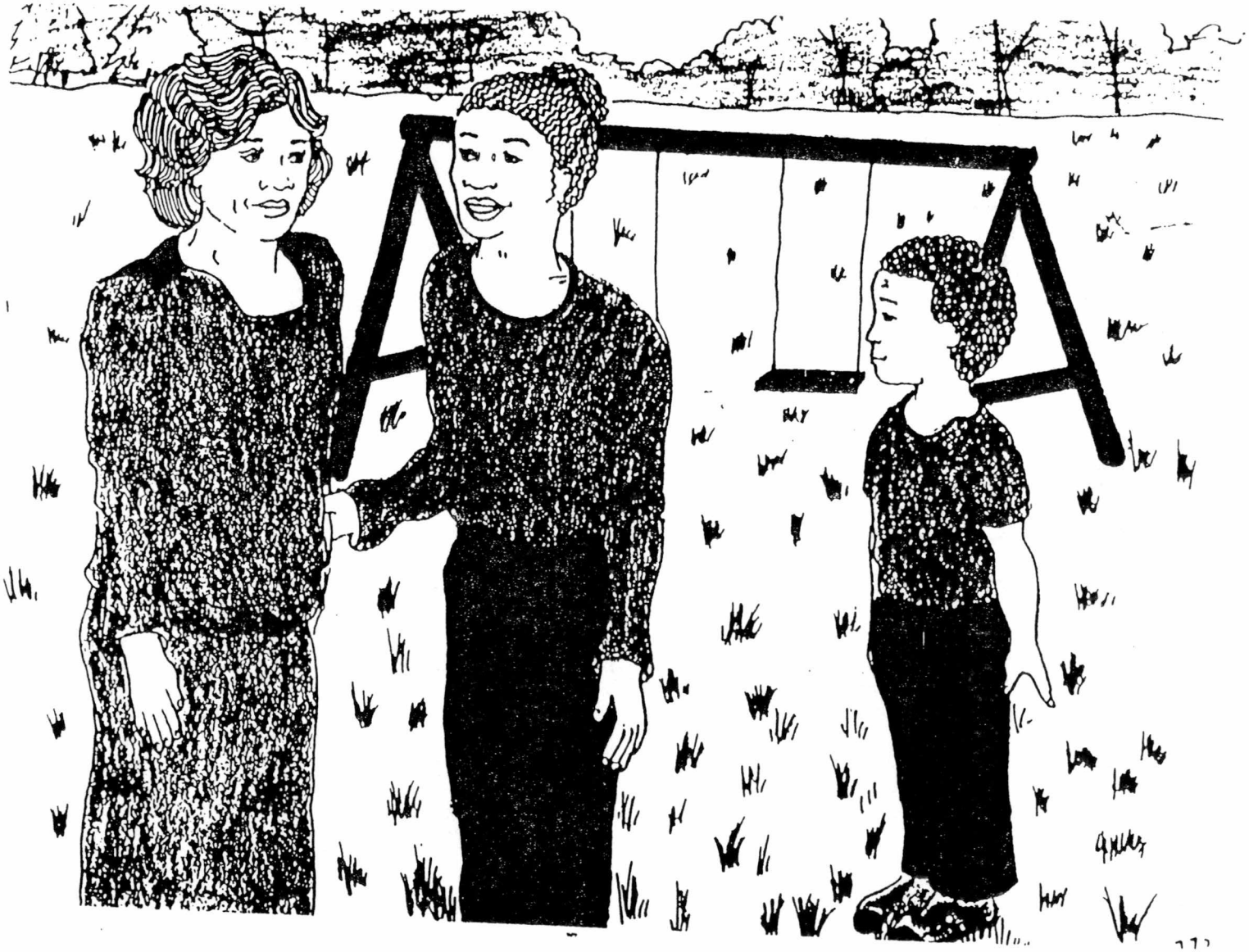
APPENDICES

Appendix A
Examples of Stimuli Presented for the Test of Formality

1-R. Call for Attention (Child-Adult, African-American interactants)

This is James. This is his teacher, Mrs. Williams. They were on the playground at school. She was talking to another teacher. James wanted Mrs. Williams to come over and see a bug he had found. What did James say to Mrs. Williams?



13-I. Ask for Reason (Child-Adult, European-American interactants)

Jack was in the lunchroom at school. He saw his math teacher, Mrs. Simmons, putting up signs on the walls. Jack wanted to know why Mrs. Simmons was putting up the signs. What did Jack say to Mrs. Simmons?

24-C. Negotiating (Child-Peer, European-American interactants)

Debbie was playing with glitter and glue, and Jane was playing with glow in the dark markers. Debbie wanted to trade her glitter and glue for Jane's markers. What did Debbie say to Jane?

28-F. Agreeing (Child-Peer, African-American interactants)

Colby and Mark were fishing. Colby caught an orange fish. Colby thought it was the prettiest fish he had ever seen. Mark thought it was a pretty orange fish, too. What did Mark say to Colby?

Appendix B

Test of Formality Speech Act Items

Practice Item 1: (Peer, European-American)

Practice Item 2: (Adult, European-American)

Ritualizing

1-R. Call for Attention (Adult, African-American)

2-R. Introduction of Self (Peer, European-American)

3-R. Request to Repeat (Adult, European-American)

4-R. Call for Attention (Adult, European-American)

5-R. Introduction of Self (Adult, African American)

6-R. Telephone Calls (Peer, African American)

7-R. Request to Repeat (Adult, African American)

8-R. Introduction of Self (Adult, European-American)

Informing

1-I. Ask for Reason (Adult, European-American)

2-I. Ask for Location of Object (Peer, European-American)

3-I. Ask for Action/Function of Object (Adult, African American)

4-I. Ask for Reason (Adult, African American)

5-I. Ask for Location of Object (Adult, European-American)

6-I. Ask for Directions (Peer, African American)

7-I. Ask for Action/Function of Object (Adult, European-American)

8-I. Ask for Location of Object (Adult, African American)

Controlling

1-C. Offering Help/Assistance (Adult, African American)

2-C. Suggesting (Peer, African American)

3-C. Asking Permission (Adult, European-American)

4-C. Offering Help/Assistance (Adult, European-American)

5-C. Suggesting (Adult, African American)

6-C. Negotiating (Peer, European-American)

7-C. Asking Permission (Adult, African American)

8-C. Suggesting (Adult, European-American)

Feeling

1-F. Questioning/Feeling (Adult, European-American)

2-F. Agreeing (Peer, African American)

3-F. Expression of Like (Adult, European-American)

4-F. Questioning/Feeling State (Adult, African American)

5-F. Agreeing (Adult, African American)

6-F. Congratulating (Peer, European-American)

7-F. Expression of Like (Adult, African American)

8-F. Agreeing (Adult, European-American)

Appendix C
Research Study Guidelines for Administration of the
Test of Formality
Session 2

An informed consent form will be completed for all children participating in the research study. The examiner, who will be a research assistant, will follow this script and these guidelines when administering the test with each child:

E: Hello, (child's name), It's nice to see you again. Do you remember me? You are right, it is (graduate research assistant). What we learn from your work today may help other school children. As you know, this our special room where we're going to continue playing our pretend game. You will sit on this chair across the table from me, so you can see the big book of pictures we'll be using. This is a different book of pictures than the one we used last time. (Child's name), this book has many pictures of people. All the people in the pictures are friends. I want you to pretend you are one of the people in each of the pictures just like we did before. Remember, I will ask you to talk for that person. So, for each page, you will do three things: look at the picture, listen to me, and then talk. Remember this is a pretend game. Just like last time, you are going to pretend/play like you are someone else?

C: Response.

If no, one or more of the following models will be presented. Ask the child to pretend he/she is a monster. Ask child what kind of noise he/she would make. Other models include asking the child what Santa Clause says or what child would say to the examiner if she has a piece of candy he/she wanted. If the child is unable to pretend, the session will be discontinued. The child will be thanked and returned to the classroom.

E: No one will grade you, and we won't tell your mom or teacher your score. Just do your best. Let's get started! Remember to turn on your ears and eyes, so you can listen to me closely and look at each picture carefully. Let's practice!

Open the Picture Manual.

Turn to Trial A.

E: Here are some more pictures of people doing things. They talk to each other. They ask questions. Then tell others about how they feel. They tell others what they want. What three things are you going to do for each picture?

C: Response should be look, listen, and talk. Remind or correct child if answer is "I don't know" or incorrect. "Let's begin."

Begin with Trial A.

E: This is the first picture. This is Debbie. (Point). This is Mike. (Point). Debbie and Mike were playing at Mike's house. Debbie saw that Mike had a new toy. She didn't know what is was called. Debbie wanted to ask Mike. What did Debbie say to Mike?

C: Response. If response is incorrect, repeat the item. If the answer is incorrect after the repetition, the examiner formulates the response.

E: This is Ben. This is Mrs. Brown. (Point to the characters). Ben and Mrs. Brown were shopping. Ben was a new game. He didn't know what it was called. He wanted to ask Mrs. Brown. What did Ben say to Mrs. Brown?

C: Response. Repeat procedures for previous trials. Modeling or prompting of speech acts is not continued after these trials.

E: Here are some more pictures of people. Look at each one and listen carefully (point to ears) to what I say about each picture. Then I will ask you to talk for one of the people in the picture. You will tell me what the person said.

II. The examiner will use the following procedures during the course of the test administration:

- Maintain a pleasant facial expression.

- Give general reinforcement by means of these example comments:

"You're working hard."
"Good work!"
"I can see that you're looking at the pictures carefully."
"You're listening well!" "[Child's name], I'm proud of the hard work you're doing!"
"You did turn of your eyes and ears, didn't you!"

- Each item will be read at a normal rate with normal intonation.

- During the testing session, the child will be given stickers.

III. The examiner will use the following procedures at the end of test administration:

- If the child wishes to stop during the testing, the examiner will maintain a neutral expression, close the booklet, and say, "All right, thank you for helping me again. Let's go back to your classroom."

- When the testing is completed, the examiner will say, "Thank you for helping me again, you have really worked hard today. Let's go back to your classroom."

IV. These behaviors management guidelines will be followed during the test administration:

- Prompts will include phrases such as:

"Remember to stay in your seat so that you can do a good job."
"Keep listening carefully!"
"Please wait until I ask the question before you give an answer."
"Please keep your eyes and ears turned on!"
"Please don't touch the tape recorder."

- If the child is unable to be conditioned to take the test, administration will be discontinued.

Appendix D

Test of Formality

Original Scoring Form

Name: _____

Date: _____

Examiner: _____

	Intent		Formal		Repeat
Number 1 What James said to get Mrs. William's attention.	1	0	1	0	□
Number 2 What Margaret said to the new girl.	1	0			□
Number 3 What Crystal said to get Mrs. Farley to repeat what she said.	1	0	1	0	□
Number 4 What John said to Mr. Hobson.	1	0	1	0	□
Number 5 What Ashley said to Mrs. Jones.	1	0	1	0	□
Number 6 What David said to Bobby on the phone.	1	0			□
Number 7 What Melissa said to Mrs. Smith.	1	0	1	0	□

	Intent		Formal		Repeat
Number 8 What Carla said to Mrs. Perkins.	1	0	1	0	□
Number 9 What Jack said to Mrs. Simmons.	1	0	1	0	□
Number 10 What Danny said to Larry about the pencil.	1	0			□
Number 11 What Mark said to Mrs. Smith to find out what the machine did.	1	0	1	0	□
Number 12 What James said to Mr. Thomas about the blank T.V. screen.	1	0	1	0	□
Number 13 What Jerry said to Mr. Cook about the rake.	1	0	1	0	□
Number 14 What Carrie said to Lisa to find her class.	1	0			□
Number 15 What Carolyn said to Mrs. Young to find out what the machine was doing.	1	0	1	0	□

	Intent		Formal		Repeat
Number 16 What Sheila said to Mrs. Thomas about the peaches.	1	0	1	0	□
Number 17 What Colby said to Mrs. Turner about helping her with her groceries.	1	0	1	0	□
Number 18 What Ashley said to Sheila about the computer program.	1	0			□
Number 19 What Carla said to Mrs. Jenkins about checking out the book.	1	0	1	0	□
Number 20 What Michael said to Mrs. Turner about helping her with the can.	1	0	1	0	□
Number 21 What Colby said to Mr. Hughes about getting a ladder.	1	0	1	0	□
Number 22 What Debbie said to Jane about trading her glitter and glue for markers.	1	0			□
Number 23 What Jeanette said to Mrs. Williams about washing her hands.	1	0	1	0	□

	Intent		Formal		Repeat
Number 24 What John said to Mrs. Carlos about the movie.	1	0	1	0	□
Number 25 What James said to Mr. Johnson about looking sad.	1	0	1	0	□
Number 26 What Mark said to Colby about the orange fish.	1	0			□
Number 27 What Jeannie said to Mrs. Willis about liking the colors.	1	0	1	0	□
Number 28 What Colby said to Mr. Hughes about looking angry.	1	0	1	0	□
Number 29 What Carrie said to Mrs. Jones about the feeder.	1	0	1	0	□
Number 30 What Jerry said to Carolyn about winning.	1	0			□
Number 31 What Ashley said to Mrs. Thomas about liking the cookies.	1	0	1	0	□

	Intent		Formal		Repeat
Number 32 What Carla said to Mrs. Jenkins about the posters.	1	0	1	0	□
TOTALS	_____		_____		_____

Appendix E
Scoring Criteria for the Speech Acts for the Test of Formality

1-R. Call for Attention
What James said to get Mrs. Williams' attention.

(1) Hey, Mrs. Williams!
Mrs. Williams, over here.
Come over here, Mrs. Williams.
Hi/Hello!
Mrs. Williams, I need to show you something.
Look at this, Mrs. Williams!

(1-F) Excuse me, Mrs. Williams.
Mrs. Williams, will you/could you please come and look at this?

(0) How are you today?
What a gross bug!
What is that?

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must express a greeting form, calling of name, or formal interruption in a calling tone. Intonational pattern may reflect intentionality. To score a second point as formal, the response must include 2 or more of the following: politeness marker (please, excuse me), direct Address (name), call for attention with explanation/ reason, or formal word choice (modal).

2-R. Intro of Self (Peer)
What Margaret said to the new girl.

(1) Hi, I'm Margaret.
My name is Margaret.
They call me Margaret.

(0) Hi.
Who are you?
What's your name?

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must give the name in sentence form.

3-R. Request to Repeat (Adult)
What Crystal said to get Mrs. Farley to repeat what she said.

(1) What did you say?
Say it again.
What?
Huh?
I can't/didn't hear you.
Can you talk louder?
Can you repeat that again?

(1-F) Mrs. Farley, could you please say that again?
Pardon me Mrs. Farley?
Excuse me, Mrs. Farley, could you repeat that?
Would you please say that again.

(0) You said it wrong.
I want to exercise.

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must express a formal, direct, or inferred request to repeat. To score a second point as formal, two of the following must to used: politeness marker (please, excuse me, pardon me), direct Address (name), or formal word choice (modal).

4-R. Call for Attention (Adult)
What John said to Mr. Hobson.

(1) Hey, Mr. Hobson!
Mr. Hobson, over here.
Come over here, Mr. Hobson.
Hi/Hello!
Mr. Hobson, I need to show you something.
Look at this, Mr. Hobson.

(1-F) Excuse me, Mr. Hobson.
Mr. Hobson, will you/could you please come and look at this?

(0) That's a good painting.
I'm finished.
Mine is better.

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must express a greeting form, calling of name, or formal interruption in a calling tone. Intonational pattern may reflect intentionality. To score a second point as formal, the response must include 2 or more of the following: politeness marker (excuse me), direct Address (name), call for attention with explanation/ reason, or formal word choice (modal).

5-R. Intro of Self (Adult)
What Ashley said to Mrs. Jones.

(1) Hi, I'm Ashley.
My name is Ashley.
My name is Ashley, What's your name?

(1-F) Hi, Mrs. Jones, I'm Ashley.
I would like to introduce myself. I'm Ashley.

(0) Hi.
What is your name?
Can I be your friend?
Are you my new neighbor?

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must give name in sentence form. To score a second point as formal, the response must include a direct Address (name) or formal word choice (modal).

6-R. Telephone Calls (Peer)
What David said to Bobby on the phone.

(1) Hi, it's me.
Hello, I have a question, Bobby.
Hello, Bobby.
Hi, this is David.
Hello, it's David.
Hello, how are you doing?

(0) How are you?
Who's this?
Are you home?
I need information.
Can I come over?

Rule: To earn 1 point the response must have an introduction or greeting.

7-R. Request to Repeat (Adult)
What Melissa said to Mrs. Smith.

(1) What?
What did you say?

(1-F) Could you please repeat that, Mrs. Smith?
I'm sorry, Mrs. Smith, could you say that again?

(0) I can't hear you.
You are talking too softly.

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must include a request to repeat what was said, not simply a statement of not hearing what was said. To score a second point as formal, the response must include 2 of the following: politeness marker (please), direct Address (name), or formal word choice (modal).

8-R. Intro of Self (Adult)
What Carla said to Mrs. Perkins.

(1) Hi, I'm Carla.
My name is Carla.
My name is Carla. What's your name?

(1-F) Hi, Mrs. Perkins, I'm Carla.
I would like to introduce myself. I'm Carla.

(0) Hi.
You are Mrs. Perkins.
What is your name?
Can I be your friend?
Are you my new neighbor?

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must give name in sentence form. To score a second point as formal, the response must include a direct Address (name) or formal word choice (modal).

1-I. Ask for Reason (Adult)
What Jack said to Mrs. Simmons.

(1) What are the signs for?
Why are you putting up posters, Mrs. Simmons?

(1-F) Could you please tell me what the signs are for?
Mrs. Simmons, would you please tell me what the signs are for?

(0) What does that sign say?
What are you doing?

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must ask reason or use a direct question with reference to situation. To score a second point as formal, the response must include 2 of the following: politeness marker (please), direct Address (name), or formal word choice (modal).

2-I. Ask for Location of Object (Peer)
What Danny said to Larry about the pencil.

(1) Where's my pencil?
Do you see my pencil?
Do you know where my pencil is?
I need my pencil. (inferred)

(0) I can't finish.
Can you get my pencil?
Can I have the pencil?

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must use the where question form and give reference to the pencil or infer question of location by asking about the pencil.

3-I. Ask for Action/Function of Object (Adult)
What Mark said to Mrs. Smith to find out what the machine did.

(1) What does that machine/thing do?
What's it do?
What do you do with that?
How does that work?
What can that do?

(1-F) Mrs. Smith, could you please tell me what that machine does?
Would you please tell me what that thing does?

(0) It is a machine.
I can use one of those.
My mama has one of those.
Where did you get that?
That's neat.

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must use the "what/how" question form. To score a second point as formal, 2 of the following must be used: politeness marker (please), direct Address (name), or formal word choice (modal).

4-I. Ask for Reason (Adult)
What James said to Mr. Thomas about the blank T.V. screen.

(1) What happened to the T.V.?
Why is the T.V. screen black/blank?
How did that happen?
Did the T.V. break?
What happened to the show?
Mr. Thomas, do you know why the T.V. is black?

(1-F) Could you please tell me what happened to the T.V.?
Mr. Thomas, would you please tell me why the T.V. went off?

(0) Will it still work?
What can we do?
Who did it?
Maybe it needs a new part.

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must ask reason or use a direct question with reference to situation. To score a second point as formal, the response must include 2 of the following: politeness marker (please), direct Address (name), or formal word choice (modal).

5-I. Ask for Location of an Object (Adult)
What Jerry said to Mr. Cook about the rake.

(1) Where's the rake?
Where do you keep the rakes?
Do you know where a rake is?
I need/can't find a rake.

(1-F) Mr. Cook, could you please tell me where I can find a rake.

(0) I can't rake.
What should I do?
Are you going to pay me?

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must use the where question form (inferred or directly stated). To score a second point as formal, 2 of the following must be included: politeness marker (please), direct Address (name), or formal word choice (modal).

6-I. Ask for Directions (Peer)
What Carrie said to Lisa to find her class.

(1) Where is the hearing screening?
Do you know where my class went?
I can't find where the hearing screenings are being done.
I want to go to the hearing screening.
Know where the hearing testing is being done?
Lisa, where did my class go?

(0) I'm lost.
I can't find it.
My class/teacher left me.

Rule: To earn 1 point, the responses must use a where or how question form to ask directions or an inferred request by indicating being lost.

7-I. Ask for Action/Function of Objects (Adult)
What Carolyn said to Mrs. Young to find out what the machine was doing.

(1) What does that machine/thing do?
What's it doing?
What do you do with that?
How does that work?
What can that do?

(1-F) Mrs. Young, could you please tell me what that machine does?
Would you please tell me what that thing is doing?

(0) It is a mixer.
I can use one of those.
My mama has one of those.
Where did you get that?
That's neat.

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must use the "what/how" question form. To score a second point as formal, 2 of the following must be included: politeness marker (please), direct Address (name), or formal word choice (modal).

8-I. Ask for Location of Object (Adult)
What Sheila said to Mrs. Thomas about the peaches.

(1) Where are the peaches?
Where do they keep the (canned) peaches?
Do you know where the cans of peaches are?
I need/can't find the canned peaches/fruit.

(1-F) Mrs. Thomas, could you please tell me where I can find the canned peaches?

(0) I need help.
Can I have some peaches?
What should I do?

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must use the where question form (inferred or directly stated). To score a second point as formal, 2 of the following must be included: politeness marker (please), direct Address (name), or formal word choice (modal).

1-C. Offering Help/Assistance (Adult)
What Colby said to Mrs. Turner about helping her with her groceries.

(1) Do you want some help?
Do you want me to help you?
Want some help?
Mrs. Turner, I'll get it.
Let me help you.
How about if I help?
Want me to get it for you?

(1-F) Mrs. Turner, would you like some help?
Excuse me, Mrs. Turner, do you need some help?
I think you might need some help.

(0) You dropped your sack.
That's a mess.
You need to pick that up.

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must offer help/assistance. The response must reflect offering. However a direct response is appropriate if spoken with a positive intonational patterns. To score a second point as formal, 2 of the following must be included: politeness marker (excuse me), direct Address (name), or formal word choice (modal). A command would score a 0.

2-C. Suggesting (Peer)
What Ashley said to Sheila about the computer program.

(1) Let's work on another one.
How about if we work on another computer program?
Want to change programs?
Sheila, could we work on a different program?
I want to work on a new program.

(0) I want a new one.
Please, may I use a new program?
Call up a new program.
I want to move to a new program.

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must give listener a choice to agree, reject, or evade suggestions. A request without taking the listener's perspective into account receives a score of 0. A response which states only the speaker's needs or wants receives a score of 0.

3-C. Asking Permission (Adult)
What Carla said to Mrs. Jenkins about checking out the book.

(1) Can I check out that book?
How about if I check out that one?
Could I read that book?
I would like to check out that mystery book.
That's the book I'd like to check out.

(1-F) Mrs. Jenkins, may I please check out that book?
May I please read that book, Mrs. Jenkins?
Could I check out this book, Mrs. Jenkins?

(0) I want to get this book.
Let me have this one.
Look at all these mystery books!

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must ask for permission to check out a book. To score a second point as formal, the response must include two of the following: politeness marker (please), direct Address (name), or formal word choice (modal question form). Direct statements are informal.

4-C. Offering Help/Assistance (Adult)
What Michael said to Mrs. Turner about helping her with the can.

(1) Do you want some help?
Do you want me to help you?
Want some help?
Mrs. Turner, I'll get it.
Let me help you.
How about if I help?
Want me to get it for you?

(1-F) Mrs. Turner, would you like some help?
Excuse me, Mrs. Turner, do you need some help?
I think you might need some help.

(0) That's too low.
You need to pick that up.

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must offer help/assistance. The response must reflect offering. However a direct response is appropriate if spoken with a positive intonational patterns. To score a second point as formal, 2 of the following must be included: politeness marker (excuse me), direct Address (name), or formal word choice (modal). A command would score a 0.

5-C. Suggesting (Adult)
What Colby said to Mr. Hughes about getting the ladder,

(1) Do you need a ladder?
I think you need a ladder.
Do you need me to get you a ladder, Mr. Hughes?

(1-F) Mr. Hughes, would you like for me to get you a ladder.
Can I please help you get a ladder, Mr. Hughes?
Mr. Hughes, you should get a ladder.

(0) I'll do it for you.
Can I help you?
I want to help you, Mr. Hughes.

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must give listener a choice to agree or evade suggestions. To score a second point as formal, the response must include two of the following: politeness marker (please), direct Address (name), or formal word choice (modal question form). Direct statements are informal.

6-C. Negotiating (Peer)
What Debbie said to Jane about trading her glitter and glue for markers.

(1) Can I use your markers instead of the glitter and glue?
Do you want to trade?
I'll trade my glitter and glue for your markers.
Let's trade.

(0) I want this one.
I don't like the glitter and glue.
I like the markers.

Rule: To earn 1 point the response must be a negotiation between speaker and listener.

7-C. Asking permission (Adult)
What Jeanette said to Mrs. Williams about washing her hands.

(1) Can I go wash my hands?
How about if I go and wash my hands?
Could I go to the restroom?
May I go to the bathroom?

(1-F) Mrs. Williams, may I please go to wash my hands?
May I please go to the restroom to wash this ink off my hands?
Could I go to the bathroom/sink, Mrs. Williams?

(0) I want to go to the bathroom.
Let me go wash my hands.
Look at this mess!

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must ask for permission to go to the bathroom/wash hands. To score a second point as formal, the response must include two of the following: politeness marker (please), direct Address (name), or formal word choice (modal question form). Direct statements are informal.

8-C. Suggesting (Adult)
What John said to Mrs. Carlos about the movie.

(1) I like the animal movie better than the cartoon.
The animal movie is better, Mrs. Carlos.
I think the animal tape is a good choice.

(1-F) Mrs. Carlos, I like the animal tape better.
Please rent that one, Mrs. Carlos.
You might enjoy that one/the animal movie, Mrs. Carlos because I did.

(0) Don't get that one.
That's good. The animals are so funny/cute.
I want to rent that again.

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must give listener a choice to agree, reject, or evade suggestions. A request without taking listener perspective into account receives a score of 0. To score a second point as formal, 2 of the following must be included: politeness marker (please), direct Address (name), or formal word choice (modal). A response which states only the speaker's needs or wants receives a score of 0.

1-F. Questioning/Feeling State (Adult)
What James said to Mr. Johnson about looking sad.

(1) What's the matter?
What's wrong?
Why are you sad/upset?
What's the problem?
What happened?
How come you're so sad?
Are you all right?

(1-F) Mr. Johnson, why are you sad?
What's bothering you, Mr. Johnson?
Mr. Johnson, what is wrong with you?

(0) What are you mad about?
Don't be sad.
I didn't do anything.

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must consist of a statement referring to a negative state or a question referring to a negative state. To score a second point as formal, the name of the Addressee must be stated.

2-F. Agreeing (Peer)
What Mark said to Colby about the fish's mouth.

(1) I think so, too.
You're right, Colby.
I think it's the biggest mouth I've ever seen, too.
That is a huge/big mouth!

(0) I don't think it's very big.
I've seen much bigger ones.
I want the fish.

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must express direct, indirect, or emphatic agreement.

3-F. Expression of Like (Adult)
What Jeannie said to Mrs. Willis about liking the colors.

(1) Those are pretty.
I like those colors.
I love those!
Did you know that those colors are great?

(1-F) Mrs. Willis, I really like those colors for the kites.
Those colors are so bright/pretty, Mrs. Willis!
Those are perfect for kite colors, Mrs. Willis!

(0) Do you like those colors?
These are the ones I want to use.
I hate blue/yellow/orange.

Rule: To earn one point, the response must express positive feelings. To score a second point as formal, the response may include amplified support (really like, perfect) or a direct Address (name).

4-F. Questioning/Feeling State (Adult)
What Colby said to Mr. Hughes about looking angry.

(1) What's the matter?
What's wrong?
Why are you angry/upset?
What's the problem?
What happened?
How come you're so mad?
Are you all right?

(1-F) Mr. Hughes, why are you angry?
What's bothering you, Mr. Hughes?
Mr. Hughes, what is wrong with you?

(0) What are you sad about?
Don't be mad.
I didn't do anything.

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must consist of a statement referring to a negative state or a question referring to a negative state. To score a second point as formal, the name of the Addressee should be stated.

5-F. Agreeing (Adult)
What Carrie said to Mrs. Jones about the feeder.

(1) I think so, too.
You're right.
I think it should be up high, too.
That's right, put it up high.

(1-F) Mrs. Jones, I like the feeder up high, too.
You're right, Mrs. Jones. That's a good spot for it.

(0) The cats look hungry.
The birds are hungry.
I can't reach/see it.

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must express direct, indirect, or emphatic agreement. To score a second point as formal, a direct reference to the feeder (pronoun form is acceptable) must be included.

6-F. Congratulating (Peer)
What Jerry said to Carolyn about winning.

(1) Congratulations!
You did a great job!
I'm proud of you!
That was great!
I'm glad you won!

(0) I wanted to win.
You always win.
How did you spell that last word?
I like that ribbon.

Rule: To earn one point, the response must express amplified positive and supportive feelings.

7-F. Expression of Like (Adult)
What Ashley said to Mrs. Thomas about liking the cookies.

(1) These are good.
You're a good cook.
I like your cookies.
I love these!
Did you know that these cookies are great?

(1-F) Mrs. Thomas, I really like your cookies.
These cookies are very good, Mrs. Thomas!
These cookies are so delicious.

(0) Want to have some cookies?
Do you like these?
These are like the ones my mother makes.

Rule: To earn one point, the response must express positive feelings. To score a second point as formal, the response may include amplified support (very good), or a direct Address (name).

8-F. Agreeing (Adult)
What Carla said to Mrs. Jenkins about the posters.

(1) I think so, too.
You're right.
I think it's the best one, too.
That is the best one!
I like the car better, too.

(1-F) Mrs. Jenkins, I like the car poster better than the truck one, too.
I also prefer that one, Mrs. Jenkins.

(0) I don't think it's so great.
I've seen much better ones.
I want the poster.

Rule: To earn 1 point, the response must express direct, indirect, or emphatic agreement. To score a second point as formal, a direct Address (name) must be included along with a direct reference to the poster (pronoun form is acceptable).

Appendix F

Test of Formality

Alternate Scoring Form

Name: _____

Date: _____

Examiner: _____

PM = Politeness Markers (Please, Excuse Me)
FWC = Modal (could, would, should)
AS = Amplified Support (really like, perfect)
DRO= Direct Reference to Object in narrative
MAY = the verb "May"
DA= Direct Address
CAE/R = Call for attention with explanation/reason
CAN = the verb "Can"

Ritualizing

Number 1
What James said to get Mrs. William's attention. CAE/R CAN PM DA FWC

Number 2
What Margaret said to the new girl.

Number 3
What Crystal said to get Mrs. Farley to repeat what she said. CAN PM DA FWC

Number 4
What John said to Mr. Hobson. CAE/R CAN PM DA FWC

Number 5
What Ashley said to Mrs. Jones. CAN DA FWC

Number 6
What David said to Bobby on the phone.

Number 7
What Melissa said to Mrs. Smith. CAN PM DA FWC

Number 8
What Carla said to Mrs. Perkins. DA FWC

TOTALS ____ ____ ____ ____ ____

Informing

Number 9 What Jack said to Mrs. Simmons.	CAN	PM	DA	FWC
Number 10 What Danny said to Larry about the pencil.				
Number 11 What Mark said to Mrs. Smith to find out what the machine did.	CAN	PM	DA	FWC
Number 12 What James said to Mr. Thomas about the blank T.V. screen.	CAN	PM	DA	FWC
Number 13 What Jerry said to Mr. Cook about the rake.	CAN	PM	DA	FWC
Number 14 What Carrie said to Lisa to find her class.				
Number 15 What Carolyn said to Mrs. Young to find out what the machine was doing.	CAN	PM	DA	FWC
Number 16 What Sheila said to Mrs. Thomas about the peaches.	CAN	PM	DA	FWC
TOTALS	____	____	____	____

Controlling

Number 17
What Colby said to Mrs. Turner about
helping her with her groceries. CAN PM DA FWC

Number 18
What Ashley said to Sheila about the
computer program.

Number 19
What Carla said to Mrs. Jenkins about
checking out the book.
MAY CAN PM DA FWC

Number 20
What Michael said to Mrs. Turner about
helping her with the can.
MAY CAN PM DA FWC

Number 21
What Colby said to Mr. Hughes about
getting a ladder.
MAY CAN PM DA FWC

Number 22
What Debbie said to Jane about trading
her glitter and glue for markers.

Number 23
What Jeanette said to Mrs. Williams
about washing her hands.
MAY CAN PM DA FWC

Number 24
What John said to Mrs. Carlos about
the movie. CAN PM DA FWC

TOTALS ____ ____ ____ ____ ____

Feeling _____

Number 25
What James said to Mr. Johnson
about looking sad. CAN MAY DA

Number 26
What Mark said to Colby about
the orange fish. _____

Number 27
What Jeannie said to Mrs. Willis about
liking the colors. CAN DA AS

Number 28
What Colby said to Mr. Hughes about
looking angry. CAN MAY DA

Number 29
What Carrie said to Mrs. Jones about
the feeder. CAN MAY DA DRO

Number 30
What Jerry said to Carolyn about
winning. _____

Number 31
What Ashley said to Mrs. Thomas
about liking the cookies. CAN DA AS

Number 32
What Carla said to Mrs. Jenkins
about the posters. DA DRO

TOTALS ____ ____ ____ ___ __

TEST TOTALS:

CAE/R ____ **CAN** ____ **PM** _____ **DA** _____

FWC _____ **AS** _____ **DRO** ____ **MAY** ____

Appendix G
Interexaminer Reliability Training Procedures

The Graduate Research Assistant (GRA) selected to perform interexaminer reliability attended a training session. The investigator and the GRA reviewed the Test of Formality (TOF). Next, the GRA was asked to read the features of the formal register considered for the TOF. The investigator and the GRA scored the responses of 4 subjects (2 African-American, 2 European-American) together. These subjects were excluded from data analysis for any of the following reasons: inappropriate race for school in question, noncompliance during testing, recipient of special services, failure of recording equipment, inappropriate age level, and interference of extended absence during testing. These subjects were involved in two sessions.

Initially, the GRA used a test score form previously filled with responses from a subject to score Total Intent and Total Formality Scores. The subjects' scores were hidden from the view of the GRA. When final scores were obtained, they were compared to the original scores. If any discrepancies in scoring occurred, they were discussed. The GRA was required to score the responses of three subjects whose responses were previously scored by the investigator. If interexaminer reliability had been less than 93%, the GRA would have continued scoring until she and the investigator obtain an average of 93% agreement for three consecutively scores tests. The same procedures were followed for the training of the Alternate Scoring method.

VITA

Angela Reneé Hinton, born August 30, 1973, was reared and schooled in Jackson, Mississippi. She is the daughter of Mr. and Mrs. Thomas M. Hinton. In the fall of 1990, she entered Mississippi College for her undergraduate career. As an undergraduate she received many scholarships and served as the Vice President of the Student Government Association. In May 1994, she matriculated with the Bachelor of Arts in Political Science with Honors.

She entered the University of Tennessee in the Fall of 1995 to begin her undergraduate courses in Speech-Language Pathology, and entered the Master's program in the Fall of 1996. As a graduate student, she was an officer in the National Student Speech-Language Hearing Association and a graduate assistant. The Master of Arts degree was received May 1998. She will begin her Clinical Fellowship position in Florida, at a skilled nursing facility, following graduation. Ms. Hinton will be married in August of 1998 to Mr. Jason Fuller.