

TEACHING DIALECT AWARENESS IN THE COLLEGE COMPOSITION

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ASHLEY N.E. MURPHY

DISSERTATION ADVISOR: DR. CAROLYN J. MACKAY

BALL STATE UNIVERSITY

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Chapter 1:

Introduction

Linguists have long accepted the inevitability of linguistic variation as scientific fact. However, the general public continues to associate regional variation with low intelligence and to promote a non-regional, “accentless” English as the ideal. The result of this ideology, which ignores the natural diversity of all languages, is that speakers of marked, stigmatized dialects suffer from linguistic discrimination.

The purpose of the present study is to determine if explicitly teaching dialect awareness can provide a successful counter to pervasive negative attitudes towards stigmatized dialects. I have designed a dialect awareness unit for first-year composition courses which incorporates previously published language and dialect awareness lessons (Reaser & Wolfram, 2007; *Do You Speak American?*, 2005; Groome & Gibbs, 2004; Campbell, 2004; and others) with original lesson plans that I have developed. This unit also incorporates the following curriculum goals of Ball State University’s Writing Program (Lutkewitte & Hedge, 2010):

- Rhetorical effectiveness (persuasively conveying one’s argument to a particular audience through manipulation of form and message),

- Writing process instruction (teaching students the recursive stages of writing and useful strategies for each stage of the writing process), and
- Reading strategies (teaching students to read critically and rhetorically, taking into consideration the message, the audience, and the credibility of the writer).

Each of the lesson plans (which are outlined in Chapter 3: Methods) addresses one of these curriculum goals through the examination of the inherent diversity of the English language over time and geographic distribution. For example, students are asked to read the first chapter of the novel *Dovey Coe* (Dowell, 2001) and consider the rhetorical effectiveness of the author's use of dialect; this exercise, created by Groome & Gibbs (2004), incorporates critical reading strategies, rhetorical effectiveness, and awareness of the appropriateness of a spoken dialect in written language. In this way, this dialect awareness unit is incorporated into the existing first-year composition curriculum of Ball State University. As Reaser (2006, p. 67) noted, "By dovetailing a language awareness curriculum with current ... objectives, teachers do not have to justify teaching the unit." This integration of language awareness with existing institutional goals and objectives for composition courses insures institutional support for the unit.

The dialect awareness unit's instructional goals are focused on introducing students to the inherent diversity of human language. The following instructional goals for this dialect awareness unit were taken from Gooden, 2007, pp. 102-103:

- "To appreciate differences in language use as legitimate
- To understand that linguistic differences also reflect differences in class, race, ethnicity, gender, sexuality, and, by extension, culture
- To reflect on how social inequalities are manifested through language attitudes"

The dialect awareness unit met these instructional goals through a series of carefully scaffolded lesson plans coupled with major writing assignments. These are outlined in detail in the Methods chapter. The success of the dialect awareness unit will be measured by the change in students' scores on a quantitative survey (Appendix A), and by their written responses to a qualitative survey (Appendix B).

Hypotheses

I hypothesize that:

1. Students will show a significant increase in linguistic awareness on the post-test following the dialect awareness unit.
2. Following the dialect awareness unit, students will demonstrate an increased tolerance towards stigmatized, non-standard dialects.

Variables

The independent variable is instruction in dialect awareness. It is hypothesized that this will have an impact on the dependent variable, which is the attitude held towards stigmatized dialects as measured by the pre- and post-test.

Students who enrolled in the course were unaware initially of the focus on dialects. After midterms, the students were given a pre-test consisting of a series of Likert-type items to measure their level of dialect awareness and their attitude towards socially stigmatized dialects. The pre-test is provided in Appendix A. After the dialect awareness unit, in which students chose and researched one dialect of American English, the students were given the same instrument as a post-test with the addition of a series of questions to be answered in an open-ended, narrative form. The open-ended questions are available in Appendix B.

Operational Definitions

In this section I will define the terms used in this study that might cause confusion. The terms *dialect*, *standard English*, *linguistic awareness*, and *tolerance* are defined.

Linguistic awareness. For the purposes of this study, *linguistic awareness* is defined as knowledge of the most basic facts about linguistics and sociolinguistics. These basic facts, agreed upon by the great majority of academic linguists (Lippi-Green, 1997; Watts, 2011; Campbell, 2004; Adger, Wolfson, & Christian, 2007; Bex & Watts, 1999; Brandes & Brewer, 1977; Denham & Lobeck, 2010; Labov, 1969; Trudgill, 1983; Wolfram & Schilling-Estes, 2006; and others), are taught during the dialect awareness unit:

- All languages change. The only languages that remain static are dead languages. Language change is natural and inevitable.
- All languages contain natural variation.
- Linguistic variation can co-occur with variation in social class, gender, race, ethnicity, age, region, and any other social classification which affects how a person or group of people self-identify.
- Speakers of any language will adapt that language to suit their needs. One language or dialect is never more logical, elegant, strong, or perfect than any other. The traits that people assign to dialects and languages reflect the relative power that one group of speakers holds or does not hold, but does not reflect upon any inherent traits of the language variety.
- Every language and every dialect is equally capable of expressing complex ideas.

- Every language and every dialect follows logical rules and has a rule-governed grammar.

Linguistic awareness—that is, knowledge of these basic linguistic facts—was taught throughout the dialect awareness unit and assessed informally during class discussions and short written assignments. It was assessed formally, but not for a grade, during the post-test through both the Likert-type items (Appendix A) and the open-ended questions (Appendix B).

Dialect awareness. A subset of linguistic awareness is *dialect awareness*, which includes the aspects of linguistic awareness that deal with dialects. For example, no one dialect is more elegant or logical than any other, speakers express their identity through their speech, and the variation found in dialects of a language is rule-governed and logical. In this study, the terms are sometimes used interchangeably, as the Likert-type survey only measures the aspects of linguistic awareness that are relevant to the study of dialects.

Tolerance. For the purpose of this study *tolerance* is defined as a willingness to allow others to be different in regards to linguistic variation. Intolerant people would rather not hear dialects that are different from theirs. They will describe stigmatized dialects with negative adjectives, such as *improper*, *unprofessional*, and *incorrect*. A person exhibiting tolerance would hear socially stigmatized accents and dialects without attributing negative traits, such as low intelligence or laziness, to the individual speaking. Another example of tolerance towards other language varieties would include hearing another person using a stigmatized language variety, such as multiple negation (e.g., “I don’t want nothing” and “It doesn’t mean nothing”) and copula deletion (e.g., “Where the

scissors?” and “Dave tall”), without attempting to “correct” the other person. Socializing with and hiring people from stigmatized linguistic backgrounds is another example of exhibiting tolerance.

Tolerance towards socially stigmatized dialects is heavily influenced by a person’s level of linguistic and dialect awareness. People’s intolerance of stigmatized dialects often stems from widely-believed cultural myths about how language is learned: e.g., that people learn their language mainly at school and not from their peers, and that linguistic differences from Standard English are attributable to mistakes. For this reason, increases in tolerance and linguistic awareness are not entirely separable.

Tolerance for linguistic variation will be encouraged throughout the dialect awareness unit, but it is ultimately the responsibility of the individual to modify her or his own behavior. Tolerance can be assessed by the post-test, especially the open-ended questions. Written answers to the open-ended questions which describe non-stigmatized varieties of English as “proper”, “correct”, or “grammatically correct” are considered to be non-tolerant, as these adjectives imply that stigmatized dialects are improper, incorrect, and ungrammatical. Written answers characterizing speakers of nonstandard dialects as “unprofessional”, “lazy”, or other undesirable characteristics will also be considered to be intolerant.

Dialect. In this study the term *dialect* is used as a subcategory of a language. For example, there are an estimated 328 million speakers of English as a native language in 112 different countries (Lewis, 2009). We can say that speakers in these countries would speak that country’s dialect of English (e.g., Canadian English, Australian English, etc.). Additionally, the speakers would speak the dialect common in their region, so the dialect

of English in Newfoundland is different from the dialect of English spoken in Vancouver. These regional dialects can be subcategorized further by social class, as we can observe that working class people speak dialects that are measurably different from the dialect spoken by the upper class in most areas. We can make further distinctions between the varieties of English spoken by different genders, ethnicities, generations, etc.

Therefore, the working definition of *dialect* for this study is a language variety that reveals aspects of the speaker's identity, such as nationality, region of origin, social class, gender, etc.

Standard English. Throughout this study I will refer to dialects of English that contain socially stigmatized linguistic forms as “nonstandard.” Stigmatized linguistic forms include pronunciations such as /ækst/ for *asked* and /ja/ for *yeah*; morphosyntactic constructions such as stacking modals (e.g., “might could”) and deletion of possessive 's (“grandma house”); and lexical items, such as *reckon* and *ain't*. I will refer to dialects lacking widely stigmatized forms as “standard.”

Conventionally, “Standard English” is recognized as a proper name of a variety of English, and as such is usually capitalized. Each separate variety of English is likewise capitalized, giving us the capitalized proper names Hawai'ian Creole English, Chicano English, Appalachian English, etc. However, grouping these sundry dialects into one category does not make that category a proper noun; similarly, subspecies of tiger are capitalized—Sumatran Tiger, Indochinese Tiger, Malayan Tiger, etc.—while the common name of the species, tiger, is not. Because each of these varieties of English are nonstandard, as they contain stigmatized linguistic forms, they can be referred to as

nonstandard dialects of English. This name is not capitalized as it refers to a group of different dialects.

The capitalization of the term “Standard English” is more difficult to justify; indeed, it might be unjustifiable. Though “Standard English” is actually a collection of disparate dialects—the North Midland, Received Pronunciation, and the West Coast dialects all lack stigmatized features—nonlinguistic literature refers to it as a homogenous, singular (and ideal) variety. Thus, the idea that only one variety is acceptable and all others unacceptable is erroneous, as many dialects enjoy the prestige stemming from a lack of stigma. Regardless of their internal diversity, the dialects judged to be standard are grouped in the nonlinguistic and linguistic literature as singular. Again, this study is concerned with laypeople’s attitudes towards stigmatized dialects in comparison with non-stigmatized ones; referring to the non-stigmatized varieties as a single proper noun, “Standard English”, simplified the task of referencing these dialects, especially for the control group and the experimental group’s pre-test, when the participants were not aware of the diversity within Standard English. The decision was made to capitalize Standard English in order to use terms that the students who had not taken the dialect awareness unit would recognize.

Definition of Standard English. There is a great degree of confusion, even among linguists, as to how exactly we can define Standard English. Trudgill maintains that Standard English is “the dialect of English used in writing” (1997, pp. 117-128). While it is true that most marked linguistic forms, such as *y’all* and multiple negation, would not normally be seen in print media, many linguists disagree with Trudgill’s definition on the grounds that accents and pronunciations are also judged as either

standard or nonstandard. While many linguists, such as David Crystal, claim that Standard English is not a single accent (2003, p. 110), some accents are judged negatively even when they lack marked grammatical constructions. For example, the Arizona Department of Education sought to remove teachers with “heavy or ungrammatical accents” (Jordan, 2010), and Purnell, Idsardi, & Baugh (1999) found that Chicano and Black accents led to housing discrimination on the telephone, even when the caller used “standard” grammar. Because discrimination based on accent alone exists, though I am loath to disagree with Crystal, I feel strongly that accent is an important aspect of Standard English.

Rejecting the claim that accent is not an aspect of Standard English, I accept Crystal’s claim that Standard English is the variety of English which holds the most prestige within a country (2003, p.110). In the United States, in which this study takes place, California, Indiana, and the North Central states (Michigan, Illinois, Iowa, etc.) scored high on levels of “correctness” as measured by Preston (1989). However, the general public’s view of Standard English does not include all speakers from these non-stigmatized regions, but also excludes the speech of racial minorities, the poor, and other disempowered groups.

Problems with the terms “standard” and “non-standard.” I will describe the written and spoken dialects deemed more prestigious as “standard” and less prestigious dialects as “non-standard.” However, such terms are problematic. These dichotomous terms force diverse dialects into unnatural groupings that obscure their individual traits and may not be acceptable to these linguistic communities. For example, speakers of the Yooper dialect of Michigan’s Upper Peninsula may not see why in this study their dialect

is grouped with Latino English spoken in the American Southwest. Another problem with these terms is the way they define the speech of perhaps the majority of English speakers negatively: by essentially defining these dialects by what they are not—“standard”—we fail to define them by what they are. Just as non-Hispanics sometimes fail to see the diversity of the Spanish-speaking world and group all *Hispanohablantes* and their descendants into one supposedly homogenous ethnic group, the term “nonstandard dialect” obscures the diversity of the dialects of English that fall under this umbrella term by defining them by their “Otherness.”

Benefits of using these terms. Despite all the problems with defining Standard English, for the purpose of this study it is reasonable to classify dialects as stigmatized or non-stigmatized and to assign names to these designations. Laypeople have been shown to evaluate certain varieties of English as undesirable (Preston, 1989) and to act upon these negative evaluations by discriminating against the speakers of the nonstandard dialect (Purnell, Idsardi, & Baugh, 1999; Frumpkin, 2007; Lippi-Green, 1997, pp. 152-170). My intent in carrying out this line of research is to change the public’s attitudes towards disempowered groups of people through education in the basics of sociolinguistics, and therefore it is reasonable to group dialects according to their perceived acceptability. In conclusion, while the terms “Standard English” and “nonstandard dialects” are inaccurate, they encapsulate many people’s opinions of their social acceptability and are appropriate for this line of research.

Summary of Contents

In Chapter 2, I review the literature regarding dialect awareness courses. I first summarize the linguistic evidence that stigmatized dialects are not in fact inferior to more

prestigious dialects. I give evidence that the public still regards linguistic differences as errors. I then review a few of the educational programs intended to disseminate these linguistic facts to non-linguists. I conclude that more dialect awareness courses should evaluate their effectiveness quantitatively, as Reaser (2006) did.

Chapter 3 is devoted to the study's methods and participants. The dialect awareness unit was created by combining original lesson plans with ones created by others; in Chapter 3, each day of the dialect awareness unit is described in enough detail that another educator could teach this dialect awareness unit. I also describe the method of collecting and analyzing the data.

The results of the quantitative analyses are in Chapter 4. The results indicate that the experimental group's attitudes towards stigmatized dialects changed significantly after the dialect awareness unit, while the control group underwent no change after the same amount of time had elapsed. Further tests indicated that before the dialect awareness unit, the two groups were statistically similar, and also that the Likert-type survey was a reliable measurement. An effect size test found that the treatment accounted for approximately 17% of the experimental group's post-test scores. After the unit, the experimental group was not statistically similar to the control group, lending further support to the hypothesis.

Chapter 5 relates the qualitative results. Seventeen students in the experimental group not only accepted all the lessons of the dialect awareness unit, they were also indignant that dialect discrimination takes place and wanted others to become aware of and accept nonstandard dialects. Two students in the experimental group remained ambivalent about the lessons of the unit. Eight participants in the control group opted not

to answer the open-ended questions. Of the ten who did write responses, most already expressed linguistic tolerance. Their written responses express more tolerance for linguistic diversity than their answers to the Likert-type items.

The final chapter includes a comparison of this study's results and those of Reaser (2006), concluding that despite the age difference of the participants, the college-age students in my study met the class's stated goals at approximately the same rate as the eighth-graders in Reaser's study. I name some limitations of the study and discuss at length the hidden curriculum, which privileged Standard English over nonstandard varieties. Finally, I give some ideas for future studies and summarize the entire study.

Chapter Two:

Literature Review

This literature review is composed of three sections. The first section summarizes previous research on dialect awareness; it covers scientific knowledge about dialects, the general public's beliefs about dialects, and previous outreach programs designed to teach people about dialects. The second section covers the theoretical background of this study. The third section explains the pedagogical rationale behind the lessons in the dialect awareness unit of this study.

Review of Dialect Awareness Literature

One of the few issues on which linguists have reached unanimous consensus is that no language is superior to another; all languages are capable of expressing complex and nuanced information. Laypeople generally hold the opposite view: that some high status languages are more suitable for expression of sophisticated thoughts than other languages. This belief can sometimes lead to the wish to eradicate languages that are seen as inherently inferior, or banning them from public spheres.

In response to this discrepancy between what is known to be true about language and what the public believes to be true about language, many linguists (Reaser & Wolfram, 2007; Hazen, 2001; and others) have attempted outreach programs aimed at

educating people about what Lippi-Green (1997, p. 7-40) called “The Linguistic Facts of Life”: that language change is inevitable, linguistic variation is universal, and that each language and dialect is able to adapt to the needs of its speakers. Some of these outreach programs aimed at educating the general public are described below. More outreach programs are needed to combat the dominant myth-based language ideology. These outreach programs are also in need of effectiveness assessment. Thus far, only one study has been conducted assessing the effectiveness of a linguistic outreach program intended to teach the general public about dialects. Reaser (2006) found that the Voices of North Carolina program (Reaser & Wolfram, 2007) was successful in raising eighth-graders’ linguistic awareness.

Difference, not deficit. While certain lexical items (e.g., *gum band*, *reckon*, *homey*), grammatical forms (e.g., *throwed*, *might could*, *ain’t*), and pronunciations ([ækst] for /æskt/) are highly stigmatized in the United States, linguists and historians of language (e.g., Wolfram & Schilling-Estes, 2006; Labov, 1972; Trudgill, 1983; and others) are adamant that dialect differences are not indicative of intellectual, cultural, or moral deficits. Rather, these differences are natural variations that will appear in any natural language, as “the only static variety of language is, in reality, a dead one” (Wolfram & Schilling-Estes, 2006, p. 8). Prejudice of socially disempowered groups, such as African Americans, Appalachian mountain folk, and other marginalized peoples, has been displaced onto prejudice against their languages (Ruscher, 2001; Lippi-Green, 1997; and others).

A brief example of the conceptual metaphors (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003) used in the 1960s in dialect research to describe educating adolescents will serve to illustrate the

animosity language educators and linguists felt towards nonstandard dialects. As part of a 1964 conference (Shuy, 1964), Juanita Williamson described the problem of African American students in high school being unable to speak or write in Standard English; Williamson went on to describe how she has developed “various means of attacking the problem,” and that “the attack on the problem must begin before the student reaches the college level.” Her choice of metaphor—as educators “attacking” nonstandard English—is revealing. It conjures imagery of battles, of a clear victor and a vanquished, and it assures the listener that the speaker is taking decisive action. Evoking a war metaphor in which the “enemy” is children’s home language harkens to the time, not that long ago, when Native Americans, Latinos, and Hawai’ians faced corporal punishment for speaking their native language in school. While it may be unlikely that contemporary teachers will use corporal punishment if a student speaks a nonstandard form of English, it is highly likely that the teacher will verbally “correct” the student. These verbal “corrections” become the blows that attack the enemy: the war is on a language, and so it is fitting that the attacks are verbal.

Other literature from the 1960s on dialects also expressed the view that nonstandard dialects were *substandard* and were only worthy of study in order that they might be corrected. In a 1969 dissertation, Billiard refers to nonstandard varieties of English as “language handicaps” (pp. xvii) and calls speakers of nonstandard dialects “individuals who have not mastered certain standard pronunciations and grammatical conventions” (p. 210). Billiard uses the language of disability when referring to speakers of nonstandard dialects, as though their language is not fully able to do everything it is required to do. This metaphor is more kind than Williamson’s: rather than waging war

and “attacking” nonstandard dialects, Billiard’s language implies that they need help. However, the latter quote seems to blame speakers of nonstandard varieties of English for their failure to “master certain standard pronunciations and grammatical conventions.” In this quote, Billiard reveals belief in one of the myths about language that are so widespread: that speakers of nonstandard dialects are trying and failing to speak the standard.

For the linguistic community, this prevailing sentiment that nonstandard varieties were “language handicaps” to be “attacked” was directly challenged when, in 1969, Labov claimed that speakers of African American Vernacular English (AAVE) did not suffer from an impoverished language. Rather, Labov found that their brief, monosyllabic responses in response to researchers were the result of the power differential and their learned distrust of authorities. Since Labov’s 1969 article “The Logic of Nonstandard English” was printed and then reprinted in Labov’s 1972 book, *Language in the Inner City: Studies in the Black English Vernacular*, the scientific study of stigmatized dialects has grown to show that stigmatized grammatical, phonological, rhetorical, and lexical items are rule-governed and logical. For example, Labov (1972, p. 220-221) noted that the deletion of the copula in AAVE follows the same rules as contraction in Standard English: where Standard English can contract *That is what they are* into *That’s what they are*, AAVE can have *That what they are*. By the same rule, Standard English does not allow **That’s what they’re*, and AAVE does not allow **That what they*. Labov countered the belief among educational psychologists of the time that speakers of AAVE did not have a grammar: they had one, it was just different from the researchers’.

Since Labov's benchmark publication in 1969, there have been numerous grammars of AAVE and other stigmatized dialects, such as Appalachian English and the non-rhotic dialects of the East Coast. In addition to describing grammatical rules of various dialects in detail, linguists specializing in other areas have succeeded in describing the systematic variation of other features of dialects. Phonologists have succeeded in describing rules for consonant cluster reduction (e.g., "Wes' End" for "West End"), intrusive /ɹ/ and /t/ (e.g., *warshed* for *washed* and *acrost* for *across*), vowel mergers, and vowel shifts that mark stigmatized dialects; lexicologists have published numerous dictionaries of the lexical items found in nonstandard dialects (e.g., Smitherman, 2000; Eisenberg & Scolnic, 2001; and others); and the rhetorical strategies of different groups have been described through contrastive rhetoric (Jackson & Richardson, 2003; Al-Jubouri, 1983; and others).

However, this work on the part of scholars of language to describe various dialects at all levels of the grammar has not been disseminated to a wider audience. Even researchers in related fields such as speech pathology, neurolinguistics, and communication do not receive instruction in basic sociolinguistics, to the detriment of their future clients and students. The literature on diagnosing speech pathologies in students from linguistic minorities recognizes that "misdiagnosis and inappropriate educational placement can occur from professionals continuing to assess children of color without regard for the students' cultural and linguistic experiences" (Anderson & Screen, 1994, p. 80). The misdiagnoses can be attributed to the clinicians' lack of knowledge about the nature of language; I experienced this lack of linguistic knowledge firsthand when I gave a brief presentation on test bias to future clinical psychiatrists in

neurolinguistic disorders. Each one in the audience was surprised to learn that “He weren’t from around here” was a grammatical utterance in some dialects of North Carolina (Schilling-Estes & Wolfram, 1994). These practicing clinicians admitted that they would have diagnosed speakers of these dialects with a language or learning disorder.

Stigmatized forms that are widely used across most dialects of English, including those used by highly educated people, are nevertheless considered to mark the speaker as uneducated. Among these, perhaps the most widely used, yet still stigmatized, contraction is *ain’t*. The Oxford English Dictionary found the first known example of *ain’t* in 1778, and Geoffrey Nunberg claims that everyone from “Swift to Tennyson used it in their letters and speech in a completely unselfconscious way,” until *ain’t* was blacklisted in the mid-1800s (2004, p. 272). The “*amn’t* gap”, so-called because there is no acceptable contraction for *I am not* in Standard English, is logically filled with contracting *am not* to *amn’t*, which evolved through elision and vowel-raising to *ain’t*. The logic of the contraction *ain’t* is not recognized by prescriptivists, who brand it as an “error.” The survival of *ain’t* illustrates the failure of prescriptivists to alter the real grammar of the English language.

The rift between non-linguists’ and linguists’ view of language is sometimes known as prescriptive vs. descriptive grammar. The prescriptive approach to grammar holds an idealized dialect up as the “Standard,” and tries to make all speakers conform to this ideal. Prescriptivism led to the “correction” method in school, wherein teachers “correct” students’ non-standard speech and writing. In contrast, descriptive grammar, that of most linguists, seeks to describe the language as it is actually spoken. The

underlying theoretical perspective of prescriptivism is one of social change, as prescriptivists believe “good” grammar will lead to more complex, rational thought, and a more civil society. Descriptive grammar’s theoretical perspective was originally positivist: we can observe reality—how people speak English, for example—and describe this reality. This description of reality can lead to social change, as when Labov (1972) described the “logic of nonstandard English,” which led to a recognition of the validity of AAVE as a fully-fledged, functioning language (in some circles).

In conclusion, despite the work of linguists to describe the grammars of nonstandard dialects of English and to prove that they are both rule-governed and logical, non-linguists continue to regard nonstandard dialects as illegitimate and undesirable.

Still regarded as deficit by the public. Despite evidence of the logic of nonstandard English, most Americans still regard nonstandard forms as a language deficit, rather than a neutral difference. A book about prescriptive punctuation, *Eats, Shoots & Leaves: The Zero Tolerance Approach to Punctuation* (Truss, 2004), became a New York Times bestseller. The popularity of online personalities such as Grammar Girl and books about prescriptive grammar tap into the widespread belief that language belongs to the self-proclaimed language authorities, not to the diverse populations who speak it. At the same time, books proposing a descriptive grammar of English and written for a lay audience, such as *American English: Dialects and Variation* (Wolfram & Schilling-Estes, 2006), *Proper English: Myths and Misunderstandings about Language* (Wardhaugh, 1999), and *English with an Accent: Language, Ideology, and Discrimination in the United States* (Lippi-Green, 1997) have sold far fewer copies. As of June 26, 2011, the sales of these books languished at #384,066, #1,493,836 and

#2,263,866 on Amazon's sales ranking respectively. (As these are rankings and not the number of books sold, a book ranked at number 1 would have sold the most copies; smaller numbers indicate greater Amazon sales.) Compare these numbers to the sales rankings of the prescriptivist books at the same time: *Eats, Shoots & Leaves, Grammar Girl's Quick and Dirty Tips for Better Writing* (Fogarty, 2008) and *The Blue Book of Grammar and Punctuation: An Easy-to-Use Guide with Clear Rules, Real-World Examples, and Reproducible Quizzes* (Straus, 2007) ranked as number #2,601, #2,972, and #1,748 respectively.

The public misinterprets the prestige of standard English as "correctness." Those regional dialects that enjoy few stigmatized features, such as the North Midland, Inland Northern, and California English, are viewed as more "correct" than dialects known for their marked, nonstandard features. Preston (1989) quantified the belief that nonlinguists preferred the language of some American regions over others. He found that white, southern Indiana residents labeled the South as the region speaking the least "correct" English, while California, Indiana, and the North Central states scored high on the level called "correctness." Preston's work is notable as he empirically measured attitudes towards regional dialects, quantifying the public's prejudices.

The perception that speakers of nonstandard dialects speak "incorrectly" has serious repercussions in the classroom as well as outside of the school. Cunningham (1976) found that students preparing to be reading teachers would correct 78% of errors resulting from dialect differences, such as nonstandard verb forms, but only 27% of non-dialect errors, such as using *will* rather than *shall*. In actual classrooms, this results in the teacher interrupting speakers of nonstandard dialects more often than speakers of non-

stigmatized dialects. This prejudice is not limited to the classroom. Purnell, Idsardi, and Baugh (1999) showed that speaking with an accent associated with a disempowered group can lead to housing discrimination. Lippi-Green recounted several court cases in which hiring discrimination and wrongful termination of employment based on a person's accent or dialect of English was upheld in American courts (1997, pp. 152-172). Frumkin found that mock jurors rated eyewitnesses with an accent as less credible than witnesses delivering the same testimony who were "accent-free" (2007, p. 325).

While most academic literature espouses the "difference, not deficit" view of linguistic diversity, some articles in respected journals argue that stigmatized dialects, especially AAVE, are inherently inferior to Standard English. Much of the published literature expressing this viewpoint was written as a response to the Oakland School Board's famous 1996 decision to use "Ebonics" (AAVE) in the classroom as a tool to help students learn Standard English. In "Ebonics is Defective Speech and a Handicap for Black Children," Leon W. Todd, Jr. (1997) argued that the language spoken by most African Americans is deficient when compared to Standard English and its use in the classroom is inappropriate. Albert Shanker, the president of the American Federation of Teachers, feared that legitimizing AAVE by using it in the classroom would help students feel proud of their dialect, and would cause them to rebel and refuse to speak or write in Standard English (1997). Both Todd and Shanker express the popular opinion that AAVE is inferior to Standard English; for Todd, the inferiority is inherent in the lexicon and grammar, while Shanker appeals to job prospects and the opinions of "the wider world." Their prejudice against this highly stigmatized dialect is legitimized through a reported

concern for the well-being of speakers of the dialect, and realized by banning the dialect from the schools.

From evidence cited above, the picture of education for speakers of nonstandard dialects indeed appears grim. From the earliest years of school through high school and college, teachers try to inculcate the standard dialect, while banning the nonstandard varieties. The result of years of trying to eradicate stigmatized varieties of English has never succeeded in replacing them with the standard.

“Something must be done!” As a solution to the problem of dialect discrimination, many linguists and historians of language encourage their colleagues to educate the public about tolerance of variation within the English language.

There are a number of websites, online lesson plans, and books devoted to helping educators introduce the teaching of linguistics into language arts programs. One of the most comprehensive of these is Reaser & Wolfram’s (2007) 8th grade *Voices of North Carolina Dialect Awareness Curriculum*, which is designed to be taught by teachers with no linguistic training. Reaser (2006) reports success on the pre-and post test, with the vast majority of students reporting learning something surprising and previously unknown to them; the students in Reaser’s study also reported that everyone should know what they were taught. Other dialect awareness teaching units and lesson plans are less comprehensive and are designed to be easily integrated into pre-existing curricula at multiple grade levels. The Center for Applied Linguistics has an online, freely accessible digest devoted to teaching about dialects at www.cal.org/resources/digest/0104dialects.html; this digest contains sample lesson plans meant to combat widely believed myths about language, e.g., “Language change is a

process of decay” (Hazen, 2001). Denham & Lobeck (2010) edited a book designed to inspire linguists to inject the teaching of introductory linguistics into K-12 curriculum from the top-down (in changes to school’s educational goals and in dialect awareness programs for educators) and from the bottom-up (in teachers’ attitudes and actions towards speakers of nonstandard dialects, and in their choices for their own class).

Smitherman & Villanueva (2003) edited a book of essays on the relationships between language, diversity and oppression in English classrooms. The target audience for this book is teachers of language arts.

One of the earliest books on dialect awareness, *Dialect Clash in America: Issues and Answers* (Brandes & Brewer), was published in 1977 with the stated purpose to “contribute to the development of more socially aware and more linguistically oriented classroom teachers and to provide these teachers with methods for implementing their new awareness” (p. xi). Since 1977, many more books written for teachers and educators have been published. Cazden’s *Classroom Discourse: The Language of Teaching and Learning* (1998) is intended to inform teachers in training of differential treatment of students and how this can be noted in discourse analysis. Wolfram, Adger, & Christian’s *Dialects in Schools and Communities*, first published in 1999 and revised and updated in 2007 (Adger, Wolfram, & Christian), was written to inform teachers about stigmatized dialects. Wheeler & Swords (2001) authored a manual on teaching code-switching for teachers of urban nonstandard English students. These exemplars represent only a few of the books written to increase dialect awareness in teachers and teachers in training.

Numerous books written for a wider audience attempt to educate the general public about the natural diversity of language. Bex & Watts, driven to action by the

contempt with which the views of professional linguists were dismissed by British policymakers, compiled *Standard English: The widening debate* (1999) to educate the general public on the social construction of a “Standard English.” Wardhaugh’s *Proper English: Myths and Misunderstandings about language* (1999) was written in a style the author intended to be “accessible” to the “common reader” (p. viii) and simply intends to correct widely believed misconceptions. Bauer & Trudgill’s *Language Myths* (1998) presents a series of essays written by linguists who each address one common language myth, like “Everyone Has an Accent but Me” and “They Speak Really Bad English Down South and in New York City”.

Academic fields outside of linguistics have also infused awareness of language diversity into their professional training. Speech language pathology and audiology programs have focused on accurate diagnoses of their African American and ESL clients by studying the grammar acquisition stages of these preschoolers and by teaching future clinicians about the unique phonology of these underrepresented populations (Stockman, 2010). Some English Education specialists have published articles persuading language arts teachers to use students’ home dialects as a “bridge” to Standard English (e.g., Marlow, 2009).

But too few of us actually do. Linguists and linguistically aware educators have attempted to disseminate the knowledge that the standard dialect is not inherently superior to nonstandard dialects in the mediums available to them. As we have seen above, linguists have published books and websites; two linguistically-informed documentaries are now available on DVD (*Do You Speak American?*, 2005; *American Tongues*, 1988); linguistically aware educators have passed resolutions, like the *Students’*

right to their own language (Conference on College Composition and Communication, 1974), and made dialect awareness a part of college writing curricula. Perhaps most impressively, Wolfram succeeded in inserting a dialect awareness unit into the 8th grade curriculum by designing it to meet state learning objectives (Reaser & Wolfram, 2007). By doing so Reaser & Wolfram provided North Carolina's eighth-grade teachers with a curriculum endorsed by the state's Department of Public Instruction, and are thus able to reach thousands of students across the entire state.

However, these efforts have not managed to reach the majority of Americans. The failure of these efforts to completely revolutionize language curriculum and language ideology is perhaps understandable, as three centuries of standardization (Dillard, 1985) and language ideology will not be changed in forty years.

Nevertheless, change is in the air. Wardhaugh wrote that "Schools reflect society; they do not mold it" (1999, p. 168). Twelve years after he wrote that sentence, widespread changes in the public school systems of the United States reflect changes in our attitudes towards language variation. The wave of anti-immigrant sentiment in Arizona motivated the Arizona Department of Education to remove teachers with "heavy or ungrammatical" accents from positions teaching the English language (Jordan, 2010). The Arizona Department of Education has implemented required dialect discrimination, creating an intersection of language and education that could, if not properly informed, result in policy changes that deprive teachers who speak with a stigmatized accent of their careers. Arizona's prescriptivist attempts to deal with linguistic diversity contrast sharply with North Carolina's acceptance of a social studies curriculum designed by linguists (Reaser & Wolfram, 2007). These very recent changes in education policy

reflect a society that is trying to cope with linguistic variation; in Arizona, through state laws about which accents are acceptable for teachers, and in North Carolina, through an educational program developed by linguists about the variations of English in their state. The increasing number of attempts to include a linguistically aware curriculum reflects a society that is ready to acknowledge that language is worthy of study. Whether prescriptivism or descriptivism will prevail remains to be seen.

People with linguistic training who want to inform the general public and change attitudes towards speakers of stigmatized dialects tend to find that it is difficult to do so. Members of the academy are rewarded for publishing in journals, and teaching linguistics to a wider audience is neither encouraged monetarily nor always supported by administrators. While the internet provides a free forum, the influence of linguistic blogs such as Positive Anymore (Ben, 2009) and the Language Log (Lieberman, 2011) is limited by lack of public interest.

Dialect awareness in college writing courses. It is impossible to know exactly how many dialect awareness courses are currently being taught in colleges and universities. Not all courses on dialect awareness are explicitly labeled as such in schools' course descriptions and not all introductory linguistics courses will cover internal language variation. There are undoubtedly more courses on dialect awareness than there is publicly available documentation of these courses. In addition to the unknown number of courses that are explicitly about dialects, courses in any number of disciplines could include some dialect awareness instruction. We can only guess at the number of dialect awareness lectures or units that currently are embedded in college courses. However, because required first-year composition courses often focus on

appropriate language use, and because a few articles have been published on the subject, we can be certain that some college students receive instruction in dialect awareness during their academic career.

There have been a few publications touting dialect instruction in first-year composition courses. In 1975, Sternglass published a study claiming that her first-year composition students, after learning about the use of dialects in literature, used fewer nonstandard past tense endings; she also expressed a belief that this focus on dialects helped her students to understand the grammatical and orthographic forms required in college writing. Lovejoy, Fox, & Wills (2009) described their experiences learning and teaching what Lippi-Green called “The Linguistic Facts of Life” (1997, pp. 7-40): that the Standard is not the only viable dialect of English. Lovejoy, Fox, & Wills’ students expressed relief that their struggles with language arts in school did not reflect any real difficulties with language, but only difficulties decoding and producing the accepted standard dialect. Martinez (2003) describes a Spanish Heritage Language course emphasizing the diversity of the Spanish language through the teaching of dialects; while the language is different, the message of linguistic awareness, equality, and acceptance is the same. As evidence of the growing interest in dialect awareness studies for college writers, there is a textbook entitled *Language Awareness: Readings for College Writers* (Eschholz, Rosa, & Clark, 2005) that explores the experiences of speakers of nonstandard varieties of English or other language. First published in 1974 and now in its tenth edition, the book is popular with college composition teachers.

These accounts of dialect awareness courses in first-year composition (or beginning Spanish Heritage) courses claim that dialect awareness is beneficial for young

adults. However, these accounts lack quantitative measurement of the benefits of dialect awareness. This study will measure these benefits in much the same way that Reaser measured the changing attitudes of the eighth-grade students in his 2006 dissertation.

Theoretical Background

The dissertation will take a critical theoretical perspective. Critical theory research takes a critical approach to the world in general, the academic field in which the research is situated, and itself (Pennycook, 2001). Researchers working within critical theory do not accept the status quo, but critically question why things are the way they are. For example, a sociolinguist working within critical theory might question why scholarly articles must be written in Standard English rather than Appalachian English or Gullah.

The defining characteristic of critical theory is that it aims to use research as a means to improving the world (Pennycook, 2001; Freire, 1970; Habermas, 1981; and others). This service component of research is realized at several different levels of the study design: the results are intended to further the field's understanding of a specific problem which causes suffering, in order to help alleviate that suffering; the study methods are meant to improve the lives of the participants in some way; and critical theory research conceptualizes the very purpose of research as applicable to the lives of many.

Because critical theory positions itself as a servant of people and communities, working to bring social justice, it differs radically from the two older theoretical perspectives that are often utilized in the social sciences: positivism and perspectivism.

The purpose of scientific inquiry. Unlike positivist models of research, which primarily are undertaken in order to understand some aspect of reality, this study has as a primary objective of causing change to occur. While critical research may also test some aspect of reality, the critical researcher does not pretend to neutrality, but rather seeks avenues of research in which her work might effect societal change. This change should be positive in that it leads to increased tolerance and self-awareness, as well as to better meet the stated goals of the institution, e.g., to improve students' understanding of their social situations and to improve their written rhetorical effectiveness (Lutkewitte & Hedge, 2010).

Critical theory, which is also known by its many aliases and incarnations, including social action and action research, has a goal of understanding a phenomenon better and enacting change to improve the world in some way. Often this change is intended to improve the lives of disenfranchised people (Freire, 1970), but researchers also take a critical stance when they look to enact changes to help maintain or restore ecological balance (Martin, 1997), and teachers take a critical stance in their own pedagogy when they encounter a problem in the classroom and try to improve the situation for themselves and their students. This theoretical approach, wherein researchers are committed to empowering their research participants through the research, has been an unspoken aspect of linguistic research since at least the 1970s, when Labov (1972), Lakoff (1975), and Heath (1983), among others, worked to show how attitudes valuing some communicative strategies privileged whites, males, and the upper middle class over African Americans, females, and the poor. Pennycook (2001) made this approach explicit within our field by advocating for a critical applied linguistics.

Nature of reality. Positivists view reality as knowable, measurable, and existing independently of observers (Hassard, 1995, p. 6; Cohen, Manion, Morrison, & Morrison, 2007, p. 9-11; and others). The goal of positivist research is to learn more about some aspect of reality. In linguistics, positivist research is the norm. Linguistic research can be said to be positivist when the researcher counts linguistic tokens, such as the number of times a young person uses *like* when telling a story or how often a Southerner deletes the glide in the diphthong /ai/. Post-positivist research methods incorporate aspects of ethnography, such as case studies and rich descriptions of events occurring in the field.

For this study I have adopted a blend of qualitative and quantitative methodologies, accepting both the positivist and post-positivist approaches. The mixed methods approach, now common in linguistics, borrows from the mathematical emphasis of the positivists and the cross-cultural awareness of the post-positivists. I hope to use these approaches to learn how best to teach tolerance of linguistic diversity.

Pedagogical Background

I introduced the students to the concepts of language change, language variation, stereotypes, dialect discrimination, the dominant language ideology, and code-switching. Every lesson in the dialect awareness unit was informed by the purpose of the class, which is to teach college students to “create and complete research projects” (“English 104”, 2010). The Writing Program gives some requirements for both large research projects and for homework and in-class exercises. For example, the institution requires that all students in English 104 write “a research driven, academic essay of 8-12 pages; appropriate works cited is additional” (“English 104”). Instructors are given the freedom

to structure the course content around these requirements, with little administrative oversight regarding the content of the course.

In addition to large research projects, daily work is also informed by the proscribed course content (“English 104”). Class discussions, quizzes over required reading, working in groups, and written responses to reading material are all teaching techniques encouraged by this program and espoused by many, and perhaps most, composition scholars (National Council of Teachers of English, 2004; Lutkewitte & Hedge, 2010). Daily lesson plans are detailed in Chapter 3: Methods.

Examples and material. The textbook *English with an Accent* (Lippi-Green, 1997) was chosen for several reasons. First, it is a benchmark of dialect awareness literature and was written for a general audience with no prior background in linguistics; therefore it is both an important work in the literature and it is written at an appropriate level. Second, Lippi-Green constructs each chapter around one central argument. These chapters are more like the types of research papers that first-year college students write than some other language awareness textbooks, like *Language Awareness: Readings for College Writers* (Eschholz, Rosa, & Clark, 2005), which are mostly comprised of personal memoirs. The structure of *English with an Accent*, with each chapter forming one argument supported by research, provides an excellent model for how the students can structure their own research papers. I asked students to examine this structure on the seventh day of instruction in linguistic variation, when students examined the rhetorical choices Lippi-Green made, and then were encouraged to apply these choices to their own papers. For these reasons, *English with an Accent* was chosen as the most appropriate textbook on dialect awareness for first-year college students.

The dialect awareness unit introduces the concepts of language change with a lesson adapted from Campbell (2004). In this lesson I show students lines adapted from the plays of Shakespeare that contain highly stigmatized grammatical “errors.” These “errors”, which represent ways that English grammar has changed, contrast sharply with Shakespeare’s reputation as perhaps the greatest writer in the history of the English language. Students are faced with the uncomfortable realization that two things that they have been taught in school cannot be simultaneously true: Shakespeare cannot be both the greatest writer of English literature and have committed such grievous “errors.” On the day I taught this lesson, the cognitive dissonance was palpable. This lesson is an excellent introduction to the similar lesson on *Eneydos* and the historical pronunciations of *asked* (also adapted from Campbell, 2004).

Students learned about the processes of linguistic subordination by critically analyzing a news report about an attempted rape. In this news video (Gentle, 2010), the victim’s brother, Antoine Dodson, succeeded in driving off his sister’s attacker using physical force, but became a laughingstock after his interview on the local news was posted on the internet and publicly mocked. I developed the series of lessons on Antoine Dodson to introduce the concept of how a very serious situation, such as an attempted rape, could devolve into a national punch line provided the victim belonged to a powerless social group. As this news story is only one year old at the time of this writing and deals with newer forms of media such as youtube, autotuning, and email forwards, Mr. Dodson’s fame should seem more timely and relevant to students’ world than some of my more traditional methods. Mr. Dodson is also a very charismatic person who tends to earn his audience’s sympathy as well as laughs, so students are likely to take his

situation to heart. In short, I included the lessons on Mr. Dodson because he provides an example of discrimination based on dialect with which students are already familiar, and yet these lessons provide many different avenues for exploration and light research based on popular search engines.

I chose individual lessons about literature, such as the lessons on *Dovey Coe* and “When Malindy Sings,” to combat students’ perceptions that only standard English is suitable for literature. Both works use dialect in a non-pejorative, non-ironic manner to characterize their protagonists and provide information about the setting. Arguably, the works’ power comes from their use of dialect. The lesson plans on *Dovey Coe* and “When Malindy Sings” are adapted from Groome & Gibbs (2004).

I used several resources from the *Do You Speak American?* website (Friedenberg, 2005) and online videos (available by searching <http://www.youtube.com/>), as this Public Broadcasting Service project was created to explain dialect awareness to a general audience using various media. The first day of the dialect awareness unit, I asked the students to read the webpage “What is ‘correct’ language?” (Finegan, 2005) on the *Do You Speak American?* website. This webpage gives a succinct explanation of the differences between prescriptivism and descriptive grammar, and also helps to assuage some of the paranoia caused by professional grammarians’ insistence that arbitrary rules of “correctness” are an indication of intelligence, order, and civility. The following day, to assess the students’ comprehension of the assigned reading, I gave them a pop quiz consisting of two questions: “What is prescriptivism?” and “What is descriptive grammar?” Students answered the questions in essay form.

On the third day of instruction we watched portions of the *Do You Speak American?* documentary (2005) in which four African American men recount their experiences being placed in “special education” classes with mentally retarded children on account of their dialect. I asked the class, “If a student cannot speak the dialect of the teachers, should they be put into special education?” We discussed the psychological damage inflicted on these men, and students told stories of their own mistreatment in school. These videos proved to the students that dialect discrimination is real, and the ensuing discussion gave the class an opportunity to share their own stories of the harm that prescriptivism can inflict.

To aid in instruction I asked two guest speakers to come to the classroom on two separate occasions. A deaf professor, with the aid of two interpreters, told the history of American Sign Language (ASL), starting with when ASL was first brought to the United States from France until the day a deaf college elected its first deaf president. She then fielded students’ questions about ASL. The students had asked me in class about dialects in ASL, and as I am not an expert in the subject, I asked my colleague to share her knowledge. In this instance, the students’ curiosity and the human resources available to me influenced the dialect awareness curriculum in ways I had not predicted.

The second guest lecture was a more planned event: a graduate student in linguistics presented her research on Pixar films and dialect, which she modeled on Lippi-Green’s methodology in Chapter 5, “Teaching children how to discriminate: What we learn from the Big Bad Wolf” (1997, pp. 79-103). Her presentation (Ellis, 2011) not only contributed further to Lippi-Green’s analysis of the ways in which we perpetuate the standard language ideology through children’s films, but also served as a model of a

linguistic research project. Because the English 104 class must first meet the instructional goals required by the institution (“English 104”), I wanted to give the students a model of a student’s research project that was engaging, informative, and accessible. Additionally, this pedagogical move is supported by empirical evidence: Kubal, Meyler, Stone & Mauney (2003) found both quantitative and qualitative support for the practice of bringing guest speakers into the classroom in order to teach about diversity.

Worried that I was over-reliant on lectures, discussions, and reading, I asked the students to write brief skits showcasing two different registers that related the same story or gave the same message. Each group of two or three people had five or ten minutes to create a skit and rehearse. Then, every group presented their skit to the rest of the class. This exercise demonstrated that students regularly switch registers, to familiarize the students with code-switching. The method of instruction gave students a chance to be creative and, in many instances, humorous. This teaching method is supported by pedagogical literature about theatrical exercises to teach language arts. Some studies suggest that theater arts methods are useful in teaching diversity and empathy. For example, Orzulak (2006) and Boal (1979, 2000) found that theatrical exercises helped both students and teachers to empathize with oppressed peoples and engage with the material.

Summary of Literature Review

While linguists agree that all languages have dialects and that linguistic variation is natural and unavoidable, the general public considers the language of stigmatized groups inferior to the language of privileged groups. Linguists have attempted to disseminate knowledge about the natural diversity of all languages, but the dominant

language ideology still favors some dialects at the expense of others. This study examines the effectiveness of one dialect awareness unit nestled within a first-year composition classroom. The study measures the effects of the unit using both qualitative and quantitative methods. The dialect awareness unit was developed from a blend of original lesson plans and those developed for other dialect awareness units.

Chapter Three:

Methods and Participants

In this chapter I will describe in detail the participants, the collection of pre-test data, the dialect awareness curriculum, the collection of post-test data, and the quantitative and qualitative analyses of the data. This study's methods were submitted to the university's Internal Review Board (Project 210272-2) and were granted exempt status.

Goals and Hypotheses

As stated in Chapter 1, the main goal of the present study is to determine whether a dialect awareness unit embedded in a first-year composition course is effective at increasing the participants' linguistic awareness and tolerance for linguistic diversity, as measured by the pre-test and the post-test. This goal can be split into two related goals, which are:

1. Following the dialect awareness unit, students will show a significant increase in linguistic awareness as measured by the post-test, and

2. Following the dialect awareness unit, students will demonstrate an increased tolerance towards stigmatized, non-standard dialects as measured by the post-test.

Overview of Methods

This study follows a pre-test post-test design for two groups: a control group and an experimental group. The experimental group was my first-year composition class; the control group was a different first-year composition class taught by a colleague. There were therefore four sets of tests: the experimental group's pre-test, the control group's pre-test, the experimental group's post-test, and the control group's post-test. The pre-test consisted of the informed consent form (Appendix C) and a series of Likert-type items (Appendix A). Both groups received identical pre-tests. After the pre-test, the experimental group, my class, received instruction about dialects. The other class received no instruction in dialects. Each group received identical post-tests. The post-test was the same as the pre-test with additional open-ended questions for which the participants included written answers. The pre-tests and post-tests were then statistically analyzed to determine whether the treatment, the dialect awareness unit, was successful in teaching the students about diversity within the English language and/or in changing the students' attitudes towards stigmatized dialects.

Rationale. The pre-test post-test model was adopted in order to provide a quantifiable measurement of the participants' attitudes towards stigmatized dialects and those who speak stigmatized or nonstandard dialects. The identical Likert-style measurements distributed to both the experimental and control groups insure that a statistical comparison can be undertaken. The addition of the control group to the study

enables me to measure the effects of the testing confound on the experimental group, and to run more robust statistical tests, such as an Analysis of Co-Variance (ANCOVA). The open-ended responses serve as a qualitative measure of the success of the course in changing linguistic attitudes, and provide another opportunity to determine the success or failure of the dialect awareness unit in meeting the two stated hypotheses. These written answers were evaluated to determine how the participants responded to the dialect awareness unit in the Qualitative Results chapter.

Participants

There are two groups of participants: the control group and the experimental group. Twenty-one students in the experimental group took the pre-test. Each student was given an identification letter from the English alphabet. Subjects T and U dropped the class during the dialect awareness unit and did not take the post-test.

The participants in the control group were given letters of the Greek alphabet as participant identification numbers to distinguish them from the pseudonyms of the experimental group. Participants Eta, Theta, Iota, and Omicron did not take the post-test. Participants Rho and Omega took the post-test but not the pre-test.

After adjusting for attrition, there were 19 students in the experimental group and 18 students in the control group. The experimental group had four male students and 15 females; the control group had six males and twelve females. The participants of both groups were not recruited. They voluntarily signed up for a required core curriculum writing class at Ball State University, English 104 “Composing Research”, without knowing that they would have the opportunity to be in a study on dialect awareness. English 104 focuses on teaching students to design several different research projects and

then present their research in the most persuasive manner for a particular audience (“English 104”). The course is required in order to graduate.

The participants of the control group were students in another section of English 104, taught by one of my colleagues, who agreed to allow class time for this study. The participants in the experimental group were enrolled in English 104 with me. Because the students were not aware that this section of English 104 would include a dialect awareness unit, it did not attract students interested in the diversity of English per se. Students chose the course for other reasons, such as the time and availability. Both classes met during the spring semester in 2011.

Collection of Pre-Test Data

Data collection began on March 14, 2011. At the beginning of class, a colleague distributed the consent forms (Appendix C) and pre-test questionnaire (Appendix A) to the experimental group, which was my English 104, “Composing Research”, class. The Internal Review Board of Ball State University prefers that persons other than the professor ask students to participate in studies with human subjects; this precaution is taken so students do not feel coerced into participating. The pre-test questionnaire consisted of 20 questions relating to tolerance of language diversity. Students answered by circling one of five items on a Likert scale: strongly agree, agree, strongly disagree, disagree, or I don’t know. The students were told that the study examined students’ attitudes towards dialects and speakers of those dialects. The data collection took approximately 15 minutes.

Data collection of the control group took place on the same day, March 14, 2011. I went to the control group’s English 104 class, distributed the same consent forms

(Appendix C) and pre-test questionnaire (Appendix A), and gave students the same explanation about the study that had been given to the experimental group. This also took approximately fifteen minutes. At the end of the data collection, at their instructor's request, I informed the students that they were part of a control group, and explained how their participation would help my project by allowing me to conduct more robust statistical tests. The students were not told that the test measured their levels of tolerance towards speakers of stigmatized dialects.

The Dialect Awareness Unit

These lesson plans are intended for 50-minute class periods. They were designed for college students in a required composition course, but are adaptable to a variety of classroom situations. Because students ask unpredictable questions, it was not possible to plan every class period exactly. I altered my original planned curriculum somewhat as new opportunities arose, such as guest speakers, and unforeseen challenges presented themselves. The following lesson plans reflect the actual lessons taught in this study.

Day 1: Introduction to language change.

Pre-Test. I distributed the pre-test in accordance with the Protocol submitted to IRB. The pre-test served as an introduction and a conversation topic to segue into the dialect awareness curriculum.

Objective: After learning that some stigmatized grammatical forms (e.g., multiple negation, past tense form used as a past participle, nonstandard superlatives) and pronunciations (*asked* and *axed* as homophones) were once acceptable in English writing, students will recognize that the English language has changed over time and that stigmatized linguistic forms were once acceptable.

Time	Activity
5 minutes	<p>Show the class the following sentences. (They are adaptations of lines in the plays of Shakespeare.)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Director himself is rode the shuttle to go to the Bookstore. 2. This was the most unkindest cut of all. 3. She comes more nearer earth than she was accustomed to. 4. I am not sorry neither. 5. What worser place can I beg?¹ <p>Ask students:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Are these sentences are considered grammatically correct?” • “How would you correct them?” • “Who do you believe wrote these quotes?” <p>Inform them that Shakespeare wrote these sentences. (This exercise is adapted from Campbell, 2004, p. 11-12.)</p>
15 minutes	<p>Discuss language change. Inform students of the following key points:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All languages change constantly. • Each generation makes minute changes to the language, leading to larger changes over time. • The lines of Shakespeare that we consider nonstandard show us that

¹ These lines were adapted from the following lines in plays of Shakespeare as quoted in Campbell, 2004, p. 11-12: “The king himself is rode to view their battle” (*Henry V* IV, iii); “This was the most unkindest cut of all” (*Julius Caesar* 3, 2); “She comes more nearer earth than she was wont” (*Othello* 5, 2); “I am not sorry neither” (*Othello* V, ii); “What worser place can I beg in your love” (*A Midsummer’s Night Dream* II, I, 208).

	these forms were once standard.
10 minutes	Ask students about the pronunciation “axed” for <i>asked</i> . This pronunciation, used widely by African Americans, is highly stigmatized. Then show students a line from Caxton’s <i>Eneydos</i> (in Campbell, 2004, p. 14-15) in which Caxton writes “axed” as a phonetic transcription of Present Day <i>asked</i> . Tell students about the history of <i>asked</i> : it was originally pronounced “axed,” and has since undergone change.
20 minutes	<p>Discuss “correct” English.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Rules” about language widely disseminated in American schools (e.g., <i>asked</i> should not be pronounced like <i>axed</i>, don’t use multiple negatives) have not always been used by educated people. • Shakespeare and Caxton are not incorrect. They conveyed their message effectively to their audiences. These forms are not illogical; they make sense. • Which forms are considered “correct” depends on the context.

Homework: Read “What is ‘correct’ language?” on the *Do You Speak American?* website (Finegan, 2005).

Looking ahead: Read pages 1-40 of *English with an Accent* (Lippi-Green, 1997) and write two-page responses to each of the Parts of the book.

Reflection: The students guessed that other students wrote the lines from Shakespeare. Many of them expressed strong negative feelings about this pronunciation of *asked*. I assigned brief responses to the book to gauge how students were responding to the dialect awareness unit.

Day 2: Antoine Dodson and dialect discrimination.

Objective: Students will listen to a hit song, read articles about the song and compare dialect discrimination and racism.

Time	Activity
5 minutes	<p>Give students a pop quiz over the “What is ‘correct’ language?” reading (Finegan, 2005). The quiz consists of answering both of these questions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is prescriptivism? • What is descriptive grammar?
5 minutes	<p>Watch an original news broadcast from Huntsville, Alabama documenting the attempted rape of Kelly Dodson and the interview with her brother, Antoine Dodson (Gentle, 2010).</p>
10 minutes	<p>Discuss how the video went viral:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First it gained attention as an emailed forward among the African American community. Read aloud Jonathon Capehart’s opinion piece (2010) in the Washington Post, describing his embarrassment of the Dodsons’ speech and clothing. • Second, it became a hit song when the musical group The Gregory Brothers edited the news broadcast into a catchy hip-hop/electronica beat.
5 minutes	<p>Watch the Autotune the News video of “The Bed Intruder Song” (Dodson & the Gregory Brothers, 2010).</p>
15 minutes	<p>Class discussion:</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Why did people react to the news broadcast this way?” • “Why did people react this way to a very serious situation?” <p>Intended goal of discussion: guide the students to the realization that the Dodsons were not taken seriously because their dialect marks them as disempowered people.</p>
10 minutes	<p>Read the blog post “Our Fascination with the Antoine Dodson situation” (2010), by Dr. Kimberley Ellis (who writes under the pseudonym Dr. Goddess). From this blog post students learn that:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. the attempted rape was more violent than it had been portrayed in the original broadcast 2. the Dodsons felt that the housing authority took the crime lightly 3. the rapist had been active in the area for some time prior to Kelly Dodson’s attack 4. Antoine Dodson thwarted the attack and should be recognized as a hero

Homework: Find more information about the Dodsons and posts the information, as well as sources, to Blackboard (our class’s online data sharing site).

Reflection: Students laugh during both videos. One student in particular, identified here as G, insisted that race was not relevant to understanding why people laugh at the Dodsons.

Day 3: Dodson continued, and more on dialect discrimination.

Objective: After sharing information about Antoine Dodson’s story and viewing a video about dialect discrimination in schools, students will discuss how/if dialect discrimination is a substitute for racism.

Time	Activity
5 minutes	Give students a quiz. Ask them to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Summarize Ellis’s blog post (Ellis, 2010) about Antoine Dodson. Base grades on the amount of accurate information students provided in their answers.
10 minutes	Ask the class to form groups of three or four students to share what they learned about the Dodsons. Then, have each group share with the class the most memorable and interesting things from the group.
15 minutes	Discuss the blog post (Ellis, 2010) about Antoine Dodson. Ask the class: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “What struck you as memorable?” • “What interesting things did you learn from the blog post?” • “How does this change how you view the Dodsons?” Discuss how the news station glossed over the violence and how the police did not take the attempted rape seriously. Ask the class: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Are people laughing at or with Antoine?” • “Do we laugh at the Dodsons because of their race?” Pose hypothetical questions:

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Would it be funny if they spoke with a Chicago accent?” • “What if Antoine were a white male from Muncie? Would it be funny then?” <p>Intended goal of discussion: Emphasize the role race plays in what is considered funny.</p>
5 minutes	<p>Watch a video about discrimination in schools against African Americans.</p> <p>In the video, from the <i>Do You Speak American?</i> documentary (2005), four African American men recount their experiences being placed in “special education” classes with mentally retarded children.</p>
15 minutes	<p>Ask the class, “If a student cannot speak the dialect of the teachers, should they be put into special education?” Discuss the psychological damage inflicted on these men. Encourage students to tell stories of their own mistreatment in school.</p>

Reflection: Asking students to find more information about Antoine Dodson encourages them to do research, which is one focus of this required writing course (“English 104”). Also, asking students to teach their peers helps create a “student-centered” classroom. Most students were reluctant to discuss race or racist attitudes; some expressed their opinion that whether or not something is “funny” is separate from the question of race. These video from *Do You Speak American?* (2005) provided evidence to the students that dialect discrimination is real, and the ensuing discussion gave the class an opportunity to share their own stories of the harm that prescriptivism can inflict.

Day 4: Class discussion.

Objective: Students will demonstrate that they read the assigned text (Lippi-Green, 1997, pp. 1-40) by contributing to the class discussion.

Reading notes on pages 1-40 of the textbook for the dialect awareness unit, *English with an Accent*, were due. This homework was assigned on Day 1.

Time	Activity
50 minutes	<p>Class discussion: <i>English with an Accent</i> (Lippi-Green, 1997, pp. 1-40). Answer students' questions about the text. Ask students which passages they wrote about in their reading notes. Encourage discussion by asking:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Were there any parts you did not understand?” • “Were there any parts you didn't agree with?” • “Were there any parts that resonated with you?” • “Were there any parts that can help us understand Antoine Dodson?”

Homework: Begin finding sources and planning their outline for the next major writing assignment (Appendix D), as well as reading *English with an Accent* (pp. 75-170).

Reflection: Students tended to disagree with Lippi-Green's overall message even as they agreed with parts of the text. They understood the metaphor of the Sound House (pp. 46-52), but felt that the book was not written for their reading level. I suspect if Lippi-Green were male, students would consider her more authoritative.

Day 5: Help with the outline.

Objectives: After a lecture on the regional variation of vowel sounds of English, students will recognize the vowel sounds characteristic of some major American dialects.

Time	Activity
10 minutes	Explain the assignment for the dialect paper (Appendix D). The dialect paper is a major writing assignment incorporating primary and secondary research about a dialect of their choice.
10 minutes	Inform students that they are required to turn in an outline of their future paper on Day 7. Show the class the example outline of a dialect paper (Appendix E), because not all students have experience writing outlines.
10 minutes	To help students pick a person to interview, ask the class to make a list of all the people they could possibly interview and which dialect they spoke. Encourage them to investigate the dialect that appeared most often in this list, so if one interviewee cancelled, they had many other people they could ask.
20 minutes	<p>Give the class a lecture on phonology. Cover these main points:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Many dialects of English have fourteen vowel sounds, but only five letters to represent these sounds; for this reason it is a convention in linguistics to use specific symbols to represent vowel sounds, rather than letters. • Do not teach the class every International Phonetic Alphabet vowel symbol in English. Only teach the symbols which will help them discuss American dialects (e.g., æ, a, ai, and ε) as most discussions of English dialects focus on differences in pronouncing these

	<p>vowels.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cover the phonological details of what they often call a “drawl” (monophthongization of /ai/ in Southern dialects) and the “stressed A” of Northern Cities (æ-tensing).
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Reflection: The phonology lesson gave students the vocabulary to discuss different accents and dialects specifically; additionally, students begin to understand the phonological processes behind accents, and to understand that they are rule-governed. The students were amazed to learn that a “drawl” is a glide deletion and the “stressed A” is a vowel change.

Day 6: The Midland dialect and *Dovey Coe*.

Objectives: After a lecture, students will be able to recognize some grammatical (*need + past participle*, positive *anymore*) and phonological (*cot-caught* merger) features of the Midland dialect. After translating a text written in Appalachian English into Standard English, students will judge the rhetorical value of nonstandard dialects in a literary context.

Time	Activity
10 minutes	<p>Lecture about the distinctive features of the Midland dialect, which is the native dialect of most of the students in this study. Begin by showing the following sentences:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If you don't have a ride, do you need picked up? 2. The dishes need washed. 3. It's hard to find an honest politician anymore.

	<p>4. It seems everyone has a smartphone anymore.</p> <p>Ask the class to raise their hand if they thought the sentences 1 and 2 were acceptable, then, if 3 and 4 were acceptable. Sentences 1 and 2 are examples of the <i>need + past participle</i> construction; sentences 3 and 4 exhibit positive <i>anymore</i>. These two nonstandard grammatical structures are diagnostic of the Midland dialect but are not accepted in most other dialects of English.</p>
10 minutes	<p>Next, write <i>cot</i> and <i>caught</i> on the board. Ask students to raise a hand if the words sounded the same to them. Ask students to raise a hand if the words were different. I asked those students to please say the words, so the rest of the class could hear the distinction. This is called the <i>cot-caught</i> merger, in which <i>cot</i> and <i>caught</i> are homophones for many North Americans but distinctive for others. Ask students if they have any questions.</p>
30 minutes	<p>After the class discussion, put students into groups. Students read the first chapter of <i>Dovey Coe</i> (Dowell, 2001, p. 1-5), a young adult novel written in Appalachian English and available online at amazon.com. Groups work together to translate it into Standard English, then take turns reading aloud their translations. Ask, “Which version is a more effective narrative strategy and why?” (This lesson plan was adapted from Groome & Gibbs, 2008.)</p>

Reflection: The students’ reactions were mixed, but some students accepted each of the four sentences written on the board at the beginning of class. The vast majority of the class raised a hand when asked if *cot* and *caught* are homophones. Students asked many

questions about these three features of the Midland dialect. The students judged the original *Dovey Coe*, written in Appalachian English, as more interesting than their translations into the Standard.

Day 7: American Sign Language is a language.

Objectives: After a lecture by a professor who uses American Sign Language (ASL), students will appreciate ASL as a language with its own history, grammar, and dialects. By answering questions about one of the chapters in their textbook (Lippi-Green, 1997), students will identify the strategies a professional author uses to construct a written argument.

The outline, with sources, was due. The reading notes from pages 41-76 of *English with an Accent* were also due.

Time	Activity
25 minutes	Have a native signer of American Sign Language (ASL) come in to teach the class about ASL. Through interpreters, ask the guest speaker to relate the history of ASL from its beginnings to recent milestones. Encourage students to ask questions at the end of the lecture.
25 minutes	Allow students to put themselves in groups of three or four. Each group chooses one chapter of <i>English with an Accent</i> and answers the following questions about that chapter (adapted from Short, 2007): <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What is the thesis, what is the overall argument the author presents? 2. What did the author choose to study? Why?

	<p>3. What is the writer's purpose? To inform? To persuade? To criticize?</p> <p>4. Who is the author's intended audience?</p> <p>5. How does the writer arrange his or her ideas? Chronologically?</p> <p>6. How does the writer use diction? (Word choice, arrangement, accuracy, is it formal, informal? Technical versus slang?)</p> <p>7. Does the writer use dialogue? Quotations? Why?</p> <p>8. Are important terms repeated?</p> <p>9. What is the sentence structure of text? Are there fragments, run-ons? Is it declarative, imperative, exclamatory? What effect does this have?</p> <p>10. Does the writer use punctuation to create an effect? Italics, underlining, parentheses? Which marks does the writer use, and when?</p> <p>11. Does the writer use "I" and "me"? To what effect?</p> <p>12. How do you think the writer felt as she wrote this? What makes you think she felt this way?</p> <p>13. What, in your opinion, is the best part of this essay? In what way can it be improved?</p> <p>14. What strategies found in this essay can you use in your own research paper?</p>
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Reflection: The homework was meant to encourage students to read the textbook and work on their research papers outside of class. The students asked the guest speaker questions about ASL such as, "Does the deaf community have its own holidays?" and "Does ASL have regional accents?" They needed direct instruction to look in the book before answering these questions about the way the textbook was written; they wanted to

guess the answers, and they were often wrong. For example, students assumed that Lippi-Green would not use “I” and “me”. She does.

Day 8: Class discussion.

Objective: Students will debate whether dialect discrimination is as unethical as other forms of discrimination.

Time	Activity
50 minutes	<p>Tell the class that, in this exercise, they were a city council. Present a series of hypothetical situations to make clear the connection between racial, sexual, and dialect discrimination. Ask them questions related to these hypothetical situations, such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Should an owner of a car repair shop be able to fire a woman if customers prefer a male mechanic? • Should an African American kindergarten teacher be fired if the parents of the children prefer a Caucasian teacher? • Should a kindergarten teacher with a foreign accent be fired if parents are concerned that their child will begin speaking with the same accent?

Reflection: Because I was concerned with some of the prejudicial beliefs expressed in their written responses to *English with an Accent*, I found it necessary to rearrange the class schedule to talk with the students about the ideas in the text. Students unanimously agreed that racial and sexual hiring discrimination were indefensible positions; the

parallel hypothetical situation using the examples of kindergarten teachers with Mainstream United States English (MUSE), African American English (AAE), and foreign accents received a different response. The students whose responses contained blatantly racist opinions were outspoken about the unsuitability of a person with a foreign accent to teach kindergarten; the students whose responses indicated that they agreed with Lippi-Green and were more tolerant did not speak during this discussion.

Day 9: Registers and eye dialects.

Objectives: Students will write and act out skits about situations that require code-switching. After a class discussion, students will recognize that eye dialects usually depict speakers of nonstandard dialects pejoratively.

Time	Activity
10 minutes	Teach students about the different registers of language that we use and relate registers to dialects and code-switching. Ask a student, “What do I have in my hand?” He or she will respond, “A pen.” Explain sentence “fragments” in writing and speech, and explain that there are different rules for written and spoken registers. Give many examples. Ask a student to tell a brief story about something that happened as though he or she were telling it to a friend; then, ask the student to tell the same story as though he or she were talking to a parent.
30 minutes	In groups of two or three students write brief skits, showcasing two different registers that related the same story or gave the same message. Each group has five or ten minutes to create a skit and rehearse. Every

	group presents their skit to the rest of the class.
10 minutes	<p>Write the following sentences on the board and ask students to read aloud and compare these two sentences:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Excuse me, can you help me find my dog? 2. ‘Scooz me, kin yew he’p me fin’ mah dawg? <p>Sentence 2 is written in an eye dialect, using misspelled words to indicate that the speaker is uneducated. Ask students:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “What does the spelling in #2 convey about the speaker?” • “How can you pronounce #1 without it sounding like #2?” • “Have you seen eye dialects in any literature you have read?” <p>Goal of discussion: Students realize eye dialects represent the speaker pejoratively. Ask the class how they could represent a dialect in writing without using an eye dialect.</p>

Homework: Produce a 3-4 page rough draft of their research paper, with all the sources and Works Cited page.

Reflection: The skit exercise demonstrated that students regularly switch registers, to familiarize them with code-switching. Ideas about how to depict nonstandard dialects orthographically ranged from writing everything phonetically to writing everything in Standard Written English and describing the phonetic changes in the text. This discussion showed students how eye dialects portray stigmatized dialects inaccurately and allowed students to propose alternative orthographic solutions.

Day 10: Pixar and dialect.

Objective: Students will understand the ways children’s movies reinforce prejudicial attitudes towards speakers of nonstandard dialects and foreign accents.

Time	Activity
50 minutes	<p>Guest speaker: Tiffany Ellis’s presentation “Through the looking glass: A sociolinguistic analysis of Disney and Disney-Pixar” (2011).</p> <p>Focus on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The newer Disney films use far fewer British and Australian accents than ones in Lippi-Green’s often-anthologized Chapter 5, “Teaching children how to discriminate: What we learn from the Big Bad Wolf” (1997, pp. 79-103) • However, Disney villains now use stigmatized US dialects more than in the past • All main characters in these films use a Mainstream US English dialect, even if the film’s setting is in a foreign country <p>Encourage students to ask questions.</p>

Reflection: In this discussion, fewer students expressed prejudice than in our earlier class discussions.

Day 11: Peer review.

Objective: Students will improve their research papers after receiving feedback from their peers about their drafts.

Time	Activity
50 minutes	Students either post their first draft of their research paper to Blackboard or

	bring a paper draft to class. They pick a partner and review their partner's draft using the Research Paper Peer Review Form (Appendix F), which was adapted from a document published online by Union County Public Schools (Meeks, n.d.).
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Reflection: The questions in Appendix F help students focus on the important aspects of their papers. Reading their classmates' drafts helps students gain perspective on the assignment.

Day 12: Paper due, meet groups.

Objective: Students will meet their groups and brainstorm ideas for their next major assignment.

The research paper on a dialect of English was due.

Time	Activity
10 minutes	Read a summary of the next major assignment: a group project to create a website on dialects (Appendix G). This major project is a group project.
40 minutes	Assign groups based on the dialects of English they had researched. Students meet their groups and brainstorm ideas for the website.

Homework: Write a 500-word essay on past experiences with collaboration in school.

Every student then reads their group members' essays on working in groups.

Reflection: Presenting their research as a website fulfills several obligations for the course, Composing Research: multimodal presentation of research, working in groups, and presenting their work to different audiences (Lutkewitte & Hedge, 2010; "English 104"). I have found that the essay on previous collaborative projects helps students to reflect on which collaboration techniques worked in the past and which did not work.

Days 13-18: Writing collaboratively.

Objective: Students will work collaboratively to create a website in order to present their research about dialects to the general public.

Students have six class periods to work on their websites with their groups in class. Only lecture on topics related to presenting research through a website or working effectively in groups. On Day 18 teach the class techniques for writing timed essays, such as reading the prompt completely, pre-writing, and writing several drafts. Students have most of the class time during these days to work with their groups on their website.

Homework: Reading notes on pages 77-132 of *English with an Accent* (Lippi-Green, 1997) are due on Day 16.

Reflection: By the end of *English with an Accent*, students agreed with Lippi-Green's overall argument.

Day 19: Practice final.

Objective: Students will improve their timed essay writing skills through practice.

Time	Activity
50 minutes	On Day 19 students practice writing a timed essay to prepare for the final exam (Appendix H). The practice final presents students with four quotes by two Presidents of the United States and two Vice Presidents. In each of these quotes, the elected official uses the word <i>ain't</i> . The practice final asked students to explain, using their knowledge of rhetoric and dialects, why these men chose to use nonstandard English to express themselves publicly.

Reflection: Ball State University requires every course to meet at the designated finals time to take their final exam. My students write a timed essay based on a prompt. I instruct them on how to take timed essays and I also allow class time to practice writing a timed essay.

Day 20: Website peer review.

Objective: Students will improve their websites after receiving feedback from peers.

Time	Activity
25 minutes	Each student receives the Peer Review form (Appendix I). Each student independently completes the Peer Review Form for another group's website.
40 minutes	After giving the forms back to the groups whose websites they had reviewed, the class reads the peer review forms and plans the appropriate changes.

Homework: I gave students the Collaboration Grading Sheet (see Appendix J), so they could grade their group members in private.

Reflection: Allowing students to grade their group members provides an incentive to students who otherwise might not put in much work on the group project.

Day 21: Last day.

Objective: Students will present their websites to the class in an ungraded presentation lasting no more than five minutes.

Time	Activity

20 minutes	First, distribute (or have a colleague distribute) the Post-Test according to the Protocol submitted to IRB. This included the consent form in Appendix C, the Likert-type items from Appendix A, and the open-ended questions in Appendix B.
30 minutes	Each group has 5 minutes to present their website to the class. This is not graded, but was meant to share their work with their peers.
0 minutes	Collect each student's grades for their group members in Appendix J.

Reflection: Their websites were more sophisticated than their research papers. I am not sure if this was due to their ability to collaborate or their increased understanding of the material as time passed.

Day 22: Final exam.

Objective: Students will demonstrate their knowledge of dialects and their writing skills by writing a 3-4 page essay in two hours.

Time	Activity
120 minutes	Students take a two-hour final exam (see Appendix K). This is not specifically a part of the dialect awareness curriculum, as it occurs after the collection of the post-test, but it is related to the curriculum. The final exam asks students to write a brief short story about a world in which African American English (AAE) is the Standard dialect required for success in school and for employment at many places of business. ²

² This exam prompt was adapted from an exercise developed by a colleague at Ball State University.

Reflection: One student posted on Blackboard that he wished he had done this exercise earlier in the semester. As a result, I now use Appendix K as the practice final exam.

Several students have since expressed to me how much they appreciated this exercise.

Collection of Post-Test Data

The students' reactions to the dialect awareness unit were gathered on the last day of class. One of my colleagues distributed the consent form (Appendix C), the Likert-type scale which was also distributed for the pre-test (Appendix A), and a questionnaire of open-ended questions (Appendix B). I asked this colleague to gather the data so that students would not feel coerced into participating in the study. The students were assured that their answers were confidential, the questionnaires would not be opened until after final grades were turned in, and their answers could not affect their grades.

On the same day, I went to the control group's classroom and distributed the consent forms and post-test (Appendices A, B, and C).

Analysis of the Data

The data was analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. The open-ended questions were analyzed by a careful, close reading; the themes were allowed to emerge from the qualitative data. The Likert-type items were analyzed statistically, using Predicative Analytic Software (PASW).

Before the statistical analysis could be undertaken, the data had to be coded in such a way that the program, PASW, could analyze the data. First, items 5, 6, 10, 13, 17, and 18 on Appendix A were reverse-coded to make the numbers comparable. This step was undertaken because the Likert-type item "4," or "Strongly Disagree," reflects the most tolerant response to the other 14 items. For example, the most tolerant response to

item #4, “Southern accents are ungrammatical,” is Likert-item “4,” for “Strongly disagree.” Items 5, 6, 10, 13, 17, and 18 break this pattern; for example, circling “4” for item #5, “When people pronounce *wash* with an *r*, like *warshed*, it doesn’t bother me,” would indicate that this pronunciation bothers the respondent a great deal, and therefore is reflective of intolerance in regards to this pronunciation, which happens to be common in Indiana. (Including negatively-worded items is common in Likert-type items and helps to ensure that participants carefully read and answer each item.) Answers of “5,” or “I don’t know,” were changed to a blank and appear as holes in the data. Therefore, for the purposes of the statistical analysis, items not answered at all by the participants were grouped with items answered with a “5” as non-answers. The responses of participants who did not take both tests were removed from the data set as part of the reverse coding process.

After each participant’s scores were reverse-coded, each participant’s mean score on both the pre-test and the post-test was calculated using Microsoft Excel. The mean scores were needed because statistical tests pertinent to this study, such as t-tests and ANCOVA, associate one number with one participant. Since each participant had answered twenty questions, it made sense to reduce these twenty scores to one arithmetic mean in order to draw conclusions about the participant’s scores.

I chose to analyze the data using t-tests, as these are capable of discerning whether two groups are statistically the same or different. T-tests are capable of providing support for the hypothesis because a t-test can determine if the experimental group changed after the dialect awareness unit. T-tests are also capable of determining if the

control group and the experimental group were statistically similar before the dialect instruction.

ANCOVA was also chosen to analyze the data because unlike an analysis of variance (ANOVA), ANCOVA is able to estimate the effect of one variable upon another, while disregarding the effect of a third variable. ANCOVA therefore will estimate the effect of the lessons on dialect awareness on the post-test while adjusting for pre-existing individual variance in tolerance as measured by the pre-test. In other words, even if, due to chance, there were more tolerant students enrolled in the experimental group, the ANCOVA will correct for this sampling error.

After an ANCOVA test, statisticians often run a test of the effect size. Tests of effect size estimate the amount that the treatment affected the dependent variable, after controlling for covariates. For this study I chose to use eta squared, a test of effect size that is appropriate for repeated measures designs.

Participant attrition affected this study. In the experimental group, two students who took the pre-test dropped the course and did not take the post-test. In the control group, four students dropped the course after taking the pre-test and two students who did not take the pre-test took the post-test. All data from these students were excluded from the analysis for a total of 19 participants in the experimental group and 18 participants in the control group.

PASW was used for most of the descriptive statistics and exclusively used for the inferential statistics, which were used to interpret the data and to determine whether or not the hypotheses were supported. I first generated descriptive statistics of the raw test scores in order to summarize the raw data before it was adjusted for inferential statistics.

After the reverse-coding process, described above, descriptive statistics were generated for the adjusted scores. This was done because, unlike the descriptive statistics for the raw scores, the descriptive statistics for the adjusted scores provided a meaningful comparison between items.

Before each of the inferential statistic tests, the data were analyzed in order to determine if all the relevant assumptions (e.g., normality, linearity, homogeneity of variance, and others) had been met. This is a critical step normally undertaken before the tests are run to determine if the data is appropriate for the test. Then, I ran several statistical tests: paired samples t-tests, independent samples t-tests, and an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). Each statistical test contributes information regarding the effectiveness of the dialect awareness unit in changing students' attitudes as measured by the pre-test and the post-test. T-tests determine if two pairs of scores are related; the design of this study enabled me to run t-tests comparing within-group scores and also to compare scores between the groups. The paired sample t-tests, run for each group, determined if a group's answers on the post-test differed significantly from their answers on the pre-test. The independent samples t-tests allows for the comparison of one group's answers with the other group's answers on the same test and to determine whether the groups differed significantly from each other. Once I determined whether the experimental group's answers on the post-test differed from their answers on the pre-test, and whether they differed from the control group's answers, I ran an ANCOVA. ANCOVA removes the effects of the covariate(s); for this study, the covariate for each participant was their mean score on the pre-test. By removing the effects of the covariate,

ANCOVA can provide stronger statistical support for the effectiveness of the dialect awareness unit.

I analyzed the results in order to determine the effect of the dialect awareness unit on the participants' test scores. The results of these descriptive and inferential tests are reported in the next chapter.

Chapter 4:

Quantitative Results

I conducted a number of statistical tests on the pre-tests and post-tests to measure two hypotheses:

1. Students will show a significant increase in linguistic awareness on post-test following the dialect awareness unit
2. Following the dialect awareness unit, students will demonstrate an increased tolerance towards stigmatized, non-standard dialects.

To test these hypotheses, I compared the experimental group's pre- and post-test scores using a paired samples t-test. The raw scores are reprinted for the sake of transparency in Appendices L, M, N, and O. Spaces with no number indicate that the student left that question blank. The question numbers from the Likert-type items are reproduced along the top row. Histograms, which compare the data set to an idealized normal curve, of the raw data are in Appendices P, Q, R, and S.

Cronbach's alpha was calculated for the pre-test and the post-test to estimate the internal reliability of the questionnaire. I then ran paired samples t-tests for both groups (control and experimental), independent samples t-tests for each set of tests (pre-tests and

post-tests), and ANCOVA. Eta squared was calculated in order to determine the effect size.

The results showed significant improvement in dialect awareness, supporting the hypotheses. The t-tests determined that the control group's scores had not changed significantly and that the two groups were not different before the dialect awareness unit but were significantly different afterwards. The analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) showed that the dialect awareness unit increased the post-test scores regardless of students' pre-existing tolerance levels. These tests confirm the effectiveness of the dialect awareness unit.

Also, I grouped each Likert-type item according to topic (e.g., the Midland dialect, linguistic subordination, etc.). I then calculated the change in the experimental group's mean scores for each item from the pre-test to the post-test. The changes in mean scores were used to evaluate the dialect awareness unit's effectiveness in teaching those topics.

Ultimately, I conclude that the hypotheses are supported by the quantitative results. The dialect awareness unit increased students' tolerance and raised their dialect awareness.

Results

The adjusted data sets are reproduced below in the following order: Table 1 is the experimental pre-test, Table 2 is the experimental post-test, Table 3 is the control pre-test, and Table 4 is the control post-test. The means of each participant's scores as well as the mean scores of each question are also given. Here, in order to fit the data on one page, the means are rounded to the nearest hundredth (although the means were not rounded during

the statistical analysis). Blanks indicate where a participant either did not answer a question or answered with “I Don’t Know.”

Table 1
Experimental Pre-Test after Reverse Coding Adjusting for Attrition

Participant ID	Item #1	Item #2	Item #3	Item #4	Item #5	Item #6	Item #7	Item #8	Item #9	Item #10	Item #11	Item #12	Item #13	Item #14	Item #15	Item #16	Item #17	Item #18	Item #19	Item #20	Mean	
A	2	3	3	3	3	3					4	1		3	3	4		3	3		2.92	
B	1	1	3	3	1	4	4		3	3	4	1	3	1	3	1	2	3	3	3	1	2.37
C		3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	2	3	2	3	3	2	3	3	3	2	3	2	2.68
D	2	3	3	3	3	4	4	3			4	2	4	2		3	2	3	4		3.06	
E	3	4	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	3	3			2		2	3	3			2.73	
F	2	3	3	4	2	4	3	4		3	3		4	3		1	2	3	4		3.00	
G	1	2	3	2		4	3	2		3		1	4	3	2	1	2	4	4		2.56	
H	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	2.90
I	1	2	3	2	1	3	4	3	2		3	1	2	2		2	2	3	3	1	2.22	
J	3	3	4	3	1	3	4	4	2		4	2	3			2		3	4	2	2.94	
K	2	4	4	4	4	4		2		4		3	3	4	4	2	3	3	4	3	3.35	
L	3	3	4		3	3	4	2	2	3	4	3	3	3	3	2		3	4	3	3.06	
M	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2.85	
N	2	4	4	3	2	3	2	4	3		4	2	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	3	3.21	
O	2	3	3		1	4	2	3	2	3	4	1	4	2	3	2	1	3	4	3	2.63	
P	1	3	4	3	2				2	2	2	2	3	2	3	2	3	3	3		2.53	
Q	2	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	4	3	2	4	1	3	3	3	3	3	3	2.95	
R	2	3	3	2	1	3	3	4	2		3	2	3	1	4	2	3	3	4	3	2.68	
S	3	4	4	4	4	4	2	2	4	4	4	1	4		4	4	3	4	4	2	3.42	
Mean	2.06	2.95	3.32	3.00	2.33	3.44	3.00	2.94	2.62	3.08	3.41	1.88	3.35	2.47	3.07	2.32	2.56	3.12	3.56	2.38	2.85	

Table 2
Experimental Post-Test after Reverse Coding and Adjusting for Attrition

Participant ID	Item #1	Item #2	Item #3	Item #4	Item #5	Item #6	Item #7	Item #8	Item #9	Item #10	Item #11	Item #12	Item #13	Item #14	Item #15	Item #16	Item #17	Item #18	Item #19	Item #20	
A	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	1	3	3	3		3	3	3	3	2.82
B	1	2	2	4	2	4		3	4	4	4	1	4	2			3	3	4	4	2.94
C	3	3	3	3	2	2	4	3	3	2	3	4	3	1	2	3	2	4	3	1	2.70
D	2	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3		3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	3.00
E	3	4		3	3	3		3	3		4	3	4	3	3			4	4	4	3.40
F	1	3	4	4	2	4	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	2	2	4	4	4	3.35
G	2	4	4	4	2	4	4	4	4	4	4	2	4	3	3	2	3	4	4	4	3.42
H	2	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	3.45
I	1	3	4	3	1	3	3	3	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	2.63
J	2	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	4	4	2	3	3.50
K	2	4	4	4	4	4	2		3	2	4	2	4	4	3	2	4	4	4	3	3.32
L	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3.00
M	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2.95
N	2	3	4	3	3	4	3	4	4	3	4	1	4	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	3.30
O	2	4	4	4	2	4	4	4	3	4		2	4	3	4	3	3	3	4	4	3.42
P	2	3	4	3	1		3	3	3		3	2	3	2		3	2	4	4	2	2.76
Q	1	4	3	3		4		3	3	3	1	3	3	2	3	3	4	3	1	1	2.67
R	2	4	4	2	2	3	3	4	4		3	2	3	2	4	2	3	3	4	3	3.00
S	2	3	4	4	4	4	2	1	3	4	4	2	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	2	3.25
Mean	1.95	3.42	3.56	3.37	2.61	3.50	3.07	3.28	3.32	3.14	3.39	2.42	3.53	2.79	3.00	2.69	3.11	3.47	3.47	2.93	3.10

Table 3
Control Pre-Test after Reverse Coding and Adjustment for Attrition

Participant ID	Item #1	Item #2	Item #3	Item #4	Item #5	Item #6	Item #7	Item #8	Item #9	Item #10	Item #11	Item #12	Item #13	Item #14	Item #15	Item #16	Item #17	Item #18	Item #19	Item #20	
Alpha	2	4	4	3	4	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	3	4	4	3	3	4	2.89	
Beta	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	1	3	2	3	3	2	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	2.35
Gamma	2	4		3	1	4	2		2	2	4	1	3	1	1	1		4	4	3	2.47
Delta	3	4	2	3	4	4	1	4	2	3		4	2	2	3	4	3	4	4	2	3.11
Epsilon	1		3	3	2	4				3	4	2	3	2	3	3	2	3	3		2.73
Zeta	3	3	2	4	3	3				3	4	3	4	4		4	3	4	4		3.40
Kappa	2	3	3	2	4	3	3	4	4	3	3	2	2	4	3	2	3	3	4	3	3.00
Lambda	2	2	3	4	1	4	3		2		2	4	1	2	3	3	3	2	3	1	2.47
Mu	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	1	4	3	3	2		3	3	3	3.21
Nu	4		4	3	4	2	4	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	1	4	3	3.16
Xi	3	3	3	2	1	3	2	2	3	3	3	2	3	2	2	3	3	3	3	1	2.50
Pi	2	1	3	3	1	2	4	3	3	2	3	1	3	3	2	1	2	4	3	1	2.35
Rho	3	3	4	4	1	4	1	1	1	4	4	1	1	1	2	2	3	3	4		2.56
Sigma	1	3	4		4	4	1	4	4	4	4	1	4	4		1	4	4	4	3	3.22
Tau	1	2	3	3	1	3	3	3	3	2	3	1	3	1	4	3	1	2	3	2	2.35
Upsilon	3	3	3	2	1	3	1	1	2	1	2	1	3	1	2	2	3	3	4	1	2.10
Phi	1	3	4	3	3	4	2	3	3	4	3		3	2	4	1	1	4	4	2	2.84
Chi	2	3		3	4	1	3	1	3	1	2	3	1	4	3	2	3	2	4	4	2.61
RRRR	2.22	2.94	3.25	3	2.44	3.33	2.25	2.69	2.53	2.78	3.31	1.67	3.11	2.33	2.69	2.44	2.44	3.17	3.56	2.14	2.74

Table 4
Control Group's Post-Test after Reverse Coding and Adjustment for Attrition

Participant ID	Item #1	Item #2	Item #3	Item #4	Item #5	Item #6	Item #7	Item #8	Item #9	Item #10	Item #11	Item #12	Item #13	Item #14	Item #15	Item #16	Item #17	Item #18	Item #19	Item #20	ORRR
Alpha	2	3	3	2	1	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	2	3	3	2	3	4	4	3.17
Beta	2	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	2	2	3	2		2	4	3	3	2	4	2	2.58
Gamma	2	3	3	3	1	3		3	3	3	3	1	3	1	2	3	3	3	4	3	2.61
Delta	3	3	4	4	4	4	2	4	4	3	4	3	3	3	2	4	4	4	4	4	3.47
Epsilon	1		3	3	3	4		4	2	3	4	2	3	2	3	2	3	3	4		2.85
Zeta	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	4	3	3.05
Kappa	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	4	1	3	3	3	2	3	3	4	3	3.00
Lambda	1	2	4		4	1	4	3	3	2	3	1	3	2	2	3	2		3	1	2.44
Mu	2	3	3	3	3	4	1	3	2	1	2	1	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	2	2.45
Nu	3	3	4	4	2	3	3	3	3	1	3	3	4	3		3	3	4	3	3	3.05
Xi	1	2	3	1	4	3	2	2				1		1	4	2		3		2	2.21
Pi	2	1	3	4	2	3	3	3	1	2	3	1	3	2	2	1	2	3	3	1	2.25
Rho	2	3	3	1	1	4	3	3	2	4	3	1	4	2	1	3	4	3	4	1	2.60
Sigma	1	3	4	4	4	4	1	4	4	4	4	1	4	4	3	1	4	4	4	4	3.30
Tau	1	4	3	2	1	3	4	4	3	2	4	2	4	1		3	2	2	3		2.67
Upsilon	2	2	3	2	1	3		2	1	3	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	3	3	4	2.00
Phi	2	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	2	1	2	2	4	2	3	2	3	3	3	2	2.65
Chi	3	2	3	3	2		3	2	2	2	3	3	3	2	2	3	2	2			2.47
ORRR	1.94	2.71	3.22	2.76	2.56	3.29	2.64	3.06	2.69	2.50	3.18	1.83	3.25	2.11	2.5	2.47	2.88	3.00	3.63	2.23	2.71

Changes in mean scores. The measurements of central tendency³ for each group are given in Table 5. The experimental group's post-test shows extraordinarily similar measurements of central tendency; this data set's measurements of central tendency are all almost equal. The other three sets of data show more variability. Because the experimental group's post-test is clearly different from the other three data sets, it is reasonable to assume that the dialect awareness unit caused a measurable difference in the students' tolerance levels.

Table 5

The Measurements of Central Tendency

	mean	median	mode	std. dev. ⁴
C Pre	2.7402	2.6722	2.35	0.37741
C Post	2.7125	2.6306	2	0.39681
X Pre	2.8465	2.9	2.68	0.31353
X Post	3.099	3	3	0.29676

³ Measurements of central tendency are used to understand the middle of the data set and the most frequently found scores. The mode is the score that is most frequently found in the data; the median is the middle score, which may not actually exist in the data; and the mean is the average of all the scores. All three are included to give the most accurate and detailed description of the data. Of all the measurements of central tendency, only the means are used for the inferential statistics.

⁴ The standard deviation is a number representing how much each score deviates from the mean. A small standard deviation indicates that the scores in a data set are clustered near the mean and a large standard deviation indicates the scores are spread out away from the center.

The experimental group showed a marked increase in mean scores across all items from the pre-test ($M = 2.8465$, $SD = 0.31353$) to the post-test ($M = 3.099$, $SD = 0.29676$). This is a mean increase of .2526. Clearly, after the dialect awareness unit the scores for tolerance of stigmatized dialects increased. Table 6 shows each student's difference in means with the pre-test score subtracted from the post-test score. The results of the experimental group's paired samples t-tests are also reported to show which differences in means were statistically significant.

Table 6

Experimental Group's Difference in Mean Scores

ID	Difference in means	Sig. (2-tailed)
Q	-0.283333333	.263
S	-0.171052632	.163
A	-0.099547511	.339
D	-0.0625	.669
L	-0.055555556	.749
K	-0.037151703	.751
C	0.015789474	1.000
N	0.089473684	.494
M	0.1	.163
P	0.231372549	.273
R	0.315789474	.030
F	0.35	.055
I	0.409356725	.029
H	0.55	.001
J	0.5625	.046
B	0.569078947	.006
E	0.666666667	.015
O	0.789473684	.000
G	0.858552632	.000
mean difference	0.252574374	

As shown in Table 6, the experimental group can be divided into three groups based on the difference in means of their pre-test and post-test scores across all items. Six students' mean scores decreased from the pre-test to the post-test (identified as Q, S, A, D, L, and K). As is clear in Table 1, S and Q's scores were high on the pre-test, and their post-test scores do not show an increase in scores because these students were already quite tolerant. The other four students who experienced a decrease in scores decreased by less than 0.1; because the paired samples t-test for these students yielded a 2-tailed significance level of more than .05, this decrease in scores is not statistically significant. Therefore, we can reasonably claim that these students' scores remained approximately the same from the pre-test to the post-test. Seven students in the experimental group experienced an increase of less than 0.5 (C, N, M, P, R, F, and I); in this group, two students' increases in scores were statistically significant (R and I). Six students experienced an increase of 1.0-0.5 (H, J, B, E, O, and G). All of these six students' increases in scores were statistically significant.

After reverse coding, all three measurements of central tendency for the experimental group's post-test are approximately 3, corresponding to the "Disagree" option on the Likert-style items. This shows that the experimental group tended to disagree with statements on the questionnaire that expressed intolerant attitudes (e.g., "I hate it when people say 'like' all the time") or incorrect statements about language (e.g., "Most Americans don't have any accent at all") after experiencing the dialect awareness unit.

Figure 1 depicts a line graph of the changes in mean scores for each participant in the experimental group. The mean increase in scores and the narrowing of range, discussed below, are clearly visible.

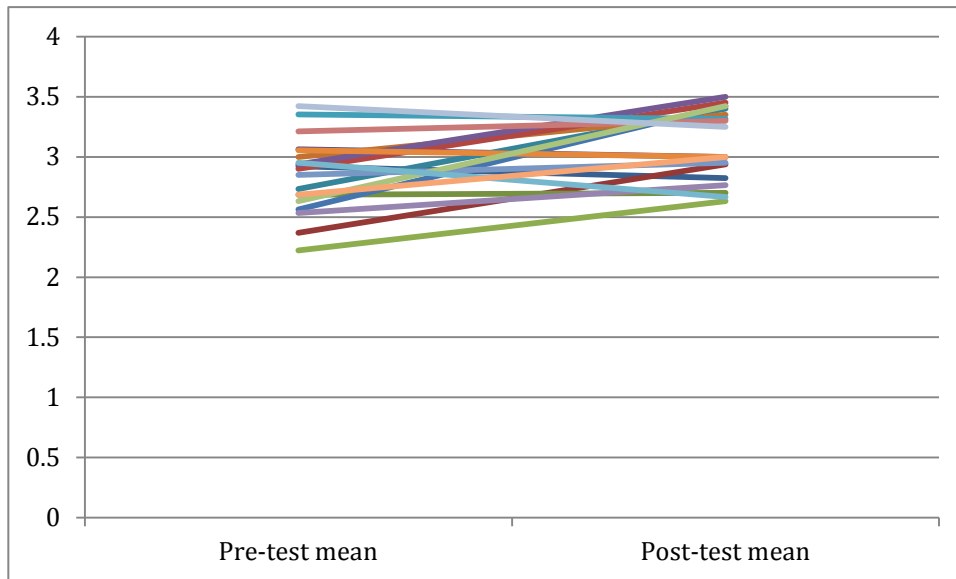


Figure 1. Line graph of experimental group's change in mean scores.

The control group's answers did not change significantly from the pre-test ($M = 2.7402$, $SD = 0.37741$) to the post-test ($M = 2.7125$, $SD = 0.39681$). Recall that a score of 1 is the least tolerant and a score of 4 is the most tolerant. The mode for the control group decreased; however, later t-tests revealed that this decrease was not significant. The control group's mean decreased .0277 from the pre-test to the post-test. Paired samples t-tests later revealed that the experimental group's change was significant and the control group's was not, which indicates that the dialect awareness unit caused a significant change in the experimental group's mean scores.

The experimental group's post-test scores ($M = 3.099$, $SD = 0.29676$) had lower standard deviations than the control group ($M = 2.7125$, $SD = 0.39681$), which means the experimental group's scores were grouped more closely together. The decrease in variance could indicate that the groups had students who were already linguistically aware before the dialect awareness unit, and that the unit changed other students' attitudes to resemble those linguistically aware students.

Further investigation helps us see more clearly that not only did the experimental group's mean increase and standard deviation decrease, the range⁵ also varied. An examination of the change in range shows that the experimental group gave higher (more tolerant) scores on the post-test. The minimum and maximum for the experimental group's pre-test means (the mean of each participant's scores in items 1-20) were 2.22 and 3.42 for a range of 1.2. For the post-test, we see that the minimum and maximum were 2.63 and 3.50, for a range of .87. Comparing the difference, we see that the range decreased by .33 for the post-test. Thus, the range in tolerance levels was larger at the pre-test level than at the post-test level, indicating that students demonstrated a more consistent level of tolerance across all the questions combined. The decreased range in the post-test results and increase in minimum mean scores across all items can be seen in Figure 2.

⁵ The range is the difference between the lowest and highest scores in a data set. Data sets with a greater range contain more variability.

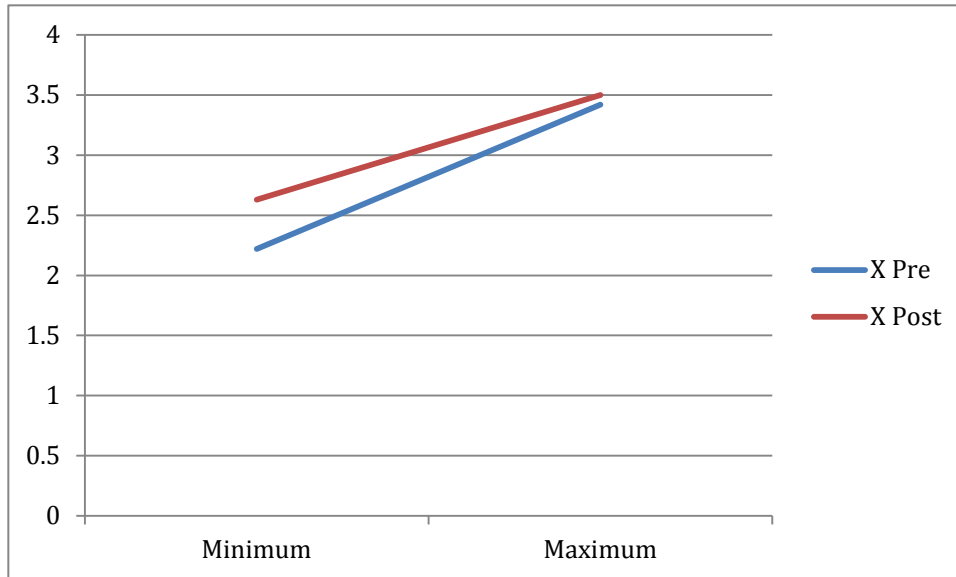


Figure 2. Comparison of experimental group's changes in minimum and maximum scores.

Not surprisingly, the control group, which did not experience the dialect awareness unit, did not see such a difference in range. The control group's minimums were 2.1 and 2.2 for the pre-test and post-test, and the maximums were 3.4 and 3.47, respectively. The control group experienced less change in their average level of tolerance across all items. Where the experimental group had a difference in range of .33, the control group had a difference of only .17 between the ranges of the pre-test and the post-test. We will see that the paired samples t-test for the control group determined that this small change was not statistically significant; we can therefore say that we saw no significant change in range for the control group from the pre-test to the post-test.

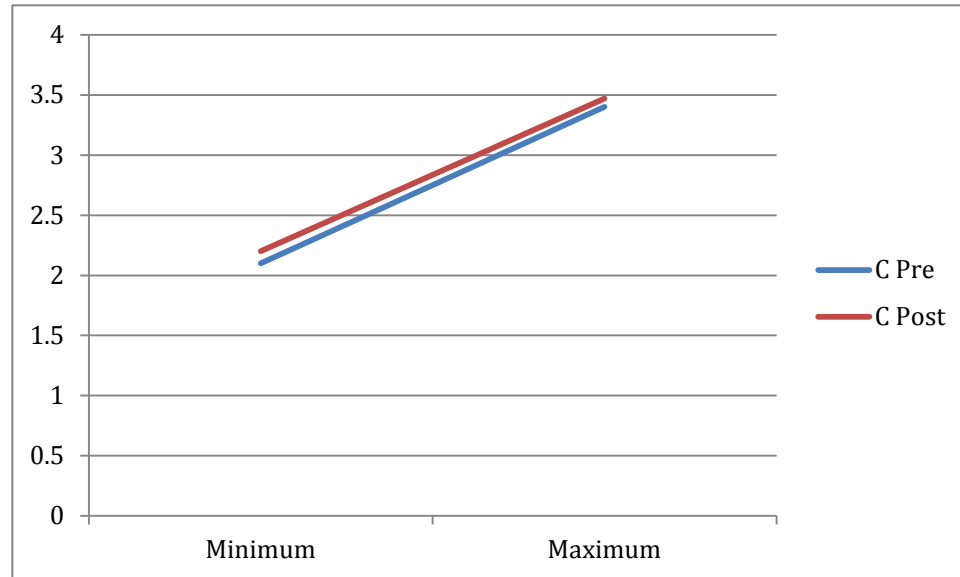


Figure 3. Comparison of control group's changes in minimum and maximum scores.

Figure 3 shows the change in minimum and maximum for the participants' mean scores for the control group. A comparison between the line charts in Figures 2 and 3 clearly shows the experimental group's increase in the minimum score as compared to the control group. The change in ranges adds further support to the hypothesis by showing an increase in minimum mean scores after the dialect awareness unit.

Normality. For paired samples t-tests, we assume⁶ normality⁷, independence⁸, and continuous variables⁹. A visual evaluation of the four histograms shows that the

⁶ Different statistical tests require different sorts of data. For each test there are a number of assumptions that must be met before a test can be run.

⁷ Normality is the extent to which a data set resembles the ideal distribution. If the patterns from the data resemble this idealized norm, then the data has met the assumption of normality. If they do not resemble the norm, the assumption of normality is not met, in which case more statistical tests can be run with the understanding that we should be cautious about the results.

⁸ Independence indicates that each score is independent of the other scores. Independence is contingent on the sampling method; this study, like most classroom research, utilizes

control group's pre-test histogram strongly resembles their post-test, while the experimental group's post-test does not resemble their pre-test. The experimental group's histograms reveal a distinct and clear change over time, while the control group's histograms do not reveal any dramatic change. This change is attributable to the dialect awareness unit and lends support to the hypothesis.

The tests of normality support the hypothesis that the dialect awareness unit changed students' attitudes. The experimental group's histograms (Figures 4 and 5) are unimodal¹⁰ for the pre-test and bimodal for the post-test. This shows that the experimental group's answers changed over the course of the study. These changes in attitudes towards stigmatized dialects are attributed to the dialect awareness unit. The control group's histograms (Figures 6 and 7) show that they did not undergo a similar change, lending further support to the hypothesis. As Figures 4, 6, and 7 show, the experimental group's pre-test and both tests of the control group met the assumption of normality¹¹, unlike the experimental group.

non-random sampling. Fortunately, the target population is college students previously uneducated about natural variation in language. We can therefore claim that this study's sample is "essentially randomly sampled", although we should keep in mind that because the study is an example of classroom research, the results may not be generalizable.

⁹ "Continuous variables" refers to the units of measurement. The Likert scale is technically a discrete scale, but it is common practice to assume continuous variables with Likert scales. For the other two assumptions, I examined histograms. The assumptions are addressed in the next section.

¹⁰ Modality refers to the number of peaks in the histogram. A normal distribution is *unimodal* because it has one peak; as we will see, some data sets have two peaks and are called *bimodal*.

¹¹ Meeting the assumption of normality means that we can be more certain of the accuracy of the inferential tests.

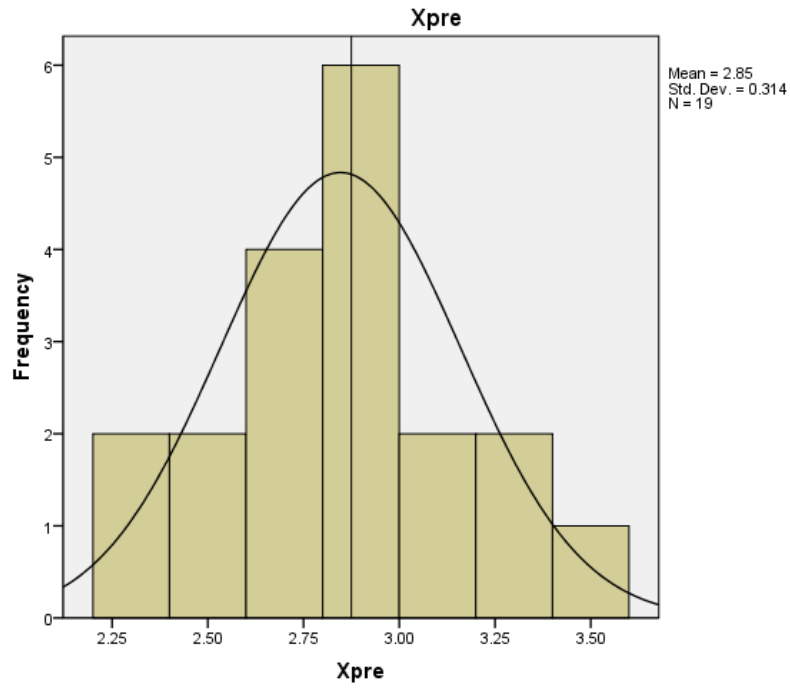


Figure 4. Experimental group’s pre-test after reverse coding and adjusting for attrition.

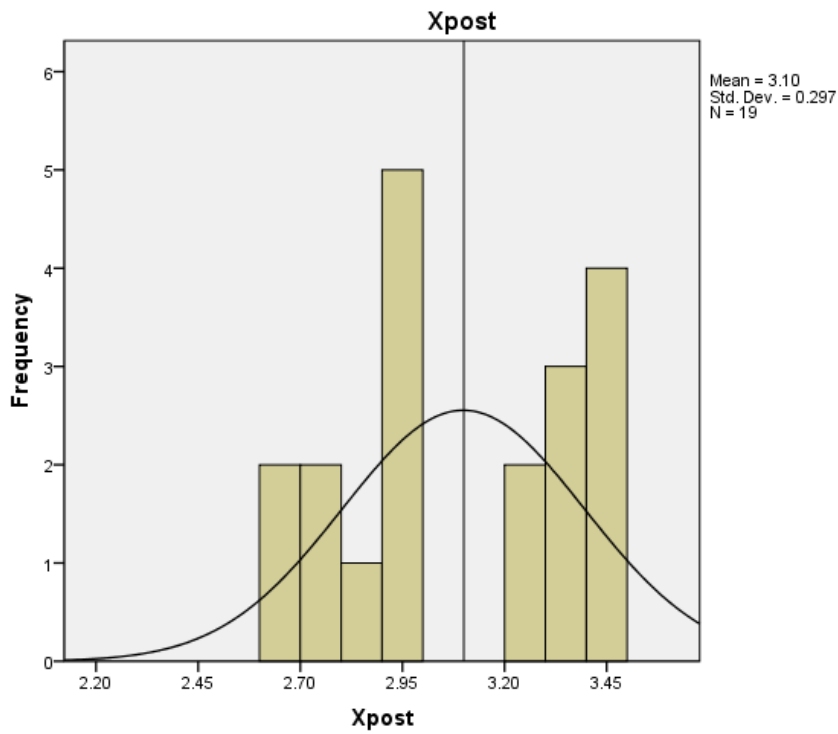


Figure 5. Experimental group’s post-test after reverse coding and adjusting for attrition.

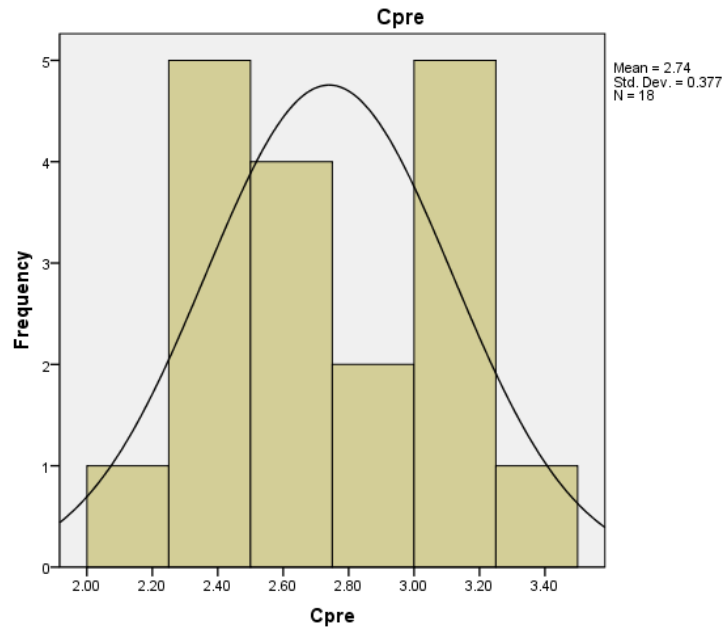


Figure 6. Control group's pre-test after reverse coding and adjusting for attrition.

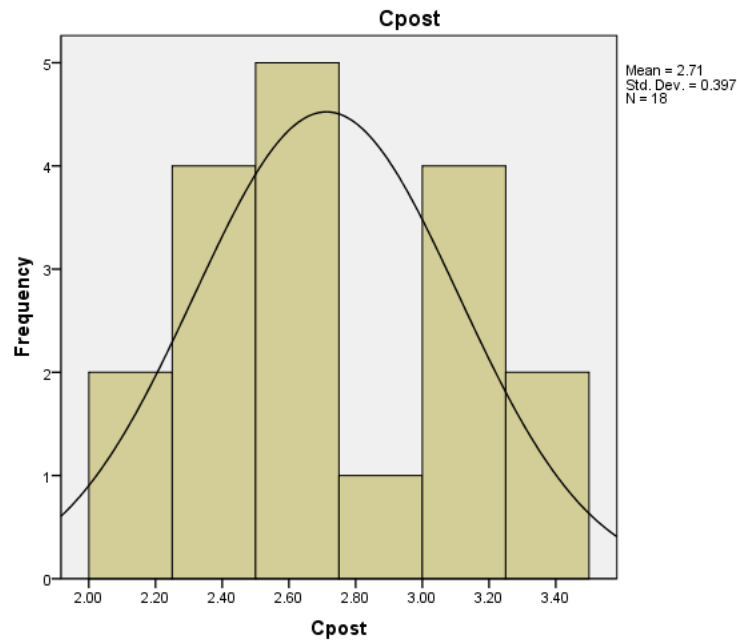


Figure 7. Control group's post-test after reverse coding and adjusting for attrition.

Both sets of test scores from the experimental group were negatively skewed¹², and therefore have more high scores than the ideal normal curve. Therefore the experimental group was skewed to be tolerant of stigmatized dialects. We shall see that a test of analysis of co-variance (ANCOVA) removed the pre-test's scores from the effect of the dialect awareness unit, and showed that the experimental group's post-test skewness is significant after removing the effects of the pre-test.

The experimental group's pre-test was unimodal, or having one peak. Their test scores were slightly leptokurtic¹³, and therefore had more scores clustered in the center. Still, the histogram, represented in Figure 4, clearly shows that the experimental group's pre-test met the assumption of normality.

The histogram for the experimental group's post-test, shown in Figure 5, was highly unusual. Their histogram is bimodal; recall that their pre-test scores were unimodal. A skewed, bimodal histogram often indicates that we are looking at two normal distributions. For example, data sets of human height often are bimodal due to the height difference in males and females; when the data set is divided into two according to gender, we find two normal, unimodal distributions. This could indicate that the treatment, the dialect awareness unit, divided the group into two separate groups, one of which scored higher for tolerance of stigmatized dialects. Alternatively, the rightmost peak could simply be an indication that the treatment succeeded in raising the students' scores. If students whose scores clustered in the center for the pre-test gained more

¹² Skewness refers to the data set's departure from symmetry. Negatively skewed data sets have more high scores than the ideal distribution, and positively skewed data sets have too many low scores.

¹³ A *leptokurtic* distribution has a peak that is higher than the normal curve, and a *platykurtic* distribution has a peak that is too low. The normal curve is called *mesokurtic*.

tolerant, knowledgeable beliefs, their scores would cluster more to the right. These explanations are not mutually exclusive, and both support the hypothesis that the dialect awareness unit was able to change the students' negative attitudes towards nonstandard varieties of English.

The experimental group's post-test results were slightly negatively skewed, at $-.181$, suggesting that the dialect awareness unit, not surprisingly, caused the scores to be higher (that is, more tolerant) than the normal distribution. The kurtosis was -1.504 , which is highly platykurtic; this kurtosis is probably the result of the bimodality.

As is clear in Figure 6, the scores of the control group's pre-test were bimodal, or having two peaks. Therefore the scores deviated from the ideal in that too few scores clustered in the middle. This is clearly seen in the histogram of the control group's pre-test. Bimodality affects the kurtosis, making the center more flat than peaked. This tendency affected the score's kurtosis, which was at -1.134 ¹⁴.

Figure 7 is the histogram showing the control group's post-test. Again, the scores are platykurtic, but we have still met the assumption of normality. While the control group's post-test is bimodal, its kurtosis is at $-.536$, and is therefore less platykurtic than the pre-test. Both sets of scores from the control group were slightly positively skewed, at $.181$ for the pre-test and at $.212$ for the post-test. This means that the control group was

¹⁴ This is platykurtic and violated the assumption of normality; the experimental group's post-test was even more platykurtic. Nevertheless, I decided to proceed with the inferential tests. With such a small group of participants, statisticians are generally rather forgiving with this assumption, and most do not consider normality violated unless the skew or kurtosis exceeds 1.00 or -1.00 ; here, the kurtosis just barely exceeds this cutoff. Additionally, t-tests are robust with respect to normality, which means that deviations from normality have a very small influence on errors, provided that the group to which it is being compared has approximately the same number of participants (as do the other three tests in this study).

more likely to express slightly less tolerant views of stigmatized dialects than the ideal normal curve. However, this skewness is very close to zero, which means that there were approximately as many students with relatively intolerant views as there were students with tolerant views.

Reliability of measurement. To run Cronbach's alpha¹⁵, all participants with missing data were excluded. I ran Cronbach's alpha on both the pre-test and the post-test. As only nine participants never circled "I Don't Know" on the pre-test, Cronbach's alpha was based on only nine cases. The alpha coefficient for the pre-test was .795, which is considered a reliable score for a survey in the social sciences. The post-test had fourteen cases, and the alpha coefficient improved to .834. These scores for Cronbach's alpha indicate that the measurement was internally consistent.

Comparison of changes within groups. To consider the significance of the group's changes in scores, t-tests were conducted.¹⁶ The hypothesis will be supported if there is a significant change in the experimental group's answers from the pre-test to the post-test. The results will be more significant if there is no statistically significant change in the control group's answers from the pre-test to the post-test, as this would indicate that the change in the experimental group's answers was entirely the result of the dialect awareness unit.

¹⁵ Cronbach's alpha measures the reliability of a test.

¹⁶ T-tests are an inferential statistics test capable of comparing two groups and determining if the groups are statistically similar or different. The paired samples t-test is used when two sets of data are linked in some way. For example, twin studies use paired samples t-tests to determine if one twin is significantly different from their twin in some way; because each participant has a twin in the other group, their scores are linked. In this study, because each participant took the test twice, the data sets are not independent, but are linked.

Because paired sample t-tests are capable of determining if two groups are the same or different, they are capable of determining if either group's answers changed significantly from the pre-test to the post-test. The paired samples t-tests compared the means of each participant's responses in the experimental group's pre-test with the means of their responses on the post-test. Another paired samples t-test was run for the control group.

The paired samples t-test for the experimental group was statistically significant, $t(18) = -3.204$, $p < .005$, with the post-test receiving higher (more tolerant) scores (see Table 7). This indicates that the treatment, the dialect awareness unit, made a measurable difference in their answers. Thus, the increase in the range of scores and the more tolerant responses noted earlier are statistically significant. Recall that the mean score of all the participants, after adjusting for attrition, was 2.8465 on the pre-test and 3.0990 on the post-test. While the difference in means is only .2526, the paired samples t-test shows that this is a significant difference, and that the experimental group underwent some change that resulted in the increase in scores. We can reasonably attribute this change to the dialect awareness unit.

Table 7.

Results of the Experimental Group's Paired Samples T-Test.

Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			Lower	Upper			
-.25257	.34358	.07882	-.41818	-.08697	-3.204	18	.005

Further supporting the value of the dialect awareness unit, the control group's scores did not change over the course of the study, $t(17) = .432, p < .671$ (see Table 8). Recall that for the control group, the mean of the means was 2.7402 on the pre-test and 2.7125 on the post-test. That is a difference of .0277. This paired samples t-test shows that the control group's scores did not change significantly from the pre-test to post-test. We can reasonably attribute this lack of change to the fact that the group did not receive instruction in dialects.

Table 8.

Results of the Control Group's Paired Samples T-Test.

Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			Lower	Upper			
.02771	.27213	.06414	-.10762	.16304	.432	17	.671

The results of the t-tests indicate that the dialect awareness unit had a measurable and significant effect on the experimental group's responses. Because the range of possible scores is only four units, with one being the least tolerant and four being the most tolerant, the measurable difference seems small. We can put this seemingly minute change into perspective by increasing the scale of the measurement. Increasing the range from 0 to 100 (a range with which most are familiar due to the prevalence of percentages) increases the extent to which the dialect awareness unit raised the scores to 6.315 units out of 100. This is the equivalent of raising a student's grade in a course from a C+ (79) to a B (85).

Comparison of changes between groups. In order to support the hypothesis and show that the dialect awareness unit changed the experimental group's attitudes towards stigmatized dialects, I used independent samples t-tests to compare the two groups' post-test scores. Independent samples t-tests are used when two sets of scores are not linked in any meaningful way. I compared the means of the control group's responses on the pre-test to the means of the experimental group's pre-test responses. Another independent samples t-test was conducted for the means of the post-tests. These tests provide statistical evidence that before the dialect awareness unit there was no difference in how the two groups answered the pre-test, but the two groups differed on the post-test.

The significance value for each pre-test indicated that the groups' variability was approximately equal before the dialect awareness unit, $t(35) = .934, p < .357$ (see Table 9). The significance two-tailed value for the pre-tests, equal variances assumed, equaled .357, so we can conclude there was no statistically significant difference in the means of the two groups' pre-tests. We can therefore assume that the two groups shared similar attitudes towards speakers of stigmatized dialects prior to the treatment, as measured by the instrument (Appendix A).

Table 9.

Results of the Independent Samples T-Test of the Pre-Tests.

F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
1.629	.210	.934	35	.357	.10625	.11382	-.12481	.33731

There was a statistically significant difference between the two groups' post-tests means, $t(35) = 3.368$, $p < .002$ (Table 10). Because the independent samples t-test reported above found that there was no statistically significant difference between the groups for the pre-test, and this independent samples t-test established that there was a significant difference between the groups for the post-test, we can infer that the treatment was the reason for the experimental group's different test scores. This offers further support to the hypothesis that the dialect awareness unit altered students' attitudes towards stigmatized dialects and the speakers of those dialects.

Table 10.

Results of the Independent Samples T-Test of the Post-Tests.

F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
1.011	.322	3.368	35	.002	.38654	.11478	.15353	.61955

Controlling for intervening variables. In order to show that the change in the experimental group's scores is not attributable to individual differences, I conducted a one-way ANCOVA¹⁷ for this study. For this study, it was not possible to randomly sample the target population and control for pre-existing tolerance: therefore, one group of students may have been more tolerant of differences in general or of linguistic

¹⁷ ANCOVA is a test that combines analysis of variance (ANOVA) and regression analysis. If one variable is quantitative and continuous (in this case, the responses to the Likert items) and one variable is categorical (here, whether the group received the dialect awareness unit) ANCOVA can remove the effect of covariates. Covariates are variables which can affect the outcome of a test but which are not the subject of study.

differences in particular before taking the pre-test. ANCOVA removed the effect of the pre-test scores, and in doing so allows us to isolate the effect of the treatment on the post-test scores. ANCOVA therefore removes the sampling bias of the study design.

The independent variable—which group the participants were in—had two levels: the experimental group and the control group. The dependent variable was the participants' mean scores on the post-test. The covariate, which is the variable whose effects on the dependent variable are removed, was the participants' mean scores on the pre-test.

Correlation. Before running the ANCOVA, a regression analysis had to be conducted to verify that the covariate and the dependent variable have a linear relationship.¹⁸ The regression analysis indicated a strong positive relationship, with $r=.592$. The strong positive relationship tells us two important things: first, the assumption of linearity, necessary for ANCOVA, was met, and second, we can see that higher pre-test scores lead to higher post-test scores. This relationship was not completely one-to-one, but $.592$ is generally regarded as a strong positive relationship. However, we must remember that correlation is not necessarily causation, and that other outlying factors may affect the relationship. Below, the line of best fit for the regression is represented in Figure 8.

¹⁸ Without such a relationship, we could not assume that the independent variable affected the dependent variable.

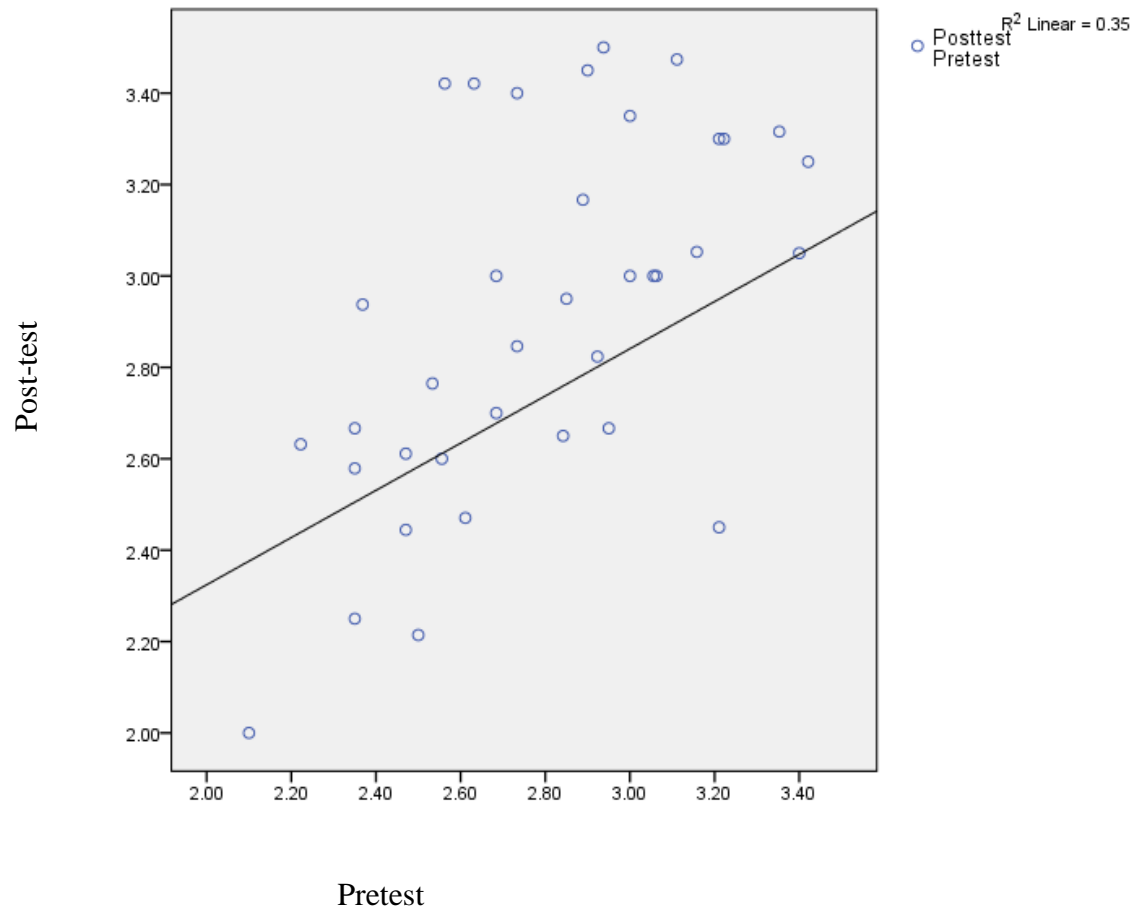


Figure 8. Line of best fit for the regression line.

In Figure 8, every participant's pre-test and post-test scores are represented as a small circle. The pre-test score is represented along the y axis, and the post-test score is along the x axis. PASW found the line of best fit for the data, which is represented as the line running in the middle of the plotted circles. The upward slope represents a positive relationship.

I next tested the homogeneity of variance.¹⁹ Levene's test²⁰ returned a significance value of .565. Because .565 is greater than .05, the assumption of homogeneity is met. I continued with the tests, assuming equal variances.

ANCOVA. Since the assumptions of homogeneity of variances and linear regression were met, I ran the ANCOVA to remove the effects of the pre-test from the post-test scores. The test found the adjusted mean post-test scores for each group, depicted in Table 10. The experimental group's adjusted mean is 3.113, with a standard error of .046. The control group's adjusted mean is 2.753, with a standard error of .049. The confidence interval was set at 95%.

Table 11

ANCOVA's Adjusted Post-Test Means

Group	Unadjusted Mean	Adjusted Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Experimental	3.099	3.113	.046	2.986	3.240
Control	2.7125	2.753	.049	2.618	2.889

The unadjusted means of the post-tests were 3.0990 for the experimental group and 2.7125 for the control group. ANCOVA's adjusted means increased the mean of the experimental group's post-test by .014; it increased the mean of the control group's post-test by .0405, which indicates that the pre-test scores had a very small effect on the post-test scores. In other words, the students' pre-existing attitudes towards stigmatized

¹⁹ ANCOVA requires a second assumption: homogeneity of variance, or, that the variation within each group is equal.

²⁰ Levene's test is used to determine whether variances within different groups are equal.

dialects had a very small effect on their reaction to the dialect awareness unit, as measured by the post-test.

The results of the ANCOVA support the hypothesis: the dialect awareness unit had a positive effect on the post-test scores after controlling for pre-test scores. As can be seen in Table 11 and Figure 9, the experimental group's lower bound score of 2.986 after adjustment was .368 higher than the control group's lower bound score of 2.618; therefore, the least tolerant student in the experimental group was still more tolerant than the least tolerant individual in the control group, after controlling for pre-test scores. The most tolerant individual in the experimental group after the dialect awareness unit scored .351 more on the post-test than the most tolerant individual in the control group, after controlling for pre-test scores.

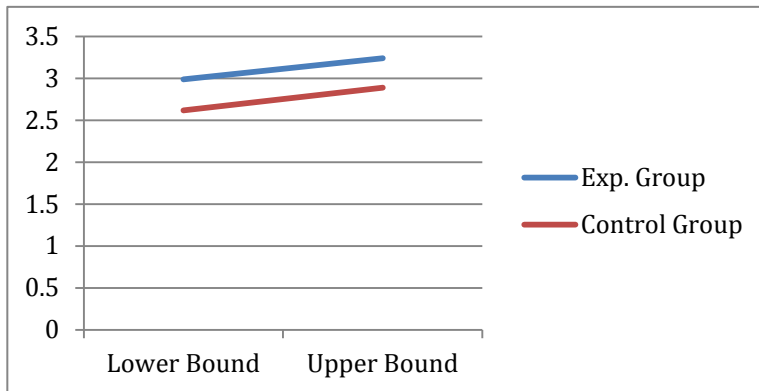


Figure 9. ANCOVA's adjusted post-test means.

Effect size. To consider how significant an effect the dialect awareness unit had on students' tolerance, eta squared²¹ was calculated to estimate the effect size²². Because

²¹ This test, eta squared, is capable of estimating how much the post-test scores are attributable to the dialect awareness unit and how much the post-test scores are

eta squared is equal to .16604643, we can assume that the treatment accounts for almost 17% of the post-test scores' variance, controlling for pre-test scores. In other words, the dialect awareness unit accounts for 17% of students' post-test scores, and individual differences and pre-existing tolerance account for the other 83%.

Analysis of Answers to Each Likert-type Item

In order to discover which topics in the dialect awareness unit were more difficult for students to master, I conducted an analysis of the mean scores of each of the Likert-type items. First, the Likert-type questions were grouped according to topic. These groupings by topic and the items with which they are grouped are available in Appendix T. Five questions evaluated students' knowledge of the basic nature of language. Three questions asked whether students believed that Standard English is the best English dialect. Three questions evaluated the students' prejudice against speakers of nonstandard dialects. Two questions related to participants' avoidance of dialects different than their own. One item asked about students' tolerance of age-related variation. Three items asked students for their knowledge of features of the Midland dialect. One question asked students about African American English (AAE). Two questions asked students about features of Southern American English.

Next, each item's mean score for the experimental group's pre-test and post-test were compared. The mean score for each item on the pre-test was subtracted from the mean score on the post-test; therefore, a difference that is negative indicates that the

attributable to other variables, such as individual differences and attitudes before the treatment.

²² The effect size is a quantification of how much the treatment affected the dependent variable.

students' mean score for this Likert-type item decreased after the treatment and a positive score indicates that the scores increased after the treatment. These scores are available in Table 12 and Table 13; Table 12 is organized by the difference between the pre-test and post-test means and Table 13 is organized by topic. Again, the highest score is 4. Because the results were reverse coded, higher scores always indicate a more tolerant or more knowledgeable response regardless of how the item was worded.

Table 12

Experimental Group's Mean Scores for Each Likert-Type Item, Organized by Difference

Item	Topic	Pre-Test Mean	Post-Test Mean	Difference
I hate it when people say "like" all the time.	Age	2.05555556	1.947368421	-0.108187135
Students should be punished for speaking dialects in school.	Subordination	3.55555556	3.473684211	-0.081871345
The best American accent is the one broadcasters use on the news.	SE is best	3.071428571	3.0	-0.071428571
I think people who speak dialects are not very smart.	Subordination	3.411764706	3.388888889	-0.022875817
I like to hear accents that are different from mine.	Avoidance	3.444444444	3.5	0.055555556
I like people who speak with a strong accent.	Avoidance	3.076923077	3.142857143	0.065934066
Everyone who speaks English accepts "the dishes need washed" as grammatical.	Midland	3.0	3.066666667	0.066666667
Dialects are different, but perfectly acceptable, forms of English.	Knowledge	3.352941176	3.526315789	0.173374613
Most Americans don't have any accent at all.	Knowledge	3.315789474	3.555555556	0.239766082
When people pronounce wash with an r, like <i>washed</i> , it doesn't bother me.	Midland	2.333333333	2.611111111	0.277777778
When Southerners say "raht" instead of "right," they sound unprofessional.	South	2.470588235	2.789473684	0.318885449
Dialects are underdeveloped forms of language.	Subordination	2.9375	3.277777778	0.340277778
Everyone speaks a dialect.	Knowledge	3.105263158	3.473684211	0.368421053
Southern dialects are ungrammatical.	South	3.0	3.368421053	0.368421053
Some people are too lazy to speak correctly.	Subordination	2.315789474	2.6875	0.371710526
Everyone should speak Standard English at all times.	Knowledge	2.947368421	3.421052632	0.473684211
I hate it when people say <i>axed</i> instead of <i>asked</i> .	AAE	1.882352941	2.421052632	0.538699691
"Anymore" can mean "nowadays."	Midland	2.5625	3.111111111	0.548611111
Standard English is the best form of English.	SE is best	2.384615385	2.933333333	0.548717948
Standard English is better than the dialect people speak in Boston.	SE is best	2.615384615	3.315789474	0.700404859

Note. The "Difference" indicates the pre-test mean score subtracted from the post-test mean score. A positive difference indicates an increase in this item's mean score after the unit (i.e., more tolerance) and a negative difference indicates a decrease in the mean score for this item after the unit (i.e., less tolerance). Because the results were reverse-coded, higher scores indicate more tolerant answers.

Table 13

Experimental Group's Mean Scores for Each Likert-Type Item, Organized by Topic

Item	Topic	Pre-Test Mean	Post-Test Mean	Mean Difference
I hate it when people say <i>axed</i> instead of <i>asked</i> .	AAE	1.882352941	2.421052632	0.538699691
I hate it when people say "like" all the time.	Age	2.055555556	1.947368421	-0.10818713
I like to hear accents that are different from mine.	Avoidance	3.444444444	3.5	0.055555556
I like people who speak with a strong accent.	Avoidance	3.076923077	3.142857143	0.065934066
Dialects are different, but perfectly acceptable, forms of English.	Knowledge	3.352941176	3.526315789	0.173374613
Most Americans don't have any accent at all.	Knowledge	3.315789474	3.555555556	0.239766082
Everyone speaks a dialect.	Knowledge	3.105263158	3.473684211	0.368421053
Everyone should speak Standard English at all times.	Knowledge	2.947368421	3.421052632	0.473684211
Everyone who speaks English accepts "the dishes need washed" as grammatical.	Midland	3.0	3.066666667	0.066666667
When people pronounce wash with an <i>r</i> , like <i>washed</i> , it doesn't bother me.	Midland	2.333333333	2.611111111	0.277777778
"Any more" can mean "nowadays."	Midland	2.5625	3.111111111	0.548611111
The best American accent is the one broadcasters use on the news.	SE is best	3.071428571	3.0	-0.07142857
Standard English is the best form of English.	SE is best	2.384615385	2.933333333	0.548717948
Standard English is better than the dialect people speak in Boston.	SE is best	2.615384615	3.315789474	0.700404859
When Southerners say "raht" instead of "right," they sound unprofessional.	South	2.470588235	2.789473684	0.318885449
Southern dialects are ungrammatical.	South	3.0	3.368421053	0.368421053
Students should be punished for speaking dialects in school.	Subordination	3.555555556	3.473684211	-0.08187134
I think people who speak dialects are not very smart.	Subordination	3.411764706	3.388888889	-0.02287581
Dialects are underdeveloped forms of language.	Subordination	2.9375	3.277777778	0.340277778
Some people are too lazy to speak correctly.	Subordination	2.315789474	2.6875	0.371710526

Note. The "Difference" indicates the pre-test mean score subtracted from the post-test mean score. A positive difference indicates an increase in this item's mean score after the unit (i.e., more tolerance) and a negative difference indicates a decrease in the mean score for this item after the unit (i.e., less tolerance). Because the results were reverse-coded, higher scores indicate more tolerant answers.

The means of four items decreased after the dialect awareness unit. The topic of age-related variation, represented by Likert-type item 1, decreased by approximately -0.1 , which was the largest reduction in mean score. The most tolerant score is 4, so this item's mean score decreased by approximately 3%. Item 9, "Standard English is better than the dialect they speak in Boston", saw a $.7$ increase in mean score; this is an increase of 23%. The dialect awareness unit's success in increasing these scores is evident from this comparison of the greatest increase and the greatest decrease—23% and 3%, respectively.

Regional and ethnic dialects. All three items relating to the Midland dialect (Items 5, 7, and 17), both items related to the Southern dialect (Items 4 and 14), and the one item relating to African American English (Item 12) experienced increases in mean scores after the dialect awareness unit. Because the three topics of the Midland, the South, and AAE all experienced increases in mean scores, I conclude that the dialect awareness unit was successful in promoting tolerance of these regional and ethnic dialects. However, the age-related variant *like* did not enjoy a similar increase; the dialect awareness unit was apparently not successful in promoting tolerance of this age-related linguistic variable. This could be due to the fact that the Midland, AAE, and Southern dialects were the subject of their own lessons plans, while the *like* variants were only addressed in the assigned readings (Lippi-Green, 2007, pp. 29, 37-38).

The myth that Standard English is superior. Three items addressed the belief that Standard English is inherently superior to other varieties of English (Items 9, 15, and 20). These items are labeled as "SE is best" in Tables 12 and 13. Interestingly, Items 9 and 20 increased by more than $.5$, while Item 15's mean score, "The best American

accent is the one broadcasters use on the news”, decreased .07. This indicates that while students recognized after the dialect awareness unit that Standard English is not inherently superior to other dialects of English, they maintained the myth that the accent commonly spoken by news broadcasters is inherently superior to other accents.

Fondness of different dialects. The two items asking students about their subjective fondness of different accents experienced slight increases. The experimental group’s fondness of different accents only increased approximately 2%. Because this increase is so minute, it appears that the dialect awareness unit was not particularly effective in increasing students’ tolerance of accents that are different from their own.

Subordination of nonstandard dialects. The four items addressing the subordination of nonstandard dialects (Items 8, 11, 16, and 19) had divergent changes in mean scores: two items’ mean scores decreased and two increased. The average scores for Item 19, “Students should be punished for speaking dialects in school”, decreased by approximately 3%; this is especially interesting because, as is explained in the next chapter, every student responded to this open-ended question with “No.” The average score for the Item 11, “I think people who speak dialects are not very smart”, decreased by almost 1%. However, Item 16, “Some people are too lazy to speak correctly”, received an increase in tolerant scores approximately equal to 12%. Item 8 saw an increase of almost 9%. The dialect awareness unit was apparently far more successful in teaching students that speakers of nonstandard dialects are not failing to speak the standard through lack of effort than in teaching them that speaking a nonstandard dialect is not indicative of lower intelligence or that punishing students for speaking a nonstandard dialect at school is not beneficial for students.

To conclude this section, the dialect awareness unit's most effective lessons taught that Standard English is not inherently better than other forms of English and increased tolerance towards the Southern, AAE, and Midland dialects. The dialect awareness unit was least effective at increasing tolerance towards age-related variants and in changing attitudes towards linguistic subordination in school.

Summary of Quantitative Results

Tests of normality support the hypothesis that the dialect awareness unit changed the group's tolerance and knowledge of nonstandard dialects. Histograms depicting the four sets of data reveal that the experimental group changed from being unimodal to being bimodal, indicating a major change in the group. The histograms for the control group do not show such a change from the pre-test to the post-test. This supports the interpretation that the change observed in the experimental group's histograms is attributable to the dialect awareness unit.

A comparison of the ranges, measurements of central tendency, and standard deviations also support the hypotheses. Both the minimum and maximum scores for the experimental group's post-test increased. The control group's range of scores did not increase. All the experimental group's measurements of central tendency increased; the control group's did not change significantly. The standard deviation of the experimental group's post-test was smaller than the other data sets, indicating that the dialect awareness unit caused the group's answers to become more similar.

T-tests revealed that the unit did influence students' tolerance levels. Within groups, we see there was not a statistically significant difference between the control group's pre- and post-test, but the experimental group's post-test scores were different

from their pre-test. Across groups, we see that the two groups were not statistically different before the dialect awareness unit, but they were statistically different after it. Thus, the t-tests support the hypothesis by showing that the control group and the experimental group before the treatment had statistically similar answers, but the experimental group's answers changed significantly after the treatment.

Other statistical tests continued to provide additional support for the hypothesis. Cronbach's alpha showed that the quantitative measurement was reliable. Regression analysis indicated a strong positive relationship, with $r=.592$. The experimental group's scores were still higher than the control group's after ANCOVA adjusted the means of the post-test scores. Eta squared quantified the effects of the dialect awareness unit on the post-test scores, estimating that it accounted for 17% of the experimental group's post-test scores.

Furthermore, amongst the topics we clearly see that the dialect awareness unit successfully changed students' attitudes towards the Southern, AAE, and Midland dialects, but did not effectively change students' attitudes towards the age-related variant *like*. The unit was also effective at changing students' attitudes towards linguistic subordination, with the exception of punishment for speaking nonstandard dialects in schools.

In short, every statistical test confirmed that the dialect awareness unit caused an increase in students' tolerance of stigmatized dialects. This finding conflicts with the experimental group's written answers. The next chapter will qualitatively examine these answers.

Chapter 5:

Qualitative Results

To assess the participants' depth of understanding and tolerance, seven open-ended questions requiring written responses (see Appendix B) were distributed to the control and experimental groups during the post-test. Reproduced here in Table 14, these questions were designed to elicit an opinion from the study participants, and also required the experimental group to restate some facts about language that they learned during the unit in their own words.

Table 14

Open-Ended Questions on the Post-Test

Question	Topic
1. In your opinion, what is the most surprising thing you learned about dialects?	Linguistic awareness
2. What did you learn about dialects that changed the way you think about language?	Linguistic awareness
3. Why, do you think, do some people have such a negative opinion about dialects?	Linguistic awareness
4. What can be done to change these attitudes towards speakers of stigmatized dialects?	Linguistic awareness
5. Was there anything about dialects taught in this course that you disagree with?	Evaluation of dialect awareness unit
6. Do you think it is important for people to learn about dialects? Why or why not?	Evaluation of dialect awareness unit
7. Do you think schools should punish students for speaking non-standard English in school? Why or why not?	Tolerance

To investigate these results, the handwritten answers to each of the questions were transcribed. I transcribed the participants' responses as faithfully as possible; spelling and

grammatical “errors” remain as they were written. Next, the answers to each question were grouped with similar answers. I then examined the participants’ written answers to find patterns that emerged. These patterns in the data are summarized and explored below. The responses are numbered so they can be easily referenced. The students’ written responses complicate our understanding of the dialect awareness unit’s effects: the experimental group resisted some learning objectives of the dialect awareness unit, while the control group expressed surprisingly tolerant views.

Experimental Group’s Qualitative Results

All nineteen students in the experimental group completed the questionnaire; none of the students opted out of taking the questionnaire. Overall, the experimental group’s answers to the open-ended questions indicate that the students learned a great deal about the nature of linguistic variation and grew more tolerant of nonstandard dialects. However, their written answers also reveal that by the end of the dialect awareness unit many of them retained some prejudice towards speakers of nonstandard dialects and continued to view these dialects negatively. Some students continued to refer to nonstandard dialects using subordinating language, implying that nonstandard dialects are deficient or incorrect.

Question #1: In your opinion, what is the most surprising thing you learned about dialects? From their written answers, it was apparent that the majority of the students were unaware of the basic linguistic facts listed in the Introduction chapter before receiving this instruction. Many students wrote that they had not even known what a dialect was before the dialect awareness unit.

“Everyone speaks a dialect.” Five students answered Question #1 with some variation on the fact that everyone speaks a dialect. These students’ answers correspond to Likert-style item 18, which stated, “Everyone speaks a dialect.” For comparison, these participants’ answers to Likert-style item 18 on the post-test are provided in parentheses. Recall that Strongly Agree corresponds to 1, Agree to 2, Disagree to 3, and Strongly Disagree corresponds to 4:

1. That everyone has one. I didn’t think I had one, being a Muncie native, until learning about dialects. (2)
2. That EVERYONE has one. (1)
3. The most surprising thing that I learned about dialects was that everybody has one. (2)
4. I didn’t exactly understand what a dialect was. I wasn’t aware of the that people I know speak with a dialect. (1)
5. Everybody has one—at first I thought that I sounded totally “normal” and accent free, but after research I found that I was wrong. (2)

Speakers of the Midland dialect enjoy the prestige that comes from speaking a dialect free from stigmatized, marked features; while speakers of Southern dialects and ethnic dialects are often aware that others are aware of the way they speak, speakers of the Midland dialect often believe that they have no accent. If the study were conducted with a population that spoke a stigmatized dialect, the participants would probably have already been aware that they spoke a dialect.

Dialect discrimination. For four students, the most surprising thing they learned about dialects was the existence of dialect discrimination:

6. That people get discriminated against because of their dialect.
7. Dialect discrimination as a substitute for racism.

8. The amount of stereo-types and discrimination that come along with them.

9. The discrimination that some people face because of their accent.

Dialect discrimination is not a commonly recognized form of discrimination and it is unsurprising that the students had previously not been aware of it. The responses above come from students who had undoubtedly been exposed to unflattering portrayals of linguistic minorities through the media, but had only been made aware of the consequences of such prejudice during the dialect awareness unit.

Other responses. Two students were most surprised that nonstandard dialects should be considered as a legitimate form of language. This answer echoes Likert-type item 13: “Dialects are different, but perfectly acceptable, forms of English.” These participants’ answers to item 13 on the post-test are given in parentheses:

10. That they can be considered grammatically correct. (2)

11. Just how many different dialects there are & how that speech should be just as acceptable as standard English. (2)

The participant who wrote Response 11 above listed two things as the most surprising thing he or she learned about dialects. Her or his first written answer, “Just how many different dialects there are”, resembles another participant’s answer:

12. How many there are & how different they are from each other

Only one student stated that she learned nothing new, and that she or he had been aware of the linguistic facts about dialects before taking the course. She wrote:

13. I didn’t really learn anything that surprised me. Most of it I had heard before.

It is encouraging that this student had learned about the basics of sociolinguistics before experiencing the dialect awareness unit.

Four students' answers to Question #1 were unique in that they did not resemble any other student's answer. These answers are:

14. I learned that our dialects & accents were formed from other countries influencing us.

15. That the same dialect can have many different variations.

16. That there are many different aspects and characteristics that play into a person's dialect (ex phonology, lexicon, etc.)

17. I was surprised to learn how they change. It is not only a regional thing but a generational thing as well.

These unique answers demonstrate the sociolinguistic knowledge that students gained through the dialect awareness unit. Specifically, these answers demonstrate the success of the dialect awareness unit in teaching students about the different histories of varieties of English; class-, race-, and gender-based variation; the different levels of language that linguists study; and language change over time.

Question #2: What did you learn about dialects that changed the way you think about language? In response to this question, every respondent wrote an answer that expressed, in some way, that they had become more tolerant of diversity in English. The consensus was that every student began to think about language as being naturally diverse, and that imposing one monolithic standard dialect upon all speakers of a language was not ideal. One student's response is an effective summary of this consensus: "That I should be more accepting of people who don't say certain things the way I do." Other students were more specific in their answers. One student wrote, "Learning about AAVE really changed my perspective on it, in a good way." This answer implies that before the dialect awareness unit, the student held prejudices towards African

American (Vernacular) English, and that the unit exposed these prejudices and changed the student's attitude.

One student summarized the entire dialect awareness unit as well as his or her previous linguistic education with the answer: "That there is 'no right way' of speaking. I was always taught that there was." This student's answer highlights the way the dialect awareness unit challenged what students had been taught about language: that there is one correct form of English, and any deviations from this acceptable form were "wrong." It is to this student's credit that she or he was able to overcome this long-believed, socially accepted myth.

Another student acknowledged her or his personal bias against some dialects, but added that he or she had learned that this bias is unfounded: "While they may sound off to me, they are not wrong, only different." This particular person did not report changed attitudes towards speakers of other dialects. However, new knowledge of the nature of language had made him or her aware of this bias, and that although someone's dialect "sounds off" to this student, that dialect is not in fact inferior.

Within this consensus that the dialect awareness unit made students more tolerant of diversity within English, three themes emerge: that students learned about the diversity of English, became aware of discrimination towards marginalized dialects, and expanded their knowledge of the nature of language. I will now address these three themes.

Diversity of English. Five students wrote that learning about the diversity of English changed the way they think about language. These students' answers were:

18. I learned about certain dialect's lexical terms, which made me think about how even though we all speak English, we use it differently.

19. That they are grammatically correct for a certain area.
20. That dialects are a product of someones environment and in no way effect their intelligence.
21. That though dialects are all unique they have similarities as well and that English is not just English. There are many different forms and variations of the language.
22. That language is actually amazingly diverse through dialects.

These students' answers indicate that they had previously believed in a monolithic English with little or no internal variation. Specifically, Responses 18, 21, and 22 imply that these students had been unaware of the diversity within English. Response 19 addresses regional correctness (e.g., in many parts of the Midland, including Muncie, Indiana, where this study was conducted, the *need + past participle* construction is considered regionally correct, although this construction is not considered grammatical in many other English-speaking regions). Response 20 implies that the student had previously believed that nonstandard constructions were indicative of a lower intelligence.

Dialect discrimination. Four students wrote that learning about dialect-based discrimination changed the way they think about language. These students' answers are:

23. I learned that some people discriminate against others in the same dialect and I sometimes think language biases also reflect racial biases possibly.
24. Learning about how people are forced to change their dialect really made me think about how more dialects should be acceptable as their language.
25. It doesn't matter how people talk, they're still human beings who deserve an equal chance.
26. That all dialects are different & its not right to judge people because of their dialect.

Response 23 is notable for its hedges: “I *sometimes* think language biases also reflect racial biases *possibly*” [my italics]. These hedges indicate that the student might not yet be convinced that the prejudices towards race-based dialects are a surrogate for prejudice against that race of people. The student who wrote Response 23 may still be struggling to accept this lesson from the dialect awareness unit because it contradicts what he or she has previously held to be true.

Basics of sociolinguistics. Two students wrote that learning simple facts about language changed the way they think about language. These students wrote:

27. Even though it may not sound like it, everyone has a dialect.

28. That written versus spoken should be different.

Response 28 reflects not only the dialect awareness unit, but also the fundamentals of rhetoric that are taught in this class, English 104 “Composing Research.” That this student included this basic fact about language and writing in answer to a question specifically about the dialect awareness unit is one indication of how well the unit dovetails with the stated goals and objectives of the class, as described in the Introduction and Methods chapters.

Question #3: Why, do you think, do some people have such a negative opinion about dialects? The experimental group’s answers to this question can be placed into three groups: those who blame ignorance, those who blame social institutions such as the media and schools, and those who blame the speakers of stigmatized dialects. Thirteen participants wrote that ignorance can be blamed for some people’s negative opinions towards certain types of dialects, three students blamed the media, and two students blamed some inherent quality of the stigmatized dialect for these negative

opinions. One student gave a response that does not fit any of these three categories. I will now discuss each of these types of answers to Question #3.

Natural ignorance. Of the 19 students who answered Question #3, thirteen blamed ignorance and/or prejudice for the stigma surrounding some dialects. Five students blamed ignorance in responses such as:

29. Lack of knowledge

30. They are just not informed.

These responses suggest that students believe tolerance is a natural consequence of knowledge. Eight respondents, however, voiced their belief that people automatically dislike things that are novel or different. The following responses exemplify this type of answer:

31. People have never liked things outside their “comfort zone” or the norm.

32. Because they know nothing outside of their norms and perhaps communities.

33. I think it’s a common feeling among people to not like things that are different from themselves.

These answers are notable because the students appear to be attempting to explain all prejudice against others, and not just prejudice based on dialect differences.

Bias from cultural institutions. Three respondents wrote some form of the second type of response, blaming the media and/or educational institutions for the negative perception of some dialects:

34. Media or historical biases that carried over today.

35. They are impacted by the media and school systems think that negative way.

36. The media portrays certain dialects in a negative way that influences our opinion

The lesson plans in the dialect awareness unit supported this answer (e.g., the Antoine Dodson lesson plans and Lippi-Green's analysis of accent in Disney films), so it is unsurprising that these students blame the media for prejudice against nonstandard dialects. In fact, because throughout the dialect awareness unit I emphasized the ways we normalize the standard dialect through the media and educational expectations, I am surprised that more students did not refer to these powerful expressions of societal norms.

Features of nonstandard dialects. In the third type of response to this question, two students either consciously or subconsciously blamed inherent aspects of the stigmatized dialect for others' negative perceptions. These two responses were:

37. They can sound unprofessional but I believe its up to the individual to make an effort to be professional.

38. They believe everyone should speak perfect standard English.

There are some clues that indicate the author of 37 consciously blames speakers of the stigmatized dialects for others' bias. The respondent implies that the possibility of sounding unprofessional is inherent to nonstandard dialects. Furthermore, the author of 37 goes on to write that the individual should "make an effort to be professional," i.e., to speak a standard dialect. Here, the student is expressing one of the myths about language that is widely believed in the general population and which I had hoped to expose through the dialect awareness unit: that speaking and/or writing in the standard dialect is only a matter of expending enough effort, and that, consequently, speakers of nonstandard dialects are speaking lazily. This participant, given the pseudonym G for this study, gave a number of written responses which indicate that he or she remained

unconvinced of the central tenets of the dialect awareness course, as outline in the Introduction chapter and in the Methods chapter.

I placed Response 38 into the same group as Response 37, but there are two possible interpretations of Response 38. One possible interpretation is that the author of 38 is unconsciously blaming the speakers of stigmatized dialects for the negative opinions of others. My argument for this analysis hinges on the adjective *perfect* to modify *standard English*. Throughout the dialect awareness unit, I asked that students not qualify the standard dialect or its linguistic qualities with adjectives such as *perfect*, *proper*, or *right* in their writing; I asked the students to use less value-laden adjectives such as *standard* and *mainstream* (although these terms are also problematic). Response 38 seems to imply that the student views nonstandard dialects as imperfect, and thus provides evidence that one myth I sought to expose did not reach this student: the myth that standard English is the epitome of the English language, and that nonstandard dialects are poor exemplars of it. The other possible explanation for 38 is that author is implying that no standard exists and that society's expectations are not realistic. This interpretation would mean that the student is using the adjective *perfect* ironically, and is therefore not implicitly blaming the speakers of nonstandard dialects for their linguistic "imperfection." This student's other written answers did not help illuminate her or his intentions while writing this response. Whether the student wrote this response in an ironic tone is not apparent.

Other responses. One participant gave an answer that assigns no blame, but frames the reason for some people's negative attitudes towards some dialects as a simple cause and effect situation:

39. Some may think a dialect is unprofessional sounding, therefore discrimination can take place.

This respondent is careful not to place the blame on either the speakers of stigmatized dialects or those with negative opinions of them. She or he uses a subjectless construction in the second half of the sentence. This respondent exploits the grammatical possibilities of English syntax, and in doing so explicitly blames neither party.

Question #4: What can be done to change these attitudes towards speakers of stigmatized dialects? The most popular answer was that education was the key to changing prejudicial attitudes: 12 out of 19 participants wrote that teaching, educating, showing, and/or informing people about dialects would dispel such negative attitudes. Three students of the 19 responded that they did not know. Two students wrote that the speakers of these maligned dialects should take action to dispel these negative attitudes. Two students' answers suggested that education would have little effect. I will now look at each type of response to Question #4 in turn.

Education. By far, more students wrote that education could help dispel stereotypes than any other answer. 12 students gave this type of response:

40. Education off it. Let people truly understand what a dialect is.

41. Let them know that these diversities should be seen as a good thing!

42. Teach that not one standard dialect is superior to another and that they should all be accepted.

43. More education about dialects, teaching our youth that it is okay to have an accent and to accept others who have accents that are different from ours.

Many of these students experienced a change in attitude towards speakers of nonstandard dialects after experiencing the dialect awareness unit described in the Methods chapter.

This experience may have convinced them that such units were one course of action that can effectively dispel myths about language and prejudicial attitudes. Interestingly, not one student wrote that speakers of stigmatized dialects should be portrayed positively in on television and in films. During the unit, we emphasized how hiring practices and the accents of people in the media also teach children which accents are acceptable and which are unacceptable. I had expected some students to write that the media should include speakers of nonstandard dialects in positions of power, such as newscasters and protagonists in film and television.

Nonstandard speakers change their behavior. Two students wrote that the onus for changing negative attitudes towards stigmatized dialects falls on the disenfranchised groups of speakers themselves. These responses were:

44. The speakers themselves need to step up and prove these stigmas wrong.

45. I think the figure head of those stigmatized parts should speak in their nature dialect. Like when they are being interviewed on TV.

Response 44 was written by G, the same participant who wrote “They can sound unprofessional but I believe its up to the individual to make an effort to be professional.” in answer to Question #3. This participant’s answers suggest that she or he blames those who experience discrimination for failing to disprove stereotypes. This could suggest that he or she believes there is evidence to indicate that stereotypes of speakers of nonstandard dialects are true to some extent.

Response 45 seems be saying that the use of the standard by native speakers of a nonstandard dialect perpetuates the myth that the standard dialect is the only dialect spoken by professionals. This was the only respondent to mention the power of the media

in combating prejudicial attitudes in answer to Question #4. While his or her response is grouped with G's response, as both write that the speakers of nonstandard dialects should take action to combat stereotypes, this response shows a better understanding of the role of the media in perpetuating stereotypes than G's response. Additionally, this response might be grouped into the first type of response to this question (that education can dispel myths about nonstandard dialects), as increased exposure to nonstandard dialects spoken by social leaders might effectively show viewers that the dialect is spoken by professional, successful people.

Defeatism. Of the two students who expressed doubt that education would change attitudes towards nonstandard dialects, one student wrote that little could be done, and the other student wrote that those who hold these negative attitudes should make an effort to be more open-minded. The responses were:

46. Honestly, I don't think there is much school can do. This is something you get from family and peers.

47. We can educate them but honestly, it's up to them to change their attitudes.

These students' responses reveal that they understand that school is not the only institution that perpetuates and reinforces stereotypes. Response 46 explains that these stereotypes are perpetuated among social groups that would not be altered by educational policies. Response 47 echoes G's responses in her or his appeal to an individual's responsibility in combating prejudice. Unlike G, this respondent places the onus for change on those who hold negative attitudes, and not on the person experiencing the stigma.

Question #5: Was there anything about dialects taught in this course that you disagree with? Eleven students answered no. Eight students answered yes, with seven of the eight elaborating on what, exactly, they disagreed with. One student's answer to #5 was ambiguous and could be interpreted as either a yes or a no.

No. Of the eleven students who answered in the negative, five simply wrote "No."

The other responses were:

48. Not @ all!

49. No, everything was pretty clear. Nothing seemed wrong.

50. No, I don't really think so.

51. I don't think so. The course opened my eyes to many of the biases about dialects & I also feel as if they are wrong.

52. Not really

Response 48 is notable for its emphatic nature, expressed by the exclamation mark and the phrase "Not at all," which eliminates any possibility of disagreement with the course.

Response 51 is also a notable endorsement of the course.

Yes. Eight students indicated that they disagreed with some aspect of the dialect awareness unit. One student simply wrote, in answer to Question #5, "Yes."

From whom we learn dialects. Of the five students who answered yes, two responses objected to Lippi-Green's and my insistence that students learn their dialect from their peers and not from their parents. These responses were:

53. I disagree with the fact that we learn our dialects from our peers. I sound more like my mother who is from northern IN than I do my friends from Muncie. Not everyone learns their dialect from their peers.

54. I agree we develop our soundhouses from peers, but I say words that my parents say that my peers don't. You have to get some from home.

Response 54 refers to Lippi-Green's metaphor of the Sound House (1997, pp. 46-52) for the phonology that a child learns while growing up. I attribute these two responses above to the authors' sense of otherness in regards to their hometowns. These two students feel that, although they grew up in one area, their roots are elsewhere. They might have been told that they speak like their mother or their parents. I attribute their statements to their identification with and closeness to their families, although barring a follow-up interview this is merely speculation. This represents an interesting line of research that could be investigated further: Does the speech of some students actually resemble that of their parents more than their peers, and if so, why?

Prescriptivism. Two students who answered that they disagreed with some aspect of the course implied that they continued to believe the myth that prescriptive grammar "authorities" who posit grammatical "rules" are infallible, and that deviation from such "rules" is an "abuse" of language. These two responses are:

55. That if you use grammar incorrectly, but it's part of your dialect, it is not actually incorrect.

56. I do not mind the accent from dialects, but when grammar becomes abused, I grow weary of the dialect.

These students' responses display a belief in a monumental, homogenous construct of English—the standard—that allows for no natural variation. The author of Response 55 rejects the linguistic fact that different dialects have different grammars, and continues to accept the myth, prominent in our current ideology, that all dialects except the standard are illegitimate. The author of 56 writes about her or his subjective experience of dialects. He or she self-reports a tolerance of nonstandard accents, but claims that grammatical

forms which differ from the standard cause fatigue. Notably, unlike 55, this response does not call nonstandard dialects incorrect. Rather, the author records her or his own visceral response to dialects that differ from the standard; this answer does imply that nonstandard dialects are tiring for the listener.

Race and dialects. Two students who objected to some aspect of the dialect awareness unit indicated that they felt the issues of dialect discrimination and race-based discrimination were conflated. These two responses were:

57. I disagreed w/the emphasis put on race in this class. I felt as though we were forced to agree to opinions [contrary] to our own in order to avoid being called racist. To me, the judgement of other people is based on how they treat me, not the way they speak or the color of their skin. It feels more racist to draw so much attention to the subject.

58. Just because there are a few dialects that bother and annoy me, that doesn't mean I'm racist.

The author of Response 57 is echoing a common belief in the current political climate: that discussing race only enrages otherwise calm people and prevents people of different races from finding common ground. The author of 58 wishes to separate subjective opinions of the value of nonstandard dialects and her or his opinions of the speakers.

Marker of intelligence. One response to Question #5 seemed, at first glance, to be unclear: "Shouldn't be used to judge intelligence." Because the dialect awareness unit stressed that proficiency in the standard should not be used to judge people's intelligence, it was unclear from the written response whether the respondent agreed with the instruction—that a person's dialect should not be used to judge intelligence—or disagreed with the instruction, intending to convey that she or he believes that proficiency in the standard should be used to judge intelligence. This participant's answer

corresponds to Likert-type item 11, “I think people who speak dialects are not very smart.” This participant circled 1, to indicate that she or he strongly agreed with the statement. We can therefore assume that this participant rejected the basic linguistic fact that speaking a stigmatized dialect is not indicative of lower intelligence.

Question #6: Do you think it is important for people to learn about dialects?

Why or why not? 17 students in the experimental group answered yes and two students answered no.

Yes. The great majority of participants found education about dialects valuable. The students’ answers are encouraging, because they express a commitment to diversity.

To understand and increase tolerance. Of the 17 students who answered yes, seven of them listed an understanding of diversity or dialect-related discrimination as the chief reason why it is important to learn about dialects. Some of these responses were:

59. Yes, because then maybe they won’t look down upon stigmatized dialects.

60. Yes, it helps us learn & understand diversity.

61. Yes because it would stop the criticism of languages.

Response 61 is notable because the participant has used his or her knowledge of the dialects of English and applied it to the criticism of languages (presumably) other than English. This response shows that the student has been able to successfully generalize knowledge from the dialect awareness unit to her or his knowledge of languages other than English.

Two students who answered yes wrote that the dialect awareness unit helped students to understand other people. This category is related to the last category of students who wrote that the lessons would reduce incidents of dialect discrimination, as

discrimination is a form of dehumanization, and humanizing the out-group would lead to less discrimination. The two answers of this type of response, or perhaps sub-type, are:

62. Yes, it helps them relate to others.

63. Absolutely. Learning about dialects gives people a better understanding of others.

This type of response is an indication that these students understand the intersection of dialect, culture, and identity; perhaps if students can understand that the grammars of stigmatized dialects are ordered, and are neither “mistakes” nor lacking grammatical rules, then they can generalize this knowledge to cultural norms which are different from their own. Presumably, if students can understand other groups of people by learning about their dialect or language, they have learned that cultural differences are teachable, explainable and comprehensible, as are grammatical rules.

To understand another subject. Four students responded that it was important to learn about dialects in order to understand some other subject. These responses were:

64. Yes because it's a way to speak English.

65. Yes, dialects are part of our culture especially in America

66. Yes – whether we recognize it or not language and speech is a major form of communication and in fact can say something about the speaker

67. Definitely. The issue of different dialects will be something that everyone will face, so people should be educated & know how to handle it

As I understand these responses, the authors appear to be saying that knowledge of dialects aids the learner in understanding other subjects: the English language, American culture, other interlocutors, and dealing with problematic situations involving different dialects. Response 67 is especially interesting, as the language chosen by the respondent

calls “different dialects” an “issue” which must be “handled.” This respondent’s language reveals that he or she believes encountering linguistic diversity can be difficult, acknowledging the possibility of cross-dialect miscommunication.

For the sake of knowledge. Three students stated that knowledge of dialects is important for the sake of knowledge itself. These students did not appeal to real world consequences of dialect awareness, but rather justified the course because it edified the learner. These responses were:

68. Yes, it is interesting and informational.

69. Yes because it broadens there knowledge of thinking and can change or alter the way they think about language

70. Yes, so they can understand how and why they exist

For these students, it would seem that understanding the nature of linguistic variation is justification of the course in and of itself.

Other responses. One student wrote, in answer to Question #6, “Yes, in the right setting.” This answer could be hinting that the student did not feel this dialect awareness unit was “in the right setting,” but this interpretation must remain conjecture, as this student’s other answers did not elaborate on her or his feelings towards what “the right setting” would be.

No. The two students who wrote “No” in answer to Question #6 justified their reasoning by claiming a lack of urgency and a lack of efficacy. These two responses in full were:

71. Not at the moment. I don’t think language discrimination is the biggest discrimination problem in the US right now.

72. Not really, it's not something that's going to completely change their lives and ways of thinking. People aren't going to care enough to change the way they think.

Response 71 indicates the participant believes that students should be educated about other forms of discrimination; this response is more encouraging than Response 72, which seems to indicate that this student believes people don't "care enough" about dialect discrimination. In other words, the author of Response 72 feels that it is not effective at changing people's minds, and the author of 71 feels that other forms of discrimination are more problematic than dialect discrimination.

Question #7: Do you think schools should punish students for speaking non-standard English in school? Why or why not? Question #7 essentially asked the same question as Likert-type item 19, which asked students whether they agreed with this statement: "Students should be punished for speaking dialects in school." All nineteen respondents in the experimental group wrote, "No." One student simply wrote that single word. The student who simply wrote "No" circled 3 for Likert-item 19 on the post-test. Thirteen students wrote that it is simply immoral to punish students for speaking their native dialect, that linguistic diversity is natural, or some combination of the two reasons. Five students wrote, "No" or some variation thereof, but added a caveat.

It would be unethical. Most respondents who answered Question #7 with some form of "No" indicated that one's native dialect is a product of one's home environment, a form of identity, or that it would be morally reprehensible. These responses defied easy categorization, and so all 13 of these responses are recorded below. The participant's circled answer on Likert-type item 19 is given in parentheses after that participant's written answer. Likert-type item 19 on both the pre-test and the post-test stated "Students

should be punished for speaking dialects in school.” Recall that 1 corresponds to “Strongly Agree”, 2 to “Agree”, 3 to “Disagree”, and 4 corresponds to “Strongly Disagree”:

- 73. No, however a student speaks is who they are. (4)
- 74. No. That is completely wrong. It’s a correct way to speak. (4)
- 75. No, because they have the right to not speak standard English & shouldn’t be judged by their dialect (4)
- 76. No, children are brought up that way & its not their fault. (3)
- 77. No, people cannot help that they have an accent so they should not be penalized for it. (3)
- 78. No, dialects are natural (4)
- 79. No, they speak the kind of English that they grew up with, its like punishing them for growing up around that dialect. It’s not something the schools should have control over. (4)
- 80. No. It’s how they’re raised. (4)
- 81. No. It’s just a form of speaking they are raised with. (4)
- 82. Absolutely not, they really cannot help it. (2)
- 83. No because it is not something they can change (1)
- 84. No, that is just wrong. It is just the way some kids talk. (4)
- 85. No because it is wrong to punish someone because of their dialect. (4)

These answers to Question #7 demonstrate the unit’s effectiveness at teaching the following linguistic facts: that dialects are one aspect or reflection of a person’s identity; that each dialect’s grammar is “correct”; that each child learns his or her native dialect as she or he acquires the native language.

It is curious that two students circled 1 or 2 on Likert-style item 19, indicating that they agreed students should be punished for speaking in nonstandard dialects at school, yet wrote “No” on a similarly-worded open-ended question (Responses 82 and 83). These students might not have read the question carefully, or they may have made mistakes on the Likert-type portion of the post-test.

No, but still teach Standard English. Five students wrote “No,” but added that the school should still teach students the standard. These responses were:

86. No, however, I do think that if talking to a teacher or administrator students should talk in a professional manner out of respect. (4)

87. ABSOLUTELY NOT! Rather than punished, CORRECTED! (4)

88. No, unless the speech is very ungrammatical (3)

89. No, they grow up with it, its ingrained in them. Students should be taught standard writing & grammar & impressed w/the importance of what they say & how they say it (4)

90. No, but I believe they should be encouraged to use it because it will help them further their academic career. Ex SAT writing test (3)

Response 86 might hint that the standard is a more “professional” dialect to use; however, it also might imply that students should speak respectfully to teachers or administrators regardless of the dialect spoken by the student. However, this interpretation raises the question: why would a question about dialects in schools receive an answer about professionalism and respect? The implication is that nonstandard dialects, in addition to being perceived as less professional than the standard, are also perceived as somehow lacking respect. The student could be saying that code-switching is crucial in certain contexts.

Similarly, Response 87 reveals an underlying bias towards nonstandard dialects. The author, despite the zeal indicated by the wording and capitalization, apparently perceives nonstandard dialects as being incorrect. The author of Response 88 seems to categorize dialects as being more or less “ungrammatical,” with the standard presumably held up as the model of correctness.

Response 89 does not reveal obvious underlying biases, unlike Responses 86, 87 and 88. There are three possible interpretations of Response 89. The student might be referring to the unit’s lessons on rhetorical effectiveness and the use of dialect, as when the class evaluated the young adult novel *Dovey Coe* (Dowell, 2001; from a lesson plan by Groome & Gibbs, 2008). With this interpretation, Response 89 could perhaps be advocating for schools to teach both proficiency in the standard dialect and code-switching. Another possible interpretation is that the student could be advocating the importance of code-switching in certain contexts. A third interpretation could reveal an underlying bias: the student could be implying that “importance” of their speech merits an equally “important” dialect, which, by implication, is the standard dialect.

The reason for teaching the standard set forth by the author of Response 90 is the one most often cited by administrators, experts on education, and even linguists. While some (Watts, 2011; Lippi-Green, 1997) argue that its reasoning is circuitous (“We must teach the standard so students might be tested on the standard!”), many, such as Fish (2009), find its pragmatism persuasive. This reason for using the standard does not satisfy many linguists, including myself, who insist that academic tests should not measure students’ proficiency in the standard, but rather their argument, reasoning, and evidence of critical thinking.

The student who wrote Response 90—“No, but I believe they should be encouraged to use it because it will help them further their academic career. Ex SAT writing test”—is responding to the reality that few people are aware of the legitimacy of linguistic variation in this country. Linguists such as Watts (2011), Lippi-Green (1997), and myself believe that ideally each person would be allowed to use their native dialects in all situations without negative repercussions; however, the students approach the use of the Standard pragmatically, rather than with idealism. They recognize that using the Standard benefits them in certain situations.

Summary of experimental group’s answers.

I encountered two types of student reactions in the experimental group. The first reaction could be called righteous indignation. This was my own response when I learned of discrimination on the basis of dialect, and the reaction I wished to elicit from the students. These students accepted the initial premise that one dialect is not inherently superior to any other, felt that this message was important, and wanted to spread the message in order to help stop dialect discrimination. For example, one student, in response to the question, “Do you think schools should punish students for speaking non-standard English in school?”, wrote:

87. ABSOLUTELY NOT! Rather than punished, CORRECTED!

While the student’s answer betrays an implicit idea that non-standard dialects are incorrect, the capital letters, exclamation marks, and underlining for emphasis are exemplary of the righteously indignant student. Seventeen students who participated in this study expressed varying degrees of indignation.

The second type of reaction was more akin to apathy or ambivalence. Students expressing this type of reaction typically believed the core premise that the standard dialect is not inherently superior to socially stigmatized dialects yet had reservations about the practicality or desirability of linguistic tolerance. As an answer to the question, “Do you think it is important for people to learn about dialects? Why or why not?”, one student wrote:

72. Not really, it's not something that's going to completely change their lives and ways of thinking. People aren't going to care enough to change the way they think.

Another student wrote in answer to the same question:

71. Not at the moment. I don't think language discrimination is the biggest discrimination problem in the US right now.

In spite of their belief that it is not important for people to learn about dialects, in answer to the question, “What can be done to change negative attitudes towards speakers of stigmatized dialects?”, both students wrote that education is key (“Try to teach people about dialects.” and “Just teaching and spreading the word.”). In our class discussions, more students expressed this kind of ambivalence to the subject matter, but only two students expressed this ambivalence in the questionnaires.

Another student, G, fell outside these two categories. G was resistant to new and different viewpoints. G also came to class resistant to discussing race. G's reticence to discuss race can be seen in the following response written in answer to Question # 5 on the open-ended portion of the post-test:

57. I disagreed w/the emphasis put on race in this class ... It feels more racist to draw so much attention to the subject.

G was also resistant to the idea that institutions such as the media or the judicial system could promote racist beliefs. S/he expressed that racist stereotypes were the product of laziness or misbehavior on the part of the stereotyped group in answers to Questions #3 and #4:

37. They can sound unprofessional but I believe its up to the individual to make an effort to be professional.

44. The speakers themselves need to step up and prove these stigmas wrong.

Fortunately, G did not come away from the dialect awareness unit with no knowledge of the diversity of English. Some of G's responses revealed an understanding of the interweaving of dialect, culture, and identity, like the first half of her or his response to Question #7: "No, they grow up with it, its ingrained in them." G also wrote that learning about dialects was "interesting" in answer to Question #1. G's increase in tolerance and knowledge was also measured quantitatively: G's mean score increased by .859 after the dialect awareness unit. Although G maintained that speakers of nonstandard dialects should learn to speak standard English, G's written responses and answers to Likert-type items revealed that s/he, too, learned about dialects and became more tolerant.

Control Group's Qualitative Results

Of the 18 participants in the control group, only ten wrote any answers to any open-ended questions. These ten participants were Chi, Delta, Epsilon, Kappa, Lambda, Mu, Nu, Pi, Psi, and Tau. Of this ten, only seven—Delta, Epsilon, Kappa, Lambda, Nu, Pi, and Psi—answered every question. Tau elected to answer only Question #7. Chi elected to answer only Questions #1 and #3. Mu answered every question except #2. The

control group received the same instructions as the experimental group, so the dearth of qualitative questions answered in the control group could possibly be due to the nature of the first question (“In your opinion, what is the most surprising thing you learned about dialects?”) that was tailored for the experimental group.

Question #3: Why, do you think, do some people have such a negative opinion about dialects? The control group’s answers to Question #3 can be grouped into two categories. The first type of answer blames the negative opinions about dialects on some perceived inherent flaw in the dialect itself. The following answers fall into this type of answer:

91. Because they can’t understand certain dialects.

92. annoying

93. Yea, make people misunderstanding

I interpret Response 93 to mean that differences in dialects cause breakdowns in communication. I interpret Response 92 to mean that some people find some dialects annoying. (My interpretations of these responses may not be true to the respondents’ intentions.) Both of these statements, while true, place the blame on features of the dialects. These participants were most likely thinking of dialects that are markedly different from the standard.

The other type of response to Question #3 from the control group blames prejudice for the stigmatization of certain dialects. The following responses indicate that persons who hold negative opinions of certain dialects are close-minded or have an aversion to diversity:

94. How they are brought up.

95. They think their way is “best”
96. Because it is different from their own.
97. Because some people think their way is the only way
98. I think people in general will believe that their way of doing things is superior
99. Because they are unfamiliar with them and fear what they don’t understand

These type of responses to Question #3 from the control group resemble many responses to the same question from the experimental group.

Question #4: What can be done to change these attitudes towards speakers of stigmatized dialects? Most of the control group’s responses to Question #4 suggested that some form of diversity training could make people more accepting of others’ language varieties. These answers were:

100. To have people of all dialects sit down & talk to one another.
101. They need to be given the chance to hear different accents.
102. Just to teach your own children tolerance and to show others by example
103. Educate people about the differences in regions and versions of English
104. More understanding

These types of responses closely resembled the experimental group’s answers to these questions.

Two respondents indicated that they did not know how to change negative attitudes towards speakers of stigmatized dialects. They wrote: “I have no idea” and “I’m not sure.” One respondent wrote, “Work w/ their speech”, which indicates that she or he would prefer to impose a standard dialect on others instead of work towards acceptance of linguistic differences.

Question #5: Was there anything about dialects taught in this course that you disagree with? Of the eight responses to Question #5, six students simply wrote “No.”

One added, “No, we didn’t learn anything on dialects” and another wrote “N/A.”

Question #6: Do you think it is important for people to learn about dialects?

Why or why not? Of the seven students who responded to Question #6 six students wrote “Yes” and another implied agreement by answering the second half of the question.

The answers written to this question were:

105. Sure, because everyone speaks differently it doesn’t mean one is less intelligent than the other.

106. Yes so they can be more open minded

107. Yes, because it makes them more accepting and culturally diverse.

108. Yes

109. Yes, I believe it is important to teach

110. Yes, so they won’t be so against them

111. Yes, it’s part of the world we live in

112. That there are not all the same.

It seems that the participant who wrote Response 112 meant to write, “Yes, because they are not all the same”; this is my interpretation of that response, although other interpretations are possible and it is not possible to clarify the author’s meaning without contacting her or him.

Question #7: Do you think schools should punish students for speaking non-standard English in school? Why or why not? Only one student responded in the affirmative to Question #7. That student wrote, “While in class yes, I believe it is an

educators responsibility to better prepare students for the professional world.” Eight other students wrote that they did not think students should be punished for speaking non-standard English in school. Their answers were:

113. No, because it is simply how they speak. You can't get someone in trouble for who they are.

114. No! Everyone would be robotic if they talked alike

115. No, I don't they should punish kids, but they can teach them the proper way.

116. No, because it adds diversity.

117. No I don't because it would make it harder on foreign students.

118. No, I believe English class should teach standard English.

119. No, some can't help it

120. I do not think they should be punished because it makes people unique.

The control group's responses to this question imply that although the results of the Likert-type items reveal underlying bias against nonstandard dialects, the majority of participants nevertheless oppose punishments for speaking nonstandard dialects. The majority of the control group's responses to this question reveal a commitment to diversity.

Indications that the control group learned about dialects. Some of the most surprising answers from the control group indicated that their instructor had taught them about dialects. The following answers to Question #1 (“In your opinion, what is the most surprising thing you learned about dialects?”) from the control group suggested that they had received instruction in dialects:

121. That everyone can have their own dialect.

122. That there are many different varieties that are not always grammatically correct.

123. That slang is a dialect

These students continued to answer Question #2 (“What did you learn about dialects that changed the way you think about language?”) as though they had learned about dialects in their English 104 class:

124. That just because they speak with a dialect, it doesn’t mean they are not speaking standard English.

125. There are some that are different than ours.

126. I realized that I believe that every type of English is right. I do disagree with spelling. I believed in writing in Standard English.

The instructor of the control group assured me, in a personal communication, that “we did not cover dialects in the class. It wasn’t a part of any reading, assignment, or in-class discussion. If they said we learned about dialects, it was either a lie or they had discussions about dialects without me knowing about it.” Because these students’ answers revealed that they did not in fact understand basic facts about dialects, and because three students wrote some variation of “I haven’t learned anything about dialects”, I believe the instructor’s statement that she did not include any instruction on dialects. The student who stated that s/he learned “slang is a dialect” reveals that the speaker possibly holds a commonly believed but fallacious belief that nonstandard dialects are a sub-language; this is what Watts calls the legitimate language myth (2011). The other responses (“That everyone can have their own dialect” and “That there are many different varieties that are not always grammatically correct”) similarly reveal that the students have not learned that every dialect is worthy of respect or that dialects are

markers of identity. The students' answers belie their implied assertion that they learned about dialects in their class.

Why did these students try to answer the open-ended questions as though they had learned about dialects? Two answers, not mutually exclusive, immediately come to mind. These three students might have been providing answers that they believed I wanted. Believing that their assumptions about language variation—that dialects are inferior to a mythical Standard and equivalent to slang and that the only legitimate language variety is the Standard—were correct, they provided these answers to please the researcher. In addition to the Hawthorne effect, the students might have believed that the class did include instruction on dialects that they had somehow missed. They may have believed that they were expected to know about dialects, and “bluffed” the answer, as they might on a test.

Summary of control group's answers. The few participants in the control group who elected to answer the open-ended questions were surprisingly open-minded. I had expected more respondents to believe that speakers of non-standard dialects should learn and, subsequently, speak and write in standard English most of the time.

Summary of Qualitative Results

Subjective analysis of the participants' written responses revealed both surprising and unsurprising results. The experimental group's responses revealed that while seventeen students embraced every aspect of the dialect awareness unit, two students retained doubts about embracing linguistic diversity. Some of the students who wrote responses explicitly about the importance of linguistic tolerance described dialects in ways that revealed some degree of underlying prejudice that remained after the unit. One

student, called G in this study, stated that the onus of challenging discrimination towards speakers of nonstandard dialects falls on the people experiencing discrimination. This student apparently rejected the unit's lesson that our dialect is not something over which we have complete control.

The participants in the control group who answered the open-ended questions, on the whole, expressed surprisingly tolerant responses. Their explanations for why students should not be punished for speaking stigmatized dialects in school resembled the experimental group's answers. The control group's openness to tolerate linguistic diversity is encouraging, although the quantitative results showed that the dialect awareness unit could increase their tolerance of linguistic diversity.

Chapter 6:

Discussion and Conclusion

In this chapter, I will examine the success of the dialect awareness unit in terms of the goals and hypotheses, discuss the effect of the participants' age on the results, name some limitations of the current study, and propose avenues for future research. I will conclude by summarizing the results and the significance of this study.

Discussion

Goals and hypotheses. The success of the dialect awareness unit was evaluated by its ability to meet its pedagogical goals, as measured by the experimental group's post-test. The experimental group's pre-test and the control group's tests were used as baseline measurements. The post-tests underwent both quantitative and qualitative analysis; the post-tests' quantitative results were compared to the quantitative results of the pre-tests.

Both quantitative and qualitative analyses revealed that the dialect awareness unit increased the experimental group's understanding of how language works and their tolerance for stigmatized dialects. The experimental group's tolerance levels changed significantly from the pre-test to the post-test and were significantly different from the

control group's answers. These results were found to be significant even after controlling for pre-test scores. The results of both the statistical analysis of the quantitative results and the coding of the qualitative results are summarized below.

Quantitative evaluation. The Likert-type items and the open-ended questions were used to assess the goals of the unit. As stated in earlier chapters, the goals for the dialect awareness unit were:

1. Following the dialect awareness unit, students will show a significant increase in linguistic awareness as measured by the post-test, and
2. Following the dialect awareness unit, students will demonstrate an increased tolerance towards stigmatized, non-standard dialects as measured by the post-test.

The student's increase in linguistic awareness was quantified by the increase in tolerant answers on the Likert-type items (Appendix A). The paired samples t-test found that the experimental group's post-test was significantly different from its pre-test, with the mean increase in tolerance .2526 out of 4. The independent samples t-test found that the experimental group's post-test was significantly different from the control group's responses, with the experimental group giving more tolerant answers than the control group. The ANCOVA revealed that the experimental group's post-test was more tolerant than the control group's post-test after controlling for pre-test scores. Therefore, assuming that the treatment is the sole factor influencing the dependent variable (the scores on the post-test), we can assume that the dialect awareness unit was a successful intervention. An eta squared test quantified this change, revealing that the treatment accounted for 17% of the experimental group's post-test answers.

Qualitative evaluation. The following instructional goals for this dialect awareness unit were taken from Gooden, 2007, pp. 102-103:

- “To appreciate differences in language use as legitimate
- To understand that linguistic differences also reflect differences in class, race, ethnicity, gender, sexuality, and, by extension, culture
- To reflect on how social inequalities are manifested through language attitudes”

The experimental group’s written answers on the post-test indicate that the dialect awareness unit met these instructional goals. Students demonstrated their mastery of the first instructional goal, “To appreciate differences in language use as legitimate,” through responses on the open-ended portion of the post-test. Here are some examples of responses that exemplify their appreciation that “differences in language use are legitimate”:

I learned that no dialect is better than another.

[I learned] that I should be more accepting of people who don’t say certain things the way I do.

[I learned] That there is “no right way” of speaking. I was always taught that there was.

... English is not just English. There are many different forms and variations of the language.

... not one standard dialect is superior to another and that they should all be accepted.

Students demonstrated their understanding of the “linguistic differences also reflect differences in class, race, ethnicity, gender, sexuality, and, by extension, culture” through responses such these:

... dialects are a product of someones environment and in no way effect their intelligence.

... dialects are part of our culture especially in America

... however a student speaks is who they are.

... It's how they're raised.

... they grow up with it, its ingrained in them.

... they have the right to not speak standard English & shouldn't be judged by their dialect

... children are brought up that way & its not their fault.

... people cannot help that they have an accent so they should not be penalized for it.

... dialects are natural

... it is not something they can change

The following responses on the post-test show that students reflected “on how social inequalities are manifested through language attitudes”:

... people get discriminated against because of their dialect.

Dialect discrimination as a substitute for racism.

The amount of stereo-types and discrimination that come along with [dialects].

The discrimination that some people face because of their accent.

I learned that some people discriminate against others in the same dialect and I sometimes think language biases also reflect racial biases possibly.

Learning about how people are forced to change their dialect really made me think about how more dialects should be acceptable as their language.

The media portrays certain dialects in a negative way that influences our opinion

... the stereotypes given to certain dialects is false.

... The course opened my eyes to many of the biases about dialects & I also feel as if they are wrong.

... so many dialects have these negative stigmas attached to them and it is unfair to judge others unless you actually understand the dialect.

... [learning about dialects] makes you understand other people and not be as judgemental.

[learning about dialects] would stop the criticism of languages.

[learning about dialects helps] to avoid outright discrimination.

... Learning about dialects gives people a better understanding of others.

The majority of student responses demonstrated that students accepted the legitimacy of non-standard dialects, the ways that language reflects speakers' identities, and that discrimination based on dialect exists and is unjust. Every student's written responses reflect varying degrees of linguistic tolerance. Therefore, the dialect awareness unit met its stated instructional goals.

Changing language ideology and age. While the quantitative and qualitative results show that the dialect awareness unit increased students' tolerance toward nonstandard dialects and taught them basic facts about natural linguistic variation, the unit was not completely successful in overturning the standard language ideology. Though most students in the experimental group expressed tolerance on the post-test, a minority of students continued to believe the myth that speakers of nonstandard dialects are trying and failing to speak the standard. Some students also continued to express their opinions that nonstandard dialects "sound off" and "annoy" them. The lingering prejudice seen in these written answers may explain some of the small gains seen in the quantitative results. I explored the possibility that the students' resistance could be

attributable to their age, but discounted this theory because Reaser (2006) found similar levels of resistance with eighth-graders.

Reaser (2006) studied the effectiveness of a similar dialect awareness unit taught to eighth-graders in North Carolina; he found his unit “tremendously effective” (p. 127) in increasing students’ tolerance, leading him to believe that “it is not too late to correct and improve the language attitudes of children between the ages of thirteen and fifteen” (p. iv). Reaser observed a statistically significant change in means on seventeen out of twenty items, and the three items that did not experience significant changes were given tolerant answers on the pre-test (p. 117). Comparing Reaser’s observed changes in means (2006, p. 115) with the changes in means of this study, I conclude that dialect awareness is not necessarily more effective when taught to younger students. The sum of the changes in means from the pre-test to the post-test is 4.89 for Reaser’s study; it is 5.2 for this study. The difference between the sums of the changes in means is .31, indicating that both dialect awareness units succeeded in raising students’ linguistic tolerance and knowledge approximately equally.

Additionally, the qualitative results reported by Reaser were similar to the qualitative results of this study. Only ten students out of 129 (7.75%) wrote that it was not important to learn about dialects (2006, p. 136) in Reaser’s study; for this study, two out of nineteen students answered “no” to a similarly-worded question (10.53%). These percentages are similar and show that despite the small number of participants in this study, the results were similar to Reaser’s study with 129 participants. The content of the responses that resisted the unit were more vehement in Reaser’s study. Reaser reports that one of his participants wrote the following response (p. 136):

No. I think it is absolutely ridiculous to learn dialects which are just improper forms of English in an honors English class. AAE [African American English] and other dialects just need to learn standard English and quit being lazy and wanting every student learning their improper dialect!!!

This eighth-grader's response resembles G's responses that "its up to the individual to make an effort to be professional." However, G also wrote that it was important for people to learn about dialects and that learning about dialects was interesting. None of the participants in this study showed the animosity towards the dialect awareness unit evident in this eighth-grader's response.

This study's dialect awareness unit was as effective as Reaser's Voices of North Carolina curriculum at changing students' attitudes towards nonstandard dialects of English. Young adults in college are as capable of overturning the dominant language ideology as younger teenagers. This comparison of Reaser's results and this study's results shows that college-age students are not yet too old to confront long-held biases.

Limitations. This study's most serious limitation was the low number of participants. Because fewer than 20 students in each group completed both tests, the statistical tests had a relatively large margin of error. Future studies in this vein should, if possible, try to recruit at least 100 participants; more participants would increase the reliability of the statistical tests.

A related limitation of this study was the lack of random sampling of participants. Because the dialect awareness unit was embedded in a first-year composition class, it was not possible to choose the participants in any way; participants self-selected into the course without knowledge that they would eventually be part of a study (although they were given the option not to participate in the pre-test and post-test, with no penalty). The

participants were not representative of the general population, and thus the results are not broadly generalizable.

The qualitative analysis was hampered by a problem with the study's methodology: ambiguity in written responses to the open-ended questions on the post-test could have been clarified through follow-up interviews with the participants. This study had a small enough number of participants in the experimental group that follow-up interviews with all or some of them would have been possible. However, the problem was not foreseen during the proposal stage, and therefore was not approved by the Internal Review Board.

Finally, the academic conventions expected of college research papers required that I teach students the written, formal standard. Because the students at Ball State University must pass a timed essay exam before they can graduate, and because the majority of the essay graders judge the essays based on the rules of prescriptive grammar, part of my job is to teach students the conventions expected of them by prescriptivists. I feel that this requirement of first-year composition instruction undermined some of the lessons of the dialect awareness unit. I will address this limitation in detail in the following section.

The hidden curriculum. Dialect awareness is a part of diversity instruction, and as I attempted to teach students to be tolerant of language diversity I encountered the problem of the "hidden curriculum" first identified by Jackson in 1968. While the explicit lesson that no dialect is superior to another was effectively taught and dutifully learned, the tacit lessons of classroom structure and writing instruction might have been more salient. Though I taught students that no dialect is superior to any other, I had to

“correct” their written grammatical “errors,” such as writing *would of* instead of *would have*. While this type of error correction is expected from both students and the administration, and though it can be an effective method of teaching writing conventions that can help students meet the expectations of an academic audience, it seems rather hypocritical in a course about acceptance of language differences. Also, it could not have escaped the students that the authority figure at the front of the room, the one with the power to reward or punish students with a subjective grading system, spoke with a fairly standard, formal dialect. The implicit message was that students need to speak and write in Standard Written English in order to succeed, and this tacit message betrayed the overt message of acceptance of differences.

This hidden curriculum was evident in the vocabulary students used in their answers. In response to the question about whether schools should punish students for speaking a non-standard dialect, one student wrote, “No, unless the speech is very ungrammatical.” During the course I had taught the students what Labov famously called “the logic of non-standard English” (1969), and how grammars can differ from one dialect to another. Therefore, the student should not have used the term *ungrammatical* to refer to differences in the grammars of dialects. While the student tacitly expressed intolerance for the grammars of non-standard dialects, the same student also wrote, “Learning about how people are forced to change their dialect really made me think about how more dialects should be acceptable ...” Four other students used adjectives such as *unprofessional* and *ungrammatical* to describe non-standard dialects; one student wrote, “I do not mind the accent from dialects, but when grammar becomes abused, I grow weary of the dialect.” These young writers appear to have accepted the dialect awareness

curriculum on the surface, but the underlying power structure that belittles and disenfranchises The Other remains intact.

No ideology can be changed in eight weeks, or even eight years. After governments pass laws outlawing discrimination, prejudice can still exist for decades, or longer. Perhaps the participants in this study needed more time to absorb the lesson that no dialect is superior to any other.

Ideas for future studies. Ideally, all language awareness programs would be able to evaluate their program's effectiveness using this study's two-group control group design. Because this is not always possible, researchers should begin to collect a body of information on which language awareness courses are effective at raising students' linguistic awareness. This body of information, which currently includes Reaser's 2006 study and this one, should include a variety of studies related to all age groups and diverse pedagogical methods. As more language awareness programs are evaluated and the results published, educators will be able to use these studies to inform the construction of their language awareness programs.

Future studies evaluating the effectiveness of language awareness programs should aim for either more reliable statistical results or more descriptive, ethnographic qualitative results. Future studies focusing on quantitative results should have more participants than the current study. An ideal study would have 100 or more participants in both the experimental and the control groups. Alternatively, a study focusing on qualitative results could analyze the students' writing as they learn about dialects, following some of the students throughout the program. Such a study would shed

additional light on how students become linguistically aware, and why some students resist such lessons.

Summary

This dialect awareness unit embedded in a first-year composition course successfully taught most students the basics of sociolinguistics and raised their tolerance of stigmatized dialects. This success was measured both quantitatively and qualitatively through the experimental group's post-test. The quantitative results show that the experimental group self-reported more tolerant attitudes towards speakers of stigmatized dialects after the dialect awareness unit; their scores on the post-test showed more tolerant attitudes than either of the control group's tests. The qualitative results revealed that while most students in the experimental group accepted the premises of the dialect awareness unit—that stigmatized dialects are not inherently inferior to dialects that lack stigmatized features and are considered standard—many of them continued to conceptualize stigmatized dialects as incorrect.

With the gradual increase in the number of language awareness programs, the literature regarding the evaluations of these programs will expand. This dissertation, as well as Reaser's (2006), can serve as a model for future evaluations of the effectiveness of dialect awareness programs. Future studies should aim for either more quantitative reliability by recruiting more participants, or a richer ethnographic analysis by documenting thoroughly a few participants' reactions throughout the learning process. I hope the results related here encourage other teachers to incorporate language diversity into their writing classes.

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Appendix A

Survey Given for the Pre-Test and the Post-Test

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	I Don't Know
1. I hate it when people say "like" all the time.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Dialects are sloppy forms of English.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Most Americans don't have any accent at all.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Southern accents are ungrammatical.	1	2	3	4	5
5. When people pronounce <i>wash</i> with an <i>r</i> , like <i>warshed</i> , it doesn't bother me.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I like to hear accents that are different from mine.	1	2	3	4	5
7. "The dishes need washed" is correct.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Dialects are underdeveloped forms of language.	1	2	3	4	5
9. It is OK to say "y'all" to your friends and family.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I like people who speak with a strong accent.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I think people who speak dialects are not very smart.	1	2	3	4	5
12. People who pronounce <i>asked</i> like <i>axed</i> should not be corrected in school.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Dialects are different, but perfectly acceptable, forms of English.	1	2	3	4	5
14. When Southerners say "lahk" instead of "like," they sound unprofessional.	1	2	3	4	5
15. The best American accent is the one anchors use on the news.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Some people are too lazy to speak correctly.	1	2	3	4	5
17. "Anymore" can mean "nowadays."	1	2	3	4	5
18. Everyone speaks a dialect.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Students should be punished for speaking dialects in school.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Standard English is the best form of English.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B

Open-ended Questions Given for the Post-Test

Directions: Please answer these questions honestly. Your answers will be sealed, and will not be read or opened until after final grades are submitted. Your answers will not affect your grade in the class.

1. In your opinion, what is the most surprising thing you learned about dialects?
2. What did you learn about dialects that changed the way you think about language?
3. Why, do you think, do some people have such a negative opinion about dialects?
4. What can be done to change these attitudes towards speakers of stigmatized dialects?
5. Was there anything about dialects taught in this course that you disagree with?
6. Do you think it is important for people to learn about dialects? Why or why not?
7. Do you think schools should punish students for speaking non-standard English in school? Why or why not?

Appendix C

Consent Form

Study Title Changing Language Ideology in the First-Year Composition Classroom

Study Purpose and Rationale

The purpose of this research project is to understand college students' attitudes towards non-standard dialects. The data collected in this study will be used as the basis of my dissertation project and could eventually be used for future research in this field.

Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria

To be eligible to participate in this study, you must be at least 18 years old and enrolled in English 104.

Participation Procedures and Duration

For this project, you will be asked to complete two questionnaires about your attitudes towards non-standard dialects. It will take approximately 5 minutes to complete the first questionnaire, and approximately 20 minutes to complete the second. We will distribute the second questionnaire in a few months.

Data Confidentiality or Anonymity

All data will be maintained as confidential and no identifying information such as names will appear in any publication or presentation of the data.

Storage of Data

No names will appear on the survey data. Each questionnaire will be assigned a number and will be referred to using only that number. Paper data will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in the researcher's office for three years and will then be shredded. The data will also be entered into a software program and stored on the researcher's password-protected computer for three years and then deleted. Only members of the research team will have access to the data.

Risks or Discomforts

The only anticipated risk from participating in this study is that you may not feel comfortable answering some of the questions. You may choose not to answer any question that makes you uncomfortable and you may quit the study at any time.

Who to Contact Should You Experience Any Negative Effects from Participating in this Study

Counseling services are available to you through the Counseling Center at Ball State University (765-285-1376) if you develop uncomfortable feelings during your participation in this research project. As a Ball State student, some or all of these services are provided to you at no cost.

Benefits

One benefit you may gain from participating in this study is a better understanding of the diversity of English.

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw your permission at anytime for any reason without penalty or prejudice from the investigator. Please feel free to ask any questions of the investigator before signing this form and at any time during the study.

IRB Contact Information

For questions about your rights as a research subject, please contact the Director, Office of Research Compliance, Ball State University, Muncie, IN 47306, (765) 285-5070 or irb@bsu.edu.

Appendix C, continued

Study Title Changing Language Ideology in the First-Year Composition Classroom

.....

Consent

I, _____, agree to participate in this research project entitled, "Changing Language Ideology in the First-Year Composition Classroom." I have had the study explained to me and my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I have read the description of this project and give my consent to participate.

To the best of my knowledge, I meet the inclusion/exclusion criteria for participation (described on the previous page) in this study.

Participant's Signature

Date

Researcher Contact Information

Principal Investigator:

Faculty Supervisor:

Ashley Ellison, Graduate Student

Dr. Carolyn MacKay

Department of English

Department of English

Ball State University

Ball State University

Muncie, IN 47306

Muncie, IN 47306

Telephone: 285-8395

Telephone: 285-8539

Email: anellison@bsu.eduEmail: cjmackay@bsu.edu

Appendix D

Assignment Sheet for the Dialect Research Paper

Dialect Research Paper

5-7 pages before Works Cited and before figures

12 point font, 1” margins, double-spaced

For this paper you will pick an American dialect of English and conduct both secondary and primary research. Your research paper must have a thesis statement and have in-text citations and corresponding entries on the Works Cited page for at least 5 scholarly articles, and 5 other sources (books, blogs, etc.). For this paper you will also conduct an interview with a speaker of this dialect; interviews should be done in person and recorded. You may have to travel to do your interview. Plan ahead.

Your paper should involve in-depth thought about your dialect and provide profound information. That means you have to think a long time about it. It should be well-organized, written in sophisticated academic prose, and every paragraph should be connected to your thesis. You should use headings to help organize your paper. Use your informant’s speech and your secondary sources to illustrate your points.

You must also use photographs, tables, or other figures to help illustrate your points. Again, be sure to use appropriate MLA formatting. As always, you are expected to follow every MLA convention.

Thesis statements. Developing a surprising thesis statement is going to be the most important part of the writing process. You don’t want a thesis statement that is too obvious, like *The Southern dialect has different grammatical forms than Northern dialects* or *The*

Appendix D, continued

Chicago dialect is different from the rest of America. Those two statements are both true, but they are obvious, and worse, they are boring.

A thesis statement should be detailed and provide surprising new information about your dialect. A good thesis statement (that you may not use) would be *Although the Atlas of North American English claims there are no speakers of the Southern accent north of the Ohio River, I found an entire community whose speech exhibits most aspects of the Southern dialect in Kokomo, Indiana.* This thesis statement is better because it is precise, detailed, and challenges a claim that was published by a famous linguist. Notice that this thesis statement has the word *I*. Yes, you can use personal pronouns.

Another good thesis statement (that you may not use) is *While many people believe the dialects of England are more conservative and use older forms than American English, a comparison of General American and Received Pronunciation will show that the standard dialect of England has undergone more linguistic changes than the standard dialect of America.* This one is good because it sets out to show that a common belief is wrong.

Good thesis statements are hard to write. They will only come after you read and think a lot about your dialect. You probably won't think of it until you've written most of your paper. That's OK, but then you'll have to rewrite some of what you've already written to make your research paper one coherent, cohesive whole.

Important dates: March 25: outline with 5 sources due

April 4: First draft due for peer review.

April 8: Final draft due.

Appendix E

Example Outline

The Dialect of Kokomo, Indiana

- 1) Introduction. Background info, then thesis statement as final sentence: While Kokomo lies in the Midland area, my participants have strong Southern monophthongization pattern, as well as advanced fronting of /o/.
- 2) Phonology.
- 3) Glide deletion in /ai/.
 - a) Percentages.
 - b) Compare to Labov, Ash, & Boberg (2006)
- 4) Vowel fronting.
 - a) Compare participants' percentages.
- 5) Lexical items.
 - a) "Dope" for soda.
 - b) Referring to highways by numbers only.
- 6) Grammar
 - a) Need + past participle
 - b) "Fixin' to"
- 7) Conclusion. Distinct dialect from the South, yet could be considered one of the Southern dialects.

Appendix F

Research Paper Peer Review Form

Research paper peer review (rough draft)

Reviewer:

Writer:

Please read through the paper once then record your first impressions in a few sentences on the back. →

Please complete this form the 2nd time you read the paper. **Include suggestions.** Use the back as needed.

1. The thesis, in ten or fewer words, seems to be “

Is it clear? Arguable? Interesting? Too broad or narrow?

2. The paper addresses these general points to support the thesis:

A.

B.

C.

(etc.)

3. If the paper refutes a claim, was it effectively placed, explained, and defeated? Please mention both praise and suggestions for improvement.

4. Please identify any paragraphs that aren't related to the thesis or are too broad.

Appendix F, continued

5. Does the paper achieve its stated purpose? Where could it improve?

6. Please mark your favorite section with ♪ and explain here why you liked it.

7. Please mark the most troubled section with ☹ and explain here.

8. How well are citations incorporated into the text? Are there enough/too many?

9. Describe any problems with MLA format in the paper or citations.

10. Is the paper's style clear? (Mark three challenging spots.) Is it formal enough?

11. Does the paper meet the minimum length? Does it seem padded for length?

12. Do you see any consistent, specific errors in punctuation, grammar, and spelling?

13. Please discuss any remaining thoughts on the intro, conclusion, and body.

Appendix G

Assignment Sheet for the Website About a Dialect

Multimodal Website Presenting Your Research Group Project

Website should be finalized April 29

For this assignment, you will work in groups to create a website. Your audience is the general public. You will have to present your information differently than you did for papers in this class, when I was your primary audience. If you just copy and paste from your previous projects, you will not receive a good grade (probably a D).

There are a number of free websites available to you. Weebly is popular for academic websites, but I encourage you to be creative and find a free website that works best for your message.

Your website must have multiple pages. As a general rule, you should have 4-6 webpages per person in your group. Each webpage should have a sub-topic about the dialect, and should include as much information as is necessary for the topic. Your home webpage should include a general overview of your dialect and links to each webpage. Because this is a multimodal assignment, you must include more than just text to convey your information. Consider using sound files so people can hear the dialect, or maps, or even an embedded video that you created. Be creative!

Be sure to include information from both your primary and secondary research. While you do not have to adhere to MLA style, you must give credit where credit is due. Do not plagiarize!

Composition includes not only composing words, but composing visually. Since you are not required to do this in MLA style, you may play with fonts, font sizes, and arrangement of words. The visual presentation is perhaps as important to communicating your message as your words.

Collaboration

You must work in groups for this assignment. Working independently is not an option. *You may not choose to leave the group.* Showing that you can work effectively in a group situation is an important skill.

Not everyone in the group will do an equal amount of work. While the amount of work done by each group member will probably *not be equal*, I expect that it will be *equitable*. (*Equitable* means more or less fair and just.)

Appendix G, continued

We will work on this assignment in class, but you will have to meet with your groups outside of class to finish on time.

Groupwork can be fun and can produce a better product than working individually, but often a group can find that some group members are not working as hard as the others. Your group should decide on how to address problems with the group. Decide on what you will do if someone does not come to a meeting, does not respond to emails, etc. Setting rules in place before you begin can mean fewer problems in the future.

While you can always come talk to me about anything, keep in mind that I will not be a peacekeeper. If you are having problems with members of the group, I expect you to work it out on your own without violence, raising your voice, or excluding anyone from the group. In every job, you must work with others. Consider this job training.

Important Dates

- April 18: Comprehensive outline, with description of each webpage and name of who is responsible for each webpage, due.
- April 27: Peer Review of group website.
- April 29: Websites due. Each group will have about 5 minutes in class to present their website. This is just an informal way to share your work; it is not a graded presentation.

Grading

The visual argument (group project) is worth 15% of your total grade for the class. Your grade for the visual project consists of three components:

Instructor's grade on the website:	60%
Group members' grade on collaboration:	40%
Best Project Award:	+5%

I realize this is sort of complicated. **Every member of the group receives the same grade on the presentation from me.** The grade from me will be based on your visual rhetoric. I will have myself, "Does this website convey the intended message to the general public? Will the public accept the message?" You should try to grab people's attention, and be exciting with your words and with your visual composition.

Then, you will have the chance to grade your group members, and they will grade you. I will give you a grading rubric to help you with this task. I will average the grades that the members of your group give you and this average will be 40% of the total grade. After all groups have shown their websites, every student will vote for the best website. You may not vote for your own group. The group with the most votes can receive an extra 5 points. Therefore, it is possible to earn 105 points on this project.

Appendix H

Practice Final

English 104 029, Spring 2011

"Not only is it not right, it **ain't** right." –Barack Obama, on the proposed tax cuts that would allow the average CEO to get a \$700,000 tax break

"And so, kind of Psychology 101 **ain't** working. It's just not working. I understand the issues, I clearly see the problems, and I'm going to use the NIE to continue to rally the international community for the sake of peace." -[George W. Bush](#)

"It **ain't** easy. It's one of the toughest, most difficult, impractical problems I've ever seen." -[Dick Cheney](#), on the Israel-Palestine conflict

"This **ain't** your father's Republican Party, by the way. This is a different Republican Party." -[Joe Biden](#)

examples from:

Nunberg, Geoffrey. (2008, November 1). Evidential "ain't" on the hustings [Web log entry]. Retrieved from <http://languagelog.ldc.upenn.edu>. (2010, December 4).

Using your knowledge of rhetoric and dialect, explain why these powerful men use *ain't* when speaking in formal settings. What does *ain't* convey that other negatives do not? What does the use of *ain't* reveal about politicians' idea of their audience? When do you use *ain't*? Do you feel that you could use *ain't* in a formal speech? If not, what does this reveal about power differences and word usage?

Think about your own experiences. Can you think of other examples of when standard English is not adequate for your intended message?

Do not consider the preceding questions to be a list of what you must address in your essay; feel free to pick one or two questions and answer them thoroughly. Do not simply repeat the examples. Explain how the use of *ain't* contributes to the message of the speaker in a well-organized, 2 page essay, double-spaced.

Email your final draft to anellison@bsu.edu by 10:50am.

Appendix I

Website Peer Review Form

Your name: _____

Which website are you reviewing? _____

FORM

How easy is it to navigate the website?

Did you get lost in the website? If so, where?

Which aspects of the website are visually pleasing? What do you like about them?

Which are not? Why? _____

How long did you spend browsing the website? _____ Why did you stop? _____

RESEARCH

Describe any places where the authors need to cite their sources: _____

Describe any places where the authors need more information: _____

Do you think the authors include enough information about the dialect? _____

PIZZAZ

Did any parts of the website impress you? Which ones?

What is the coolest part of this website? _____

In general, is this an interesting or a boring website? _____

Why? _____

Appendix J

Collaboration Grading Sheet

Name _____

Group member

Grade

Reason for grade

Group member	Grade	Reason for grade

Your vote for Best Project (please don't vote for your own group) _____

Appendix K

Final Exam

A Parallel Universe

You have entered the Twilight Zone. Everyone gets two days off for Kwanzaa, Dr. Condoleezza Rice is the President of the United States (her commitment to diversity is admired: she took the trouble to find two competent white men to put on her staff), and AAVE is the standard language variety in the U.S. AAVE is the dialect you are socially pressured to use in the workplace, classroom, and in the media. It's common "knowledge" that kids from a white neighborhood are linguistically impoverished. It is made clear to you by your teachers and through the media that only people who speak fluent, perfect, "unaccented" AAVE are acceptable for prominent social positions.

Using your descriptive writing skills, give a detailed account of your experience in this educational system, in which AAVE is the standard language. Tell a story from your point of view in this alternate universe. What difficulties do you face? Why? Your story should be 3-4 pages (double-spaced, in 12-point font) and should demonstrate your knowledge of descriptive writing and language ideology.

Appendix L

Experimental Group's Pre-Test Raw Scores

ID	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
A	2	3	3	3	2	2	5	5	5	5	4	1	5	3	3	4	5	2	3	5
B	1	1	3	3	4	1	4	5	3	2	4	1	2	1	3	1	3	2	3	1
C	5	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	3	2	3	2	3	3	2
D	2	3	3	3	2	1	4	3	5	5	4	2	1	2	5	3	3	2	4	5
E	3	4	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	5	5	2	5	2	2	2	5	5
F	2	3	3	4	3	1	3	4	5	2	3	5	1	3	5	1	3	2	4	5
G	1	2	3	2	5	1	3	2	5	2		1	1	3	2	1	3	1	4	5
H	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	3	3	2	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	2	3	3
I	1	2	3	2	4	2	4	3	2	5	3	1	3	2	5	2	3	2	3	1
J	3	3	4	3	4	2	4	4	2	5	4	2	2	5	5	2	5	2	4	2
K	2	4	4	4	1	1	5	2	5	1	5	3	2	4	4	2	2	2	4	3
L	3	3	4	5	2	2	4	2	2	2	4	3	2	3	3	2	5	2	4	3
M	2	2	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	2	3	3	2	3	3	3	2	2	3	2
N	2	4	4	3	3	2	2	4	3	5	4	2	1	4	3	3	2	1	4	3
O	2	3	3		4	1	2	3	2	2	4	1	1	2	3	2	4	2	4	3
P	1	3	4	3	3	5	5	5	5	3	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	3	5
Q	2	3	3	3	2	1	3	3	3	1	3	2	1	1	3	3	2	2	3	3
R	2	3	3	2	4	2	3	4	2	5	3	2	2	1	4	2	2	2	4	3
S	3	4	4	4	1	1	2	2	4	1	4	1	1	5	4	4	2	1	4	2
T	2	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	3	2	3	2
U	1	2	3	3	1	1	4	3	3	2	3	2	2	4	3	2	5	2	3	2

Appendix M

Experimental Group's Post-Test Raw Scores

ID	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
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B	1	2	2	4	3	1	5	3	4	1	4	1	1	2	5	5	2	2	4	5
C	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	4	2	1	2	3	3	1	3	1
D	2	3	3	3	2	1	3	3	3	5	3	2	2	3	3	3	2	2	4	5
E	3	4		3	2	2	5	3	3	5	4	3	1	3	3	5	5	1	4	4
F	1	3	4	4	3	1	3	4	3	1	4	4	1	4	3	2	3	1	4	4
G	2	4	4	4	3	1	5	4	4	1	4	2	1	3	3	2	2	1	4	4
H	2	4	4	4	2	2	3	4	4	2	4	4	1	3	3	3	2	2	4	4
I	1	3	4	3	4	2	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	3	5
J	2	4	4	4	1	1	4	4	4	2	4	3	1	3	3	3	1	1	2	3
K	2	4	4	4	1	1	2	5	3	3	4	2	1	4	3	2	1	1	4	3
L	3	4	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	2	3	3	2	3	2	3	2	2	3	3
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O	2	4	4	4	3	1	4	4	3	1	5	2	1	3	4	3	2	2	4	4
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Q	1	4	3	3		1	5	3	3	2	1	3	2	2	3	3	1	2	1	1
R	2	4	4	2	3	2	3	4	4	5	3	2	2	2	4	2	2	2	4	3
S	2	3	4	4	1	1	2	1	3	1	4	2	1	4	3	3	1	1	4	2

Appendix N

Control Group's Pre-Test Raw Scores

ID	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
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Beta	2	2	3	2	3	2	2	1	3	3	3	3	2	2	3	2	3	3	3	2
Gamma	2	4	5	3	4	1	2	5	2	3	4	1	2	1	1	1	5	1	4	3
Delta	3	4	2	3	1	1	1	4	2	2	5	5	1	2	3	4	2	1	4	2
Epsilon	1	5	3	3	3	1	5	5	5	2	4	2	2	2	3	3	3	2	3	5
Zeta	3	3	2	4	2	2	5	5	5	2	4	3	1	4	5	4	2	1	4	5
Eta	2	3	5	2	4	1	5	3	3	1	3	3	2	2	5	5	5	3	3	5
Theta	2	3	4	3	5	2	2	5	3	2	3	5	5	5	4	1	2	2	4	5
Iota	1	3	3	2	1	1	2	3	3	2	4	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	4	3
Kappa	2	3	3	2	1	2	3	4	4	2	3	2	3	4	3	2	2	2	4	3
Lambda	2	2	3	4	4	1	3	5	5	3		2	1	1	2	3	2	3	3	1
Mu	3	4	4	4	1	1	3	3	3	1	3	1	1	3	3	2	5	2	3	3
Nu	4	5	4	3	1	3	4	3	3	1	4	3	2	3	3	3	4	1	3	2
Xi	3	3	3	2	4	2	2	2	3	2	3	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	3	1
Omicron	2	3	3	2	4	1	5	5	3	1	3	1	2	5	4	2	2	2	4	5
Pi	2	1	3	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	1	2	3	2	1	3	1	3	1
Rho	3	3	4	4	4	1	1	1	1	1	4	5	4	1	2	2	2	2	4	5
Sigma	1	3	4	5	1	1	1	4	4	1	4	1	1	4	5	1	1	1	4	3
Tau	1	2	3	3	4	2	3	3	3	3	3	1	2	1	4	3	4	3	3	2
Upsilon	3	3	3	2	4	2	1	1	2	4	2	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	4	1
Phi	1	3	4	3	2	1	2	3	3	1	3	5	2	2	4	1	4	1	4	2
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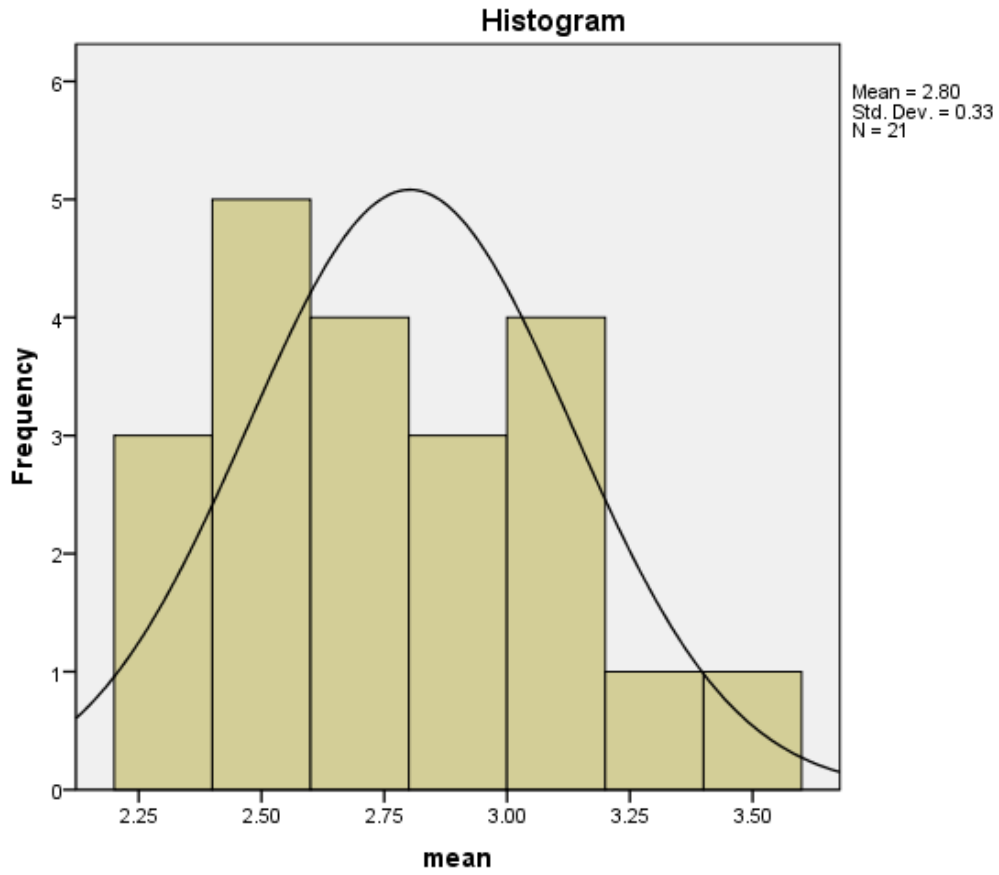
Appendix O

Control Group's Post-Test Raw Scores

ID	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Alpha	2	3	3	2	4	1	5	4	4	1	4	4	1	2	3	5	3	2	4	4
Beta	2	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	5	2	4	3	2	3	4	2
Gamma	2	3	3	3	4	2	5	5	3	2	3	1	2	1	2	3	2	2	4	3
Delta	3	3	4	4	1	1	2	4	4	2	4	3	2	3	2	4	1	1	4	5
Epsilon	1	5	3	3	2	1	5	5	5	5	4	2	2	2	3	2	5	2	4	5
Zeta	3	3	3	3	2	1	3	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	3	3	2	2	4	3
Kappa	2	3	3	3	2	2	3	4	4	2	4	1	2	3	3	2	2	2	4	5
Lambda	1	2	4	5	1	4	4	3	3	3	3	1	2	2	2	3	3	5	3	1
Mu	2	3	3	3	2	1	1	3	2	4	2	1	3	3	2	3	2	2	3	2
Nu	3	3	4	4	3	2	3	3	3	4	3	3	1	3	5	3	2	1	3	3
Xi	1	2	3	1	4	2	2	2	5	5	5	1	5	1	4	2	5	2	5	2
Pi	2	1	3	4	3	2	3	3	1	3	3	1	2	2	2	1	3	2	3	1
Rho	2	3	3	1	4	1	3	3	2	1	3	1	1	2	1	3	1	2	4	1
Psi	2	2	3	2	4	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	3	3	2
Sigma	1	3	4	4	1	1	1	4	4	1	4	1	1	4	3	1	1	1	4	4
Omega	1	2	4	3	1	1	5	5		1	3	3	1	2	3	1	3	2	5	5
Tau	1	4	3	2	4	2	4	4	3	3	4	2	1	1	5	3	3	3	3	5
Upsilon	2	2	3	2	4	2	5	2	1	2	2	1	3	1	1	1	2	2	4	1
Phi	2	3	3	3	1	2	3	3	2	4	2	2	1	2	3	2	2	2	3	2
Chi	3	2	3	3	3	5	3	2	2	3	3	3	2	2	2	3	3	3		

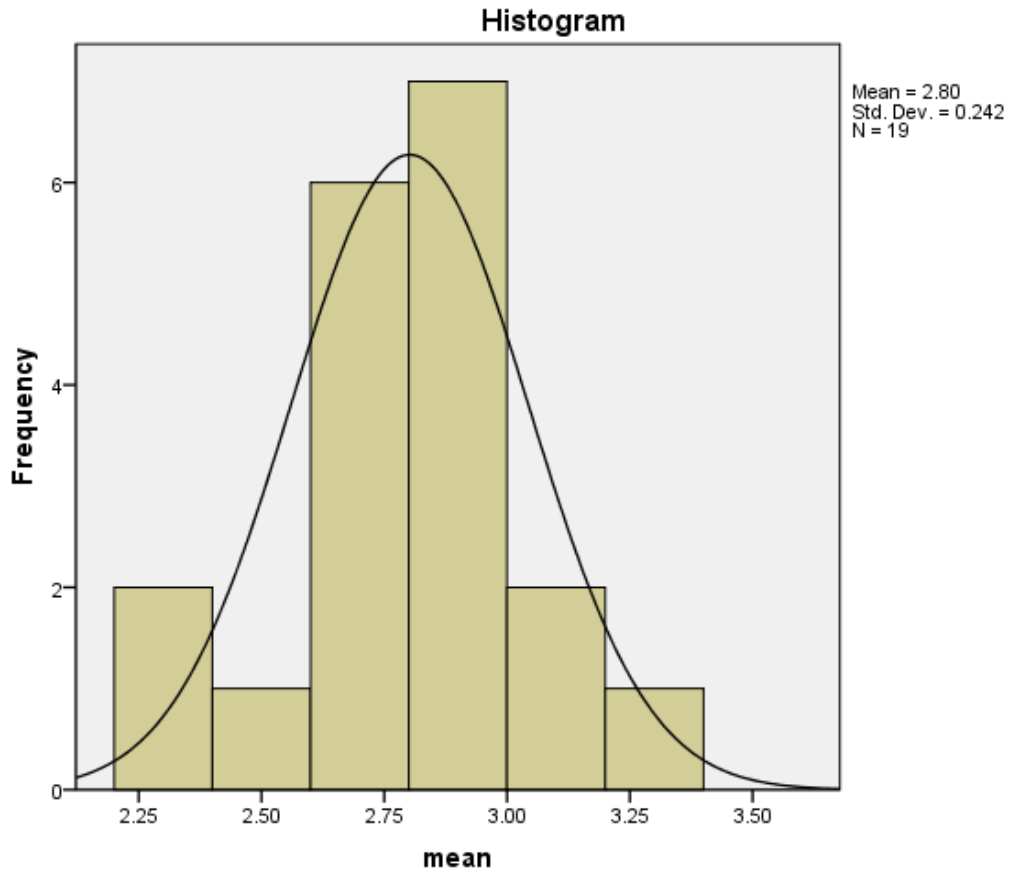
Appendix P

Histogram of the experimental group's pre-test raw scores.



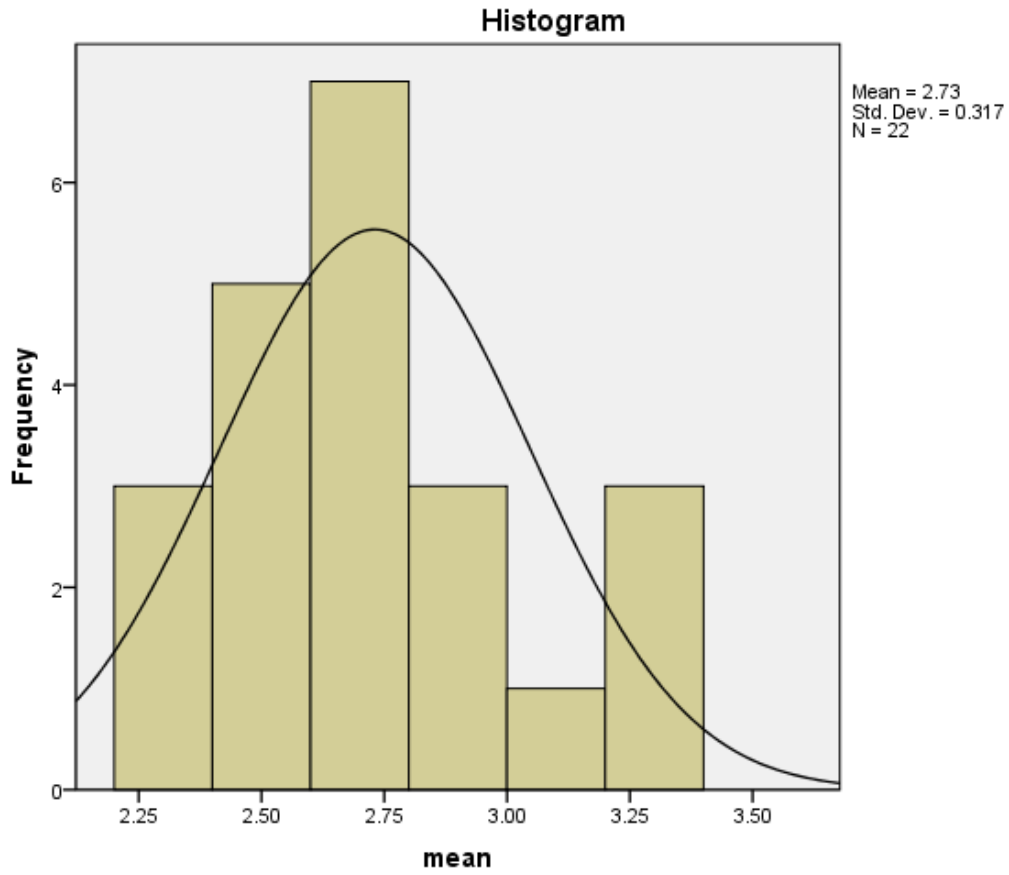
Appendix Q

Histogram of the experimental group's post-test raw scores.



Appendix R

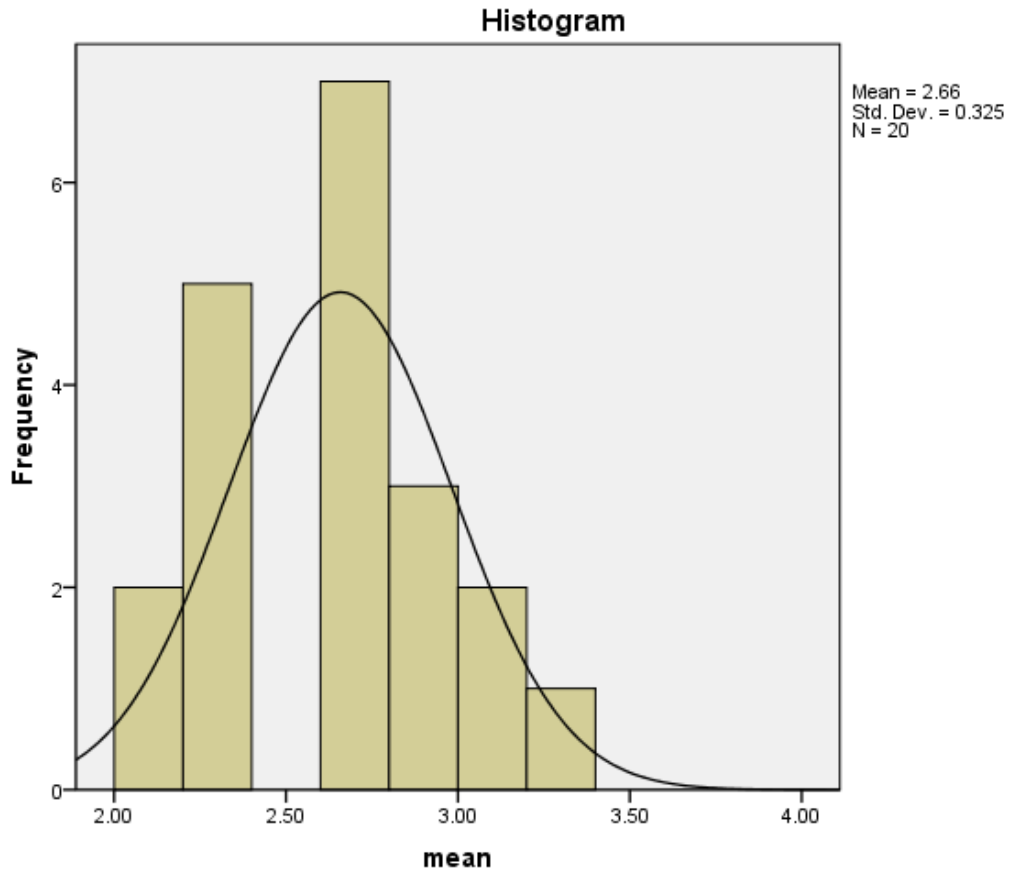
Histogram of the control group's pre-test raw scores.



Appendix S

Table

Histogram of the experimental group's pre-test raw scores



Appendix T

Likert-type items grouped by topic

Basic linguistic knowledge

Most Americans don't have any accent at all.

Everyone speaks a dialect.

Dialects are different, but perfectly acceptable, forms of English.

Everyone should speak Standard English at all times.

Standard English is best

Standard English is the best form of English.

Standard English is better than the dialect people speak in Boston.

The best American accent is the one broadcasters use on the news.

Subordination of speakers of nonstandard dialects

Some people are too lazy to speak correctly.

I think people who speak dialects are not very smart.

Students should be punished for speaking dialects in school.

Dialects are underdeveloped forms of language.

Avoidance

I like people who speak with a strong accent.

I like to hear accents that are different from mine.

AAE

I hate it when people say *axed* instead of *asked*.

South

When Southerners say "raht" instead of "right," they sound unprofessional.

Southern dialects are ungrammatical.

Midland

When people pronounce *wash* with an *r*, like *warshed*, it doesn't bother me.

Everyone who speaks English accepts "the dishes need washed" as grammatical.

"Anymore" can mean "nowadays."

Age-related

I hate it when people say "like" all the time.