Students' Right to Their Own Language
Conference on College Composition and Communication

Explanation of Adoption
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To Readers of CCC:

This special issue of CCC includes the resolution on language adopted by members of CCCC in April 1974; the background statement explaining and supporting that resolution; and the bibliography that gives sources of some of the ideas presented in the background statement; besides offering those interested in the subject of language some suggested references for further reading. This publication climaxes two years of work, by dedicated members of CCCC, toward a position statement on a major problem confronting teachers of composition and communication: how to respond to the variety in their students' dialects.

A first draft of the resolution on language was presented to the Executive Committee at its meeting in March 1972, by a committee specially appointed by the officers in the fall of 1971 to prepare a position statement on students' dialects. After some amendments adopted by the Executive Committee at its meeting in November 1972, the resolution reads:

We affirm the students' right to their own patterns and varieties of language -- the dialects of their nurture or whatever dialects in which they find their own identity and style. Language scholars long ago denied that the myth of a standard American dialect has any validity. The claim that any one dialect is unacceptable amounts to an attempt of one social group to exert its dominance over another. Such a claim leads to false advice for speakers and writers, and immoral advice for humans. A nation proud of its diverse heritage and its cultural and racial variety will preserve its heritage of dialects. We affirm strongly that teachers must have the experiences and training that will enable them to respect diversity and uphold the right of students to their own language.

Realizing that the resolution would be controversial, and that it contained many assertions that could best be explained by reference to current research on dialects and usage, the Executive Committee appointed a special committee to draft a statement that would offer this explanatory background. The special committee reported at its New Orleans meeting in 1973, where its initial draft statement was thoroughly discussed. A revised draft was presented to and accepted by the Executive Committee at the Philadelphia NCTE meeting in November 1973. The resolution and background statement were then distributed to members of CCCC, and the resolution was considered at the regular business meeting in Anaheim in April 1974. It was adopted as the policy of CCCC by a vote of 79-20.
Because of the interest generated by the resolution and background statement, the officers decided that it should be sent to members in durable form, as a special issue of CCC, and should be made available to anyone interested in obtaining copies.

All members of CCCC, I think, owe much to the members of the committee that wrote this perceptive statement, which has won the praise of many linguists and rhetoricians. Special thanks are due to Richard Lloyd-Jones, who synthesized the contributions of different committee members into the final text you now have. Special thanks are due, also, to Melvin Butler of Southern University, chairperson of the special committee, whose untimely death prevented him from seeing the publication of the statement on which he and his fellow committee members worked so faithfully. This issue of CCC will be, we hope, a lasting tribute to his efforts.

Richard L. Larson
1974 Chair, CCCC

Introduction

American schools and colleges have, in the last decade, been forced to take a stand on a basic educational question: what should the schools do about the language habits of students who come from a wide variety of social, economic, and cultural backgrounds? The question is not new. Differences in language have always existed, and the schools have always wrestled with them, but the social upheavals of the 1960’s, and the insistence of submerged minorities on a greater share in American society, have posed the question more insistently and have suggested the need for a shift in emphasis in providing answers. Should the schools try to uphold language variety, or to modify it, or to eradicate it?

The emotional nature of the controversy has obscured the complexities of the problem and hidden some of the assumptions that must be examined before any kind of rational policy can be adopted. The human use of language is not a simple phenomenon: sophisticated research in linguistics and sociology has demonstrated incontrovertibly that many long held and passionately cherished notions about language are misleading at best, and often completely erroneous. On the other hand, linguistic research, advanced as much of it is, has not yet produced any absolute, easily understood explanation of how people acquire language or how habits acquired so early in life that they defy conscious analysis can be consciously changed. Nor is the linguistic information that is available very widely disseminated. The training of most English teachers has concentrated on the appreciation and analysis of literature, rather than on an understanding of the nature of language, and many teachers are, in consequence, forced to take a position on an aspect of their discipline about which they have little real information.
And if teachers are often uninformed, or misinformed, on the subject of language, the general public is even more ignorant. Lack of reliable information, however, seldom prevents people from discussing language questions with an air of absolute authority. Historians, mathematicians, and nurses all hold decided views on just what English teachers should be requiring. And through their representatives on Boards of Education and Boards of Regents, businessmen, politicians, parents, and the students themselves insist that the values taught by the schools must reflect the prejudices held by the public. The English profession, then, faces a dilemma: until public attitudes can be changed -- and it is worth remembering that the past teaching in English classes has been largely responsible for those attitudes -- shall we place our emphasis on what the vocal elements of the public think it wants or on what the actual available linguistic evidence indicates we should emphasize? Shall we blame the business world by saying, "Well, we realize that human beings use language in a wide variety of ways, but employers demand a single variety"?

Before these questions can be responsibly answered, English teachers at all levels, from kindergarten through college, must uncover and examine some of the assumptions on which our teaching has rested. Many of us have taught as though there existed somewhere a single American "standard English" which could be isolated, identified, and accurately defined. We need to know whether "standard English" is or is not in some sense a myth. We have ignored, many of us, the distinction between speech and writing and have taught the language as though the talk in any region, even the talk of speakers with prestige and power, were identical to edited written English.

We have also taught, many of us, as though the "English of educated speakers," the language used by those in power in the community, had an inherent advantage over other dialects as a means of expressing thought or emotion, conveying information, or analyzing concepts. We need to discover whether our attitudes toward "educated English" are based on some inherent superiority of the dialect itself or on the social prestige of those who use it. We need to ask ourselves whether our rejection of students who do not adopt the dialect most familiar to us is based on any real merit in our dialect or whether we are actually rejecting the students themselves, rejecting them because of their racial, social, and cultural origins.

And many of us have taught as though the function of schools and colleges were to erase differences. Should we, on the one hand, urge creativity and individuality in the arts and the sciences, take pride in the diversity of our historical development, and, on the other hand, try to obliterate all the differences in the way Americans speak and write? Our major emphasis has been on uniformity, in both speech and writing; would we accomplish more, both educationally and ethically, if we shifted that emphasis to precise, effective, and appropriate communication in diverse ways, whatever the dialect?
Students are required by law to attend schools for most of their adolescent years, and are usually required by curriculum makers to take English every one of those years, often including "developmental" or "compensatory" English well into college if their native dialect varies from that of the middle class. The result is that students who come from backgrounds where the prestigious variety of English is the normal medium of communication have built-in advantages that enable them to succeed, often in spite of and not because of, their schoolroom training in "grammar." They sit at the head of the class, are accepted at "exclusive" schools, and are later rewarded with positions in the business and social world. Students whose nurture and experience give them a different dialect are usually denied these rewards. As English teachers, we are responsible for what our teaching does to the self-image and the self-esteem of our students. We must decide what elements of our discipline are really important to us, whether we want to share with our students the richness of all varieties of language, encourage linguistic virtuosity, and say with Langston Hughes:

I play it cool and dig all jive
That's the reason I stay alive
My motto as I live and learn
Is to dig and be dug in return.

It was with these concerns in mind that the Executive Committee of the Conference on College Composition and Communication, in 1972, passed the following resolution:

We affirm the students' right to their own patterns and varieties of language -- the dialects of their nurture or whatever dialects in which they find their own identity and style. Language scholars long ago denied that the myth of a standard American dialect has any validity. The claim that any one dialect is unacceptable amounts to an attempt of one social group to exert its dominance over another. Such a claim leads to false advice for speakers and writers, and immoral advice for humans. A nation proud of its diverse heritage and its cultural and racial variety will preserve its heritage of dialects. We affirm strongly that teachers must have the experiences and training that will enable them to respect diversity and uphold the right of students to their own language.

The members of the Committee realized that the resolution would create controversy and that without a clear explanation of the linguistic and social knowledge on which it rests, many people would find it incomprehensible. The members of the Executive Committee, therefore, requested a background statement which would examine some common misconceptions about language and dialect, define some key terms, and provide some suggestions for sounder, alternate approaches. What follows is not, then, an introductory course in linguistics, nor is it a teaching guide. It is, we hope, an answer to some of the questions the resolution will raise.
Understanding Language Varieties

A dialect is a variety of a language used by some definable group. Everyone has a personal version of language, an idiolect, which is unique, and closely related groups of idiolects make up dialects. By custom, some dialects are spoken. Others are written. Some are shared by the community at large. Others are confined to small communities, neighborhoods, or social groups. Because of this, most speakers, consciously or unconsciously, use more than one dialect. The need for varying dialects may arise from a speaker's membership in different age or educational groups. Or, it may arise from membership in groups tied to physical localities. The explanation of what a dialect is becomes difficult when we recognize that dialects are developed in response to many kinds of communication needs. And further complications occur because the user of a specific dialect, as a function of habit, can choose alternate forms which seem effective for given situations.

A dialect is the variety of language used by a group whose linguistic habit patterns both reflect and are determined by shared regional, social, or cultural perspectives. The user of a specific dialect employs the phonological (pronunciation), lexical (vocabulary), and syntactic patterns (word arrangement) and variations of the given "community." Because geographical and social isolation are among the causes of dialect differences, we can roughly speak about regional and social dialects. Regional differences in phonology may become quite evident when one hears a Bostonian say "pahk the cah" where a Midwesterner would say "parrk the car." Regional differences in vocabulary are also quite noticeable as in the words used throughout the country for a carbonated drink. Depending on where one is geographically, you can hear "soda," "soda water," "sweet soda," "soft drink," "tonic," "pop," or "cold drink." Regional differences in syntactic patterns are found in such statements as "The family is to home," and "The family is at home." Social differences can also be detected. Social differences in phonology are reflected in "goil" versus "girl." Social differences in vocabulary are reflected in the distinctions made between "restaurant" and "cafe." Syntactic phrases such as "those flowers" tend to have more prestige than "them flowers," and "their flowers" has more prestige than "they flowers."

It is not surprising to find two or more social dialects co-existing in a given region. In small towns where a clear social cleavage exists between the wealthier, more educated portion of the population and the mass of people, the difference may be reflected in their speechways. The local banker whose dialect reveals his group allegiance to the statewide financial community still is able to communicate easily with the local farmhand who may rarely cross the county line and whose linguistic habit patterns reveal different allegiances.
In many larger American cities people of the same ethnic origins tend to live in a single neighborhood and have a common culture and thus share a dialect. Through their clothing, games, and holidays they may preserve the values and customs of the "old country" or "back home." And in their restaurants, churches, schools, and homes, one may hear the linguistic values and customs of their heritage preserved. For example, a neighborhood group's cultural orientation may encourage its members to differentiate between action and intention in the immediate future and in a still-further immediate future through "I'm a-do it" and "I'm a'gonna do it." Yet, a neighborhood is not a country, so speakers of several dialects may mingle there and understand each other. Visitors with yet another heritage may render an approximation of such differentiation through "I'll do it now" and "I'll do it soon." Pride in cultural heritage and linguistic habit patterns need not lead either group to attack the other as they mingle and communicate.

Differences in dialects derive from events in the history of the communities using the language, not from supposed differences in intelligence or physiology. Although they vary in phonology, in vocabulary, and in surface grammatical patterns, the differences between neighboring dialects are not sufficiently wide to prevent full mutual comprehension among speakers of those dialects. That is to say, when speakers of a dialect of American English claim not to understand speakers of another dialect of the same language, the impediments are likely to be attitudinal. What is really the hearer's resistance to any unfamiliar form may be interpreted as the speaker's fault. For example, an unfamiliar speech rhythm and resulting pronunciation while ignoring the content of the message. When asked to respond to the content, they may be unable to do so and may accuse the speaker of being impossible to understand. In another situation, vocabulary differences may require that the hearers concentrate more carefully on contextual cues. If the word "bad" is being used as a term of praise, the auditor may have to pay unusual attention to context. Although the usual redundancies of speech ordinarily will provide sufficient cues to permit a correct interpretation, still the auditor has to work harder until he becomes accustomed to the differences. The initial difficulties of perception can be overcome and should not be confused with those psychological barriers to communication which may be generated by racial, cultural, and social differences and attitudes.

The manner in which children acquire language (and hence dialect) competence is unknown in spite of some research and much speculation on the subject. Theories ranging from the purely behavioristic to the highly metaphysical have been proposed. What is demonstrable, and hence known, is that children at very early ages begin to acquire performance skills in the dialect(s) used in their environment, and that this process is amazingly rapid compared to many other types of learning.
Before going to school, children possess basic competence in their dialects. For example, children of six know how to manipulate the rules for forming plurals in their dialects. In some dialects children add an "s" to the word to be pluralized as in "book/books." In some other dialects, plurality is signaled by the use of the preceding word as in "one book/ two book." But in either instance children have mastered the forms of plurality and have learned a principle of linguistic competence. It is important to remember that plurality signals for the nurture dialect reflect children's reality and will be their first choice in performance; plurality rules for another dialect may simply represent to them the rituals of someone else's linguistic reality.

In a specific setting, because of historical and other factors, certain dialects may be endowed with more prestige than others. Such dialects are sometimes called "standard" or "consensus" dialects. These designations of prestige are not inherent in the dialect itself, but are externally imposed, and the prestige of a dialect shifts as the power relationships of the speakers shift.

The English language at the beginning of its recorded history was already divided into distinct regional dialects. These enjoyed fairly equal prestige for centuries. However, the centralization of English political and commercial life at London gradually gave the dialect spoken there a preeminence over other dialects. This process was far advanced when printing was invented; consequently, the London dialect became the dialect of the printing press, and the dialect of the printing press became the so-called "standard" even though a number of oral readings of one text would reveal different pronunciations and rhythmic patterns across dialects. When the early American settlers arrived on this continent, they brought their British dialects with them. Those dialects were altered both by regional separation from England and concentration into sub-groups within this country as well as by contact with the various languages spoken by the Indians they found here and with the various languages spoken by the immigrants who followed.

At the same time, social and political attitudes formed in the old world followed to the new, so Americans sought to achieve linguistic marks of success as exemplified in what they regarded as proper, cultivated usage. Thus the dialect used by prestigious New England speakers early became the "standard" the schools attempted to teach. It remains, during our own time, the dialect that style books encourage us to represent in writing. The diversity of our cultural heritage, however, has created a corresponding language diversity and, in the 20th century, most linguists agree that there is no single, homogeneous American "standard." They also agree that, although the amount of prestige and power possessed by a group can be recognized through its dialect, no dialect is inherently good or bad.
The need for a written dialect to serve the larger, public community has resulted in a general commitment to what may be called "edited American English," that prose which is meant to carry information about our representative problems and interests. To carry such information through aural-oral media, "broadcast English" or "network standard" has been developed and given precedence. Yet these dialects are subject to change, too. Even now habit patterns from other types of dialects are being incorporated into them. Our pluralistic society requires many varieties of language to meet our multiplicity of needs.

Several concepts from modern linguistics clarify and define problems of dialect. Recent studies verify what our own casual observation should lead us to believe -- namely, that intelligence is not a factor in the child's acquisition of a basic language system. In fact, only when I.Q. is at about fifty or below does it become significant in retarding the rate and completeness with which children master their native spoken dialect. Dialect switching, however, becomes progressively more difficult as the speaker grows older. As one passes from infancy to childhood to adolescence and to maturity, language patterns become more deeply ingrained and more a part of the individual's self-concept; hence they are more difficult to alter.

Despite ingrained patterns characteristic of older people, every speaker of a language has a tremendous range of versatility, constantly making subtle changes to meet various situations. That is, speakers of a language have mastered a variety of ranges and levels of usage; no one's idiolect, however well established, is monolithic and inflexible. This ability of the individual speaker to achieve constant and subtle modulations is so pervasive that it usually goes unnoticed by the speaker and the hearers alike.

The question, then, is not whether students can make language changes, for they do so all the time, but whether they can step over the hazily defined boundaries that separate dialects. Dialect switching is complicated by many factors, not the least of which is the individual's own cultural heritage. Since dialect is not separate from culture, but an intrinsic part of it, accepting a new dialect means accepting a new culture; rejecting one's native dialect is to some extent a rejection of one's culture.

Therefore, the question of whether or not students will change their dialect involves their acceptance of a new -- and possibly strange or hostile -- set of cultural values. Although many students do become bidialectal, and many do abandon their native dialects, those who don't switch may have any of a number of reasons, some of which may be beyond the school's right to interfere.
In linguistic terms the normal teenager has *competence* in his native dialect, the ability to use all of its structural resources, but the actual *performance* of any speaker in any dialect always falls short of the totality implied by competence. No one can ever use all of the resources of a language, but one function of the English teacher is to activate the student's competence, that is, increase the range of his habitual performance.

Another insight from linguistic study is that differences among dialects in a given language are always confined to a limited range of *surface* features that have no effect on what linguists call *deep structure*, a term that might be roughly translated as "meaning." For instance, the following groups of sentences have minor surface differences, but obviously share meanings:

Herbert saw Hermione yesterday.
Herbert seen Hermione yesterday.

Mary's daddy is at home.
Mary's daddy is to home.
Mary daddy home.

Bill is going to the circus.
Bill, he's going to the circus.
Bill he going to the circus.

Preference for one form over another, then, is not based on meaning or even "exactness" of expression, but depends on social attitudes and cultural norms. The surface features are recognized as signs of social status.

**Language Varieties and Learning**

The linguistic concepts can bring a new understanding of the English teacher's function in dealing with reading and writing skills. Schools and colleges emphasize one form of language, the one we called Edited American English (EAE). It is the written language of the weekly news magazines, of almost all newspapers, and of most books. This variety of written English can be loosely termed a dialect, and it has pre-empted a great deal of attention in English classes.

If a speaker of any dialect of a language has competence (but not necessarily the ability to perform) in any other dialect of that language, then dialect itself cannot be posited as a reason for a student's failure to be able to read EAE. That is, dialect itself is not an impediment to reading, for the process of reading involves decoding to meaning (deep structure), not decoding to an utterance. Thus, the child who reads
Phillip's mother is in Chicago.

out loud as

Phillip mother in Chicago.

has read correctly, that is, has translated the surface of an EAE sentence into a meaning and has used his own dialect to give a surface form to that meaning. Reading, in short, involves the acquisition of meanings, not the ability to reproduce meanings in any given surface forms.

Reading difficulties may be a result of inadequate vocabulary, problems in perception, ignorance of contextual cues that aid in the reading process, lack of familiarity with stylistic ordering, interference from the emotional bias of the material, or combinations of these. In short, reading is so complicated a process that it provides temptations to people who want to offer easy explanations and solutions.

This larger view should make us cautious about the assumption that the students' dialect interferes with learning to read. Proceeding from such a premise, current "dialect" readers employ one of two methods. Some reading materials are written completely in the students' dialect with the understanding that later the students will be switched to materials written in the "standard" dialect. Other materials are written in companion sets of "Home" version and "School" version. Students first read through the "dialect" version, then through the same booklet written in "school" English. Both methods focus primarily on a limited set of surface linguistic features, as for example, the deletion of -ed in past tense verbs or the deletion of -r in final position.

To cope with our students' reading problem, then, we cannot confine ourselves to the constricting and ultimately ineffectual dialect readers designed for the "culturally deprived." We should structure and select materials geared to complex reading problems and oriented to the experience and sophistication of our students. An urban eight-year-old who has seen guns and knives in a street fight may not be much interested in reading how Jane's dog Spot dug in the neighbor's flower bed. Simply because "Johnny can't read" doesn't mean "Johnny is immature" or "Johnny can't think." He may be bored. Carefully chosen materials will certainly expose students to new horizons and should increase their awareness and heighten their perceptions of the social reality. Classroom reading materials can be employed to further our students' reading ability and, at the same time, can familiarize them with other varieties of English.
Admittedly, the kinds of materials we're advocating are, at present, difficult to find, but some publishers are beginning to move in this direction. In the meantime, we can use short, journalistic pieces, such as those found on the editorial pages of newspapers, we might rely on materials composed by our students, and we can certainly write our own materials. The important fact to remember is that speakers in any dialect encounter essentially the same difficulties in reading, and thus we should not be so much interested in changing our students' dialect as in improving their command of the reading process.

The ability to write EAE is quite another matter, for learning to write a given dialect, like learning to speak a dialect, involves the activation of areas of competence. Further, learning to write in any dialect entails the mastery of such conventions as spelling and punctuation, surface features of the written language. Again, native speakers of any dialect of a language have virtually total competence in all dialects of that language, but they may not have learned (and may never learn) to punctuate or spell, and, indeed, may not even learn the mechanical skill of forming letters and sequences of letters with a writing instrument. And even if they do, they may have other problems in transferring ease and fluency in speech to skill in writing.

Even casual observation indicates that dialect as such plays little if any part in determining whether a child will ultimately acquire the ability to write EAE. In fact, if speakers of a great variety of American dialects do master EAE -- from Senator Sam Ervin to Senator Edward Kennedy, from Ernest Hemingway to William Faulkner -- there is no reason to assume that dialects such as urban black and Chicano impede the child's ability to learn to write EAE while countless others do not. Since the issue is not the capacity of the dialect itself, the teacher can concentrate on building up the students' confidence in their ability to write.

If we name the essential functions of writing as expressing oneself, communicating information and attitudes, and discovering meaning through both logic and metaphor, then we view variety of dialects as an advantage. In self-expression, not only one's dialect but one's idiolect is basic. In communication one may choose roles which imply certain dialects, but the decision is a social one, for the dialect itself does not limit the information which can be carried, and the attitudes may be most clearly conveyed in the dialect the writer finds most congenial. Dialects are all equally serviceable in logic and metaphor.
Perhaps the most serious difficulty facing "non-standard" dialect speakers in developing writing ability derives from their exaggerated concern for the least serious aspects of writing. If we can convince our students that spelling, punctuation, and usage are less important than content, we have removed a major obstacle in their developing the ability to write. Examples of student writing are useful for illustrating this point. In every composition class there are examples of writing which is clear and vigorous despite the use of non-standard forms (at least as described by the handbook) -- and there are certainly many examples of limp, vapid writing in "standard dialect." Comparing the writing allows the students to see for themselves that dialect seldom obscures clear, forceful writing. EAE is important for certain kinds of students, its features are easily identified and taught, and school patrons are often satisfied when it is mastered, but that should not tempt teachers to evade the still more important features of language.

When students want to play roles in dialects other than their own, they should be encouraged to experiment, but they can acquire the fundamental skills of writing in their own dialect. Their experiments are ways of becoming more versatile. We do not condone ill-organized, imprecise, undefined, inappropriate writing in any dialect; but we are especially distressed to find sloppy writing approved so long as it appears with finicky correctness in "school standard" while vigorous and thoughtful statements in less prestigious dialects are condemned.

All languages are the product of the same instrument, namely, the human brain. It follows, then, that all languages and all dialects are essentially the same in their deep structure, regardless of how varied the surface structures might be. (This is equal to saying that the human brain is the human brain.) And if these hypotheses are true, then all controversies over dialect will take on a new dimension. The question will no longer turn on language per se, but will concern the nature of a society which places great value on given surface features of language and proscribes others, for any language or any dialect will serve any purpose that its users want it to serve.

There is no evidence, in fact, that enables us to describe any language or any dialect as incomplete or deficient apart from the conditions of its use. The limits of a particular speaker should not be interpreted as a limit of the dialect.

Just as people suppose that speakers who omit the plural inflection as in "six cow" instead of "six cows" cannot manipulate the concept of plurality, so also some believe that absence of tense markers as in "yesterday they look at the flood damage" indicates that the speaker has no concept of time. Yet these same people have no difficulty in understanding the difference between "now I cut the meat / yesterday I cut the meat," also without a tense marker. The alternative forms are adequate to express meaning.
And experience tells us that when speakers of any dialect need a new word for a new thing, they will invent or learn the needed word. Just as most Americans added "sputnik" to their vocabularies a decade or more ago, so speakers of other dialects can add such words as "periostitis" or "interosculate" whenever their interests demand it.

Language Varieties and Educational Policy and Practice

Since the eighteenth century, English grammar has come to mean for most people the rules telling one how to speak and write in the best society. When social groups were clearly stratified into "haves" and "have-nots," there was no need for defensiveness about variations in language -- the landlord could understand the speech of the stable boy, and neither of them worried about language differences. But when social and economic changes increased social mobility, the members of the "rising middle class," recently liberated from and therefore immediately threatened by the lower class, demanded books of rules telling them how to act in ways that would not betray their background and would solidly establish them in their newly acquired social group. Rules regulating social behavior were compiled in books of etiquette; rules regulating linguistic behavior were compiled in dictionaries and grammar books. Traditional grammar books were unapologetically designed to instill linguistic habits which, though often inconsistent with actual language practice and sometimes in violation of common sense, were intended to separate those who had "made it" from those who had not, the powerful from the poor.

Practices developed in England in the eighteenth century were transported wholesale to the New World. Linguistic snobbery was tacitly encouraged by a slavish reliance on rules "more honored in the breach than the observance," and these attitudes had consequences far beyond the realm of language. People from different language and ethnic backgrounds were denied social privileges, legal rights, and economic opportunity, and their inability to manipulate the dialect used by the privileged group was used as an excuse for this denial. Many teachers, moved by the image of the "melting pot," conscientiously tried to eliminate every vestige of behavior not sanctioned in the grammar books, and the schools rejected as failures all those children who did not conform to the linguistic prejudices of the ruling middle class. With only slight modifications, many of our "rules," much of the "grammar" we still teach, reflects that history of social climbing and homogenizing.
Many handbooks still appeal to social-class etiquette and cultural stasis rather than to the dynamic and creative mechanisms which are a part of our language. They attempt to show one public dialect (EAE) which generates its own writing situations and its own restraints. By concentrating almost exclusively on EAE, such handbooks encourage a restrictive language bias. They thus ignore many situations which require other precise uses of language. We know that American English is pluralistic. We know that our students can and do function in a growing multiplicity of language situations which require different dialects, changing interconnections of dialects, and dynamic uses of language. But many handbooks often present only the usage of EAE for both written and spoken communication. Usage choices are presented as single-standard etiquette rules rather than as options for effective expression. This restrictive attitude toward usage is intensified by the way school grammar is presented as a series of directives in which word choice, syntax, surface features of grammar, and manuscript conventions are lumped together in guides of "correctness." These restrictive handbooks, by their very nature, encourage their users toward imitation, not toward generation of original written statements. By appealing to what is labeled "proper," they encourage an elitist attitude. The main values they transmit are stasis, restriction, manners, status, and imitation.

Teachers who are required to use such handbooks must help their students understand the implied restrictions of these texts. At best they are brief descriptions of the main features of EAE, and they clearly point out the limits of their own structures. Students should be encouraged to think of the handbook simply as a very limited language resource, and to recognize that its advice usually ignores the constraints of the situation. We alter our choices to create appropriate degrees of social intimacy. You don't talk to your kids as if they were a senate committee. A personal letter is not a technical report. Students use different forms of language in talking to their friends than they use in addressing their teachers; they use yet another style of language in communications with their parents or younger children; boys speak differently to boys when they are in the presence of girls than when the boys are alone, and so on -- the list can be expanded indefinitely by altering the circumstances of time, place, and situation.

The man who says, "He had a pain in his neck, the kind you get when you've suffered a bore too long," is creating an emotional bond with his hearers. Using the handbook rule, "avoid unnecessary shifts in person," to criticize the speaker's choice denies a very important language skill, a sense of how to adjust the tone to the situation.
Furthermore, students need to recognize the difference between handbook rules and actual performance. When, after a half hour's work on pronoun reference practice, carefully changing "everyone/their" to "everyone/his," the teacher says, "Everyone can hand in their papers now," students can recognize the limits of the rule. They can compare the handbook's insistence on "the reason that" with the practice of the national newscaster who says, "the reason for the price increase is because. . . ." They can go on to consider what assumption underlies the claim that "he does" is always clearer than "he do."

By discussions of actual student writing both students and teachers can learn to appreciate the value of variant dialects and recognize that a deviation from the handbook rules seldom interferes with communication. The student who writes, "The Black Brother just don't believe he's going to be treated like a man anyway," is making himself completely clear. Students and teachers can go on to discuss situations in which adherence to handbook rules might actually damage the effectiveness of the writing. Through such discussions of tone, style, and situation, students and teachers can work together to develop a better understanding of the nature of language and a greater flexibility and versatility in the choices they make. The handbook in its clearly limited role can then be serviceable within the framework of a flexible rhetoric.

Teachers need to sensitize their students to the options they already exercise, particularly in speaking, so as to help them gain confidence in communicating in a variety of situations. Classroom assignments should be structured to help students make shifts in tone, style, sentence structure and length, vocabulary, diction, and order; in short, to do what they are already doing, better. Since dialects are patterns of choice among linguistic options, assignments which require variety will also open issues of dialect.

Role playing in imaginary situations is one effective way of illustrating such options, especially if the situations are chosen to correspond with a reality familiar to the students. Materials that demonstrate the effective use of variant dialects are also useful. A novel like John O. Killens' Cotillion, for instance, combines an exciting, coherent narrative structure with a rich, versatile range of Black speech patterns used in various social situations, and thus can be used to show both literary and linguistic artistry.

Discussions must always emphasize the effectiveness of the various options, and must avoid the simplistic and the patronizing. Tapes, drills, and other instructional materials which do nothing more than contrast surface features (the lack of -s in third person singular present tense verbs, or -ed in past tense verbs, for instance) do not offer real options. Instead, because they are based on a "difference-equals-deficit" model, they imply that the students' own dialects are inferior and somehow "wrong" and that therefore the students' homes, the culture in which they learned their language, are also "wrong." Such simplistic approaches are not only destructive of the students' self-confidence, they fail to deal with larger and more significant options.
Linguistic versatility includes more than handbook conformity. Becoming aware of a variety of pitch patterns and rhythms in speech can reduce failures in understanding caused by unfamiliarity with the cadence another speaker uses. Listening for whole contexts can increase the ability to recognize the effect of such ponderous words as "notwithstanding" or "nevertheless" as well as pick up the meaning of unfamiliar names of things. Recognizing contradictions and failures in logic can help students concentrate on the "sense" of their communication rather than on its form. Identifying the ways language is used in politics and advertising can help students see when they are being manipulated and reduce their vulnerability to propaganda. Practice in exercising options can make students realize that vividness, precision, and accuracy can be achieved in any dialect, and can help them see that sloppiness and imprecision are irresponsible choices in any dialect -- that good speech and good writing ultimately have little to do with traditional notions of surface "correctness."

By building on what students are already doing well as part of their successes in daily living, we can offer them dialect options which will increase rather than diminish their self-esteem, and by focusing on the multiple aspects of the communication process, we can be sure we are dealing with the totality of language, not merely with the superficial features of "polite usage."

Standardized tests also create special kinds of problems for students and educators. These tests depend on verbal fluency, both in reading the directions and in giving the answers, so even slight variations in dialect may penalize students by slowing them down. Not only are almost all standardized tests written in test jargon and focused on EAE, they also incorporate social, cultural, and racial biases which cannot hold for all students. Rural Americans may not know much about street life, and urban students will know little about the habits of cows. Words like "punk," "boody," or "joog," if they appeared in tests, would favor one dialect group over others. Tests which emphasize capitalization, punctuation, and "polite usage" favor one restrictive dialect. Even literature tests which emphasize the reading lists of the traditional anthologies favor one kind of school literature. Consequently, those students fluent in test jargon and familiar with the test subject matter are excessively rewarded.

Another problem of standardized tests is that they may further restrict the students' worlds and ultimately penalize both those who do well and those who "fail." Those who succeed may become so locked into the rewarding language patterns that they restrict their modes of expression and become less tolerant of others' modes. Those who do not succeed may be fluent in their own dialects but because they are unable to show their fluency, get a mistaken sense of inferiority from the scores they receive.
Some test makers have recognized these biases and are trying to correct them, but theories governing test construction and interpretation remain contradictory. At least four major theories begin with different images and assumptions about genetic and environmental forces or verbal fluency and differences. To some extent the theory of test construction controls test results. In a sense, what goes in also comes out and thus tests tend to be self-validating. Furthermore, test results are reported in terms of comparisons with the groups used for standardizing and thus unless the purpose in giving the test is properly related to the comparison group, the results will be meaningless. For instance, a test intended to measure verbal ability for purposes of predicting probable success in reading difficult textual material is improperly used if it is part of the hiring policy for electrical technicians or telephone repairmen, as is being done in one major American city.

Ideally, until standardized tests fair to all students from all backgrounds can be developed, they should not be used for admitting, placing, or labeling students. Since they are built into the system, however, those who use and interpret the test results must recognize the biases built into the tests and be aware of the theory and purpose behind the tests. Used carelessly, standardized tests lead to erroneous inferences as to students' linguistic abilities and create prejudgments in the minds of teachers, counselors, future employers, and the students themselves.

Resolutions of the Annual Meetings of NCTE in 1970 and 1971 challenged the present forms and uses of standardized tests. Because our schools and colleges continue to administer them, we must continue to deal with the effects of such testing on students and curricula. In response to the problem, we can employ caution in using and trusting test results, and seek positive ways to neutralize the negative effects. We should develop and employ alternative methods for the measurement of our students' performance. Various types of written and oral performance-in-situation testing can be done in the classroom. Various forms of in-class study of dialect can lead students to understand what is common to all dialects and what is particular to individual dialects, and can determine, through discussion, which alternatives most effectively represent the intentions of the speaker or writer.

Tests should not be focused on whether students can think, speak, or write in the institutional dialect, but on whether they can think, speak, and write in their own dialects. If it is also necessary to know whether students have mastered the forms of EAE, that should be tested separately.
Teachers from other fields who view English as a service course, one which will save them the labor of teaching writing, often implicitly define writing as the communication of information within a limited social context. Perhaps when they (and some English teachers) fuss about spelling and usage, they are merely avoiding difficult problems of writing or, at least, avoiding talking about them. Sometimes, what they see as incompetence in writing is merely a reflection that the student doesn't understand the materials of the history or sociology course. But often they see the student's skill only in terms of limited needs. Whatever the reason for the complaint, courses which limit themselves to a narrow view of language in hopes of pleasing other departments will not offer a view of dialect adequate to encourage students to grow more competent to handle a fuller range of the language, and thus will defeat their own purpose.

What is needed in the English classroom and in all departments is a better understanding of the nature of dialect and a shift in attitudes toward it. The English teacher can involve the entire teaching staff in examining sample essays and tests from the various departments to determine whether a student's dialect in an essay examination from Mr. Jones in Geography really obscures clarity, whether Mary Smith's theme for Mr. Rogers is really worthless because of the "she don'ts" and because "receive" is spelled with an "ie." Such activities would help everyone in defining the areas which are vitally important to us.

We can also provide help for students who find themselves in courses whose teachers remain unreasonably restrictive in matters of dialect. In business and industry, secretaries and technical writers rescue the executive and engineer. Science professors have been known to hire English teachers to rewrite their articles for publication. Even a popular technical magazine, such as QST, the journal for ham radio operators, offers services which will "standardize" a variant dialect:

> Have you a project which would make a good QST story? We have a technical editing staff who can pretty up the words, should they need it -- ideas are more important for QST articles than a finished writing job. (Italics added) (QST, April, 1971, p. 78)

We must encourage students to concentrate on crucial exactness of content, and we must persuade our colleagues to forget their own biases about dialect long enough to recognize and respect this better kind of exactness. Students -- all of us -- need to respect our writing enough to take care with it. Self-expression and discovery as much as communication demand care in finding the exact word and phrase, but that exactness can be found in any dialect, and the cosmetic features of polite discourse can be supplied, when needed for social reasons.
All English teachers should, as a minimum, know the principles of modern linguistics, and something about the history and nature of the English language in its social and cultural context. This knowledge can be acquired through reading, through course work, through experience, or through a combination of these. All teachers should know something about:

**A. The Nature of Language as an Oral, Symbolic System by which Human Beings Interact and Communicate:** If teachers understand that the spoken language is always primary and the written language is a separate and secondary or derived system, they will be able to recognize that students inexperienced in the written system may still have great competence and facility in the spoken language. Because both systems are arbitrary, there is no necessary connection between the words of a language and the things those words symbolize (leche, lait, milk, etc.) nor is there any necessary connection between the sounds of the word “milk” and the alphabetic symbols we use to represent those sounds. Once a teacher understands the arbitrary nature of the oral and written forms, the pronunciation or spelling of a word becomes less important than whether it communicates what the student wants to say. In speech, POlice communicates as well as poLICE, and in writing “pollice” is no insurmountable barrier to communication, although all three variations might momentarily distract a person unfamiliar with the variant.

**B. The History of English and How it Continually Changes in Vocabulary, in Syntax, and in Pronunciation:** Teachers should understand that although changes in syntax and pronunciation occur more slowly than lexical changes, they do take place. The language of the King James Bible shows considerable syntactic variation from modern English, and linguists have demonstrated that speakers even as recent as the eighteenth century might be nearly unintelligible to modern ears. Vocabulary changes are easier for both teachers and students to observe. As we develop new things, we add words to talk about them -- jet, sputnik, television, smog. From its earliest history, English has borrowed words from the other languages with which it has come in contact -- French, Latin, Spanish, Scandinavian, Yiddish, American Indian -- from sources too numerous to list. Because many of these borrowings are historical, teachers recognize and respect them as essential parts of the language. Teachers should be equally as willing to recognize that English can also increase the richness of its word stock by a free exchange among its dialects. If teachers had succeeded in preventing students from using such terms as "jazz," "lariat," and "kosher," modern English would be the poorer. Such borrowings enlarge and enrich the language rather than diminish it.

**C. The Nature of Dialects:** A dialect shares similarities of pronunciation, syntax, or vocabulary that differentiates it from other dialects. These similarities within a dialect and differences between dialects are the product of geographical, social, cultural, or economic isolation. Our perception of the difference between an acceptable and unacceptable dialect depends on the power and prestige of the people who speak it. We tend to respect and admire the dialect of people who are wealthy or powerful. The planter's daughter who asks in a pronounced drawl to be "carried" home from the dance is charming, the field hand who says "That's shonuff a purty dress" becomes an object
of amusement or scorn. The teacher who realizes that the difference is not in the superiority of either dialect, but in the connotation we supply, can avoid judging students' dialects in social or economic terms.

D. Language Acquisition: Although little hard evidence is available about how an individual acquires language, it is known that in learning a language, we must filter out those sounds that have no significance in that language and use only those that do; then we learn to put those sounds into structures that are meaningful in the language. Babies experiment with a multitude of possible sounds, but by the time they begin to talk they have discarded sound combinations that don't appear in the dialects they hear. If, later on, they learn a second language, they encounter problems in hearing and producing sounds and sound combinations that do not exist in their first language. For instance, native speakers of English who learn Spanish as adults have trouble distinguishing "pero" and "perro" because the double "r" sound does not appear in any dialect of English. Although, phonemic differences between dialects of English are not as great as differences between English and a foreign language, differences do exist and it is unreasonable for teachers to insist that students make phonemic shifts which we as adults have difficulty in making.

E. Phonology: Phonology deals with the sound system of a language and the variations within that system. Teachers who understand phonology will not try to impose their own sound systems upon their students. They will not make an issue of whether the student says /hwayt hwel/ or /wayt weyl/ (white whale), nor will they be disturbed by shair-chair, warsh-wash, dat-that. They will not "correct" a student who says "merry" like "Murray" because they themselves may say "hairy" so that it is indistinguishable from "Harry." They will realize that even though a student says "ten" and "tin" exactly alike, nobody will be confused because context makes the meaning clear.

F. Morphology: Morphology deals with the elements of grammatic meaning in a language -- tense, aspect, person, number -- and the devices the language employs for indicating them. Just as context prevents homophones from confusing the listener, so context prevents morphological variations from becoming an obstacle to communication. The variations between foot and feet in "6 foot tall," "6 feet tall," or between "Mary" and "Mary's" in such phrases as "Mary hat" and "Mary's hat" make no difference in our ability to grasp the meaning. Teachers who recognize that morphological forms vary from dialect to dialect, but that within each dialect the morphology follows a system, will be less likely to challenge a student whose morphology is different on the ground that such variations represent "mistakes."

G. Syntax: Syntax refers to the arrangement of words within an utterance. Syntactic patterns are not the same in all languages (in English, the red dress; in the Chicano dialect of Spanish, el vestido colorado), nor are the syntactic patterns always the same in different dialects of the same language. The syntactic patterns, however, are systematic within each dialect, and seldom interfere with communication between speakers of different dialects within a language. "That girl she pretty" is just as understandable as "That girl is pretty" and "Don't nobody but God know that" is not only
just as clear as "Only God knows," but in some circumstances its meaning is more emphatic.

H. Grammar and Usage: Teachers often think grammar is a matter of choosing between lie and lay, who and whom, everybody/his and everybody/their. Actually these are usage choices, in the same way as deciding whether to say "I done my work" or "I did my work" is a usage choice. Grammar, on the other hand, is a description of the system by which a language conveys meaning beyond the sum of the meanings of the individual words. It includes phonology, morphology, and syntax. The grammar of one American dialect may require "he is" in the third person singular present tense; the grammar of another dialect may require "he be" in that slot. The confusion between usage and grammar grows out of the prescriptive attitude taken by most school handbooks since the 18th Century. Modern linguists see grammar not as prescriptive but as descriptive, and teachers who approach the study of grammar as a fascinating analysis of an intensely important human activity, rather than as a series of do's and don'ts, can often rid their students of the fear and guilt that accompanied their earlier experiences with "grammar." Perhaps such teachers can even help their students to find the study of grammar fun.

I. Semantics: Teachers should know that semantics is the study of how people give meaning to words and the way many of those meanings affect us emotionally rather than rationally. Teachers well grounded in modern semantics can help their students examine their word choices, not from the standpoint of right or wrong, proper or improper, but by analyzing the impact possible choices will have on listeners or readers. In some areas, for instance, some listeners will be turned off by the word "belly," whereas other listeners will find "stomach" affected and feel more comfortable with "gut." Students can be led to see why many newspaper readers could support a "protective reaction strike" but would have been upset by a "bombing attack."

J. Lexicography: Knowing that many words have strong connotative meanings will help teachers regard dictionaries not as authorities but as guides. Knowing that words are only arbitrary symbols for the things they refer to, teachers will realize that dictionaries cannot supply the "real" meaning of any word. Knowing that language changes, they will realize that expressions labeled "non-standard" or "colloquial" by the dictionaries of fifty years ago may be listed without pejorative labels in an up-to-date dictionary. Knowing that pronunciations vary, they will use the pronunciation information in a dictionary as a starting point for class discussion on how most people in the students' own area pronounce that word. In short, teachers will help their students to realize that dictionaries describe practice rather than legislate performance. Dictionaries cannot give rules for using the words of a language; they can only give information about how words have been used.

K. Experience: Teachers need to ratify their book knowledge of language by living as minority speakers. They should be wholly immersed in a dialect group other than their own. Although such an opportunity may be difficult for some to obtain, less definitive experience may be obtained by listening to tapes and records as well as interviewing
sympathetically speakers who use minority dialects. Empathy with the difficulties often faced by such speakers can be appreciated in indirect analogies with other situations which make one an outsider. But the most vivid sense of the students' problem is likely to come from direct experience.

**L. The Role of Change:** The history of language indicates that change is one of its constant conditions and, furthermore, that attempts at regulation and the slowing of change have been unsuccessful. Academies established to regulate language by scholarly authority have little effect on the dynamic processes of language. Moreover, there is little evidence that languages "evolve" in the sense that they become more expressive or more regular; that is, they simply change, but they do not, it seems, become better or worse. Dialect is merely a symptom of change. Paradoxically, past change is considered normal, but current change is viewed by some as degradation. From Chaucer to Shakespeare to Faulkner, the language assuredly changed, and yet no one speaks of the primitive language of Chaucer or the impoverished language of Shakespeare. Few complain that French and Spanish developed from camp-Latin. Literary scholars might dispute endlessly over the absolute merits of neo-classical versus romantic poetry, but no one would argue that literature would be richer if one or the other did not exist. In fact, there are positive esthetic reasons for arguing in favor of diversity. Such is the case with dialects; just as variety in modes of poetic perception enriches literature, so variety in dialects enriches the language for those who are not unreasonably biased in favor of one dialect. Diversity of dialects will not degrade language nor hasten deleterious changes. Common sense tells us that if people want to understand one another, they will do so. Experience tells us that we can understand any dialect of English after a reasonably brief exposure to it. And humanity tells us that we should allow every man the dignity of his own way of talking.

**Language Varieties, Linguistic Profiling, Housing, Civil Rights, and Employability**

English teachers should be concerned with the employability as well as the linguistic performance of their students. Students rightly want marketable skills that will facilitate their entry into the world of work. Unfortunately, many employers have narrowly conceived notions of the relationship between linguistic performance and job competence. Many employers expect a person whom they consider for employment to speak whatever variety of American English the employers speak, or believe they speak. Consequently, many speakers of divergent dialects are denied opportunities that are readily available to other applicants whose dialects more nearly approximate the speech of the employer. But a plumber who can sweat a joint can be forgiven confusion between "set" and "sat." In the same way, it is more important that a computer programmer be fluent in Fortran than in EAE. Many jobs that are normally desirable -- that are viewed as ways of entering the American middle class -- are undoubtedly closed to some speakers of some non-standard dialects, while some of the same jobs are seldom closed to white speakers of non-standard dialects.

Spoken dialect makes little difference in the performance of many jobs, and the failure of employers to hire blacks, Chicanos, or other ethnic minorities is often simply racial or
cultural prejudice. One of the exceptions is the broadcast industry, where most stations at least used to require that almost all newscasters and announcers speak "network standard," but ethnic stations that broadcast "soul" (black), or country, or western, or Chicano programs tend to require the appropriate dialect. A related social bias is implied by certain large companies which advertise for receptionists who speak BBC (British Broadcasting Company) dialect, even though British English is a minority dialect when it is spoken in this country. For them prestige requires the assumption that Americans are still colonials.

The situation concerning spoken dialect and employability is in a state of change; many speakers of minority dialects are now finding opportunities that five or ten years ago would have been closed to them. Specific data is understandably difficult to find, yet it would seem that certain dialects have a considerable effect on employability. Since English teachers have been in large part responsible for the narrow attitudes of today's employers, changing attitudes toward dialect variations does not seem an unreasonable goal, for today's students will be tomorrow's employers. The attitudes that they develop in the English class will often be the criteria they use for choosing their own employees. English teachers who feel they are bound to accommodate the linguistic prejudices of current employers perpetuate a system that is unfair to both students who have job skills and to the employers who need them.

Teachers should stress the difference between the spoken forms of American English and EAE because a clear understanding will enable both teachers and students to focus their attention on essential items. EAE allows much less variety than the spoken forms, and departure from what are considered established norms is less tolerated. The speaker of a minority dialect still will write EAE in formal situations. An employer may have a southern drawl and pronounce "think" like "thank," but he will write think. He may say "y'all" and be considered charming for his quaint southernisms, but he will write you. He may even in a "down home" moment ask, "Now how come th' mail orda d'partment d'nt orda fo' cases steada five?" But he'll write the question in EAE. Therefore it is necessary that we inform those students who are preparing themselves for occupations that demand formal writing that they will be expected to write EAE. But it is one thing to help a student achieve proficiency in a written dialect and another thing to punish him for using variant expressions of that dialect.

Students who want to write EAE will have to learn the forms identified with that dialect as additional options to the forms they already control. We should begin our work in composition with them by making them feel confident that their writing, in whatever dialect, makes sense and is important to us, that we read it and are interested in the ideas and person that the writing reveals. Then students will be in a much stronger position to consider the rhetorical choices that lead to statements written in EAE.

Committee on CCCC Language Statement
Bibliography

This bibliography of 129 entries is keyed to the statements made in the four sections of Students' Right to Their Own Language. It is, therefore, sociolinguistic in intent; that is, language as a vehicle of socio-cultural interaction is its concern. It is designed for the classroom teacher who deals with the uses of language variety and who teaches oral and written composing processes. Pedagogical treatments are balanced against theoretical statements so that immediate needs can be answered from two points of departure and so that further study may be undertaken as desired.

Because it is designed to appeal to a varied audience of teachers with differing interests and preparation, elementary, intermediate, and advanced considerations of the sociolinguistic problems surveyed in the statement itself are included. Items reflect problems spanning child-adult socio-linguistic concerns and the elementary-college educational spectrum. Annotations attempt to identify items for simplicity or complexity and for practical or theoretical concerns.

Though items reflect primarily those sociolinguistic concerns of the 1960's and 1970's, some earlier publications have been included to provide background and/or situational context for understanding the present controversy. Wherever decisions, directions, and concerns of pedagogy and research have not yet been resolved, variant perspectives have been included. Many essay collections have been included (1) to demonstrate the multiplicity of views available and (2) to provide easy access to source materials. Many entries are themselves distinguished by further-study bibliographies. Items known to exist unrevised in several sources are cross-referenced. Necessarily, the bibliography reflects those areas of sociolinguistic research and pedagogy in which the greatest amount of work has been conducted and published.

Understanding Language Varieties


Fishman, Joshua A. Sociolinguistics. Rowley: Newbury House, 1970. Definitions of idiolect, dialect, and language (see Section II) are contained within a larger
sociolinguistic definition which considers such areas as linguistic change, constraints, and repertoire range.


Kochman, Thomas. "Cross-cultural Communication: Contrasting Perspectives, Conflicting Sensibilities," *Florida FL Reporter*, 9 (Fall/Spring, 1971), 3-16, 53-54. Types of interference and communication failure are discussed. These are shown to result from lack of understanding of the ramifications of dialect, i.e., the cultural codes which determine the value to be given to linguistic habit patterns in situational context.

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Language Varieties and Learning

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Emig, Janet. The Composing Processes of Twelfth Graders. Research Report No. 13. Urbana: NCTE, 1971. This report investigates the writing process and attempts "to identify the student's feelings, attitudes, and self-concepts which form the invisible components of the 'composition' which the teacher sees as a product." Especially valuable are Chapter 1 which reviews the literature and Chapter 3 which outlines the mode of analysis.

Friedrich, Richard, and David Kuester. It's Mine and I'll Write It That Way. New York: Random House, 1972. This freshman composition text combines an understanding of the nature of language with a demonstration that almost all students, when they write naturally about things meaningful to them, can learn to write well.

concerns, reading disability problems, and current instructional practices is developed through the statements of seventeen contributors.

Harrison, Myrna. *On Our Own Terms*. Encino: Dickenson, 1972. In this collection of forceful, effective student writing, many of the selections illustrate that having something to say, and saying it well, is not affected by dialect or spelling.


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**Language Varieties and Educational Policy and Practice**

Aarons, Alfred C., Barbara Y. Gordon, and William A. Stewart, eds. *Linguistic-Cultural Differences and American Education.* Special Issue. *Florida FL Reporter, 7* (Spring/Summer, 1969). Multiple viewpoints, classroom projects and research results of forty-three contributors are arranged to focus on the cultural role of the school, on linguistic pluralism, on English teaching, on theory, and on curriculum development in this overview of current concerns.

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Baratz, Joan C. "Should Black Children Learn White Dialect?" *ASHA, 12* (September, 1970) 415-417. Also in Smith (1972). It is argued that "standard English" is not "white dialect' but the *lingua franca* of the "American mainstream" culture to which the Black student has a right. A definition is attempted.
Barth, Carl A. "Kinds of Language Knowledge Required by College Entrance Examinations," *English Journal*, 54 (December, 1965), 824-829. Knowledge of traditional grammar is found not necessary for success on such standardized national tests as the SAT, ACT, College Board Achievement Test. Knowledge of usage and linguistic sensitivity gained through modern language teaching are adequate preparation.

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Standard English and a description of available dialect resources for classroom exploration of the language varieties which the student and the community use.


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Crowell, Michael G. "American Traditions of Language Use: Their Relevance Today" *English Journal,* 59 (January, 1970), 109-115. Nineteenth and twentieth century usage attitudes are considered as they relate to (1) growth and creativity in language and (2) maintenance of the *status quo* and as these attitudes have been affected by the prescriptive-descriptive discussions of usage. Crowell stresses that the maintenance of creativity and *status quo* attitudes encourages a healthy tension in our thinking and discussions of language.

Davis, A. L., ed. *Culture, Class, and Language Variety.* Urbana: NCTE, 1972. Ten articles are offered as a resource-reference for teachers who must plan classroom activities in such areas as grammar, syntax, and nonverbal communication. Included are transcriptions of children's speech (a tape cartridge of that speech accompanies the text).

Davis, Philip W. *Modern Theories of Language.* Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1973. Nine twentieth century theories of language (i.e., the theories of Saussure, Hjelmslev, Bloomfield, the Post-Bloomfieldians, and the Prague School; tagmemics; Firthian linguistics; stratificational grammar; transformational generative grammar) are characterized and discussed for the linguistically knowledgeable reader.

Derrick, Clarence. "Tests of Writing," *English Journal,* 53 (October, 1964), 496-99. This article criticizes the efficiency and reliability of national essay and objective "writing" tests designed for group testing. The essay tests are dismissed as unreliable; the objective tests are consigned to having reliability in producing information about skills
related to writing. Derrick feels the answer to the problem lies in careful classroom testing and evaluating of writing samples.

Dillard, J. L. *Black English: Its History and Usage in the United States*. New York: Random House, 1972. The ramifications of Black English, its historical development, and its cultural validity and the implications of such information for teacher training and classroom practices are explained by the author. (See Chapter VII for his discussion of the harm done Black students by failing them on the basis of dialect.)


Fishman, Joshua A., ed. *Readings in the Sociology of Language*. The Hague: Mouton & Co., 1968. This reader is designed to give a socio-linguistic perspective through forty-five articles which consider language in small-group interaction, in social strata and sectors, through socio-cultural organization, and within the scope of multilingualism, language shift, and planning.


Fries, Charles C. *American English Grammar*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1940. This descriptive grammar which concentrates on uses of word form, uses of function words, and uses of word order draws its data and conclusions from contemporary social discourse (i.e., personal letters). It also considers the role of the school in grammar and language teaching.

classroom by situational rules for effective communication in writing is presented. Rule consistency is illustrated through Black English writing samples.

Goslin, David A. "What's Wrong With Tests and Testing," College Board Review Nos. 65/66 (Fall/Winter, 1967), 12-18, 33-37. These statements discuss the types and uses of tests, influences which scores exert, criticisms of validity, concern for their self-fulfilling prophecy, and the implications for group social structure, membership selection, and society.

Greenbaum, Sidney, and Randolph Quirk. Elicitation Experiments in English. (Miami Linguistics Series No. 10) Coral Gables: University of Miami Press, 1970. This report is a description of linguistic testing methods by which types of socio-linguistic acceptability may be identified and categorized. Differences between attitudes and beliefs about usage and actual usage habits are investigated through elicited items of linguistic behavior.


Gumperz, John J., and Dell Hymes. Directions in Sociolinguistics. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1972. An ethnography of communication is presented through nineteen articles which explain (1) the socio-cultural shaping of ways of speaking, (2) procedures for discovering and stating rules of conversation and address, and (3) origin, persistence, and change of varieties of language.

Hackett, Herbert. "Three Against Testing," College Composition and Communication, 15 (October, 1964), 158-163. This article reviews The Brain Watchers, They Shall Not Pass, and The Tyranny of Testing and finds their authors guilty of the same pretentiousness and carelessness which the authors found in the designers and users of standardized tests. The charges are specific and illustrate those authors' misconceptions by focusing on what such tests can and cannot do. It points out that validity, not reliability, is the problem area in standardized testing.

Hall, Richard. "A Muddle of Models: The Radicalizing of American English," English Journal, 61 (May, 1972), 705-710. The proliferation of models by which to determine one's usage is considered. Such pluralism forces the teacher to consider language options, to teach about the shifts in language values which are occurring, and to aim for greater student consciousness in the making of decisions about usage.

Hartung, Charles V. "Doctrines of English Usage," English Journal, 45 (December, 1956), 517-525. Also in Laird and Gorrell (1961). The four main "propriety of language usage" doctrines (of rules, of general usage, of appropriateness, of linguistic norm) which have influenced our thought are discussed. Hartung concludes that the doctrine
of the linguistic norm with its concern for "maximum expression" would seem suitable for the classroom.


Holt, Grace Sims. "Changing Frames of Reference in Speech Communication Education for Black Students," *Florida FL Reporter*, 9 (Spring/Fall, 1971), 21-22, 52. An argument for the role affect has in Black communication and its importance in linguistic-cultural patterns is presented. Classroom activities for the study of affect are provided.

Huddleston, Rodney D. *The Sentence in Written English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1971. Working within the theoretical framework of transformational grammar, this syntactic study describes the grammar of written scientific English using a limited corpus of 135,000 words. However, "common-core" English grammar concerns are investigated through that corpus.


Jacobson, Rodolpho, ed. *Studies in English to Speakers of Other Languages & Standard English to Speakers of a Non-Standard Dialect*. Monograph No. 14, New York State English Council, 1971. This collection of twenty-four articles argues against the melting-pot theory and for the linguistic-cultural pluralism theory. Many viewpoints are represented as contributors approach the problem through discussion of attitudes toward language varieties, bidialectalism, bilingualism, the "Pygmalion effect," and testing.


James, Carl. "Applied Institutional Linguistics in the Classroom," *English Journal*, 59 (November, 1970), 1096-1105. It is suggested that the classroom study of English be focused on "distinctive features." This format considers language variety through those permanent (dialectal) and transient (diatypic) features by which we identify types of speakers and writers along a usage spectrum.


Kerr, Elizabeth M., and Ralph M. Aderman, eds. *Aspects of American English*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1963. Thirty statements are arranged to allow the reader to consider the developing and changing attitudes toward principles and sociolinguistic aspects of language. Historical, regional, social, and literary aspects are considered.


Kochman, Thomas, ed. *Rappin' and Stylin' Out: Communication in Urban Black America*. Champaign-Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1972. A study of communication in the urban Black situation is presented through the views of twenty-seven contributors. The reader reviews the spectrum of Black communication from
nonverbal to verbal, from expressive uses of language to expressive role behavior, and through vocabulary and culture. Visual and verbal illustrations are abundant.


Labov, William. *Sociolinguistic Patterns.* (Conduct and Communication No. 4) Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1972. Two new statements on contextual style and subjective dimensions of change are added to revisions of earlier statements on social change and motivation in language in this nine-essay collection.

Labov, William. *The Study of Nonstandard English.* Champaign: NCTE, 1970. This statement surveys the theoretical and educational issues surrounding the controversy over nonstandard English. Nonstandard English is considered within the context of the nature of language, sociolinguistic principles, educational implications, and needed in-school research. Space is given to informal and formal approaches to testing for varieties of language in order to determine presence of differences, perceptual competence in varieties, grammatical competence, and speech competence.


Lederman, Marie Jean. "Hip Language and Urban College English," *College Composition and Communication* (20 October, 1969), 204-214. The value of employing, investigating, and defining "hip" language in the classroom is considered and seen as a "matter of human rights" to discuss varieties of language. All views are backed by classroom teaching illustrations.

Lehmann, Winfred P. *Descriptive Linguistics: An Introduction.* New York: Random House, 1972. This survey text presents the data of language through chapters dealing with phonetics, syntax and analysis, inflection and derivation. Also included are explanatory chapters on semantics, language theory, psycho- and sociolinguistics, and applied linguistics.

Liles, Bruce L. *An Introductory Transformational Grammar.* Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1971. This elementary text fuses transformational theory and application
throughout its treatment of phrase structure, transformations, and phonological components.


Long, Ralph B. and Dorothy R. *The System of English Grammar*. Glenview: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1971. The structure of contemporary standard English prose is described and demonstrated in this traditional grammar. It is a "grammar of sets" which explains grammatical functions, clause types, parts of speech, and word formation and is concerned with pedagogical considerations.


McKnight, George. "Conservatism in American Speech," *American Speech*, 1 (October, 1925), 1-17. An illustrated discussion of the history of linguistic conservatism in America to 1925 points out the various influences and groups which have not recognized the positive movements of linguistic change but have attempted to maintain a dichotomy between correctness and natural idiom.

Osenburg, F. C. "Objective Testing, the New Phrenology," *College Composition and Communication*, 12 (May, 1961), 106-111. This review of measurement problems inherent in vocabulary, multiple-choice reading, and English battery tests also touches on some of the ways in which students "learn" to answer test questions without really understanding what they're doing with language.

Pooley, Robert C. *The Teaching of English Usage*. Second Edition. Urbana: NCTE, 1974. Background and facts about usage are balanced against teaching procedures. Problems raised by concern for correctness and propriety are investigated. The requirements of language variety, attitude, and historical developments are considered.


Roberts, Paul. *English Sentences*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1962. Chapters 1 and 2 make a clear distinction between a nongrammatical English sentence (Henry some flowers his mother brought) and a grammatical English sentence (Henry brung his mother some flowers) and discusses the social implications of dialect differences.

Schroth, Evelyn. "Some Usage Forms Die Hard -- Thanks to College Entrance Exams," *English Journal*, 56 (January, 1967), 97-102. This article argues that College Board tests still test as substandard certain usage items which authorities on usage consider to have been accepted within the boundaries of current acceptable usage.


Shuy, Roger, ed. *Social Dialects and Language Learning*. Champaign: NCTE, 1964. Twenty statements by linguists and educators provide an overview of social dialectology, field projects, teaching programs, social factors affecting learning of Standard English and behaviorists reactions, and research implications. Many viewpoints -- sometimes conflicting -- are offered on such problems as acquisition of Standard English, usage problems and attitudes, dialect and multi-dialect behavior, and programs for the English classroom.


Smith, Holly. "Standard or Nonstandard: Is There an Answer?" *Elementary English*, 50 (February, 1973), 225-235. This research report-survey summarizes the controversy of school attitudes toward dialect and acceptability, a controversy which must be faced before staff can react to students' needs.


Williams, Frederick, *et al.* "Ethnic Stereotyping and Judgments of Children's Speech," *Speech Monographs*, 38 (August, 1971), 166-170. Working with the "Pygmalion effect" (attitudes which language characteristics may elicit in listeners), the researchers investigate biases which lead to stereotypes. Implications for teacher training are considered.


Wolfram, Walt. "Sociolinguistic Premises and the Nature of Non-standard Dialects," *Speech Teacher*, 19 (September, 1970), 177-184. Also in Smith (1972). This article is a discussion of sociolinguistic considerations which affect teacher evaluation of speech behavior and teacher attitudes toward nonstandard speech behavior. Verbal options as arbitrary and established by custom, dialect adequacy as a communicative system, and language as learned in community context are considered.

**Language Varieties, Linguistic Profiling, Housing, Civil Rights, and Employability**

Billiard, Charles, Arnold Lazarus, and Raven I. McDavid, Jr. *Identification of Dialect Features Which Affect Both Social and Economic Opportunity among the Urban Disadvantaged*. Final Report. Washington, D.C.: Office of Education, 1969. (EDRS-ED 038 483). The authors undertook a study to determine (1) dialect features associated with three ethnic groups (Anglo, Black, Latin American) and four social classes which were unacceptable to a dominant, urban culture (Fort Wayne, Indiana), (2) social markers which might handicap such speakers socio-economically and culturally, and (3) the implications of this for teacher preparation and classroom teaching. The results offer specific illustrations of code markers which may affect socio-economic mobility.

O'Neil, Wayne. "The Politics of Bidialectalism," *College English*, 33 (January, 1972), 433-39. A linguist considers the underlying ideology of school language programs and argues that they are informed by economic-political requirements. Bidialectalism is viewed as "part of the social and political machinery meant to control."


Sledd, James. "Doublespeak: Dialectology in the Service of Big Brother," *College English*, 33 (January, 1972), 439-57. Also in Smith (1972). A dialectologist discusses the racial and political implications of the controversy over minority dialects, stating that "doublespeak" is used as a political, economic weapon for control.

- Melvin A. Butler, Southern University, Chairman
- Adam Casmier, Forest Park Community College
- Ninfa Flores, Harvard University
- Jenefer Giannasi, Northern Illinois University*
- Myrna Harrison, Laney Community College
- Robert F. Hogan, NCTE, ex officio
- Richard Lloyd-Jones, University of Iowa
- Richard A. Long, Atlanta University
The Conference on College Composition and Communication reaffirms the students’ right to their own language and language varieties. Realizing the continued need to preserve our Nation’s diverse heritage of languages and language varieties, the CCCC reaffirms and upholds its 1974 position statement, “Students’ Right to Their Own Language.” November 23, 2003

Updated Annotated Bibliography

Prepared by the CCCC Language Policy Committee
August, 2006

This annotated bibliography updates the original annotated bibliography that accompanied the Students’ Right to Their Own Language monograph, which was published as a special issue of College Composition and Communication in Fall, 1974. That project was the work of what was then called the “Committee on CCCC Language Statement.” Though most of the members of that committee have now passed on to their reward or are no longer able to be active with CCCC, the field of composition studies has benefited greatly from their pioneering work.

The CCCC language policy resolution, which has come to be known as the “Students’ Right to Their Own Language” (SRTOL), was adopted by members of CCCC at its national convention in Anaheim, California in April 1974. The task of updating the Committee on CCCC Language Statement’s project was assigned to the CCCC Language Policy Committee (LPC) by the CCCC Executive Committee. The LPC completed the current annotated bibliography in August 2006. In executing this task, the LPC sought to follow the guidelines established by its 1970’s predecessors, with the exception that the current bibliographic annotations are not keyed to the questions in the 1974 publication. In compiling this updated bibliography, the LPC solicited feedback from CCCC members, including the American Indian, Asian/Asian American, Black, and Latino Caucuses, the Committee on Second Language Writing, and other CCCC colleagues, as well as NCTE members. The LPC wishes to take this opportunity to thank all of these colleagues for their input. We also thank the CCCC Executive Committee for providing partial funding support for this project.

While the LPC has brought its task to a close, we consider the bibliographic project ongoing work that should open up avenues for dialogue among scholars in composition
studies, linguistics, cultural studies, English education, bilingual education, and related fields. The LPC invites comment and feedback on this bibliography and the mandate of SRTOL. To be sure, the work of our 1970’s CCCC colleagues has borne fruit, insofar as there have been a number of progressive language policies and programs implemented since 1974. Yet acceptance, recognition, and celebration of language diversity on a nation-wide educational level remain elusive. Indeed, present-day congressional and state legislative efforts to make English the sole official language of the U.S., as well as the standardized English only mandate of educational policies such as “No Child Left Behind,” are current reminders that the language struggle continues.

CCCC Language Policy Committee:
Geneva Smitherman, Chair (member of the 1974 Committee on CCCC Language Statement), Michigan State University
Terry Carter, Southern Polytechnic State University
Victoria Cliett, Henry Ford Community College
Kim Brian Lovejoy, Indiana University-Purdue University-Indianapolis
Rashidah Jaami Muhammad, Governors State University
Gail Y. Okawa, Youngstown State University
Elaine Richardson, Pennsylvania State University
C. Jan Swearingen, Texas A&M University
Denise Troutman, Michigan State University
Victor Villanueva, Washington State University
Ana Celia Zentella, University of California-San Diego
Cristina Kirklighter, Texas A & M Corpus-Christi (CCCC Executive Committee Representative)
Libby Miles, University of Rhode Island (CCCC Executive Committee Representative)


This volume is a collection of nine articles addressing language diversity and academic achievement in the education of African American students. The opening chapter provides an overview of language issues and specific recommendations for responding to the crises affecting African Americans in education. The remaining chapters focus on topics in the areas of classroom discourse, the school curriculum, teacher education, language policy, and testing. This volume provides teachers and educational specialists with relevant and useful background information and practical advice within a research context. Included in an appendix is Orlando Taylor’s Congressional testimony delivered at the Senate hearing on Ebonics convened January 23, 1997, during the national Ebonics debates of 1996-97. (The term "Ebonics" was coined by clinical psychologist, Dr. Robert L. Williams, at a conference, "Language and the Urban Child," convened in St. Louis, Missouri, in January, 1973.)

Envisioning a transformation of literacy instruction that utilizes a more inclusive pedagogy, this study of African American students in the composition classroom lays the groundwork for reversing the cycle of underachievement that plagues linguistically diverse students. The authors approach the issue of African American English in terms of teacher knowledge and prevailing attitudes, and they attempt to change current pedagogical approaches with a combination of traditional academic discourse and personal narratives. To empower and inform practitioners, administrators, teacher educators, and researchers, the authors provide knowledge and strategies that will contribute to unleashing the potential of African American students and help them imagine new possibilities for their success as writers. The volume outlines twelve changes teachers can initiate and monitor as they reflect on, analyze, and transform their classroom practices. The authors assert that necessary changes in theory and practice can be addressed by refocusing attention from teachers' knowledge deficits to the processes through which teachers engage information relevant to culturally informed pedagogy. Providing strategies for unlearning racism in the classroom and changing the status quo, this work stresses the development and maintenance of a real sense of “teaching efficacy”—teachers' beliefs in their abilities to connect and work effectively with all students—and “reflective optimism”—teachers' informed expectations that all students have the potential to succeed.


This book addresses one of the most pressing issues facing teacher education in the Twenty First Century—the need to help teachers acquire the attitudes, knowledge, skills and dispositions necessary to work effectively with diverse student populations. The book focuses on the need to prepare teachers for diversity as a global challenge and presents the story of a successful teaching approach that was developed and implemented with over one hundred U.S. and South African teachers. It presents a reconceptualized “model of teacher change” and an approach that develops teachers who are advocates for change across national boarders. Through the rich stories of actual teachers, this book challenges educators to imagine new possibilities for teacher training, program organization, and classroom structures with the aim of reforming our schools into institutions that are capable of offering high quality education to all students.

This collection of sociolinguistic papers explores the languages and language varieties in the Borderlands, an area comprising the U.S. Southwest and Northern Mexico. In addition to surveying the languages and varieties of the region, the volume focuses on the processes of language contact. Organized in five sections, it begins with a survey of past research on Spanish and Native American languages and identifies key research perspectives for the study of languages in the region. It then moves to an examination of language contact between speakers of Native American languages and speakers of English and Spanish, and to reporting research and data on particular features of Southwest Spanish. It ends with chapters that address the implications of bilingualism and language contact for teaching and learning and that deal with the challenges of maintaining individual languages and reversing language loss in some locations.


An important source for educators and policymakers, this text covers general and specific topics related to African American Language (aka “African American English”), such as common misconceptions of AAL, its relevance to education and social policies, cross-cultural communication in social context, linguistic studies of AAL, and, in a final chapter, research trends for AAL, including a survey of linguistic studies of AAL, educational applications and practices, and anthropological studies of AAL culture and community.


This article reports on a study of five secondary public schools in New York City and their teachers’ attitudes toward African American English (AAE) as well as bilingual and bidialectal educational programs. In particular, the study examined the relationship between teachers’ attitudes and language policies, or lack thereof, in the schools. Eighty-eight teachers, representing 10% of the faculty from each school, completed an attitudinal survey. Overall, the study found that teachers were more concerned about issues related to bilingualism than to bidialectalism: 52% of the respondents supported bilingual programs, whereas only 20% supported bidialectal programs. While a clear majority (69%) viewed AAE as a legitimate variety of English, many (72%) did not find AAE appropriate for the classroom or useful in teaching Standard English. Of particular note, however, is the finding that schools' philosophies influenced teachers' disposition toward AAE-speaking students. For example, the school with a large bilingual population had a philosophy which promoted linguistic diversity and its teachers had greater sensitivity to issues of AAE-speaking students. The authors expressed the need for teacher training programs devoted to issues of language diversity and to the needs of both non-native English speakers and students who are nonstandard English speakers.

Tapping the potential of Black learners in the areas of language, writing, reading, and literature is the theme of this collection of articles based on research and experience. Written by Black professionals in education for Black learners and students of Color at all levels, the collection is intended primarily for teachers of English and language arts. It begins with the language of the young child, with essays on oral language, language and dialect, and teacher attitudes; continues with essays on reading and writing, including the kinds of reading and writing that foster active learning before learners enter school; and ends with essays on the literature of Black America. Each section is introduced by a noted authority in the field.


This collection of both new and previously published essays centers on the “Students’ Right to Their Own Language,” which was adopted by CCCC in April, 1974 and published in a special Fall, 1974 issue of *College Composition and Communication*. Organized in four sections, the volume begins with articles characterizing the research climate in the 1960s and early 1970s, setting the scene for the emergence of “Students’ Right.” Section Two features essays representing the varied initial responses to the CCCC adoption of “Students’ Right” as organizational policy. Section III includes articles that challenge practitioners to consider their teaching practices in the context of their beliefs about equality and serving the needs of all students, a persistence that begins to influence and shape new theories of literacy. The final section, containing essays written for this volume, addresses issues in composition studies, such as English Only and teacher preparation, from the perspective of “Students’ Right.” The central theme of this volume is that teachers of writing continue to value and give voice to the social purposes of writing instruction.


The authors discuss the political issue of standardization in written language and suggest that insistence on correctness in spelling, punctuation, and sentence structure, while understandable in some kinds of writing, is often misplaced and damaging, affecting not only students who struggle with the mechanical aspects of writing but also teachers who perpetuate language myths which they believe will ensure their students’ success in society. Insistence on correctness is both regulatory and reductive in that it lessens the desire of many people to use writing to express their views and perpetuates particular forms as markers of prestige. The authors show how the physical aspects of written language are generalized and used as criteria of quality to assess the way in which people speak, leading to judgments about intelligence and moral worth. These technical aspects of writing, they argue, receive far more attention than the communicative aspects (e.g., content, structure, and style). Writing serves many
functions, and the role of context, purpose, and social identities and relations dictates the extent to which adherence to conventions is needed.


The author expands the context of literacy instruction for African American English (AAE) and Creole-based English speakers by showing the influence of oral language paradigms and practices in the writing of English as a Second Dialect (ESD) students. Using samples from the writing of AAE students, the author examines various oral/aural influences as well as “by-strings” and “topic-comment” sentence structures, which the author believes may be motivated by the students’ attempts to adjust their language to the style of academic writing. The author then analyzes two essays (a personal narrative and an expository piece) written by an African American student in a developmental writing class to illustrate the tension between speech and writing, the student’s own awareness of genre (e.g., the AAE features in narrative-based writing that enable the writer to achieve voice and ownership, while at the same time knowing these features may not be deemed acceptable in academic writing), and the student’s struggle to communicate rich meanings and maintain voice in the process of acquiring academic language. The author concludes with pedagogical suggestions related to grammar instruction.


This volume explores the connections between language, race, identity, and school success in thirteen essays that delve into how speakers of "nonstandard" English—mostly varieties of African American Language, or Ebonics—view themselves. In addition, the volume looks at how schools have often perpetuated educational inequities through narrow conceptions of language, and how educators can bring justice to schools by valuing students' language and identity. “Part One” of the volume deals explicitly with language and identity. In it, Joanne Kilgour Dowdy and Ernie Smith document how one’s dialect leads peers, teachers, and others to make negative assumptions about one’s academic abilities. “Part Two” explores language in the classroom. Delpit’s "No Kinda Sense" offers a parental and pedagogical perspective on code switching and illuminates what schools can do to embrace culture and illustrates how the resulting acceptance helps students to move into new realms of language. “Part Three” examines teacher knowledge as it relates to the intersection of teaching, learning, language, and identity. Herb Kohl and Shuaib Meacham’s concluding chapters examine teacher talk, exploring how language influences teaching and learning in the classroom.

This collection is one of the first research-based examinations of secondary bilingual and English As a Second Language (ESL) education, focusing on three major areas of secondary schooling—the students, the curricula, and the programs. Its purpose is to bring together new research on adolescents, bilingual education, and ESL as a foundation for future studies that investigate secondary school issues. In addition to recognizing the increased numbers of language minority students in our secondary schools, this volume advocates new ways of educating that incorporate language minority perspectives for the benefit of all students.


Based primarily on data collected from adolescent and young adult native speakers in Los Angeles, this book is a comprehensive sociolinguistic study of language and language change in Latino/a communities. It provides the basics of Chicano English (CE) structure (phonology, syntax, and semantics) and its connection to the social and cultural identity of its speakers, along with detailed analyses of particular sociolinguistic variables. Emphasis is given to the historical, social, and linguistic contexts of CE. In addition, the differences between native and non-native CE speakers are covered. A final chapter discusses the future of research on CE.


This largely autobiographical work, focusing on language education and sociolinguistics, tells the story of how an African American Language speaker in an urban public school system acquires competence in Standard English. Alternating chapters address issues of language learning and pedagogy in order to shed light on ways of improving the education of African American students and other minorities as they learn to develop their abilities to communicate in mainstream settings. The author responds to different proposals for dealing with language diversity (eradication, linguistic pluralism, and bidialectalism) and asserts that language pedagogy is successful when it teaches mastery of Standard English while valuing and preserving the identities, experiences and cultures of language minority students.


In this collection of eleven essays, the author draws on his personal and practical experiences, as well as scholarship, to reflect on major themes in language and education. Two essays deal with the confluences of language and politics, three essays address language motifs in African American literature, and the remaining six essays cover such topics as the linguistic features of African American and Afro-Caribbean varieties of English, education and democracy, process pedagogy, and a response to *The Bell Curve*. In a final chapter, the author extends the narrative in *Voices of the Self* by giving an autobiographical account of the experiences that shaped his beliefs about
teaching. Gilyard combines his scholarly expertise and his own experiences to develop a significant contribution to the African American intellectual tradition.


This collection of thirty-nine essays on teaching about dialect combines research with pedagogy and practices suitable for classroom situations ranging from middle school to graduate school. The essays are organized under seven major headings: General; Regional Variation; Ethnic and Social Variation; Sex, Gender, and Language Variation; Variation in Historical Contexts; Standard Language and Questions of Usage; and Language Variation and Composition. This Centennial Publication of the American Dialect Society offers a wealth of practical information about language variation and the importance of this topic for an understanding of human communication.


This collection of essays examines the issues and myths surrounding the Official English movement (aka “English Only”) in the United States and demonstrates its negative impact on language minorities in schools and society. Written for educators, administrators, ESL specialists, and scholars, the collection begins with updates on our changing demographics, on English Only in California, and on the history of bilingual education in the United States. Subsequent essays show the disconnect between research and politics in the education of language minority children and adult ESL learners. A concluding group of essays discusses the social value of linguistic difference and the importance of language awareness in teacher training and in the writing classroom. In an Afterword, Victor Villanueva summarizes what readers can learn from this volume.


This collection of essays covers various theoretical, historical and political aspects of the Official English movement and deals with broad issues of social justice and the relationship between language and ideology. The essays unpack the ideologies and hidden agendas associated with the Official English movement and encourage similar critical examination of positions advocated by supporters of linguistic diversity and language rights. An Afterword by Thomas Ricento identifies and comments on the major themes presented in this volume.

Green, Lisa J. *African American English: A Linguistic Introduction*. Cambridge:
Written by a native speaker of African American English (AAE), this introductory textbook is the first to employ syntactic theory to examine the structure of AAE. Eight chapters deal with topics centering on linguistic and social issues. The author provides a linguistic description of AAE and describes patterns in the sentence structure, sound system, word formation, and word use in AAE, including chapters on speech events and rules of interaction, AAE in literature and in the media, and education. A final chapter provides a useful discussion of ideas for developing activities and strategies for teaching mainstream English proficiency. The author takes the view that AAE is a linguistic system different from classroom English and other varieties of English although it shares features with them. Each chapter ends with a summary and exercises.


This volume addresses issues related to the phenomenon of language loss and the ways in which communities respond to it across the globe. Thirteen essays are organized in four parts: (1) General issues, (2) Language-community responses, (3) What is lost: language diversity, and (4) Mechanisms of language loss. Various key points emerge in this research such as the need for more empirical data on language use and vitality; for theoretical models that can predict language loss or endangerment on a global level; for a better understanding of the kinds of situations that facilitate or hinder language use; and for understanding the effects of language loss on speech communities. Of particular note in this volume are discussions of the role of the linguistic profession in language preservation efforts and of arguments for safeguarding language diversity.


This collection of essays, delivered at a 1991 symposium of the Linguistic Society of America, treats various aspects of language endangerment with examples from North and Central America, and highlights the reality of language loss and decline and the response to this crisis by the communities most affected. It begins with an essay that provides a bleak assessment of the language situation on a global scale. Other essays detail the energetic responses of endangered language communities as well as the efforts of governments and institutions to preserve languages and cultures. A final essay discusses the human value of linguistic diversity in the contexts of linguistic science, culture and art.

Intended as a reference for individuals and communities interested in the revitalization of endangered languages, this resource focuses primarily on indigenous languages of North America and aims to represent the principles and methods of language revitalization as well as to describe actual revitalization programs. Various approaches to revitalization are discussed: school-based programs, after-school and summer programs, adult language programs, materials development, and home-based programs. This volume reflects the efforts of a growing movement of indigenous peoples to save their languages from extinction and to reverse language shift. Chapters include tables, charts, notes, and references, and cover various aspects of language revitalization, such as language policy and planning, immersion, literacy, media and technology, and training.


This book is a collection of essays dealing with various aspects of California Indian languages and written in an easily readable style by a linguist who has worked extensively with Native Americans in California on language preservation projects. The author includes autobiographical details about her early studies of ethnomusicology leading eventually to her interest in language and a linguistic study of Havasupai songs. Focusing on the Native languages of California, the author includes essays on song, storytelling, men’s and women’s languages, counting systems, language history, vocabulary and grammar, and the ways prejudice and oppression relate to language decline. The author conveys “a sense of urgency about the impending loss of our great linguistic treasure.” The book highlights how much we learn from Native languages, as they represent different ways of understanding the world and different kinds of knowledge and cultural practices. Also included are black-and-white photographs, an index and a bibliography.


This collection of research articles deals with issues of educational reform and describes the multiple local languages of North, South, and Meso-America, providing detailed, ethnographic, and linguistic knowledge of local literacies and practices and their implications for national policy in a number of countries. The collection examines languages and writing systems, invented local literacies, and vernacular literacies in the context of national programs for education and literacy and the theories of nationalism on which they are based. The authors share the view that the development of indigenous literacies not only enriches indigenous cultures and empowers speakers but also enables otherwise marginalized people to contribute to global society.

Jackson, Austin, and Geneva Smitherman. “‘Black people tend to talk eubonics’: Race and Curricular Diversity in Higher Education,” *Strategies for Teaching First-
The authors discuss the issues and criticism faced by teaching assistants of Color in historically non-Black colleges and universities, specifically in general education and required courses like first-year composition where diversity content is an integral part of the curriculum. The authors give examples of different strategies employed by teaching assistants in addressing such issues.


This collection of reprinted articles and essays, many classic and some recent, is intended to diversify perspectives offered in communication research by exploring African American communication and identities and expanding knowledge of human interactions. Organized in six parts, each with an overview by the editor, the volume begins with theoretical and rhetorical approaches to African American communication and identities and then features articles examining broader contexts, such as relational, gendered, organizational, instructional, and media studies. Each article is followed by five discussion questions.


The author revisits the historical significance of the Students’ Right resolution and focuses attention on its pedagogical implications for the composition classroom. She demonstrates an approach to linguistic diversity that centers on adopting an “interpretive attitude” and engaging in meaningful exchanges with students about linguistic varieties and multiple ways of knowing as evidenced by the literacies of students. The author describes three classroom vignettes in which teacher and students engage in critical discussions of key points in Students’ Right and other selected readings. These vignettes exemplify an engaged pedagogy that centers on “a rhetoric of rights.” In addition, the author enumerates various strategies that teachers can use to invite language varieties into composition classrooms, to affirm the competencies students bring to the classroom, and to extend their critical thinking and literacy skills.


This collection of conference papers presented at the University of Georgia in 1998 features the work of scholars from various disciplines interested in language use in the African American community. Written for researchers, teachers, and students, it begins with an essay that addresses a central question, “What is African American English?” and then examines AAE in the context of other varieties such as Southern Vernacular English and English-based Creoles. The overview of historical aspects of AAE provides
a context for a discussion of its various uses within the African American community and for the application of knowledge about AAE to educational issues. A final chapter provides a critical overview of and identifies future directions for research.


The author examines linguistic facts about the structure and function of language, explores commonly held myths about language, and develops a model of “the language subordination process.” Then, using a case-study approach, she applies the model to specific institutional practices (e.g., in education, news media, business) to show how false assumptions about language lead to language subordination. The author analyzes specific groups and individuals (speakers of African American English, Southern U.S. English, and the foreign-language accent of Latinos and Asian-Americans) and discusses why and how some embrace linguistic assimilation while others resist it.


This journal issue features a series of essays on the status and role of indigenous languages in the U.S. and Latin America with special attention to the ideological and sociological influences that have contributed to the use of indigenous languages. Offering perspectives from academics and local speakers, the issue includes language autobiographies written by native speakers of indigenous languages as well as research-based investigations by linguists, anthropologists, and educators. Part I focuses on the language situation in the U.S., Part II covers indigenous languages, education, and policy in Mexico, and both parts include detailed analyses of language groups and communities at different stages of language shift and revitalization. Part III includes two book reviews (*Stabilizing Indigenous Languages and Flutes of Fire*) that offer “realistic appraisals of the current state of indigenous languages in the Americas.”


This dictionary of African American words, phrases, and expressions represents African American speakers throughout the U.S. from as early as the 1620s to the 1990s. Based on an extensive bibliography of spoken and printed sources, as well as the personal knowledge of the compiler, each entry includes the date when the word or phrase was popular, a sentence indicating the way the word or phrase was used, the definition, an example of usage (when necessary), and the area(s) of the country where the word or phrase was most frequently used. The dictionary includes four areas of African American slang: early southern rural slang from the time of enslavement, the slang of the "sinner-man/black musician"(1900-1960), street culture slang, and working class slang.

This article is a discussion of the authors’ belief that racial discrimination in housing markets occurs without personal contact between agent and renters. To test the hypothesis that Americans can detect race on the basis of speech patterns, thus offering rental agents an opportunity to discriminate over the phone, the authors conducted an audit study in Philadelphia comparing male and female speakers of “White Middle-Class English,” “Black Accented English,” and “Black English Vernacular.” The results showed significant racial discrimination, especially targeting poor Black women.


This work focuses on cultural beliefs and practices as well as linguistic and historical information related to African American experiences in the United States. Based on data collected through fieldwork, interviews and research with African American women, youth, and families over a fifteen-year period in four major U.S. cities, it analyzes the attitudes, norms, changes, and developments of language and verbal style in society. Organized in six chapters, each beginning with an analysis of field notes, the book describes the development of the urban speech community, discussing concepts such as social face and double consciousness, and explores African American communicative practices. Chapters also cover African American women’s speech across generations and the language of urban youth connected with Hip Hop Culture. The work concludes with a discussion of educational policy and planning, the influence of African American scholarship on reading and writing instruction, and court cases affecting the education of African Americans.


This survey of linguistic research responds to the need for a comprehensive textbook and reference on African American English (AAE). Written by linguists in the field, it includes essays on the linguistic features of AAE (grammar, phonology, and lexicon), its history and uses, as well as its relevance to educational issues and public debates about language varieties. Linguists and teachers will find particularly useful the essays that distinguish AAE from other varieties of English and that provide substantive analyses of the systemic nature of AAE. Special attention is given to topics that have received sparse coverage in the literature, namely, AAE’s phonology, lexicon, and pragmatics. In addition to updating knowledge in the field, this textbook raises new questions and experiments with new approaches. The editors make explicit that all varieties of English are relevant to the development of theories of English.

This volume brings together a multiplicity of voices, both theoretical and practical, on the complex politics, challenges, and strategies of educating students, in North America and worldwide, who are speakers of diverse varieties of English, Creoles and hybrid varieties of English. The number of such students is increasing as a result of the spread of English, internal and global migration and increased educational access. The book offers a sociohistorical perspective on language spread and variation; analysis of related issues such as language attitudes, identities, and prescribed versus actual language use; and practical suggestions for pedagogy. Pedagogical features include key points at the beginning of each chapter to help focus the reader and provide a framework for reading, writing, reflection, and discussion. Chapter-end questions for discussion and reflective writing engage and challenge the ideas presented and encourage a range of approaches to language diversity. Collectively, the chapters in this volume invite educators, researchers and students, across the fields of TESOL, applied linguistics, sociolinguistics, English, literacy studies, and language education, to begin to consider and adopt context-specific policies and practices that will improve the language development and academic performance of linguistically diverse students.


This qualitative study of four anglophone Caribbean students at a New York City college offers an in-depth examination of the students' written and spoken language and the challenges faced by both students and teachers as such students acquire academic literacy. Case studies of the four participants include excerpts from tape-recorded interviews, which reflect their linguistic self-perception, and sociolinguistic and educational experiences in their home countries and in New York City. Samples of their college writing over four semesters are represented and analyzed on morphosyntactic and discourse levels to determine the patterns that emerge when Creole English speakers attempt to write Standard Written English. Related issues such as language and identity, language attitudes, and educational responses to ethnolinguistic diversity are also discussed.


This book offers a synthesis of research findings, from different disciplinary perspectives, on various aspects of Chicano/a bilingualism. A primary emphasis is a description and interpretation of Chicano/a English from a sociolinguistic perspective. Presupposing no expertise in linguistics or the social sciences on the part of readers, the author describes the historical relations between the English and Spanish languages and their speakers, the nature and extent of bilingualism among Chicanos, language interference versus language mixture, private versus public domains of language use, language attitudes, and social and linguistic change.

Drawing on a myriad of popular and scholarly sources, including colonial documents from Hong Kong, India, and Malaysia, the author argues for an understanding of English in the context of colonialism, examining in particular “the cultural legacies of colonialism” and European/Western images of the “Self” and “Other.” The author views English language teaching (ELT) as the product of colonialism and shows the cultural effects of colonialism on the theories and practices of ELT, a connection and influence the author claims is rarely discussed in applied linguistics and TESOL. Chapters deal with educational policy in India and Hong Kong; with the construction of the Self, the colonizers, and their language and culture; and with the construction of the Other, focusing on Chinese culture. The practice of colonialism affected both the colonial and colonized nations, and its effects are still evident today. The author concludes that postcolonial writing, in many forms, needs to offer counterdiscursive arguments and alternative representations.


Following the controversy over the Oakland Ebonics Resolution, this collection brings together various articles about the history and role of Ebonics in the education of African American children. Contributors offer perspectives on the nature and development of African American Language and ideas for pedagogy and classroom practice.


This edited volume of articles written by leaders in the field of heritage language education synthesizes current knowledge of heritage language learners and their educational needs, identifies new areas for research and pedagogy, and describes the challenges that arise in a growing, multilingual society. Organized in five parts, the volume begins with chapters on defining the term heritage language and recognizing levels of language proficiency, both of which have implications for programs and policies. A primary focus of the collection concerns the issues and obstacles that educators face in implementing heritage language education programs. Subsequent chapters deal with the past experiences of heritage language communities in the U.S., government policies affecting language preservation efforts, professional opportunities for proficient heritage language speakers, and issues facing heritage language educators in community-based schools, K-12 programs, and colleges and universities. Two final chapters place the subject of heritage language education in the larger social context, examining the attitudes of Americans toward languages other than English and advocating the need for informed views of language.

The author explores the dominance of English as a world language and the role of language pedagogy in that process. Focusing on the British experience of English Language Teaching (ELT), the author draws on theories in the social sciences and humanities to investigate the role of English in Third World countries, the interests being served in the spread of English, and the extent to which this language phenomenon helps to perpetuate global inequalities and exploitation. Analysis of various data sources (written material, interviews and firsthand experience) reveals the links between ELT and imperialism and shows that ELT’s professionalism was “monolingual and anglocentric, and tended to ignore the wider context of its operations.”


This research article describes four experiments dealing with discrimination based on speech. Three broad dialects are featured in the study—African American English, Chicano/a English, and Standard American English. The study provides hard data to show that housing discrimination based on telephone conversations exists and that dialect can sometimes be identified by a single utterance. One experiment involved telephone surveys in which standard and non-standard dialect speakers requested housing by contacting the same landlord over a short period of time. The results showed that landlords discriminate against prospective tenants based on their voice in telephone conversations. Another experiment focused on the listener’s ability to accurately identify dialects. The results revealed that listeners react to phonetic variables and are able to make such identifications with a high degree of accuracy.


This collection of articles and historical documents concerns the Ebonics debates following the Oakland, California School Board controversy. Intended for teachers, administrators, students, and anyone working with Ebonics speakers in public schools, it is organized in two parts. Part I includes six scholarly articles that treat key issues and ideas emanating from the Ebonics debates, including discussions of the history of Ebonics, the abundance of scholarly literature associated with it, the educational implications of Ebonics, and the practical approaches to linguistic diversity in school curricula. Part II provides a rich context for the discussion in Part I by featuring documents such as the Oakland School Board’s 1996 Ebonics Resolution and other related materials, legislative reactions to the resolution, various responses by linguists, and policy statements of professional organizations. Also included is a listing of scholarly readings and news articles (1996-2003), the latter available online in the News Archives of the Language Policy Research Unit.

Like other titles in the NCTE “Teacher's Introduction Series,” this book aims to provide teachers with accessible, straightforward (yet not exhaustive or oversimplified) information on African American English (AAE) for teachers' personal benefits in learning and teaching. As conveyed in the title, this volume pertains to the teaching of writing, particularly for speakers of AAE. The authors rationalize that writing teachers “need to understand not only what AAE is, but also what role it may play in students' mastery of Standard Written English (SWE).” In core chapters, the authors compile content from leading scholars, representing varied theoretical and pedagogical approaches, on four questions: (1) What is AAE and how did it develop? (2) What are the distinctive features of AAE? (3) Does AAE affect students’ ability to write SWE? (4) How can AAE speakers become effective SWE writers? A brief concluding chapter challenges writing teachers to build upon the language competence that AAE speakers bring into composition settings, adding to a pre-existing repertoire of language usage. Importantly, the authors note the necessity of expanding the composition curriculum in order to incorporate AAE speakers' use of a rich, oral tradition of communication strategies, allowing a space and place for invested writing.


This volume features fourteen articles written by Latino/a scholars and acclaimed classroom teachers about the theories, strategies, and practices that contribute to the literacy development of Latino/a students, offering unique insiders' perspectives on the cultural and linguistic strengths such students bring to school. It begins with an examination of the social, political, and theoretical contexts of literacy, and then focuses on Latino/a students' use of biliteracy and hybridity in their literacy development and on various nontraditional approaches to teaching middle school and high school students. The authors provide rich ethnographic data to show that nurturing ethnic and cultural identities is the most effective pedagogy for critical literacy and success in educational settings.


Drawing on theories of rhetoric and composition and on her own literacy experiences in a predominantly White educational system, the author traces the development of her understanding of African American Language, history and culture—the “treasure” she is compelled to share in this book that builds a case for an African American-centered composition curriculum. The author explores African American English (AAE) through rhetorical and discourse analyses of literature and folklore, and focuses as well on the contributions of women to African American literacies. In addition, using both qualitative and quantitative methodologies, the author reports on the effects of an African American
composition curriculum on the student-participants’ writing development, showing how knowledge about the language and literacy of African Americans in the teaching of academic writing can improve the literacy experiences of college students. Also included is a discussion of the kinds of problems and issues one may encounter in undertaking such a project.


This book reports on a case study conducted in an inner-city middle school classroom over a two-year period, which addresses the problems of reading and literacy, specifically narrative comprehension, among students of Color, with particular attention to African American students. Using both qualitative and quantitative research methods, the author shows the benefits of using literary works that connect with the students’ cultural-ethnic identity, higher-order comprehension questions, and a narrative map as a technique for analyzing short stories. The results show that such modifications lead to increased motivation and improved critical analysis and appreciation of narrative texts.


Written by an academic and a journalist, this book explores the “vibrancy and vitality of Spoken Soul as an expressive instrument in American literature, religion, entertainment and everyday life.” The authors write about African American English as a symbol of identity and an essential part of African American life and culture. In addition to exploring the uses of “Spoken Soul” by writers, preachers, comedians, actors, singers and rappers, the authors describe the vocabulary, grammar and history of Black Language for a broad audience, as well as the treatment of that language in education and the media. The authors maintain that while Standard English should be the goal of education, attention to “Spoken Soul” as an authentic, personal language should never be lost.


This collection of research-based articles demonstrates that the extinction of languages is a process that occurs all over the world. The articles provide descriptions of situations involving endangered languages in such areas as Africa, South America, Mexico, Southeast Asia, Australia, the USSR, and the United States. Its purpose is to raise awareness of the magnitude of the problem and to garner support from Unesco, governments, linguists, and linguistic organizations for language management. Stephen A Wurm, in his introductory remarks, calls for “raising speakers’ self-esteem and regard for their own language as a means of self-identification” as one strategy to preserve languages threatened with extinction. Data on endangered languages are displayed in numerous tables throughout the volume.

This study reports the results of three studies showing the impact of nonlanguage factors on undergraduates’ reactions to nonnative English-speaking teaching assistants (NNSTAs). Study 1, which attempted to discern the effects of instructor ethnicity when the instructor’s actual speech was that of a proficient speaker of Standard American English, showed that undergraduates attributed accent differences to instructors’ speech even when those differences did not exist and, moreover, showed impaired listening comprehension when the instructor was visually identified as Asian. Study 2 attempted to determine factors that predict undergraduate ratings and comprehension of NNSTA speech. Undergraduates’ perceptions of accent negatively affected their teacher evaluations, but when they believed their instructor’s attitudes to be similar to their own, teacher evaluations were higher. The best predictor of comprehension was the number of NNSTA-taught classes students had attended. Study 3, a pilot program in which undergraduates acted as teaching coaches for NNSTAs, showed no effect on undergraduate attitudes. The findings of these studies suggest that programs attempting to change undergraduates’ attitudes are as important as skills training of NNSTAs and that such programs must provide a rich, interactive environment.


The chapters in this book address language attitudes from a variety of perspectives, focusing primarily on social psychology and sociolinguistics, and including wide coverage of the literature on language attitudes. In the opening chapter, the authors provide an organizational framework for understanding diverse language attitude studies. They posit two critical attributes of language varieties that determine how these varieties are viewed within a speech community or social group (standardization and vitality, the latter being the degree to which a variety is used for one or more functions), along with a description of three measurement techniques and two evaluative dimensions (social status and group solidarity). Succeeding chapters focus on language attitudes toward and policies for English, French and Spanish; gender-related speech; lexical variation; the development of language attitudes among children in majority and minority groups; and the role of language attitudes in various applied settings (educational, legal, medical, occupational). Final chapters provide theoretical perspectives on language attitude research. Of particular note is a chapter addressing the social and political forces in the United States that operate to establish and maintain the use of standard language within society.

Severino, Carol, Juan C. Guerra, and Johnnella E. Butler, eds. Writing in Multicultural Settings: Research and Scholarship in Composition. NY: MLA, 1997.
This collection of twenty essays and four responses (“cross-talks”) offers theoretical and practical insights into the teaching of writing in multicultural college classrooms, with particular attention to the issues and cultural tensions that arise. The contributors, representing varied experiences in classroom teaching and in writing centers in both private and public institutions, share descriptions of teaching in multicultural settings, dealing with issues of race, class, ethnicities, gender, religion, age, and physical disability.


An excellent resource for the general reader about the linguistic diversity of the Americas, this book introduces the indigenous languages of the Americas and the diversity of cultures and languages that existed before European contact. Chapters cover topics such as the shared structural features of Indian languages, the uses of languages within communities and across cultures, analyses of various performance rituals, the linguistics of speech styles, forms of nonverbal communication, writing systems, and the effects of language contact. The authors draw extensively on data collected in the Western United States and Mexico. Each chapter ends with a list of sources and suggested readings.


This collection offers theoretical and experience-based papers on language and human rights. The papers make a case for the importance of articulating the role of language in discussions of human rights. The collection attempts to define Linguistic Human Rights from a multidisciplinary perspective. Part I clarifies a number of conceptual issues related to Linguistic Human Rights, Part II includes country studies of language rights (e.g., the United States, the Soviet Union and Estonia, New Zealand, Australia), and Part III deals with post-colonial dilemmas and struggles. An appendix includes extracts from selected UN and regional documents covering linguistic human rights, including proposals for and resolutions on language rights.


This seminal work in linguistics provides a comprehensive survey of Black Language. Smitherman’s scholarship discusses the historical origins of the language, including the influence of West African languages, the influence of enslavement and the slave trade, and the cultural aspects of Black Language through the discussion of such verbal modes as “signifyin,” a metaphorical practice common in African American Language. Written in a style that alternates between Black Language and Standard Written Language, the book provides a detailed analysis of AAL’s grammar and pronunciation and highlights the politics of AAL in the classroom. Smitherman dismantles the

This collection of essays and commentaries on African American Language and Culture records the author's long history in the fight for language rights. The articles focus on the language, education and culture of African Americans and other marginalized groups. Included is the author’s autobiographical narrative "From Ghetto Lady to Critical Linguist" as well as research-based articles on Ebonics and language theory, the education of African Americans, language and culture, language policy and politics, and columns written for various magazines reflecting a range of styles.


This collection of essays written by members of the Language Policy Committee of the Conference on College Composition and Communication (CCCC) addresses the issues inherent in teaching students from linguistically diverse backgrounds. Beginning with a historical overview of language policies in CCCC, the collection highlights the findings of a national language survey of language awareness among high school and college English teachers, examines the influence of World Englishes on Standard English, and offers teachers and teacher educators practical ideas and strategies for inviting language diversity into the classroom. Also included is a partially annotated bibliography of research on language diversity.


Smitherman's latest work, occasionally written with flashes of her Black writing style, offers a definitive statement on what Smitherman now labels "African American Language (AAL)." The book provides an overview of past debates on the speech of African Americans and a vision for the future. She explores the contributions of AAL to mainstream American English and includes a list of idioms and expressions as a suggested linguistic core of AAL. Also discussed are the "three N-words," AAL verbal traditions (e.g., signifyin) and the role of language in Black education. Her message is that all Americans, regardless of race or cultural background, must appreciate the linguistic conventions and richness of AAL if they are to participate in society as informed citizens. As global manifestations of AAL increase, Smitherman argues that, through education, we must broaden our conception of AAL and its speakers, and examine the implications of gender, age and class on AAL. Most of all, she argues, we must appreciate the artistic and linguistic genius of AAL, presented in this work through Hip Hop song lyrics and what she calls the "rhyme and rhetoric" of the Black speech community.

This book is a “naturalistic observation” study of Appalachian-born women in eastern Kentucky, all first-generation college graduates, and their uses of literacy in the workplace, home, and community after college. The author conducts interviews with eight women and selects three to serve as case-study participants, observing them in their workplaces and homes and interviewing them and their family members. The findings show the fears and struggles these marginalized women had to overcome as they sought a better life through learning. The author validates these women’s voices—their language, identity, and power—and discusses the implications of her findings for teachers, researchers and colleges working with non-traditional students. The study demonstrates the value of learning and the importance of respecting the home dialect and ways of knowing of these nontraditional women, the uses of speaking and writing to reach a fuller awareness of their identity, and the power they gain over their lives by contributing to their families, their workplaces, and their communities.


This collection aims to provide readers interested in racism and oppression with “an emancipation-oriented treatment of race/racism as illuminated by the concept of ideology.” Spears’ introductory chapter on race and ideology offers an historical overview of oppression and argues for the necessity of a unifying framework for understanding connections and contradictions. Nine chapters deal with racism in discourse as well as in policies, images, institutions, and popular culture. Among the topics included are teaching “minorities” about language and culture, the native language as a medium of instruction, language and labor in Papua New Guinea, racism in professional settings, and various analyses of facets of popular culture.


This autobiographical narrative details the life of an academic of Puerto Rican descent, as it explores issues of language, identity and power in American society and in our educational system. Written in a unique style that infuses new life, perspectives and knowledge into academic writing, it is both a story told from the heart and mind of a Latino growing up in poverty in New York City and an engaging theoretical and political discussion of racism and hegemony in America, the “systemic forces at play” that keep People of Color who are not immigrants from assimilating. The author draws on the works of Gramsci, Freire, Jameson, and others, as he articulates the problems in society and expresses optimism for change in America through language and education.

This ethnographic study examines the ways in which children in a particular community in the vicinity of New Orleans acquire language competence and take on the values of their families and community through the use of language. The author provides a rich context that includes an examination of the family’s “life space,” the child’s routine activities and interactions, the mother as “teacher,” the means of controlling children, and the communication of affection and aggression. Drawing on data from interviews, observations and tape-recordings in the homes of seven Black families, the author concludes that the socialization of children in the community is different from that of middle-class America, resulting in incongruities between teacher/school expectations and the language and social behavior of the children. The author advises educators to take into account the home experiences and language learning processes of culturally diverse learners.


Wible recovers an essential history on writing pedagogy that embraced the charge of the “Students’ Right to Their Own Language” policy. Specifically he recovers the history of the Language Curriculum Research Group (LCRG), a group of compositionists and educators that integrated African American English (AAE) into the composition classroom as well as implementing innovative teacher education and student research practices. The LCRG project helped teachers of composition and students speaking AAE to successfully collaborate in building theoretical bridges between Standard English (SE) and AAE. The research of the LCRG dispels inaccurate and misleading notions that the “Students Right to Their Own Language” is not useful to composition pedagogy and, in fact, launched successful models of student instruction and teacher training that would have been invaluable to composition teachers dealing with language diversity in the classroom. Wible’s historical survey reveals how the “Back to Basics” educational movement, which advocated conservative, dominant culture views on the teaching of writing, fostered a hostile reception to the work of the LCRG, effectively preventing publication of the research and pedagogical models, consequently depriving the community of composition teachers of invaluable research on AAE.


This book addresses dialect and communicative differences in American English and the major issues and concerns that confront educational practitioners and teacher educators about dialect variation. The authors cover such topics as language variation, communicative interaction, oral language instruction, dialects and written language, language variation and reading, and dialect awareness for students; included in an appendix is a selective inventory of vernacular structures. This book is an easily
readable and informative resource to help practitioners to recognize, support and extend students’ language abilities. Though the book is based in empirical research, the authors write for readers with no previous background in linguistics and sociolinguistics, providing references for further reading after each chapter.


Using empirical data collected from an enclave dialect situation in Hyde County, one of the oldest European American and African American communities in North Carolina, the authors analyze an array of phonological and grammatical dialect features and address some of the major issues related to the historical and contemporary development of African American English (AAE). They demonstrate that no single factor can account for the construction of “vernacular norms.” Rather, there are linguistic, demographic, sociohistorical, sociopsychological, and ideological factors involved. The authors conclude that “the development of AAVE into an ethnolinguistically distinct variety with a transregional base is one of the strongest arguments for the robustness of vernacular language norming.”


The author explores the languages and lives of five Puerto Rican families with children between the ages of six and eleven and then again in their adult years, ages nineteen to twenty-five, all living in an impoverished New York community between 1979 and 1993. Focusing on the relationship between bilingualism and community identity, the author analyzes the varieties of Spanish and English spoken by these New York Puerto Ricans, the values associated with each language, and the process of becoming bilingual. The method of analysis combines qualitative ethnography with quantitative methods of sociolinguistics.


This book offers a new perspective on language socialization in Latino/a families. Tackling mainstream views of childhood and the role and nature of language socialization, researchers and teacher trainers provide a historical, political and cultural context for the language attitudes and socialization practices that help determine what and how Latino/a children speak, read and write. Representing a radical departure from the ways in which most educators have been taught to think about first language acquisition and second language learning, this volume introduces the theories and methods of language socialization with memorable case studies of children and their families; highlights the diversity of Latino communities, including children and caretakers of Mexican, Caribbean, and Central American origin living in Chicago, San Antonio, the San Francisco Bay Area, Los Angeles, San Diego, Miami, Tucson, and New York City; offers critical insights into the ways in which children learn to speak and read by
negotiating overlapping and/or conflicting cultural models; and suggests universal practices to facilitate language socialization in multilingual communities, including applications for teachers.

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