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Barbara VanDyke Kirk

has been accepted towards fulfillment of the requirements for

<u>Ph.D.</u> degree in the Department of Teacher Education

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EFFECTS OF PRIOR AURAL EXPOSURE ON THE ORAL READING PERFORMANCE AND COMPREHENSION OF MEXICAN AMERICAN MIGRANT CHILDREN

By

Barbara VanDyke Kirk

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A DISSERTATION

Submitted to Michigan State University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Teacher Education

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ABSTRACT

EFFECTS OF PRIOR AURAL EXPOSURE ON THE ORAL READING PERFORMANCE AND COMPREHENSION OF MEXICAN AMERICAN CHILDREN

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Barbara VanDyke Kirk

The purpose of this study was to investigate the facilitative effects of prior aural exposure and ethnically related content on the English oral reading performance and comprehension of bilingual Mexican American migrant children. Fifteen bilingual Spanish-speaking subjects, nine or ten years of age reading at fourth-fifth grade level, were selected from the Title I Migrant Education Program.

<u>Procedure</u>. Subjects read four expository social studies passages, two related to Mexican American culture and two related ⁵to other cultures. For one ethnically related passage, subjects first listened to a recording of half the passage, retelling it afterwards. The same procedure was followed for ethnically unrelated passages. Oral reading performance was analyzed according to the Goodman and Burke <u>Reading Miscue Inventory</u>. The first 25 non-repeated miscues of the portion of the passage to which the subject did not receive aural exposure were analyzed. Comprehension was assessed by the quality of miscues and recall. These data were subjected to multivariate analysis of variance for repeated measures.

<u>Findings</u>. Prior aural exposure resulted in significantly fewer miscues and higher comprehension, as measured by retelling, than the spontaneous reading of passages. Oral reading performance did not differ significantly on the types of miscues generated, graphic and phonemic proximity, syntactic and semantic acceptability, or correction of miscues. With respect to the effects of ethnically related content, miscues generated while reading ethnically related passages more often preserved the intended meaning of the text. However, attempts to correct miscues were more successful for ethnically unrelated content. For comprehension, recall was significantly higher for the portion of the ethnically related passages to which the subject did not receive aural exposure. Conversely, for the entire passage, recall was significantly greater for ethnically unrelated passages. An interaction effect indicated that prior aural exposure resulted in significantly higher

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The nature of the reading process continues to be controversial as evidenced by a recent <u>Phi Delta Kappan</u> review of books on the teaching of reading (Smith 1983). There are those who view reading as essentially word recognition while others, considering word recognition an important part of reading, emphasize meaning. Those who define reading in terms of obtaining meaning from printed language further argue that word recognition skills can be effectively developed only as the student actively attempts to reconstruct the "whole meaning of the text" (Smith, 1983: 743).

Although there is a considerable range of perspectives on the teaching and learning of reading, all would agree that oral language development is a major factor for success in beginning reading. In their study of children's language development, linguists have generally sought commonalities of language acquisition. Brown (1973), for example, found consistent, systematic patterns of early word combinations of children of twelve different language communities. Slobin (1973) compared child language studies related to thirty languages from which to postulate a universal developmental sequence of language acquisition. Such studies gave little consideration to

the variation among individuals, cultures, and languages. In contrast, Nelson (1982) focused on individual differences and concluded that there appear to be different styles of language learning which may be influenced by cognitive maturation, cognitive style, environmental context, and the interaction of the child and environment in different functional contexts.

Children who grow up in a bilingual environment in the United States may be expected to communicate in two languages, the choice of language determined by the functional context. At home they may use the first or native language with family members while English is required in the classroom and in other interactions with the dominant culture. Among such children there is a wide range of variation in proficiency levels of both languages. They may, for example, be fluent in both languages, limited in one language and fluent in the other, or have only partial control of each language. Many bilingual children, however, enter school with limited or no English proficiency.

Most commonly, reading instruction is begun in English if the child is dominant in English, that is, if he has greater proficiency in English than the other language even though that proficiency may be considered very limited. The bilingual child, along with the rest of his monolingual English-speaking classmates, begins reading instruction in the school adopted basal reading program, the most widely-used source for teaching reading to elementary children. Basal reading programs, however, are designed and sequenced on the

assumption that the child has had five years of experience in listening and speaking standard English. In addition, although publishers have attempted to produce materials that reflect the ethnic diversity of American society, McCutcheon, Kyle and Skovira (1979) conclude that the content is still very much oriented to the middle class experience and may bear little resemblance to a given child's cultural experiences. The bilingual child may therefore lack not only the requisite English language proficiency but also the experiential background necessary for the demands of the reading task.

Recognizing the importance of oral language skills for success in reading, the literature (Ching 1976; King-Stoops 1980; Kaminsky 1976; Perez 1981; Thonis 1976, 1983) is replete with recommendations that educational programs provide ample instructional opportunities for the bilingual student of limited English proficiency to develop English oral language skills. The priority given to the development of English oral language skills by the National Migrant Education Program (Title I, ESEA), for instance, which serves largely a Hispanic population (Cameron 1981), is exemplified by the title of their instructional materials, <u>Oral Language All Day: A Resource Guide for</u> Effective Communication (1980).

Listening and reading are receptive language acts. Both involve active processing of language in order to comprehend the meaning. To bridge the limited English proficient student into reading materials, it is recommended (Thonis 1976; Gonzalez 1983; O'Brien 1973) that a language arts approach be utilized. Content is first presented for

oral language skills of listening and speaking before the child attempts to read the material. This is to provide an opportunity for the child to develop the necessary language proficiency and familiarity with the content in order to read with understanding.

Reasoning that the comprehension skills of listening are analogous to those of reading (Greene and Petty 1975), it is suggested (Anastasiow, Hanes and Hanes 1982; Petty, Petty and Becking 1981; Moffett and Wagner 1983) that listening to a reading of a text while following that text with the eyes will result in improved reading skill. It is believed that this will encourage the student to apply oral language skills to the reading process.

Anastasiow, Hanes and Hanes (1982) further suggest that aural exposure to the text, while the student follows along visually, prior to oral reading of the text, is especially beneficial for students of limited English proficiency. In addition to becoming familiar with the content through the prior aural exposure, the student also hears the natural flow of language thereby encouraging him to apply this oral language model to his own reading for improved comprehension.

The intent of this study was to observe the effects of listening and ethnically related content on the reading behavior of bilingual students, specifically Spanish-speaking migrant students.

Statement of the Problem

The major purpose of this study is to investigate the facilitative effects of prior aural exposure on the English oral reading performance

and comprehension of bilingual Mexican American migrant children. A further purpose of this investigation was to determine the relative effects of ethnically related content on oral reading performance and comprehension.

The two independent variables for this study were:

- aural exposure to the passage prior to oral reading of that passage
- 2) ethnically related content

The dependent variables were:

- 1) oral reading performance as defined by the types of miscues
 - a) the occurrence of each type of miscue -substitution, ommission, insertion, reversal
 - b) Spanish language interference/dialect
 - c) graphic and phonemic proximity to the text word
 - d) syntactic acceptability within the text
 - e) semantic acceptability within the text
 - f) correction of miscue
- 2) comprehension
 - a. comprehending while reading
 - b. retelling of information presented in the passage

Hypotheses

In this study, the following null hypotheses were tested:

- H1: There is no significant difference between the oral reading performance, as measured by word miscues, of expository passages read spontaneously and those which include prior aural exposure.
- H₂: There is no significant difference between the comprehension, as measured by retelling and the interrelationship of miscues, of expository passages read spontaneously and those which include prior aural exposure.
- H₃: There is no significant difference between the oral reading performance, as measured by word miscues, of expository passages which are ethnically related and those which are ethnically unrelated.
- H₄: There is no significant difference between the comprehension, as measured by retelling and the interrelationship of miscues, of expository passages which are ethnically related and those which are ethnically unrelated.

Significance of the Problem

The continuing debate on the nature of reading comprehension centers on whether the process is bottom-up or top-down (Strange 1980). Those who adhere to the bottom-up or text-driven position argue that "the page brings more information to the reader than the reader brings to the page" (392). Proponents of the top-down or concept-driven model take the opposite point of view. They believe that the reader uses his prior knowledge to make predictions about, for example, the relationships and episodes of the text confirming or modifying these hypotheses as he reads the text. The proposed study will contribute further insight into this issue by exploring the effects of two types of prior knowledge - language and cultural patterns - on the reading process. It is a well-known fact that linguistically and culturally different students consistently score below the norms on reading achievement (Knight 1983). The observation of the effects of prior aural exposure and ethnic relatedness of content on the reading comprehension of such a population can prove useful in the development of appropriate instructional materials and teaching strategies.

More specifically, the empirical investigation of the effect on comprehension of listening to text before reading it has a very practical classroom application. If found to improve comprehension, both basal reading materials and content area materials easily could be recorded on audio tape to be used by students who would benefit from this technique.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined as they are used in this study.

<u>Listening</u> - "the process by which spoken language is converted to meaning in the mind." (Lundsteen 1971: 9)

Mexican American - an American citizen of Mexican ancestry.

- <u>Migrant Child</u> a child who has moved within the past year with his family from one school district to another in order that a member of his immediate family or guardian might work in seasonal agricultural activities.
- <u>Miscue</u> a deviation between the oral response of the reader and the printed text (Goodman and Burke 1972).
- <u>Dialect</u> a variety of a language spoken by a particular group of people.

<u>Interference</u> - the inappropriate usage of phonological, syntactic or semantic features of one language within the context of another.

Procedures

Population and Sample

Subjects for this study were drawn from the interstate and intrastate Mexican American student population attending the ESEA Title I, Michigan Summer Migrant Program. Teachers were asked to identify those students of nine or ten years of age who spoke Spanish and could be expected to read at approximately the fourth grade level.

To further define the sample, a Language Usage Questionnaire and the Slosson Oral Reading Test (Slosson 1963) were administered to each student. The Language Usage Questionnaire, designed by the investigator to ascertain that the student used Spanish, consisted of questions focusing on choice of language in specific situations such as playing with friends, visiting relatives, and helping parents with household chores. The Slosson Oral Reading Test (SORT) was utilized to determine the approximate reading level of the student. Those bilingual students who scored within the mid fourth grade to low fifth grade range (4.4-5.2) on the SORT were included in the sample of fifteen.

Treatment

For the treatment, four expository passages of approximately 630 words each were adapted from fifth grade social studies instructional materials. Two passages were chosen describing aspects of Mexican American culture including the extended family, the barrio, border culture and Las Posadas, a Christmas tradition. Two other expository passages were selected describing cultural patterns or customs of other cultures. The four passages each consisted of approximately the same number of main ideas and details.

For each passage, an audio recording was produced of a standard English speaker reading, from the beginning, approximately half of the passage.

In the design of this experiment, each subject read all four passages. The subject was instructed to orally read without assistance and afterwards retell one ethnically related passage. On the second ethnically related passage, the subject first listened to the audio recording of half of the passage, following along on the printed copy. Then the subject was given the printed copy of the complete passage and orally read the entire passage retelling it afterwards. This same procedure was followed for the ethnically unrelated passages.

For both the ethnically related and unrelated passages, the subject listened to just half of the passage in order to avoid confounding the hypothesized effect of prior aural exposure with listening comprehension.

The retelling task was both unaided and aided. The subject was informed before reading that she would be asked to retell the information in the passage as soon as the reading was completed. First, the subject reviewed, unaided, in her own words what she had read. Following this initial response, the investigator asked questions to encourage the subject to expand the retelling. Questions made use of no specific information not already introduced by the subject in her retelling and were general in order not to lead the subject to insights that did not develop from her own reading.

The order of whether the subject first read a passage or listened to the audio tape and read a passage was randomly alternated between subjects. The oral reading and retelling sessions were recorded on audio tape for analysis.

Analysis of Data

Oral reading performance and comprehension were analyzed from both a quantitative and qualitative perspective relative to the treatment conditions of prior aural exposure and ethnic relatedness of content.

Oral reading miscues were catalogued into four categories: substitutions, omissions, insertions, and reversals. Each type of miscue was a dependent variable in a separate multivariate analysis of variance for repeated measures (Winer 1971).

	INTON EXICOUNE					
ETHNIC RELATEDNESS	Aural Exposure	No Aural Exposure				
Related						
Unrelated						

MISCUE TYPE

For the qualitative analysis of oral reading miscues, the guidelines of the <u>Reading Miscue Inventory</u> (Goodman and Burke 1972) were utilized to describe the miscues with respect to graphic and phonemic similarity to the text and syntactic and semantic acceptability. Those miscues reflecting the influence of the Spanish language were identified and analyzed for their relationship to comprehension. As for the types of miscues, these dependent variables were each analyzed relative to the treatment conditions by the statistical procedure of multivariate analysis of variance for repeated measures.

On the recall measure, unaided and aided recall of the main ideas and details were tallied. Recall was analyzed both for the entire passage and for the second half of the passage to which the subject did not receive aural exposure. These data were also subjected to multivariate analysis of variance for repeated measures.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

The literature reflecting the theoretical orientations and empirical research which has influenced the formulation of the present study is reviewed in this chapter. The two major areas considered as they relate to reading comprehension are: 1) listening and 2) prior knowledge. For listening, the review of the literature focuses on comprehension by ear and its relationship to reading comprehension. Prior knowledge is examined with an emphasis on cultural background and its role in reading comprehension.

Listening

Listening is a receptive language act. As such, listening goes beyond the reception of sounds. Lundsteen (1971: 9) defines listening as "the process by which spoken language is converted to meaning in the mind." According to her model, listening then is an active process which involves "hearing, getting meaning, and making use of that meaning" (1971: 43). To underscore the level of mental activity involved, Brown (1954: 86) advocates the term **auding** be employed to describe comprehension of spoken language. Taylor (1973) defines

• * .

listening as having three hierarchical stages: hearing, listening, and auding. **Hearing** is the physical process of receiving auditory input. Listening refers to the process of recognizing the sound components in meaningful units and **auding** is the process of transfering the flow of words into meaning utilizing critical thinking skills. From an information processing perspective, Goss (1982) describes listening as a problem-solving task involving three phases: 1) signal processing - auditory perception; 2) literal processing simple meaning and implication; and 3) reflective processing critical analysis and appreciation.

As receptive language acts, listening and reading are analogous in many respects. The interrelationship between oral and written language is emphasized by Carroll's (1964: 340) definition of reading as "perception and comprehension of written messages in a manner paralleling that of the corresponding spoken message. Smith, Goodman and Meredith (1976) describe listening and reading as active processes of constructing meaning from language, reading from graphic symbols and listening from sound symbols. Both are therefore considered meaning-getting processes in which the listener/reader must respond to language in order to construe its meaning.

Listening and reading have been operationally defined as processes of sampling and hypothesis testing in seeking meaning. From a psycholinguistic perspective, Goodman (1973) stresses the language ability of the reader in his top-down model of the reading process. According to Goodman, the reader constructs meaning by simultaneously

using the graphophonic, syntactic and semantic language systems. The reader anticipates and predicts meaning based on sampling cues from each of the three systems and seeks to confirm or disconfirm the prediction by relating it to prior experiences and language knowledge. Similarly, Lundsteen (1971) suggests that the listener samples from the verbal symbols to arrive at meaning. The listener compares his selection of verbal cues with his store of language knowledge and conceptual background to predict, test and confirm meaning. Listening and reading thus involve an interaction between the background experiences and language of the speaker/writer and listener/reader to construct the message.

Skills involved in listening and reading also seem to reflect common comprehension processes. Mangieri, Staley and Wilhide (1984) note that dimensions of comprehension for both listening and reading include identifying details and main ideas, making inferences, and higher level skills as separating fact from opinion. In his skill analysis of listening comprehension, Buttery (1980) emphasizes this relationship by formulating a modification of Barrett's (Smith and Barrett 1972) taxonomy of reading skills to classify listening comprehension skills. Buttery delineates four levels of listening comprehension skills:

- 1) literal recognition or recall
- 2) inferential or interpretive
- 3) critical or evaluative
- 4) appreciation or aesthetic (1980: 186)

Lundsteen (1971) lists twenty-seven listening comprehension skills compiled from numerous authorities on listening. Adhering closely to Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of educational objectives for the cognitive domain, the skills are classified into two levels labeled **general listening** and **critical listening**. **General listening** skills include the knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis and synthesis levels of the Bloom taxonomy. **Critical listening** represents evaluation, the highest level of the taxonomy. Most taxonomies of reading comprehension such as those presented by Stoodt (1981), Lapp and Flood (1978) and Miller (1984) are also based on Bloom's taxonomy. These parallel classifications of listening and reading comprehension skills suggest that educators believe similar mental processes underlie both receptive language acts.

The relationship between listening and reading has been the subject of investigation for more than fifty years. Numerous studies, including those by Bonner (1960), Duker (1964), Brown (1965), and Markert (1974), have shown moderately high positive correlations between listening and reading comprehension suggesting similar mental processes. Duker (1964: 322), for example, reports twenty-three studies conducted between 1926 and 1961 found correlations ranging from .45 to .70 with a mean of .57. Brown (1965: 135) reported even higher correlations of .82, .76 and .77 at the fourth, fifth and sixth grade levels, respectively.

Further evidence that basically the same cognitive processes are required for either receptive language mode has been provided by

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Mosenthal (1976). Syllogisms in aural and written form were used with second and sixth graders to test differences in comprehension. Mosenthal concluded that a common language competence underlies both silent reading and oral language processing but, interestingly, not reading aloud. Kintsch and Kozminsky (1977) compared mature readers', college students, summaries written after reading and listening to Finding the summaries remarkably similar led these stories. researchers to conclude that reading and listening involve identical comprehension skills. Devine (1978: 302) argues that listening and reading beyond decoding are reflections of a "common thinking base." He describes listening and reading as the applied level of the thinking processes. Al-Dahiry and Heerman (1981) compared third graders' comprehension at the literal and interpretive levels after listening, silent and oral reading. They concluded that the mode of reception did not affect the children's comprehension at either level suggesting that common comprehension processes undergird the receptive language modes.

If listening and reading comprehension reflect similar skills and cognitive processes, it would seem that principles of transfer of learning would operate with improvement in listening resulting in improvement in reading or vice versa. On this premise, educators (Petty, Petty and Becking 1981; Rubin 1982; Cunningham 1983; Lemons and Moore 1982) commonly recommend listening comprehension instruction as a means for improving reading comprehension. Research generally supports this view. Sticht, Beck, Hauke, Kleiman and James (1974) evaluated twelve "auding"-reading comprehension transfer studies finding support for their hypothesis that training in auding will transfer to reading comprehension when reading is developed beyond the learning to decode stage. In addition, they noted that transfer was skill-specific, that is, the more similar the skill in auding training to that in reading, the more likely it would transfer. Sticht, et al, conclude that the same cognitive processes operate in both listening and reading. Testing the Cunningham (1975) parallel lesson strategy emphasizing specific skill transfer from listening to reading comprehension, Seaton and Wielan (1980) compared parallel lessons in listening and silent reading comprehension to a traditional basal approach. They found that comprehension was greater using parallel lessons when reading for relationships, interpretation and appreciation but not significantly different from the basal approach when reading for information, a literal level skill. Further, they suggest that elementary school children would benefit from the combined employment of auditory and visual modalities since, at that level, comprehension by listening is generally greater than by reading.

Although there are many commonalities between listening and reading, there are some important differences. Devine (1978) observes that listening and reading differ with respect to situational and time contexts. The listener can interrupt, ask for clarification, and pick up clues to meaning from intonation. In addition, the listener has the benefit of nonverbal cues as facial expressions, gestures and

general situational factors. Related to time context, the reader has greater versatility. Except by interrupting the speaker, the listener cannot regress to check interpretation but must rely instead on memory. Unlike reading, the listener cannot preview the message or control the speaker's rate of delivery to perhaps pause for reflecting on what has just been heard. Another difference noted by Olejnik (1978) is that a listener may have to adjust to a speaker's dialect in order to understand the verbal code. Olejnik states that this is not a problem for a reader but, while not a problem at a phonological level, a reader too may have to make a corresponding adjustment at the semantic and syntactic levels.

Still other characteristics of spoken and written language may place different cognitive demands on the listener/reader for comprehension. Durkin (1978, 1983) points out that while written material usually consists of better constructed sentences than spoken language, these sentences are longer and more complex. In contrast to spoken language, the content of written material is likely to be "dense, unfamiliar, detailed, technical (and) nonrepetitive" (1983: 274). Much of the content of listening is likely to be more personal dealing with the immediate environment and shared experiences. Recognizing the different demands placed on the listener, Durkin (1978: 426) differentiates between "everyday talk" and the more formal "oral presentation of written material." Characteristics of spoken language with which the listener must contend include an abundance of poorly constructed sentences, false starts and corrections. Durkin therefore concludes that written material is not "talk written down."

One difference between listening and reading which bears further examination relative to the present study is that of prosodic information provided the listener and reader. Prosodic features, suprasegmentals, consist of pitch, stress and juncture which, combined, produce intonation in speech. Pitch refers to the level of the voice indicating at the end of a sentence, for example, whether the speaker is making a statement or asking a question. Stress refers to the amount of emphasis or loudness given to a word or syllable. Stress on particular words can indicate what is important in a sentence changing the meaning. For example,

John caught three fish. (not someone else) John caught three fish. (not four), etc.

On a particular syllable in a word, stress can signal a semantic or syntactic difference as <u>invalid - invalid</u> and <u>content -</u> content. Juncture, or pause, signals the difference between words as **ice cream** and **I scream**, phrase or clause divisions and sentences. Based on an extensive review of the research, Kleiman (1982) summarizes the types of information that prosodic cues may provide the listener. These are:

- a) changes in the topic of discourse
- b) the ends of sentences, and whether they are statements, questions or commands
- c) whether sentences convey direct or indirect speech acts

- d) the ends of clauses within sentences, and, in many cases, phrases within clauses
- e) the words a speaker wants to make prominent because they convey new or contrastive information
- f) the referents of some pronouns (1982:11)

In contrast to listening, only some prosodic cues are graphically represented in written language. This is noted by Bolinger who states:

The convergence of writing and speech virtually stops at the level of morphemes ... (Writing) has virtually disregarded rhythm and intonation. ... Punctuation and capitalization serve as a rough guide to some of the rhythmic and intonation contrasts in speech, but too much is left out ... (1975: 471-472)

Prosodic cues in written language are therefore available to signal the boundaries of a sentence but generally lacking within the sentence.

Language comprehension, according to Clark and Clark (1977) requires that the constituents (phrases and clauses) of surface structure be identified in order to construct meaning. They describe the syntactic and semantic strategies that might be employed to parse sentences into constituents. Syntactic strategies employ function words, suffixes, prefixes, and grammatical categories (nouns, verbs) of content words to infer constituents. Semantic strategies rely on prior knowledge beginning with propositions that would make sense in a particular context and then checking for surface constituents that reflect those propositions. A combination of strategies is probably used, all with the purpose of reducing ambiguities in constructing meaning. As indicated above by Kleiman's list of functions, prosody also provides information for parsing sentences although it is usually redundant with the syntactic and semantic cues.

The importance of prosody in the acquisition of reading skills is stressed by Fries (1963) who views learning to read essentially as breaking the code, recognizing in printed form the words the reader knows in spoken form. With an emphasis then on decoding, Fries (1963: 130) maintains that, in order to read with comprehension, the reader must "rapidly and automatically" supply the oral signals of stress, pause, and intonation that are not represented in the graphic signals.

Prosody also plays a significant role in the model of reading proposed by Goodman (1973) which is based on the premise that, once the child has developed the necessary oral language facility, reading should be merely an extension of his natural language learning. During the early stages of reading, a child may recode graphic symbols into aural input from which to derive meaning. Assuming the child is reading in his native language, his unconscious awareness of the intonation patterns as language flows in actual speech aid him in decoding meaning. As the child gains experience with written language, Goodman hypothesizes that the reader collapses the process so that recoding into aural input and decoding occur together. With the compression of these processes, the reader decodes meaning directly from graphic input and no longer needs aural input as a mediator. Fluency in reading is dependent on the reader's general
cognitive and linguistic competence with respect to the demands of the reading task. The more the reader is able to make use of syntactic and semantic cues, the less graphic cues are needed to predict the meaning. This model suggests that, when confronted with text demanding a somewhat higher level of linguistic competence than possessed by the reader or content not within his experiential background, the reader may need to return to the level of recoding to aural input before decoding in order to "hear" the text. Hearing or aural input of the flow of language may provide prosodic cues to meaning.

Because prosody is not well represented in written language, it is argued (Kleiman, Winograd and Humphrey 1979; Kleiman 1982; Read and Schreiber 1982; Schreiber 1980) that a reader's failure to use compensating strategies for the lack of prosodic cues may contribute to reading difficulties. This may be the case for those readers characterized as "word by word" readers or "word callers," orally reading without "expression" - not chunking words into meaningful structural units. Orally reading without the implied prosodic patterns of the text while able to decode individual words is suggestive that the reader may not be comprehending the text.

To determine whether parsing of sentences might be a factor contributing to reading difficulties, Kleiman, <u>et al</u> (1979), compared fourth grade above and below average readers. Sentences were presented with and without prosody, in written and spoken form versus written form only. Below average readers were significantly less able

than above average readers to parse sentences when prosodic information was not available. However, when prosody was available, below average readers were able to parse sentences as well as the above average readers. Above average readers parsed sentences about as well with or without prosody. These researchers conclude that the lack of prosodic information in written language may contribute to the difficulty some children have in parsing sentences and, thereby, impair comprehension. Although not discussed in this report, the results of this study also suggest that above average readers have developed other parsing strategies for written material commensurate with their listening comprehension.

Further evidence that children might experience difficulty compensating for the lack of prosody in written language is provided by Read and Schreiber (1982) who compared children and adults on the use of prosody and syntax in parsing sentences. Seven year-olds and adults were given the task of parsing spoken sentences in which there was misleading prosody, a mismatch between prosodic and syntactic cues. Results indicated that the children relied more heavily than adults on prosodic features to identify syntactic structures. Since prosody appears to be crucial in children's analysis of constituent structure at a time when learning to read, the authors reason that comprehension difficulties may be expected as the beginning reader learns to rely on other semantic and syntactic parsing strategies.

Oral reading techniques are frequently employed to increase reading fluency of the "word caller" who, accurately but haltingly

calling the words, demonstrates poor comprehension although he would understand if it were read to him. These techniques include neurological impress (Heckelman 1969; Hollingsworth 1978), assisted reading (Hoskisson 1975a, 1975b), imitative reading (Chomsky 1978), and repeated readings (Samuels 1979). Through listening and oral reading at the student's instructional reading level, the goal of each of these techniques is to improve word recognition fluency which includes phrasing or expression, accuracy, and rate to thereby result in improved comprehension. The neurological impress method (Heckelman 1969) involves unison oral reading by the student and the teacher. Sitting slightly behind the student to the right, the teacher's hand slides under the words as they are read with his voice directed into the student's ear. The teacher may be a fraction of a word ahead of the student. This may be repeated on a particular passage until fluency is achieved. Since class size may limit the feasibility of this technique, Hollingsworth (1978) recommends that a listening center be used. Each student can hear the text through earphones and orally read along with the tape. In assisted reading (Hoskisson 1975a, 1975b), a phrase or sentence in a story is read aloud one at a time and the student repeats each one after the reader who directs attention to print by moving his finger under the words. Hoskisson (1975a) also suggests using taped stories and a listening post, a variation similar to Hollingsworth's impress method with the exception that the student may read along silently or in unison with the tape. For the imitative method (Chomsky 1978), the student

listens to a taped story following along in the text. The procedure is repeated until the student can orally read the story fluently and, importantly, with expression. The **repeated readings method** (Samuels 1979) involves giving the student a short selection of 50-200 words, instructing the student to practice the selection, and then timing the oral reading of the selection noting the rate and number of errors. The student silently rereads the selection while listening to a tape of that text until a satisfactory level of oral reading fluency is reached.

The aforementioned proponents of each of these methods report favorable results in improving reading fluency. These methods are quite similar in that each provides a model to emulate and opportunities for the student to practice acting like a fluent reader. Samuels' (1979) rationale for the repeated readings method is based on an automatic information processing model of reading (LaBerge and Samuels 1974). According to this model, the word identification skills of the fluent reader are automatic, that is, accomplished with little attention. The reader is then able to devote most of his attention to processing the message. The slow and halting reader is believed to have poor comprehension because his efforts are expended on decoding rather than comprehension. Samuels (1979) reports that as students continued the repeated readings method they needed fewer rereadings on each new passage to attain satisfactory fluency. In his examination of the repeated readings method, Schreiber (1980) points out that LaBerge and Samuels' model of reading does not explain why

the repetition of one passage would lead to improved fluency on a new passage. Schreiber contends that

... the acquisition of fluent reading competence crucially involves the beginning reader's tacit recognition that s/he must learn to compensate for the absence of prosodic cues in the written signal by making use (or better use) of the cues that are preserved. (1980: 178)

He concludes that success of the oral reading method as repeated readings and those described above comes from the opportunities, through listening and emulating the reader, to discover the syntactic and semantic cues to syntactic phrasing in written form that he already knows how to use in aural processing.

It is evident from the literature that, as receptive modes of language, listening and reading parallel one another in many respects. Both are active processes of constructing meaning from language and appear to rely on similar skill components and cognitive processes. However, comprehension of written in comparison to spoken language may require some adjustments due to the more decontextualized nature of reading. A listener has the benefit of the immediate situation with significant cues to meaning through gestures and prosody while a reader must rely instead on graphic signals for this information.

Prior Knowledge

What a reader knows about a topic will affect his or her ability to understand text related to that topic. This prior knowledge is also referred to as background information or world knowledge (Durkin <u>in</u> Harris and Sipay 1984). Whether the reader contributes more

information to the page or vice versa is a source of continuing debate.

A reader's prior knowledge is considered of key importance in Goodman (1967, 1973) and Smith's (1978, 1979) psycholinguistic models of reading. Both portray reading as a top-down, concept-driven process in that the reader formulates hypotheses about the author's meaning based on his knowledge of language and his total experiential background. The proficient reader samples just enough graphic, syntactic and semantic cues to predict meaning which is tested and confirmed, revised or rejected. The more a reader knows about a topic, the less visual cues will be required to make accurate predictions of meaning. The emphasis on what the reader brings to the page is evidenced by Goodman's (1967) characterization of reading as a "psycholinguistic guessing game" involving interactions between thought and language and Smith's (1978, 1979) central tenet that reading is essentially prediction and, thus, the reduction of uncertainty.

In contrast to this position, the bottom-up, text-driven view of reading holds that the page contributes more information to the reader than the reader to the page. The reader's prior knowledge is still considered necessary for comprehension but secondary in importance to text. Bottom-up models of reading involve serial, level by level analyses generally described as subskills which are integrated into high level skills or as a series of stages from visual input leading to a semantic interpretation. Laberge and Samuel's (1974) automatic information processing model of reading, for example, emphasizes rapid word identification skill in the sequential processing of the words from which the reader extracts meaning. When word identification becomes "automatic," comprehension is given greater attention.

Another explanation of the role of prior knowledge in reading comprehension is offered by schema theory (Rummelhart and Ortony 1977, Anderson 1977, Bartlett 1932). According to this theory, the reader's prior knowledge is organized into data structures called schemata (plural for schema). Schemata are mental frameworks arranged hierarchically for representing in memory generic concepts underlying objects, events, situations, and their relationships. As structures of knowledge, schemata are embedded within schemata representing knowledge at all levels of abstraction. Schemata are believed to be active processes and, therefore, open to change. A schema consists of slots (Minsky 1975) which can be filled with new information resulting in more complete schema and/or modification of schema through accomodation and assimilation (Anderson 1977).

The term schema and the concept, much as it is used in schema theory, dates back to the formulations of the philosopher Kant (1963/1781). However, Bartlett (1932) is generally credited with introducing the term into modern psychology to describe the way in which knowledge is structured in the mind and how it influences comprehension and recall. Similar concepts in the current literature are "frames" (Charniak 1975, Minsky 1975, Fillmore 1975) and "scripts" (Lehnert 1977, Schank and Abelson 1977).

The schema-theoretic view of reading (Adams and Collins 1979, Rummelhart 1980) is based on the interaction between the reader and the text. Central to this theory is the assumption that text itself does not carry meaning but only provides clues to the reader to access associated schemata and construct the intended meaning from his or her prior knowledge. The reader uses top-down, concept-driven and bottom-up, data-driven processing, both occuring simultaneously at all levels of analysis. Comprehension requires the convergence of input information available through bottom-up processing with the reader's conceptual expectations through top-down processing. Input information is monitored by bottom-up processing as the reader attempts to "instantiate," or fit, perceived data into existing schemata. When the information does not fit, top-down processes are activated to resolve the ambiguities. Summarizing the schematheoretic position on the role of prior knowledge, reading comprehension is

the use of prior knowledge to create new knowledge. Without prior knowledge, ... a text is not just difficult to interpret, strictly speaking, it is meaningless. (Adams and Bruce 1982: 23)

Employing the perspective of schema theory is a growing body of research on the effects of culture specific prior knowledge on reading comprehension and recall. Such research can be traced to the work of Bartlett (1932) who, in his study of memory, analyzed educated Englishmen's recall of the North American folktale, "The War of Ghosts." He observed that the distortions, elaborations and omissions in Englishmen's recall resulted in stories which more conformed to the values and beliefs of their own culture. These transformations were explained not as random forgetting but as a process of "rationalisation" operating

to render material acceptable, understandable, comfortable, straight-forward; to rob it of all puzzling elements. (Bartlett 1932: 89)

While recognizing individual variability in attitudes and affective states, Bartlett believed that general schemas were shared by members of a social group accounting for the similarities observed, even over time, in the transformations of the folktale. Although there have been some methodological concerns (Zangwill 1972), this pioneering research on the constructivist nature of memory stands as a major influence on the development of a schema-theoretic model of reading while the cross-cultural aspects of this research for many years have largely been ignored.

Just recently, researchers have shown renewed interest in the work of Bartlett and have now begun to conduct cross-cultural research to determine the effects of culture specific schemata on reading comprehension and recall. These studies have involved foreign students learning English, American college students reading foreign texts and children of various religious, ethnic and language minority subcultures within the United States. Each of these studies, reviewed below, provides further support for the important role of prior knowledge in reading comprehension.

In their research on the effects of cultural schemata on reading comprehension, Steffensen, Joag-Dev and Anderson (1979) asked college students from India and the United States to read letters about a typical American wedding and a typical Indian wedding. The text based on their own culture was read more rapidly and with greater comprehension. Subjects not only recalled more information from the text related to their culture but, also, produced more culturally relevant elaborations of that text and more distortions of the foreign text.

For students learning English as a second language (ESL), Johnson (1981) found that cultural content of a text was a more important factor in comprehension than the simplification of vocabulary and syntax. Forty-six Iranian intermediate to advanced level ESL college students read a story from Iranian folklore and one from American folklore. Half of the subjects read an unadapted English text of the two stories while the other half read the stories in adapted, simplified English. Subjects demonstrated greater comprehension of the American story using the adapted text. No difference in comprehension was found between the two versions of the Iranian story. Although lacking knowledge of the text language, subjects seemed to rely on their cultural background knowledge, utilizing top-down strategies in comprehension.

Since comprehension of the foreign text (the American story) was better when it was simplified, Johnson (1982) then questioned whether difficulty in understanding the unadapted version was due to the lack

of necessary vocabulary meaning and/or to the lack of cultural background knowledge. Seventy-two advanced ESL college students representing 23 nationalities read a text on Halloween consisting of familiar and unfamiliar information based on the students' recent experience in activities associated with this custom. Three of the four equal groups of students were exposed to the meanings of unfamiliar key vocabulary words before reading and/or found them glossed in the text. Johnson concludes that the real cultural experiences with Halloween rather than exposure to vocabulary resulted in significantly higher comprehension for just familiar information about Halloween. None of the vocabulary treatments were found to have a significant effect on reading comprehension. For culturally unfamiliar topics, these results suggest that vocabulary knowledge is insufficient for comprehension but prior knowledge essential.

In a study of American college students' comprehension and recall of Eskimo stories, Rice (1980) found that systematic distortions in recall related to both form and content of the stories so as to conform with their own cultural expectations. Eskimo stories were selected for this experiment because the content was not only unfamiliar but the structure was also distinct from the American story schema, a model similar to that proposed by Rummelhart (1975). Rice notes that subjects had the greatest difficulty recalling material which was most foreign to them suggesting that such material could not be assimilated to available schemata.

The foregoing studies have all utilized textual materials representing a nationality or culture very different from that of the subjects in order to determine the effects of culture specific schemata on comprehension. Studies have also been conducted to ascertain whether the cultural schemata of subcultural groups within the United States are sufficiently distinct to be manifested in reading comprehension. Reynolds, Taylor, Steffensen, Shirey and Anderson (1982) reason that while subcultures do differ in their values and beliefs, there is considerable cultural overlap of concepts and ideas particularly due to the popular mass media. Essentially replicating the Steffensen et al (1979) study described above, Reynolds et al compared Black and White eighth grade students' recall of a letter dealing with "sounding," a form of ritual insult found in the Black community. Black subjects interpreted the letter as verbal play while the White students interpreted it as physical aggression. Like Steffensen et al (1979), these researchers conclude that culture specific schemata can act to distort text dealing with culturally unfamiliar topics.

Further support for this conclusion is provided by Schreck (1981) who examined the effects of content schema on the reading comprehension of fifth and sixth grade Hispanic, Black and White students. The students read three passages, each reflecting content peculiar to one of the three cultural groups. Schreck found that cultural familiarity significantly facilitated comprehension and memory.

Lipson (1983, 1984) compared the comprehension and recall of fourth, fifth and sixth graders of two subcultural groups, Jews and Catholics, both within the mainstream of American society. The students were enrolled in private Hebrew and Catholic schools and were of average or above-average reading ability. Each student read an expository passage, typical of that found in a social studies textbook, on the Bar Mitzvah and the First Communion. In addition, they read a culturally "neutral" expository passage concerning Japanese divers. Each group read more rapidly and recalled more explicit and implicit information for the culturally familiar text. As Bartlett (1932) and Rice (1980), Lipson found that readers produced constructivist errors of omission, elaboration and distortion in recall which reflected attempts to assimilate the culturally unfamiliar information according to their own cultural schemata. Since there are strong parallels between the two religious rites, Lipson suggests that generalized schemata for such events might be activated during the reading of the texts. The less accurate recall of the culturally unfamiliar text, Lipson (1984: 763) reasons, is less likely to result from the "lack of prior knowledge that the failure to resolve conflicts between existing knowledge and new information." She finds support for this conclusion in the subjects' performance on the culturally neutral passage. Although seemingly lacking relevant background knowledge, both groups demonstrated high levels of inferential recall and little error on this text. Recognizing that the lower level of comprehension on the culturally unfamiliar text

might also be the result of the strength of one's religious beliefs effecting a resistance to learn about another religion, Lipson also cites evidence dealing with more secular texts in science (Venus Flytrap) and social studies (New Guinea). In an earlier study of the role of prior knowledge in learning from text, Lipson (1982) found that third graders classified as "good" readers rejected text information when the content was partially familiar to them. Subjects were more likely to learn new information from text if they had no prior knowledge than they were to correct inaccurate prior knowledge.

Additional support for the importance of prior cultural knowledge in comprehension is provided by Goodman and Goodman's (1978) study of reading involving four groups of American children speaking a language other than English before entering school and four groups speaking a low status dialect of English. The second language groups included Texas Spanish, Navajo, Arab and Hawaiian Samoan. Dialect groups included Downeast Maine, Appalachian White, Rural Black and Hawaiian Pidgin. Using the Goodman and Burke (1973) miscue analysis procedures, the intent of this research was to describe and compare the reading process of second, fourth and sixth graders for each language and dialect group on "standard" and "culturally relevant" stories written in English. Thirty students of average reading ability, ten per grade level, read orally and retold both stories. Comprehension, based on retelling score means, was higher for all four dialect groups than the second language groups at each grade level and for both types of stories. For second language groups, retelling

means were higher for culturally relevant stories than standard stories for fourth and sixth graders but lower for second graders. For the Texas Spanish group, of particular interest to the present study, the score means for standard and culturally relevant stories for each grade level are presented below (Goodman and Goodman 1978: 7-17).

TABLE 2-1

Texas Spanish Score Means for Standard and Culturally Relevant Stories

	Second	Fourth	Sixth
Standard	48	49	52
Culturally Relevant	45	59	61

Although encountering great variability between and within second language groups, these researchers note that the retellings of Texas Spanish subjects were more similar to the dialect groups than the second language groups. Except for the Hawaiian Pidgin group, the dialect groups had total retelling score means of over 50 while the Navajo, Arab and Hawaiian-Samoan second language groups all had retelling score means of under 50 (1978: 7-24). Due to the lack of appropriate culturally related stories for some of the groups which was noted by the researchers, the small number of subjects per grade level and subsequent lack of tests of significance, the results of this study can only be considered suggestive of the possible effects of prior cultural knowledge on comprehension.

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 $\frac{1}{2}\left(1+\frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{2}\left(1+\frac{1}{2}\right) + \frac{1}{2}\left(1+\frac{1}{2}\right)$

In another study of English oral reading miscues and recall, Jurenka (1978) compared the comprehension of bilingual Mexican American students on "ethnically related" and "ethnically neutral" stories. Nine average readers, three each in grades three, four and five read in English an ethnically related and neutral story appropriate to their grade level. Subjects retold the stories in both English and Spanish with similar ratings. The third and fifth graders demonstrated greater comprehension, as measured by retelling, of the ethnic stories than neutral stories while fourth graders scored higher on the neutral story. Attributing the lower scores of the fourth graders to the lack of story comparability at that level, Jurenka nontheless concludes that the nine students, as a group, better understood materials that dealt with their culture. As for the Goodman's (1978) study, the lack of comparable materials and the extremely small number of subjects at each grade level precludes generalization of this tenuous conclusion to other similar populations.

In summary, research evidence suggests that prior cultural knowledge can profoundly affect reading comprehension. Whether reading text associated with a culture of another country, text dealing with another ethnic subculture within the same country having considerable cultural overlap among its subcultures, or even text related to another religion but within the same socioeconomic status, readers' prior cultural knowledge was found to significantly influence their understanding. Readers demonstrated greater comprehension and

recall of text which more closely matched their cultural schemata as evidenced by their omissions, elaborations and distortions in recall. For students learning English as a second language who are relatively proficient in reading English, cultural content may be more important in comprehension than simplified language.

Summary

The literature reviewed in this chapter focused on the relationship of listening and prior knowledge, particularly cultural knowledge, to reading comprehension.

Literature related to listening revealed several important similarities to reading. Both are receptive forms of language and active processes of constructing meaning from language. Similar comprehension skills and cognitive processes seem to be required for listening and reading. Differences were also noted with respect to situational and time factors between spoken and written language.

One difference between listening and reading of particular relevance to the present study deals with prosody. Few prosodic cues are graphically represented in written language and must be inferred by the reader. While prosody is generally redundant with syntactic and semantic cues, this redundancy in spoken language may be especially useful to the listener who has limited proficiency in English, still gaining control of the language structures. Thus, listening to a reading of a text, hearing the natural flow of language, while following along with the eyes may encourage the

application of aural language skills to the reading task and result in improved reading skill. Listening to text while following along visually has been recommended by several reading experts (Petty, Petty and Becking 1981, Moffett and Wagner 1983). Anastasiow, Hanes and Hanes (1982) have recommended this technique particularly for students of limited English proficiency. However, research evidence is lacking on the efficacy of this technique.

The review of literature related to prior cultural knowledge suggests that a reader's cultural background may significantly affect comprehension. Prior knowledge that is commonly expected for Anglo, English-speaking students may not be within the experience of the ethnic or language minority student. Since comprehension appears to be dependent on a reader possessing appropriate schemata, the lack of such may result in failure to comprehend the intended message of a text. Although investigations have been conducted on the effects of culturally related content on the comprehension of various United States subcultural groups, the migrant student population has not been considered.

It is the intent of this study to investigate the effects of listening and ethnically related content on the reading behavior of bilingual, Spanish-speaking migrant students.

CHAPTER III METHOD

Introduction

The design of this study was formulated to investigate the effects of prior aural exposure and ethnically related content on the reading behavior of bilingual Mexican American children. Oral reading performance and comprehension were analyzed to determine whether prior aural exposure and ethnically related content facilitate the reading of expository materials.

In this chapter, the population and procedures for selecting the subjects are described, the independent and dependent variables are operationally defined, and the procedures for data collection and analysis are discussed.

Subjects

Fifteen subjects, nine girls and six boys, were selected from the Mexican American migrant student population participating in the Summer, 1983, ESEA Title I Migrant Education Program in Michigan. Characteristics of the migrant student population will first be described followed by the procedure for the selection of subjects for this study.

The Migrant Student Population

Michigan annually employs a large number of seasonal migrant farm workers. The racial and ethnic makeup of the migrant labor force includes Hispanics, Blacks, Whites, Native Americans and Indo-Chinese. By far the majority of migrant farm workers are Hispanics, largely Mexican Americans (<u>Current Population Reports</u> 1979: Table 10). Reflecting this, a five-year national study of the Title I Migrant Program conducted by the Research Triangle Institute (1981: 32) reported 69% of the migrant student population was Hispanic, 65% Mexican American. In Michigan, the proportion of Hispanic students enrolled in the Migrant Program during the 1980-81 school year was even higher at 86% (Michigan Department of Education 1982: 18).

Life on the move in the migrant stream is hard. Typically the migrant family is poor with an income below the poverty level (Ockerman-Garza, Garza and Snow 1982). In addition to low paying, unstable employment, most migrant families live and work under extremely adverse conditions. Although there have been some improvements, housing is still generally substandard, crowded and unsanitary (King-Stoops 1980). Migrant workers are exposed to dangerous pesticides in the fields. In a study of work-related health problems of migrant farm workers, Spielberg (1979) discovered significant amounts of PBB and other chemicals used in pesticides in blood samples of Mexican Americans in Texas who had been migrant farm workers in Michigan. In general, migrants experience poor health and, due to their mobility and the social prejudice of the community,

lack access to most essential community services (Ockerman-Garza, et
al 1982).

Mobility, the family's economic need which may require the child to work in the fields, and possibly speaking a language other than standard English all contribute to the problems the migrant child experiences in school. The Research Triangle Institute (RTI) study (Cameron 1981: 27) referred to above, found that 14% of migrant students 8-13 years old were two years or more overage for the grade level in which they were enrolled. This is considerably higher than the national proportions for either White or Hispanic students which is 5% for Whites and 9% for Hispanics (National Center for Education Statistics 1980, in Cameron 1981: 31).

The dropout rate among migrant students is particularly acute. Due to the mobility of the population it is difficult to estimate the dropout rate. However, Ockerman-Garza <u>et al</u> (1982: 2) offer a conservative estimate that 50% of the migrant students drop out by ninth or tenth grade. King-Stoops (1980: 41) states that only one out of ten migrant students graduates from high school. The RTI study (Cameron 1981: 26) found a sharp decrease in the migrant student population above seventh grade suggesting a rapid dropout of students beginning at eighth grade.

Migrant students' scores in reading and mathematics are consistently below grade level. To assess the impact of the Title I Migrant Program on achievement in reading and mathematics, the RTI study pretested students in grades two, four and six and found them to be "nearly 2.5 years behind the general population in reading, and slightly more than one year behind in mathematics" (Cameron 1981: 99). Although these students showed significant gains in reading and mathematics on the posttest, the researchers nevertheless conclude that, in absolute achievement, migrant students fall farther behind the general population as they grow older.

Many migrant children enter school not yet speaking English or with only limited oral English proficiency. Paralleling the racial/ethnic distribution of the migrant population, the RTI study (Cameron 1981: Table K.15) found 68% of the migrant students come from homes where Spanish is spoken. Only 2% come from homes where a Native American or other language than English is spoken. To assess the English language competence of the migrant student population, the RTI study (Cameron 1981: 37) used teacher ratings of migrant students' oral English language competence validated by the MAT-SEA-CAL Oral Proficiency Tests (Center for Applied Linguistics 1974) administered to a subsample. These ratings appear to indicate that most (75%)migrant students have adequate oral English competence for classroom The number of students judged by teachers to be sufficiently work. limited in English to interfere with classroom work represents 36% of the Hispanic population. Since there is such a small number of students from homes where a Native American or other language than English is spoken, it is concluded that most of those with language difficulties are Spanish-speaking.

The conclusion, however, that the majority of migrant students possess adequate oral English language facility for this not to be an impediment to academic achievement should be interpreted cautiously. Such judgments of a student's ability to communicate in English are too often based on communication at one end of a continuum described by Cummins (1982) as "context-embedded." The situational cues, paralinguistic cues as the teacher's gestures and intonation, and the reactions of other students all contribute to reducing the need for explicit linguistic elaboration of the message. On the other end of this continuum is "context-reduced" communication which relies on linguistic cues to meaning. Much of classroom work requires language use that is closer to the context-reduced end of the continuum such as a discussion of a historical period, mathematical principles, or other abstract concepts.

While the results of the MAT-SEA-CAL Oral Proficiency Tests were consistent with the teacher ratings of the students' language competence, these tests may in fact be confirming teacher perceptions of oral language competence in informal, context-embedded situations. This test utilizes audio taped and picture stimuli. It involves listening comprehension, repetition and structured response, yielding scores for phonology and structure. In a typical item the examiner shows the child a picture and asks, "What are the little boys doing?" Basic syntactical features will probably vary little between context-embedded and context-reduced situations. Still, the ability to manipulate a language structure in a familiar, context-embedded situation does not necessarily indicate that the student has adequate language competence to understand a new concept in a context-reduced situation typical of much classwork.

In 1966, Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) was ammended establishing the Migrant Education Program to provide compensatory education and supportive services to the children of migratory workers. According to the definitions of the <u>Code of</u> <u>Federal Regulations</u> as applied to Public Law 95-561, the Migrant Education Program serves children who are "currently" and "formerly migratory." Currently migratory refers to a child

Who has moved within the past 12 months from one school district to another -or, in a state that is comprised of a single school district, has moved from one school administrative area to another- to enable the child, the child's guardian, or a member of the child's immediate family to obtain temporary or seasonal employment in an agricultural or fishing activity. (34 CFR Part 204.3)

Within this classification, the <u>Code</u> (34 Part 204.12) requires State programs to distinguish between interstate and intrastate students for the purpose of program monitoring and inter- and intrastate coordination. The designation "formerly migratory" applies to a child who

was eligible to be counted and served as a currently migratory child within the past five years, but is not now a currently migratory child ... and has the concurrence of his or her parent or guardian to continue to be considered a migratory child. There is a total of six years of program eligibility - a one year status as a "currently migratory child" and up to five additional years as a "formerly migratory child." (34 CFR Part 204.3) These children are more commonly termed "settled-out" with reference to their family settling out of the migrant stream.

In Michigan, the Migrant Education Program consists of summer and school-year projects. The summer projects are intended primarily for the interstate and intrastate migratory children and operate from five to ten weeks in coordination with the harvest of local agricultural crops. Summer projects involve a comprehensive full day educational program for the children. School-year projects, in contrast, are generally pull-out tutoring programs to provide additional support for the migrant child in the regular classroom.

In 1983, the Michigan Migrant Education Program operated 33 summer projects. A total of 6,735 migratory children participated in the summer program. Of those, 4,543 were interstate migrants, 792 intrastate, and 1,400 settled-out migrant children (Rio 1984).

Selection of Subjects

The fifteen subjects for this study were drawn from the migrant student population participating in six summer migrant education projects in Michigan. Seven projects located in the northwestern Lower Peninsula, mid-state, western and the southwestern regions were chosen for this study because of their relative accessibility to the investigator. There is, however, no reason to expect that the migrant student population would differ significantly from those projects in other areas of Michigan. Applying the selection procedures, the fifteen subjects were obtained from seven schools in six of the seven migrant projects. The projects, schools, number of students screened and identified as subjects can be found in Appendix A.

Only interstate and intrastate migrant students were included in this study. Settled-out migrant students were not included since their educational experiences and economic circumstances are likely to differ substantially from those who are actively mobile. Subjects were to be randomly selected from just the interstate migrant student population. However, due to the small number of interstate students identified as displaying the characteristics of the specific population to be studied, it was necessary to include all those interstate students. To obtain the desired number of fifteen subjects, the remainder was identified from the intrastate migrant student population. Of the fifteen subjects, twelve were children of interstate migrant families and three of intrastate migrant families.

At each school, a specific procedure was followed in the selection of subjects. First, teachers were asked to identify all migrant students meeting the following criteria:

- 1) Interstate migrant
- 2) Nine or ten years of age
- 3) Spanish-speaking
- 4) Reads at approximately the fourth grade level

To validate each student's migrant status and age, the school records from the Migrant Student Record Transfer System (MSRTS) were

consulted. The MSRTS is a nationwide network of terminals connected to a central computer in Little Rock, Arkansas, which maintains records on the health and educational status of migrant children.

After confirming that the student met the criteria for migrant status and age, the Language Usage Questionnaire designed by the investigator was administered. The intent of this questionnaire was to determine that the student did speak Spanish. For this study a student is considered bilingual if she uses Spanish in any familiar social setting. The level of Spanish proficiency is not directly considered. The Language Usage Questionnaire consists of five questions which ask the student what language she uses with her parents, siblings, extended kin, friends at the camp, and school friends. This questionnaire is located in Appendix B. The questionnaire was administered by the investigator after a period of small talk to place the student at ease.

If the student indicated that Spanish was used in one of the social settings, the Slosson Oral Reading Test (Slosson 1963) was next administered by the investigator to quickly determine the student's approximate reading level. The Slosson is an individually administered word recognition test made up of graded word lists. A correlation of .96 with the Standardized Oral Reading Paragraphs of the Gray Oral Reading Tests (Gray 1955) is reported in the Slosson manual. Each word list was typed on a separate 5" by 7" card for the student to read so the grade level designation would not be apparent.

For the purposes of this study, it was necessary that the reading material be sufficiently difficult to elicit reader miscues, but not so difficult that the reader would be unable to continue independently. Consequently, to further define the potential pool of subjects, those students who scored at the fourth and fifth grade levels were then asked to orally read a brief passage titled <u>The</u> <u>Navaho</u>. (See Appendix D.) This 138 word passage with a Dale-Chall readability of fifth-sixth grade was taken from the same social studies textbook from which the subjects would be expected to read selections in the experiment. The readability level, writing style and type of content were similar to those selections. The final criterion, then, for inclusion in the study was the ability to recount, unaided by questioning, a minimum of:

- 1) three details or
- 2) a main idea and two details, or
- 3) two main ideas.

If a student was able to orally read the passage almost flawlessly and recount unaided the three main ideas of the passage, she was not included in the pool of potential subjects. Related to the students' scores on the Slosson Oral Reading Test, only those students scoring fourth grade, fourth month (4.4) through fifth grade, second month (5.2) were able to comprehend the passage at the required level. All of these students were subsequently included as subjects in the study.

Of the 82 interstate migrant students identified by teachers, 12 met the screening criteria outlined above. All twelve were thus

included in the study. Following the same procedures, teachers identified 11 intrastate students of which 3 displayed the requisite characteristics for inclusion in the study. In this manner, the fifteen subjects were selected.

The fifteen subjects, nine girls and six boys, were all Mexican American. Although efforts were made to secure a more equal balance of subjects by sex, there were only six boys in the interstate or intrastate student population attending the nine schools who met the criteria for inclusion in the study. Nine of the interstate students were from the Lower Rio Grande Valley in Texas and one from Florida, although she was born in Texas. The three intrastate students were from the Saginaw area, but originally came from Texas.

The subjects ranged in age from nine years (9,0) to ten years, eleven months (10,11). The average age was nine years, ten months (9,10) with a median of nine years, nine months (9,9). Eleven subjects would enter the fourth grade in the fall and 4 the fifth grade. Scores on the Slosson Oral Reading Test ranged from fourth grade, fourth month (4.4) to fifth grade, second month (5.2). The average was fourth grade, ninth month (4.9) and median fifth grade (5.0). Migrant status, sex, age, grade, and Slosson scores for each subject can be found in Appendix C.

A summary of the subjects' Spanish and English language use as reported on the Language Usage Questionnaire is presented in Table 3-1. All of the subjects stated that they spoke Spanish with their parents, 46% either most of the time or exclusively. An even greater

proportion, 60%, reported using only Spanish with grandparents, aunts and uncles. Although all spoke Spanish with their parents, 27% said they spoke only English with their brothers and sisters. The use of mostly or exclusively Spanish with parents and extended kin compared with that of siblings and friends seems to reflect a trend of greater English language use by the younger generation. Even informally with friends at school, English is the primary language and, for half of the subjects, the only language.

Table 3-1

Social Setting	Only Spanish	Mostly Spanish	Both	Mostly English	Only English
With parents	33	13	27	27	0
With grandparents, aunts and uncles	60	27	13	0	0
With brothers and sisters	27	0	33	13	27
With friends at the camp	7	13	40	27	13
With friends at school	0	0	20	27	53

Proportion of English/Spanish Language Use in Five Social Settings

N = 15

Variables

Independent Variables

The two independent variables in this study were 1) prior aural exposure to a reading selection and 2) ethnic relatedness of content.

<u>Prior aural exposure</u> to a selection consisted of listening to an audio tape of approximately half of a selection, from the beginning, while following along on the printed copy. The subject listened to just half of the passage in order to avoid confounding the hypothesized effect of prior aural exposure on reading comprehension with listening comprehension.

Ethnic relatedness refers to the relevance of the content to Mexican American cultural heritage. For this study, four expository passages were adapted from fifth grade social studies textbooks, three from <u>Understanding the United States</u> (Cherryholmes and Manson 1979) and one from <u>Lands of the Middle East</u> (Educational Research Council of America 1976). The social studies concepts presented in the four passages are similar, each principally describing cultural patterns associated with a particular ethnic group. Two of the passages are related to Hispanic culture and are titled "Barrio" and "Hispanic American." These are referred to as Ethnically Related to indicate that they are relevant to the cultural heritage of the population under study. The term, Ethnically Unrelated, is used to refer to the other two passages titled "Bedouin" and "Amish," describing aspects aspects of those cultures, respectively. The four passages are presented in Appendix D. In order to reflect the social studies materials to which the student would be exposed in a classroom, very minimal changes were made in adapting the passages for use in this study. In general, passages were excerpted from the textbooks with minor alterations to maintain contextual unity.

The passages, ranging from 632-635 words, are divided into two parts, A and B. Though complimentary, each part is a complete unit both conceptually and semantically. Parts A and B of the four passages range from 285-347 words each. The passages were divided as equally as possible without interrupting the development of a main idea. They were typed on $8\frac{1}{2}$ " x 11" paper with pages 1 and 2 of each passage constituting Part A and pages 3 and 4 Part B. In addition, an audio recording was produced of Part A of each passage being read by the investigator.

The Dale-Chall Readability Formula was applied utilizing the <u>School Utilities Volume 2</u> (Minnesota Educational Computing Consortium 1982) program for the microcomputer. The number of unfamiliar words (not found on the Dale Word List) and average sentence length are the predictors used to estimate readability. According to this formula, all of the passages have a readability level of fifth-sixth grade with the exception of Hispanic American, Part B which is seventh-eighth grade. Part B, however, is composed of a relatively small number of unfamiliar words as compared to the other passages. Because of this and the objective to preserve the writing style of the textbook, selected passages were not altered. The number

of words, Dale-Chall readability levels and number of unfamiliar words are presented in Table 3-2.

Passage	Number of Words	Dale Unfamiliar Words	Dale-Chall Readability
Barrio	635		
Part A Part B	328 307	37 31	5-6th 5-6th
Hispanic American	632		
Part A Part B	285 347	32 28	5-6th 7-8th
Amish	632		
Part A Part B	314 318	26 29	5-6th 5-6th
Bedouin	632		
Part A Part B	295 337	25 36	5-6th 5-6th

Table 3-2 Readability

The passages are relatively similar in the number of main ideas and supporting information presented in each. Ten main ideas are developed in all but Amish which has eight. The number of supporting details ranges from 38 - 43. Table 3-3 presents the number of main ideas and details for each passage.

Passage	Main Ideas	Details	
Barrio	10	40	
Hispanic American	10	38	
Amish	8	43	
Bedouin	10	42	

Table 3-3 Main Ideas and Details

Reliability for the four passages was calculated by Cronbach's Alpha, a measure of internal consistency, utilizing an SPSS computer subprogram (Hull and Nie 1981:256). Comprehension scores for the entire passage and the number of miscues per hundred words (MPHW) for Part B of each passage were used to determine reliability. Only Part B is included for the MPHW since it is the basis for the analysis of the miscues in this study. Table 3-4 presents the reliability for the main idea, detail and total scores for comprehension and for the number of miscues per hundred words.

Table 3-4 Reliability

Variable	Alpha
Comprehension	
Main Ideas	.62
Details	.87
Total	.84
Miscues Per Hundred Words	.87

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables for this study were 1) oral reading performance and 2) comprehension. Oral reading performance was described by the types of miscues generated during the oral reading, their similarity to the expected response and acceptability with the text. Comprehension was demonstrated by retelling the content of the selection and by the interrelationships of the types of miscues.

<u>Oral reading performance</u> was operationally defined according to the guidelines of the <u>Reading Miscue Inventory</u> (Goodman and Burke 1972). The types of miscues, deviations between the oral response of the reader and the printed text, considered for this study were:

1) substitutions - a word in the text is substituted for another

was

The Bedouin way of life is hard ...

2) ommissions - a word is omitted from the text

(Many) Mexican Americans have relatives in Mexico ...

3) insertions - a word is added to the text

the

A group of families related to one another ...

4) reversals - word order is changed

Then | they have a light dinner ...

The patterns of these miscues generated during the oral reading constituted the dependent variables related to oral reading performance.
Based on an analysis of each miscue, the dependent variables for oral reading performance were:

- 1) the occurrence of each type of miscue
- 2) Spanish language interference/Dialect
- 3) graphic and phonemic proximity
- 4) syntactic acceptability
- 5) semantic acceptability
- 6) correction

Variables 2-6 have unique analysis features for this study which are further discussed below.

Spanish language interference/Dialect

The English spoken by Hispanics may exhibit the influence of the Spanish language. Such divergencies from standard English may be transitory as the individual is acquiring English as a second language (Dulay, Hernandez-Chavez and Burt 1978) or they may be relatively stable reflecting a dialect of English commonly referred to as Chicano English which is directly passed on to succeeding generations (Hernandez-Chavez, Cohen and Beltramo 1975). This influence or interference may be phonological, syntactical or lexical.

For this study, only Spanish language interference or dialect variation affecting English syntax and lexicon were considered. Because the Reading Miscue Inventory very generally defines dialect variation, the Spanish language interference or 1) omission of inflectional endings

Inflectional endings change the forms of a word to indicate different grammatical relationships (Robinett 1978). The omission of inflectional endings have been noted in the speech of Spanish speakers (Cohen 1975; Garcia 1973; Labov, Cohen, Robins and Lewis 1968) and in their English oral reading behavior (Jurenka 1978; Fiege-Kollman 1975, Goodman 1978). The types of inflections investigated were:

Past tense or past participle of verbs: called, surrounded Present participle of verbs: crossing, acting Third-person singular (present tense) of verbs: changes, helps, means Plural of nouns: ways, parts, houses Comparative of adjectives: lower, closer

 addition of inflectional ending to agree with plural of noun

In Spanish, an adjective must agree in number with the noun it modifies (Stockwell, Bowen and Martin 1965). This is accomplished by the inflectional ending of the adjective as in this example:

Casa grande (big house) casa<u>s</u> grande<u>s</u> (big houses) For the Spanish speaker learning English, this could therefore be a source of interference and result in the production of such forms as "bigs houses." 3) inverted order of nouns and adjectives

In Spanish, descriptive adjectives generally follow the noun (Stockwell, Bowen and Martin 1965) whereas in English the adjective precedes the noun it modifies. Thus, it might be expected that Spanish speakers would invert the word order of nouns and modifying adjectives. For example, "basic unit" would be read "unit basic" to conform to the word order of Spanish.

4) lexical

Lexical variations are affected by such factors as geographic area, ethnicity, and socioeconomic circumstances. Common lexical dialect variants include pop/soda, bag/sack, and family/kin. If the dialect of the reader does not match that of the author, the reader may substitute words from his own lexical system for those of the author. Goodman and Burke (Burke 1973), for example, found that most American children read "headlights" for "headlamps" in a story written by a British author. Such substitutions do not alter the basic meaning of the text.

5) secondary involvement

Miscues which demonstrated another miscue analysis category and also any of the above types of Spanish language interference/dialect were considered secondary involvement with respect to Spanish language

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interference/dialect. Miscues in this category include the following:

Reader	Text
supround	surrounded
relave	relatives

Speech variations at the phonological level were not considered unless they resulted in a syntactic or semantic change in the text. For instance, some phonological variations common to Spanish speakers learning English or to speakers of Chicano English are "wan" for "one", "tin" for "thin", "fitching" for "fishing". Variations such as these are often called "accent." Just as there is little reason to believe that the Bostonian "pahk" for "park" would interfere with a reader's comprehension, these phonological variations were not treated as miscues.

Variables related to the syntactic and semantic acceptability of these miscues were then examined with respect to their acceptability within the reader's dialect.

Graphic and phonemic proximity

Graphophonemic information for reading consists of cues within words such as letter-sound relationships, word parts or phonograms, and word configurations (Smith, Goodman and Meredith 1976). Although interrelated, the graphic and phonemic similarity of a miscue to the text item were evaluated separately in order to determine the degree of the reader's reliance on each system. For example, your/our is rated as high graphic similarity and low sound similarity while the/a shows no graphic similarity but high sound similarity.

Syntactic acceptability

Syntactic cues in reading include inflectional endings, grammatical relationships, word order, and punctuation. To provide an indication of the reader's ability to handle the grammatical structure of the text, the miscues were examined with respect to intonation, grammatical function and grammatical acceptability within the text.

1) intonation

Intonation is the system of pitch, stress and juncture which plays an important role in signalling grammatical structure and meaning (Smith, Goodman and Meredith 1976). Oral reading miscues involving intonation different from that intended by the author may occur at the word, phrase or sentence levels. This study was limited to deviations from the intended intonation changing the grammatical function of a word or the sentence structure. Not only is grammatical function altered in re'cord/record' and in pro'gress/progress', but the meaning is also changed. Intonation indicating the substitutions, omission or shifting of punctuation affecting sentence structure is evident in the following:

Reader

Text

They don't want too many ideas from the outside to change. their way of life.	They don't want too many ideas to change their way of life.
The prices of things	The prices of things

also change in Mexico. change. In Mexico, many Many things cost ...

2) grammatical function

Substitution miscues were compared to the text item to determine if the grammatical function was retained. Even a non-word producing nonsense could retain the grammatical function. For example, the grammatical function remained the same in the following:

Changed Shared beliefs and a common history ...

untent In Mexico, the basic unit of money ...

3) grammatical acceptability within the text

Miscues may or may not render the text ungrammatical. Each miscue was examined in the context of the sentence as read with all other uncorrected miscues to determine whether the miscue was grammatically acceptable in that sentence and within the whole text. As for grammatical function, syntactically correct nonsense is indicative that the reader is coping with the grammatical structures of the text. The following examples illustrate miscues that maintain the syntactical acceptability of the sentence although perhaps quite different from that of the text.

Text

Other parents of the
circle, ...Other parts of the
culture ...Yet most Bedouins like
it better than selled
life in a village or
town and the desert.Yet most Bedouins like
it better than settled
life in villages or
towns. On the desert
they are free.

Semantic acceptability

Reader

Semantic cues in reading involve lexical meaning and contextual meaning. Lexical meaning focuses on the individual word whereas "contextual meaning is a function of both grammatical and semantic interrelationships in language" (Page 1976: 39). The manner in which the reader processed information in relation to meaning was observed by analyzing miscues with respect to:

1) semantic acceptability within the text.

To determine the degree of semantic acceptability within the text, the miscue was examined in the text sentence with all uncorrected miscues. A reader could produce a semantically acceptable sentence but one that is incongrous with the entire text as, for example,

They (don't) want too many ideas from the outside to change their way of life.

2) semantic proximity

Semantic proximity dealt with the extent to which the message of the text was changed by the miscue. In the following sentence, for instance, the miscue did not interfere with the meaning of the entire text:

Then

When crossing the national boundary or the border into Mexico, they find that many things change.

Correction

Discovering that he has made a miscue, the reader may proceed to correct the miscue orally or silently or he may simply read on without attempting to correct. When the reader orally attempts to correct a miscue, not only does this provide an indication of the reader's awareness of a deviation from the text but, also, his control over the language systems. This study focuses on the successful corrections made as compared to the number of corrections attempted.

<u>Comprehension</u> in this study was operationally defined along two dimensions:

1) comprehending

Comprehending (Goodman and Burke 1972) focused on the reader's concern for meaning <u>while</u> reading. This measure of comprehension assessed the quality of the miscues by the extent to which they retained or disrupted the meaning of the passage. Comprehending was measured by interrelating the oral reading performance variables of semantic acceptability, semantic proximity and correction. The comprehending score was comprised of the percentage of miscues semantically acceptable added to the percentage of semantically unacceptable miscues that were corrected.

2) retelling

Comprehension also concerned the reader's understanding of the information <u>after</u> reading had taken place. This was measured by the subject's retelling of the main ideas, details and other inferential information presented by the passage. The retelling was first unaided and, when the subject could no longer continue, aided by questions based on information provided by the subject during the retelling. While the present study was primarily concerned with the reader's comprehension of main ideas and details of expository material, inferential level comprehension other than main ideas and details was also included. Ninety percent of the total possible points was assigned to main ideas (40%) and details (50%) with the remaining ten percent of the points allotted to extra inferential information.

Data Collection Procedures

In the design of this experiment, each subject orally read all four expository passages. An aural exposure was provided prior to orally reading one ethnically related and one ethnically unrelated

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passage. The remaining two passages, one ethnically related and one unrelated, were read orally without the aural exposure. The data collected for the experiment were the miscues generated by the subjects' oral reading and the retellings of the information presented in the passages. The oral reading and retelling sessions were recorded on audio tape.

The preliminary interviews of the selection process and the taping of the sessions of the students' reading were conducted in unoccupied rooms of the schools. While not completely free from the noise of school activities, these minimal distractions did not seem to affect the subjects' concentration on their reading. During the first session, the subject was allowed to experiment with the tape recorder and listen to her voice in order to feel more comfortable with the machine.

At the time of the preliminary interview, it was explained to the potential subjects that the investigator was a teacher who was interested in how students learn to read and would like their assistance. This explanation seemed to satisfy the students' curiosity and all quite readily agreed to "help" the investigator.

In pretesting the reading passages with three students (not included in the study), it was clear that their retelling of the second passage was more complete regardless of the passage read. The first passage appeared to provide a warm-up resulting in a better understanding of the nature of the task. In order not to bias the study results by the unfamiliarity of the task, the passage titled

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<u>The Navaho</u> which was employed as a screening device in the selection of subjects also provided an opportunity to become familiar with the reading task. This passage can be found in Appendix D.

On two successive days the investigator met with each subject. Two passages were read by the subject per day, one ethnically related and one ethnically unrelated. For one of the ethnically related passages and one of the unrelated, the subject listened to the audio tape of Part A of the particular passage and was instructed to follow along on the typescript copy. Immediately following this aural exposure, the subject was given the typescript copy of the entire passage to orally read and afterwards retell. The order of whether the subject would first spontaneously read and retell a passage or listen to the audio tape, read and retell a passage was randomly assigned. A treatment schedule was devised for the four passages with each day including:

- 1) one ethnically related passage,
- 2) one ethnically unrelated passage, and
- 3) one aural exposure.

Table 3-5 shows the eight possible treatment schedules with the asterisk indicating prior aural exposure. This schedule was repeated to accomodate fifteen subjects who were randomly assigned to a treatment schedule.

Subject	Day	1	Day 2		
U	1st Passage	2nd Passage	1st Passage	2nd Passage	
1	Hispanic*	Bedouin	Barrio	Amish*	
2	Barrio*	Amish	Hispanic	Bedouin*	
3	Bedouin	Hispanic*	Amish*	Barrio	
4	Amish	Barrio*	Bedouin*	Hispanic	
5	Hispanic	Amish*	Barrio*	Bedouin	
6	Barrio*	Bedouin	Hispanic	Amish*	
7	Amish	Hispanic*	Bedouin*	Barrio	
8	Bedouin*	Barrio	Amish	Hispanic*	

Table 3-5 Treatment Schedule

Each taping session began with casual conversation to place the subject at ease. The subject was given the following instructions:

Please read this selection aloud. Afterwards I will ask you to tell me what you just read. If you come to a word you don't know, do your best to figure it out. It's okay to guess if you aren't sure. I won't be able to help you.

If a subject asked for help or stopped during the reading, she was encouraged to "do the best you can." If the reader still did not go on, the investigator suggested guessing or, finally, skipping the word. As the subject read the four pages of the text, the investigator followed the reading on a separate worksheet copy marking the miscues produced by the reader.

The retelling task was both unaided and aided. For each passage an outline of the information presented was developed delineating the main ideas and details. These outlines can be found in Appendix D. Upon completion of the oral reading of the passage and without the aid of the passage typescript, the subject was instructed: "Tell me everything you remember about what you just read." As the subject recounted what she had read, the investigator marked the information on the outline. The subject was encouraged to continue unaided as long as possible by such comments as "can you tell me anything else?" When the student could no longer continue, questions were then asked formulated on the information provided in the unaided portion of the retelling. The questions asked during this directed retelling were intended to encourage the subject to expand or clarify statements made during the unaided retelling. Any mispronunciations by the reader were used by the investigator during the questioning. After exhausting this line of questioning, general questions were then asked related to the main ideas that had not been mentioned by the subject in order to facilitate further retelling. These questions are included on the passage outlines found in Appendix D.

After completing the first passage each day, there was a ten minute break before beginning the second passage. To maintain interest and motivation, the subject was informed that she would receive a surprise after completing the activities on the second day of the experiment. Each subject was told this at the end of the Day 1 treatment. All subjects at a particular school participating in the study received the treatment on the same two days and received their "surprises" when all had completed the reading tasks. The subjects had their choice of a Central Michigan University Tee-shirt, a purse or a book bag.

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Analysis of Data

After completing the audio taping of the subjects' oral reading and retelling, a transcript of each subject's oral reading performance was prepared. Using the worksheet typescript made during the taping of the subject's oral reading, the audio tapes were replayed until all miscues were marked on the typescript. From this transcript, the miscues were selected for analysis and coded according to the <u>Reading</u> Miscue Inventory (Goodman and Burke 1972).

For each subject, the first 25, non-repeated miscues of Part B for each passage were recorded and coded on the Reading Miscue Inventory Coding Sheet (Goodman and Burke 1972). Two subjects, however, made only 22 and 24 miscues on a passage so the total number of miscues analyzed was 1496.

The retellings were scored for the comprehension of main ideas, details and other inferential information. The points allotted for comprehension were:

Main ideas		50
Details		40
Other inferential	information	_10
	Total	100

The passage outlines found in Appendix D served not only as questioning guides during the retelling but, also, as scoring sheets. Scores were calculated for Part B of each passage as well as the complete passage. As for the transcripts of oral reading, the audio tapes were replayed for scoring the retellings. The transcriptions of oral reading performance, coding of miscues, and scoring of the retellings were performed without an awareness by the investigator of the experimental treatment for each subject. It was not evident on the audio tapes or worksheets whether the subject had been given prior aural exposure before the reading of the passage. These analyses were conducted "blindly" to avoid experimentor bias. To ensure accuracy, the transcriptions and scoring of the retelling were again blindly compared against the audio tapes three months later. The coding of the miscues was also rechecked at that time.

The major question posed by this study was: Will prior aural exposure to expository reading materials facilitate the English oral reading performance and comprehension of bilingual Mexican American migrant students? Secondarily, what are the effects of ethnically related content on oral reading performance and comprehension? To answer these questions, the data were analyzed using multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) with repeated measures. Since the design called for an analysis of two independent variables with repeated measures on both factors, the models described by Winer (1971: 539ff) were adapted to this requirement. Each dependent variable was evaluated separately as depicted by this analysis paradigm.

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	PRIOR EXPOSURE			
ETHNIC RELATEDNESS	Aural Exposure	No Aural Exposure		
Related				
Unrelated				
	DEPENDENT	VARIABLE		

The MANOVA for repeated measures was calculated utilizing the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (Hull and Nie 1981: 47ff). Cell means were calculated using the SPSS program BREAKDOWN (Nie, Hull, et al 1975: 249ff).

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of prior aural exposure and ethnically related content on the oral reading performance and comprehension of bilingual Mexican American migrant children.

In this chapter, an analysis of the data is presented. The general form of the null hypotheses which governed the analysis of the data were:

- H1: There is no significant difference between the oral reading performance, as measured by word miscues, of expository passages read spontaneously and those which include prior aural exposure.
- H₂: There is no significant difference between the comprehension, as measured by retelling and the interrelationship of miscues, of expository passages read spontaneously and those which include prior aural exposure.
- H₃: There is no significant difference between the oral reading performance, as measured by word miscues, of expository passages which are ethnically related and those which are ethnically unrelated.
- H₄: There is no significant difference between the comprehension, as measured by retelling and the interrelationship of miscues, of expository passages which are ethnically related and those which are ethnically unrelated.

The analysis thus examined the differences between exposure groups and content categories on two general classes of variables--oral reading

performance and comprehension. Although there was no hypothesis for the possible interaction of the two independent variables, the analysis allowed for the identification of interaction when it existed.

The statistical procedure, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) for repeated measures (Winer 1971), permitted the simultaneous study of the effects of the two treatment conditions on each of the dependent variables. For this reason, this chapter will present, by dependent variable, an analysis of the effects of both independent variables on the dependent variable. The effect of prior aural exposure and ethnic relatedness of content on each dependent variable will be tested in the null form. The .05 level of significance was required for the rejection of the null hypothesis.

The independent and dependent variables for this study as described in Chapter III are restated below:

Independent Variables

- 1) prior aural exposure
- 2) ethnic relatedness of content

Dependent Variables

- 1) oral reading performance
 - a) miscues --substitutions, omissions, insertions, reversals
 - b) Spanish language interference/dialect
 - c) graphic and phonemic proximity
 - d) syntactic acceptability
 - e) semantic acceptability
 - f) correction

- 2) comprehension
 - a) comprehending
 - b) retelling

The analysis of the effects of the independent variables on each dependent variable is presented in the same order as they are above listed.

Oral Reading Performance

A total of 1496 miscues were analyzed to describe the subjects' oral reading performance under the experimental conditions of prior aural exposure and ethnic relatedness of content. The first 25, nonrepeated miscues of Part B for each selection were examined.

Types of miscues

The types of miscues considered by this study were substitutions, omissions, insertions, and reversals. Eighty-five percent of the miscues analyzed involved substitutions, 10% omissions and 5% insertions. None of the miscues involved a word level reversal.

The results of the multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) did not warrant the rejection of the null hypothesis for the effects of either prior aural exposure or ethnic relatedness of content on oral reading performance as defined by the occurrence of each type of miscue. The results of the MANOVA for substitutions, omissions and insertions are presented in Table 4-1.

|--|

Source of Variation	DF	Mean Square	S F	ignificance of F
SUBSTITUTIONS				
Prior Exposure Error 1	1 14	2.400 4.221	.569	.463
Ethnic Relatedness Error 2	1 14	5.400 2.007	2.690	.123
Ethnic Relatedness by Prior Exposure Error 3	1 14	.067 2.817	.024	.880
Constant Residual	1 14	2886 4.267 11.088		
Prior Exposure Error 1	1 14	1.350 2.564	.526	.480
Ethnic Relatedness Error 2	1 14	7.350 2.350	3.128	.099
Ethnic Relatedness by Prior Exposure Error 3	1 14	2.817 1.817	1.550	.234
Constant Residual	1 14	380.017 6.374		

Types of Miscues: Substitutions, Omissions, Insertions

Source of Variation	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance of F
Insertions				
Prior Exposure Error 1	1 14	.150 1.257	.119	.735
Ethnic Relatedness Error 2	1 14	.417 1.095	. 380	.547
Ethnic Relatedness by Prior Exposure Error 3	1 14	1.350 2.171	.622	.444
Constant Residual	1 14	88.817 2.352		

Table 4-1 (Cont'd.)

At the confidence of .05, the F-values were not large enough to be considered significant. It can be concluded that the oral reading performance of the group under the two treatment conditions did not differ significantly with respect to the four types of miscues substitutions, omissions, insertions, and reversals.

For all passages, subjects made from 15 to 25 substitutions per selection with a mean of 21.93 and standard deviation of 2.22. The number of omissions ranged from none to seven with a mean of 2.52 and standard deviation of 1.82. Insertions ranged from 0-5, having a mean of 1.22 and a standard deviation of 1.29.

The number of miscues occurring per hundred words (MPHW) for all passages ranged from 7.49 to 29.64 with a mean of 16.92 and standard deviation of 4.88. Table 4-2 reports the MANOVA for miscues per hundred words.

Source of Variation	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance of F
Prior Exposure Error 1	1 14	39.201 8.118	4.829	.045
Ethnic Relatedness Error 2	1 14	11.015 6.360	1.732	.209
Ethnic Relatedness by Prior Exposure Error 3	1 14	5.741 16.290	.352	.562
Constant Residual	1 14	17180.487 65.777		

Miscues Per Hundred Words (MPHW)

Table 4-2

The MANOVA indicated that, at the .05 confidence level, there was a significant difference in the group's scores only for prior aural exposure. The MPHW for no aural exposure ranged from 7.49 to 29.64 with a mean of 17.73 and standard deviation of 5.37. For prior aural exposure, MPHW ranged from 9.44 to 26.41 having a mean of 16.11 and standard deviation of 4.28. Therefore, the oral reading performance of passages with prior aural exposure resulted in significantly fewer miscues than for those passages which were read spontaneously. For the treatment of ethnic relatedness of content, the MPHW did not differ significantly.

Spanish Language Interference/Dialect

The types of Spanish language interference or dialect variations investigated in this study were:

- 1) the omission of inflectional endings,
- 2) the addition of inflectional endings to agree with the plural of a noun,
- 3) the inverted order of nouns and adjectives,
- 4) lexical variations, and
- 5) secondary involvement.

Of the 1496 miscues analyzed, 191 or 13% exhibited Spanish language interference or dialect involvement. The omission of inflectional endings comprised 75% of these interference/dialect related miscues. There were seven instances of adding an inflectional ending to agree with the plural of a noun. None of the miscues involved inverting the order of nouns and adjectives or lexical variations. Twenty-one percent of the interference/dialect related miscues were of secondary involvement, all related to the omission of inflectional endings. For all passages, the number of interference/dialect related miscues ranged from 0 to 9 with a mean of 3.18 and standard deviation of 2.22.

The results of the MANOVA indicated that the null hypotheses for oral reading performance as defined by Spanish interference/dialect related miscues could not be rejected for either prior aural exposure or ethnic relatedness of content. Table 4-3 presents the results of the MANOVA for the omission of inflectional endings. In Table 4-4, the results of the MANOVA are reported for all Spanish interference/dialect related miscues which includes the omission of inflectional endings, the addition of inflections to agree with the plural of a noun, and secondary involvement.

Source of Variation	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance of F
Prior Exposure Error 1	1 14	1.067 3.424	.312	.586
Ethnic Relatedness Error 2	1 14	3.267 1.981	1.649	.220
Ethnic Relatedness by Prior Exposure Error 3	1 14	3.267 4.410	.741	.404
Constant Residual	1 14	345.600 6.814		

Ommission	of	Inflectional	Endings

Table 4-3

Table 4-4

Source of Variation	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance of F
Prior Exposure Error 1	1 14	.017 3.802	.004	.948
Ethnic Relatedness Error 2	1 14	12.150 2.793	4.350	.056
Ethnic Relatedness by Prior Exposure Error 3	1 14	.417 4.702	.089	.770
Constant Residual	1 14	608.017 8.588		

Spanish Language Interference/Dialect

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The F-values, as shown in Tables 4-3 and 4-4, were not large enough to be significant at the .05 confidence level. Only the significance level for ethnic relatedness of content in Table 4-4 approximates the confidence level for rejection of the null hypothesis. In comparing the results for ethnic relatedness in the two tables, it appears that the interference/dialect categories of the addition of inflectional endings to agree with the plural of a noun (N=7) and secondary involvement (N=40) may have affected the level of significance. However, because the frequency for both categories is small, this can only be attributed to chance. It can be concluded that the oral reading performance of the group under the two treatment conditions did not differ significantly with respect to Spanish language interference or dialect variations.

Graphic and Phonemic Proximity

Although interrelated, the graphic and phonemic similarity of a miscue to the text item were analyzed separately to determine the reader's reliance on each type of information.

The results of the MANOVA did not warrant the rejection of the null hypothesis for the effects of either prior aural exposure or ethnic relatedness of content on oral reading performance as defined by graphic and phonemic proximity. The results of the MANOVA for graphic proximity are reported in Table 4-5 and for phonemic proximity in Table 4-6.

Table 4-5

Graphic	Proximity
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Source of Variation	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance of F
Prior Exposure Error 1	1 14	549.098 472.790	1.161	.299
Ethnic Relatedness Error 2	1 14	28 .469 800 .735	.036	.853
Ethnic Relatedness by Prior Exposure Error 3	1 14	11.926 573.092	.021	.887
Constant Residual	1 14	8057 6.49 2 748.541		

Table 4-6

	Phonemic Proximity					
-	Source of Variation	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance of F	
	Prior Exposure Error 1	1 14	168.673 118.021	1.429	.252	
	Ethnic Relatedness Error 2	1 14	131.306 154.893	.848	.373	
	Ethnic Relatedness by Prior Exposure Error 3	1 14	42.135 117.565	.358	.559	
	Constant Residual	1 14	284694.817 416.756			

Phonemic Proximity

The F-values, presented in Tables 4-5 and 4-6, were all below the necessary values to be significant at the .05 confidence level. Oral reading performance as measured by graphic and phonemic proximity did not differ significantly under the treatment conditions of prior aural exposure or ethnic relatedness of content.

For all passages, the range was 38.1% to 95.65% of the miscues demonstrating high graphic similarity to the text. The mean was 68.88% with a standard deviation of 14.05%. The range for high phonemic proximity was 17.65% to 85% of the miscues with a mean of 50.73% and standard deviation of 14.45%.

Syntactic Acceptability

To evaluate syntactic acceptability of the miscues under the two treatment conditions, the miscues were examined with respect to intonation, grammatical function and grammatical acceptability within the text.

Of the 1496 miscues analyzed, 2.74% involved intonation. Six miscues involved a shift in intonation changing the grammatical function of a word. Thirty-five changed the intended sentence structure by the substitution, omission or shifting of punctuation. Due to the small number, both types of intonation involvement were combined for the MANOVA. Table 4-7 reports the MANOVA results for intonation.

Table 4-	7
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Source of Variatio	on DF	Mean Square	F	Significance of F
Prior Exposure Error 1	1 14	.267 .302	.882	2.364
Ethnic Relatedness Error 2	s 1 14	.067 .602	.111	.744
Ethnic Relatedness Prior Exposure Error 3	s by 1 14	.067 .388	.172	2 .6 85
Constant Residual	1 14	26.667 .917		

The results of the MANOVA indicated that intonation involvement of miscues did not differ significantly for the group for either prior aural exposure or ethnic relatedness of content.

Substitution miscues were compared to the text to determine if the grammatical function of the text item was retained. For all passages, the number of miscues that retained the grammatical function of text item ranged from 41.18% to 94.12%. The mean was 71.52% with a standard deviation of 10.68%. The MANOVA results for grammatical function is presented in Table 4-8.

Ta	b 1	e 4	1-8
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Source of Variation	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance of F
		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		
Prior Exposure	1	296.415	1.630	.223
Error 1	14	181.892		
Ethnic Relatedness	1	203,283	2.590	.130
Error 2	14	78.496		
Ethnic Relatedness by				
Prior Exposure	1	.193	.007	.936
Error 3	14	29.068	• • • • •	
Constant	1	306923.789		
Residual	14	155.130		

Grammatical Function

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The significance of the F-values did not reach the .05 confidence level indicating that retaining the grammatical function of a text word did not differ significantly under the two treatment conditions.

Miscues were examined within the context of the passage to determine if the grammatical structure remained acceptable. In all passages, the range of miscues maintaining grammatical acceptability was 32% to 90.91% with a mean of 63.96% and standard deviation of 12.56%. Table 4-9 presents the MANOVA results for grammatical acceptability within the text.

Source of Variation	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance of F
Prior Exposure	1	469.046	2.103	. 169
Error 1	14	223.086		
Ethnic Relatedness	1	34.620	.301	.592
Error 2	14	114.931		
Ethnic Relatedness by				
Prior Exposure	1	52.719	.498	.492
Error 3	14	105.811		
Constant	1	245449.826		
Residual	14	181.223		

Grammatical Acceptability Within Text

Table 4-9

The F-values, as shown in Table 4-9, were not large enough to be significant. Therefore, grammatical acceptability of the miscues within the text did not significantly differ for the group under the two treatment conditions.

It can be concluded from those results that the null hypothesis for the effects of either prior aural exposure or ethnic relatedness of content on oral reading performance as defined by syntactic acceptability cannot be rejected.

Semantic Acceptability

Semantic acceptability of the miscues was evaluated by the degree to which meaning was preserved within the text although possibly different than that intended by the author and by the extent of meaning change from the author's intended message. The results of the MANOVA did not warrant the rejection of the null hypothesis for the effects of either prior oral exposure or ethnic relatedness of content on oral reading performance as measured by semantic acceptability of miscues within the text. The MANOVA results are reported in Table 4-10.

Та	b 1	e	4-	1	O
			-	-	v

Source of Variation	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance of F
Prior Exposure Error 1	1 14	68.365 142.506	.480	.500
Ethnic Relatedness Error 2	1 14	30.751 54.388	.565	.465
Ethnic Relatedness by Prior Exposure Error 3	1 14	239.816 73.389	3.268	.092
Constant Residual	1 14	25418.523 135.636		

Semantic Acceptability Within Text

As indicated in Table 4-10, the F-values were not large enough to be considered significant. Semantic acceptability of the miscues within the text did not significantly differ for the group under the two treatment conditions. For all passages, the range for semantically acceptable miscues within the text was 0 to 45.45% with a mean of 20.58% and standard deviation of 10.1%.

For semantic proximity, the extent of meaning change from the intended meaning, the range for all passages preserving the intended

meaning was 4% to 56% with a mean of 31.34% and standard deviation of 12.43%. Table 4-11 presents the results of the MANOVA for semantic proximity.

Source of Variation	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance of F		
Prior Exposure Error 1	1 14	226.852 155.313	1.461	.247		
Ethnic Relatedness Error 2	1 14	417.824 87.815	4.758	.047		
Ethnic Relatedness by Prior Exposure Error 3	1 14	80.891 216.691	.373	.551		
Constant Residual	1 14	58948.452 139.818				

Semantic Proximity

Table 4-11

The results of the MANOVA indicated that there was a significant difference in the scores only for ethnic relatedness of content. For ethnically unrelated content, the range for preserving meaning was 4% to 56% with a mean of 28.7% and standard deviation of 14.14%. The range for ethnically related content was 16% to 52% with a mean of 33.98% and standard deviation of 10.01%. Therefore, the oral reading performance of ethnically related passages resulted in a higher percentage of miscues which preserved the intended meaning than for ethnically unrelated passages.

In summary, the null hypothesis for oral reading performance as defined by semantic acceptability of miscues can be rejected only for ethnic relatedness of content with respect to semantic proximity.

Correction

The successful correction of miscues was analyzed in relation to the attempts made to correct the miscues.

For all passages, the range for successful correction was 12.5% to 100% of the attempts to correct the miscues. The mean was 69.19% with a standard deviation of 23.61%. The results of the MANOVA for the correction of miscues are presented in Table 4-12.

Correction							
Source of Variation	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance of F			
Prior Exposure Error 1	1 14	212 .4 00 454.138	.468	.505			
Ethnic Relatedness Error 2	1 14	1274.042 246.732	5.164	.039			
Ethnic Relatedness by Prior Exposure Error 3	1 14	.789 639.468	.001	.972			
Constant Residual	1 14	287245.848 902.486					

Table 4-12

As shown in Table 4-12, only the F-value for treatment of ethnic relatedness of content was large enough to be significant. For ethnically related content, the range for successful correction was 12.5% to 100% of the attempts made to correct with a mean of 64.58% and standard deviation of 25.2%. The range of successful corrections for ethnically unrelated content was 27.27% to 100% with a mean of 73.8% and standard deviation of 21.33%. The group was therefore more successful in their attempts to correct ethnically unrelated content than that which was ethnically related.

The null hypothesis for oral reading performance as measured by the successful correction of miscues in relation to attempts made to correct can be rejected only for ethnic relatedness of content.

Comprehension

In this study comprehension was observed in two ways. Comprehending focused on the subjects' concern for meaning while reading. Retelling concerned the subjects' understanding of the content after having read the passage orally.

Comprehending

This measure of comprehension evaluated the quality of the miscues by the degree to which they preserved or disrupted the meaning of the passage. Comprehending, the percentage of miscues semantically acceptable or corrected, was calculated by interrelating the oral reading performance variable of semantic acceptability within the text, semantic proximity, and correction. Table 4-13 presents the MANOVA for comprehending with no loss of meaning.

Comprehending							
	Source of Variation	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance of F		
	Prior Exposure Error 1	1 14	173.502 162.211	1.070	.319		
	Ethnic Relatedness Error 2	1 14	47.366 84.860	.558	.467		
	Ethnic Relatedness by Prior Exposure Error 3	1 14	187.161 421.878	.444	.516		
	Constant Residual	1 14	100312 .166 123.783				

Table 4-13

The MANOVA indicated that the F-values were not large enough to be significant for either prior aural exposure or ethnic relatedness of content. It can be concluded that comprehension, as measured by comprehending with no loss while reading, did not differ significantly for the group under the two treatment conditions. For all passages, the range for comprehending was 16% to 76% with a mean of 40.89% and a standard deviation of 13.97%.

Retelling

Comprehension was also measured by the subjects' retelling of the main ideas, details and other inferential information presented by the
passage. The retellings were analyzed for Part B of each passage and for the complete passage, Parts A and B totalled. The point distribution for each of the passages was as follows:

Main ideas		40
Details		50
Extra inferential	information	_10
	Total	100

The mean scores for main ideas, details and totals for the treatment conditions of prior aural exposure and ethnic relatedness of content are presented in Table 4-14.

Retelling	Pric	Prior Aural Exposure			Ethn	ic Rel of Con	atednes tent	S
	N	lo	Ye	S	Unr	elated	Rel	ated
	x	Sd	x	Sd	x	Sd	X	Sd
Main Ideas								
Part B Parts A and B	1.09 3.58	2.22 4.31	2.05 6.24	2.11 4.41	1.07 5.67	1.49 5.14	2.06 4.15	2.67 3.75
Details								
Part B Parts A and B	3.93 8.07	2.83 4.62	4.33 11.43	3.30 5.11	3.27 11.00	3.07 5.23	4.99 8.51	2.84 4.77
Totals								
Part B Parts A and B	5.17 11.99	4.28 8.13	6.85 18.58	4.55 7.98	4.65 17.29	3.66 9.32	7.37 13.28	4.82 7.56

Table 4-14

Means for Retelling: Main Ideas, Details, Totals

The MANOVA for main ideas of Part B and the complete passage is reported in Table 4-15.

Tab 1	e 4-	-15	

Main	Ideas

	Source of Variation	DF	Mean Square	S F	ignificance of F
PART	В				
	Prior Exposure Error 1	1 14	13.805 4.481	3.081	.101
	Ethnic Relatedness Error 2	1 14	14.583 2.848	5.120	.040
	Ethnic Relatedness by Prior Exposure Error 3	1 14	.530 3.350	.158	.697
	Constant Residual	1 14	147.267 7.675		
PART		•			
	Prior Exposure Error 1	1 14	105.868 16.453	6.435	.024
	Ethnic Relatedness Error 2	1 14	34.717 13.325	2.605	.129
	Ethnic Relatedness by Prior Exposure Error 3	1 14	47.419 9.399	5.045	.041
	Constant Residual	1 14	1444.915 33.720		

The F-values for Part B, as shown in Table 4-15, were large enough to reject the null hypothesis for comprehension, measured by the retelling of main ideas, only for ethnic relatedness of content. For ethnically unrelated passages, the mean was 1.07 with a standard deviation of 1.49 while for ethnically related passages the mean was 2.06 with a standard deviation of 2.67. Ethnically related passages therefore resulted in significantly higher scores for the comprehension of main ideas than ethnically unrelated passages.

For the complete passage, the results of the MANOVA indicated that the null hypothesis could be rejected for both prior aural exposure and the interaction of prior aural exposure with ethnic relatedness of content. For no prior aural exposure, the mean was 3.58 with a standard deviation of 4.31. The mean for prior aural exposure was 6.24 with a standard deviation of 4.41. Prior aural exposure thus resulted in higher scores for the comprehension of main ideas than the spontaneous reading of the passages.

The interaction of prior aural exposure with ethnic relatedness for the comprehension of main ideas involving the complete passage is depicted below in Figure 4-1.



The mean for ethnically related passages without prior aural exposure was 3.71 and 4.59 with prior exposure. For ethnically unrelated passages, the mean for no prior exposure was 3.45 while the mean for prior aural exposure was 7.89. As can be seen in Figure 4-1, the comprehension score for main ideas was higher for ethnically unrelated passages than related passages under the treatment of prior aural exposure. For ethnically related passages, the mean score increased by only .88 with prior aural exposure. In contrast, the mean score increased by 4.44 for ethnically unrelated passages.

Figure 4-1

For the retelling of details of Part B and the entire passage, the MANOVA is presented in Table 4-16.

		Deta	ils		
	Source of Variation	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance of F
PART	8				
	Prior Exposure Error 1	1 14	2 .4 60 4.756	.517	.4 84
	Ethnic Relatedness Error 2	1 14	44.324 4.159	10.657	.006
	Ethnic Relatedness by Prior Exposure Error 3	1 14	.009 10.973	.001	.977
	Constant Residual	1 14	1024.158 16.105		
PART	S A AND B				
	Prior Exposure Error 1	1 14	168.773 5.794	29.129	.000
	Ethnic Relatedness Error 2	1 14	93.725 4.656	20.130	.001
	Ethnic Relatedness by Prior Exposure Error 3	1 14	12.159 5.204	2.336	.149
	Constant Residual	1 14	5705.505 75.075		

Table 4-16

For Part B, the F-values were significant only for ethnic relatedness of content. The mean for ethnically unrelated passages was 3.27 with a standard deviation of 3.07. For ethnically related passages, the mean was 4.99 with a standard deviation of 2.84. Therefore, ethnically related passages resulted in higher comprehension scores for details than ethnically unrelated content.

The F-values for details of the complete passage were significant for both prior aural exposure and ethnic relatedness of content. The mean for no aural exposure was 8.07 with a standard deviation of 4.62 while the mean for prior aural exposure was 11.32 with a standard deviation of 5.11. It can be concluded that prior aural exposure resulted in higher scores for the comprehension of details than for the spontaneous reading of the passages.

Contrary to the treatment effects of ethnic relatedness of content for Part B, ethnically unrelated passages resulted in higher scores for the comprehension of details than those which were ethnically related. The mean for ethnically unrelated passages was 11.00 with a standard deviation of 5.23. For ethnically related passages, the mean was 8.51 with a standard deviation of 4.77.

Scores for extra inferential information were not subjected to the MANOVA due to the small number of points attained by subjects. For all passages, the range for extra inferential information was 0 to 5.5 with a mean of .62 and standard deviation of 1.06.

The MANOVA for the retelling total of main ideas, details and extra inferential level information for Part B and the complete

passage, Parts A and B, is presented in Table 4-17.

		Retellin	g Total		
	Source of Variation	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance of F
PART	В				
	Prior Exposure Error 1	1 14	45.484 5.285	8.605	.011
	Ethnic Relatedness Error 2	1 14	105.232 8.479	12.411	.003
	Ethnic Relatedness by Prior Exposure Error 3	1 14	1.088 16.006	.068	.798
	Constant Residual	1 14	2191.071 41.752		
 Part	S A AND B				
	Prior Exposure Error 1	1 14	652.213 16.697	39.061	.000
	Ethnic Relatedness Error 2	1 14	240.480 18.337	13.115	.003
	Ethnic Relatedness by Prior Exposure Error 3	1 14	90.872 15.763	5.765	.031
	Constant Residual	1 14	14015.428 194.330		

Table 4-17

The MANOVA results indicated that the null hypotheses for comprehension as measured by retelling of Part B and the complete passage could be rejected for both prior aural exposure and ethnic relatedness of content. For Part B, the mean for no prior exposure was 5.17 with a standard deviation of 4.28 whereas the mean for prior exposure was 6.85 with a standard deviation of 4.55. For the total retelling score of the entire passage with no prior exposure, the mean was 11.99 with a standard deviation of 8.13. The mean for prior aural exposure was 18.58 with a standard deviation of 7.98. Therefore, the treatment of prior aural exposure resulted in higher comprehension scores as measured by retelling for both Part B and the complete passage.

For Part B and the complete passage, the MANOVA indicated significant but opposing results for the treatment of ethnic relatedness of content. Retelling total scores were significantly higher for ethnically related passages for Part B. The mean for Part B ethnically unrelated passages was 4.65 with a standard deviation of 3.66. For Part B ethnically related passages, the mean was 7.37 with a standard deviation of 4.82. In contrast, the retelling total scores for the complete passage were significantly higher for ethnically unrelated passages was 17.29 with a standard deviation of 9.32 while the mean for ethnically related passages was 13.28 with a standard deviation of 7.56.

Interaction of prior aural exposure and ethnic relatedness of content was indicated by the MANOVA for the complete passage. Figure 4-2 illustrates that relationship.





Figure 4-2

The mean for ethnically related passages without prior aural exposure was 11.22 while, with prior exposure, the mean was 15.35. For ethnically unrelated passages, the mean without prior exposure was 12.76 and, with prior exposure, the mean was 21.81. As shown in Figure 4-2, the total retelling means were higher for ethnically unrelated passages than related passages. Under the treatment of prior aural exposure, the mean score increased by 4.13 for ethnically

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related passages while the mean increased by 9.05 for ethnically unrelated passages. The increase in total retelling scores was therefore greater for ethnically unrelated passages under the treatment condition of prior aural exposure.

Summary

The data were subjected to multivariate analysis of variance for repeated measures in order to determine the relative effects of prior aural exposure and ethnic relatedness of content on oral reading performance and comprehension. Table 4-18 presents a summary of the results.

For <u>prior aural exposure</u>, the analysis revealed that with respect to oral reading performance, there was a significant difference solely for the number of miscues occurring per hundred words. Prior aural exposure resulted in significantly fewer miscues than the spontaneous reading of passages. The oral reading performance of the group did not differ significantly on the types of miscues generated, Spanish language interference/dialect, graphic and phonemic proximity, syntactic and semantic acceptability, or the correction of miscues.

On the measures of comprehension, comprehending and retelling, significant differences for the variable of prior aural exposure were discovered only for retelling. Prior aural exposure resulted in higher scores than the spontaneous reading of passages for the retelling total score of Part B and for the main ideas, details and retelling total of the complete passage.

Table 4-18 Summary of Analysis

DEPENDENT VARIABLES	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES			
	Prior Aural	Ethnic	Interaction	
	Exposure	Relatedness		
Oral Reading Performance				
Types of Miscues				
1) substitutions	0	0	0	
2) omissions	0	0	Ō	
3) insertions	0	0	0	
Miscues Per Hundred Words	+	0	0	
Spanish language				
interference/dialect	0	0	0	
Graphic Proximity	0	0	0	
Phonemic Proximity	0	0	0	
Syntactic Acceptability				
1) intonation	0	0	0	
grammatical function	0	0	0	
 grammatical acceptability 				
within text	0	0	0	
Semantic Acceptability				
1) within text	0	0	0	
2) semantic proximity	0	+	0	
Correction	0	-	0	
Comprehension				
Comprehending	0	0	0	
Retelling				
1) main ideas				
Part B	0	+	0	
Complete Passage	+	0	x	
2) Details				
PartB	0	+	0	
Complete Passage	+	-	0	

 $4 - 2^{2/3} = -4$

Table 4-18 Cont'd. Summary of Analysis

DEPENDENT	VARIABLES	IND	EPENDENT VAR	IABLES
		Prior Aural	Ethnic	Interaction
		Exposure	Relatedness	
Retelli	ng			
3) T	otals			
	Part B	+	+	0
	Complete Passage	+	-	x
0 = not	statistically signif	icant at the .05	confidence	level
T = SLA	Direction - prior exp	posure / ethnica	lly related.	
- = stat	tistically significant	t.		
v – cie	Direction - no prior	exposure / ethn	ically unrel	ated.
$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{s}_{1}\mathbf{g}_{1}$	hificant interaction			

For <u>ethnic relatedness of content</u>, the analysis indicated that there was a significant difference in oral reading performance for semantic proximity and the correction of miscues. The miscues generated while reading ethnically related as compared to unrelated passages more often preserved the intended meaning of the text word. Attempts made to correct miscues were more successful for ethnically unrelated passages than for those which were ethnically related. Oral reading performance did not differ significantly for the types of miscues generated, the number of miscues per hundred words, Spanish language interference/dialect, graphic and phonemic proximity, or syntactic acceptability.

As for prior aural exposure on measures of comprehension, significant differences were found for ethnic relatedness of content only for retelling. The retelling of ethnically related passages as compared to unrelated passages resulted in higher scores for main ideas, details and retelling total for Part B. However, scores for details and retelling total of the complete passage were significantly higher for ethnically unrelated passages than related passages.

Interaction of prior aural exposure and ethnic relatedness of content was found to be present in the retelling of main ideas and retelling total for the complete passage. For both, prior aural exposure resulted in higher scores for ethnically unrelated passages.

CHAPTER V SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

In this concluding chapter, a summary of the investigation is presented, limitations of the applicability of the findings are noted, and the conclusions based on the resulting data are discussed. Lastly, recommendations are made for future study.

Summary

Listening to text while following along visually has been recommended by several reading experts (Petty, Petty and Becking 1981, Moffett and Wagner 1983) as a technique to improve reading skill. Furthermore, this is believed (Anastasiow, Hanes and Hanes 1982) to be especially beneficial to students of limited English proficiency. A review of the literature, however, revealed a lack of empirical research related to the use of this technique. The present study was therefore undertaken to investigate the effects of this procedure, prior aural exposure, on the oral reading performance and comprehension of bilingual, Spanish-speaking students. Additionally, because research has demonstrated that prior cultural knowledge may significantly affect comprehension, a secondary purpose of this study was to observe the relative effects of ethnically related content on oral reading performance and comprehension.

For this study, fifteen bilingual Spanish-speaking students of nine and ten years of age were selected from the Mexican American migrant student population participating in the ESEA Title I, Michigan Summer Migrant Education Program. The reading level of the nine girls and six boys, according to the Slosson Oral Reading Test (Slosson 1963), was mid fourth grade to low fifth grade (4.4-5.2).

In the design of this experiment, each subject orally read four expository passages adapted from social studies textbooks. Two of the passages described aspects of Mexican American culture and two described cultural patterns of other cultures - the Bedouin and Amish. For one ethnically related passage, the subject orally read and afterwards retold the passage. On the second ethnically related passage, the subject first listened to an audio recording of half of the passage, following along on the printed copy. The subject next orally read the entire passage, retelling it afterwards. This same procedure was followed for the ethnically unrelated passages. For both the ethnically related and unrelated passages, the subject listened to just half of the passage in order to avoid confounding the hypothesized effect of prior aural exposure with listening comprehension. The order of whether the subject first read a passage or listened to the audio tape and read a passage was randomly alternated between subjects. The retelling task was both unaided and aided. Immediately following unaided retelling, questions based on the retelling were used to encourage the subject to expand the retelling. The oral reading and retelling were recorded on audio tape for analysis.

Oral reading performance was analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively according to the procedures of the Reading Miscue Inventory (Goodman and Burke 1972). Oral reading miscues were catalogued into categories of substitutions, omissions, insertions and reversals. For the quantitative analysis, each type of miscue was a dependent variable analyzed relative to the treatment conditions, prior aural exposure and ethnic relatedness of content. For the qualitative analysis, the miscues were examined with respect to graphic and phonemic similarity to the text, syntactic and semantic acceptability within the text, correction, and the influence of the Spanish language. The data were subjected to the statistical procedure of multivariate analysis of variance for repeated measures (Winer 1971).

Comprehension was assessed by the quality of the miscues and by recall. Comprehending, the quality of the miscues while reading, focused on the extent to which the miscues retained or disrupted meaning. Recall, involving unaided and aided retelling of main ideas and details, was analyzed for the entire passage and for the second half of the passage, Part B, to which subjects did not receive aural exposure. These data were also subjected to multivariate analysis of variance for repeated measures.

Findings

The findings of this study indicate that the differences in oral reading performance under the treatment conditions of either prior oral exposure or ethnic relatedness of content were overwhelmingly small. Significant findings occurred in comprehension for both independent variables along with a significant interaction of the two variables. The findings of this study are summarized below:

Prior Aural Exposure

For **oral reading performance**, the analysis revealed that prior aural exposure resulted in significantly fewer miscues than the spontaneous reading of passages. However, oral reading performance did not differ significantly on the types of miscues generated, Spanish language interference/dialect, graphic and phonemic proximity, syntactic and semantic acceptability, or the correction of miscues.

On measures of **comprehension**, significant differences were found for retelling but not comprehending. Prior aural exposure resulted in higher scores than spontaneous reading for the retelling total score for Part B of the passage and for the main ideas, details and retelling total of the complete passage.

Ethnic Relatedness of Content.

For **oral reading performance**, the analysis indicated that there was a significant difference only for semantic proximity and the correction of miscues. The intended meaning of the text word, semantic proximity, was more often preserved while reading ethnically related passages than unrelated passages. Attempts made to correct miscues were more successful for ethnically unrelated passages than for those which were ethnically related. Oral reading performance did not differ significantly for the types of miscues generated, the number of miscues, Spanish language interference/dialect, graphic and phonemic proximity, or syntactic acceptability.

As for prior aural exposure on measures of **comprehension**, significant differences were found only for retelling. The retelling of ethnically related passages resulted in higher scores for main ideas, details and retelling total for Part B of the passage. However, scores for details and retelling total of the complete passage were significantly higher for ethnically unrelated passages than related passages.

Interaction of Prior Aural Exposure and Ethnic Relatedness of Content.

Interaction was found to be present in the retelling of main ideas and retelling total for the complete passage. For both, prior aural exposure resulted in significantly higher scores for ethnically unrelated passages.

Limitations

The findings of this study should be considered within the following limitations:

Sample

The fifteen subjects for this study did not comprise a random sample. Due to the small number of migrant students displaying the characteristics of the specific population to be studied, it became necessary to include all such students to obtain the desired fifteen subjects. The subjects were subsequently drawn from seven schools in six summer migrant education projects in Michigan.

Instrumentation

- Those passages identified as ethnically related, in general, reflect Mexican American cultural heritage. However, this may not be representative of the individual student's experiences. This study did not attempt to determine the degree of match between cultural heritage exemplified by the passage and the subjects' experiences.
- 2) The aural exposure provided in this study as a controlled experiment is more restrictive than the employment of such a technique in a classroom setting. In this experiment, the subject was provided aural exposure to just half of the passage in order to avoid confounding the effects of this treatment with listening comprehension. A classroom teacher, however, might feel that a particular student would most benefit by exposure to more of the passage. Also, the subjects in this

experiment received no introduction to the material to be read. Use of this technique in a classroom is likely to be more flexible involving, for example, teacher interaction with the student relative to the content before and/or after the aural exposure, reading guides, or purpose setting questions.

Conclusions

Within the cited limitations, the findings of this study support the conclusion that listening to text while following along visually facilitates comprehension. While demonstrating by recall significantly higher comprehension for just the total retelling score for Part B of the passage to which they were not exposed, subjects showed even greater comprehension for the entire passage. Their scores were significantly higher for all three recall measures - main ideas, details and total retelling. This may be indicative of the effects of prior aural exposure being confounded with listening comprehension. Despite this possibility, an implication for the classroom is that, even in the absence of teacher/student interaction or supplementary instructional materials, providing opportunities to listen to text while following along visually may significantly enhance comprehension.

A corollary of this conclusion is that such aural exposure to text may be particularly effective for a topic with which the student does not have a great deal of experience. In this study, it was

assumed that the subjects would possess more knowledge of Mexican American culture than of the Bedouin or Amish cultures. Interaction was found for prior aural exposure and ethnic relatedness of content for the retelling of main ideas and retelling total for the complete passage. Prior aural exposure resulted in significantly higher scores for the ethnically unrelated passages. Again, there is the possibility of the confounding effects of listening comprehension. Prosody, as suggested by Kleiman, <u>et al</u> (1979) and Schrieber (1980), may provide cues for identifying syntactic structures so that attention may instead be focused on comprehending a message on a somewhat unfamiliar topic.

Other findings for the effects of ethnically related content on comprehension appear to be conflicting. Subjects demonstrated higher comprehension as measured by recall for Part B of ethnically related passages. Scores were significantly higher for all measures - main ideas, details and retelling total. Compatible with this finding, the miscues generated while reading ethnically related passages as compared to unrelated passages more often preserved the intended meaning of the text. This suggests that the reader is able to use her prior knowledge in processing information by predicting semantically acceptable miscues. Based on these findings, it would seem that the assumed prior cultural knowledge contributed to higher comprehension. However, conflicting evidence for the effects of ethnic relatedness of content is presented by the finding that, when considering the complete passage, comprehension was significantly greater for the

ethnically unrelated passages. Supportive of this finding is that, in attempts to correct their miscues, subjects were also more successful for the unrelated passages. While it seems evident that ethnic relatedness of content and, thus, prior cultural knowledge is involved in comprehension, the process appears to be more complex than can be understood by the present model of analysis.

Another conclusion which can be drawn for the findings of this study is that oral reading fluency is not a reliable indicator of comprehension. For prior aural exposure which resulted in significantly higher comprehension, the only significant measure of observable reading behavior was that of fewer miscues. No significant differences were found on all other measures of oral reading performance including the types of miscues, Spanish language interference/dialect, graphic and phonemic proximity, syntactic and semantic acceptability, and corrections. For ethnic relatedness, only semantic proximity and corrections were found to be significant. Comprehending, which is intended to be a measure of comprehension while reading, essentially paralleled oral reading performance and was not significant for either aural exposure or ethnic relatedness. It appears that comprehension cannot be analyzed on the basis of oral reading behavior. Some subjects who orally read quite fluently had very poor recall as compared to other subjects who produced many miscues yet demonstrated surprisingly higher levels of recall.

Recommendations for Future Research

Further research should be conducted on the effects of prior cultural knowledge on reading comprehension. It will be necessary to identify effective means of verifying whether subjects possess schema which relates to the content of the reading materials. In this study, for example, it appeared that some students were much more familiar than others with the various aspects of Mexican American culture described by the passages.

In the present study, the relationship between the reader's prior knowledge and comprehension was not evident by the observable oral reading behavior. Research on the effects of prior knowledge, or schema, on reading comprehension commonly employs the methodology of requiring the subject to orally or silently read a text and then assessing comprehension by a recall measure. Other methodologies need to be explored and compared in order to identify more sensitive instruments of analysis to better understand the ways in which a reader's schema affects comprehension. One method which may prove useful is that of stimulated recall. A reader might be asked, for example, what she was thinking as she read a particular passage.

It is further recommended that this study be replicated with a larger population. The lack of a random sample and the small number of subjects severely limits generalizing the results of this study to similar populations.

Also, the present study investigated the effects of prior aural exposure and ethnic relatedness of content for just one reading level

and one population that might be expected to experience difficulties in reading. It is suggested that this study be replicated with other reading levels and with different language minority populations as well as monolingual English-speaking students.

Concluding Statement

This research was conducted to determine the effectiveness of a listening technique for improving comprehension, particularly for a population of language minority students at a fourth-fifth grade reading level who would be considered to have mastered the beginning reading skills. Listening to text while following along visually was found to improve comprehension further demonstrating the close relationship of the receptive language acts. The practical classroom application resulting from this research is that basal reading materials and content area materials could easily be audio recorded and utilized by students who would benefit from this technique.

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Appendix A

Migrant Students Screened and Identified as Subjects from the Participating Summer Migrant Projects

Migrant	Students S	creened <mark>a</mark>	nd Identi	ified as S	ubjects
from the f	Participati	ng Summer	Migrant	Education	Projects
	•	J	5		

		No. of Migr	ant Students
Migrant Education Project	School	Screened	Selected
Bay City Public Schools Bay City	Western High Auburn	20	3
Fennville Public Schools Fennville	Anna Micher Elementary Fennville	8	3
Hart Public Schools Hart	Elkbridge Scho Hart	ol 8	1
Montcalm Area ISD Stanton	North Elementa Ithaca	ry 7	2
	West Elementar Odessa	y 9	2
	Moncalm Area Career Center Sidney	10	0
St. Charles Community St. Charles	Mary Patterson Elementary St. Charles	4	2
Saginaw City School Saginaw	Jessie Rouse Elementary Saginaw	14	2
Traverse Bay Area ISD Traverse City	Kaleva Elementary Kaleva	13	0
	Total	93	15

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Appendix B

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Language Usage Questionnaire

Name

Language Usage Questionnaire

What language do you use:

1.	with your parents when you help around the house?	Spanish	Mostly Spanish	Both	Mostly English	English
2.	when you visit your granparents or aunts and uncles?	Spanish	Mostly Spanish	Both	Mostly English	English
3.	with your brothers and sisters?	Spanish	Mostly Spanish	Both	Mostly English	English
4.	with your friends at the camp?	Spanish	Mostly Spanish	Both	Mostly English	English
5.	with your friends at school?	Spanish	Mostly Spanish	Both	Mostly English	English

Appendix C Migrant Status, Sex, Age, Grade, and Slosson Oral Reading Test Scores for Subjects

Subject	Migrant ₁ Status ¹	Sex	Age ²	Grade ³	Sort
01	1	F	9.9	4	4.4
02	1	F	9.2	4	4.8
03	1	F	9,9	4	4.9
04	1	F	9.0	4	5.0
05	1	F	9,10	4	5.1
06	2	F	9,9	4	4.7
07	1	F	9,6	5	5.0
08	2	F	10,6	4	4.5
09	1	F	10,11	5	4.5
10	2	Μ	9,6	4	5.1
11	1	Μ	9,5	5	5.0
12	1	Μ	10,2	5	4.5
13	1	Μ	9,7	4	5.2
14	1	Μ	9,10	4	5.1
15	1	М	10,6	4	5.2

Migrant Status, Sex, Age, Grade, and Slosson Oral Reading Scores (SORT) for Subjects

¹ Migrant Status: 1 - Interstate, 2 - Intrastate

 $^{\rm 2}$ Age is given in years and months.

 3 Grade level the student will enter in the fall.

Appendix D

Reading Passages

And

Comprehension Outlines

THE NAVAHO

The Navaho are the largest single group of Native Americans. There are about 100,000 Navaho people in the United States today. Most live on a reservation which covers parts of Arizona, New Mexico and Utah.

Many Navaho beliefs and values are different from those shared by most people of the United States. For example, Navahos believe that it is dangerous to do anything too much. Most activities are "wrong" only if they are done too much. An ordinary activity like weaving becomes bad if you weave for more than a few hours at a time.

Navahos believe that it is dangerous to finish some things. They must leave some little part out of a design or a sand painting. If you look quite closely at a Navaho rug, you will see that the pattern is not quite finished.

* Adapted from Cherryholmes, Cleo and Gary Manson. <u>Understanding</u> the United States. McGraw-Hill Social Studies. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1979: 318-320. Used with the permission of the McGraw-Hill Book Company.

THE BARRIO*

Barrio is the Spanish word for "neighborhood." This word, like many other Spanish words, has also become part of English. In English, barrio means a neighborhood of Spanish-speaking people. There are barrios in cities throughout the United States.

Barrios are important in preserving Mexican American culture. Mexican families just arriving in the United States find Spanish-speaking people in the barrios. Shopkeepers speak Spanish. Supermarkets carry Mexican foods and spices. Old people and young children can talk to each other in the language they know best and love.

People in the barrio also help one another a great deal. Neighbors or relatives take care of the children when a parent has to go to work, go shopping, or go to the doctor.

In the barrios, the family is very important. Many Mexican Americans came from small farming communities. In small farming communities, parents, children, grandparents, uncles, aunts, and

* Cherryholmes and Manson, 1979: 221-223, 240, 242-243. Used by permission of the McGraw-Hill Book Company.

cousins are very close. They see each other often. They depend on each other in good times and bad. Older members of the family are greatly respected. Relatives usually live near one another. This kind of large family with many relatives is called an **extended family**. One hundred years ago most families were extended families.

Many American families are **nuclear families**. This means that family life centers mainly on parents and children. Grandparents, uncles, aunts, and cousins usually don't live near one another. They don't see one another very often.

Extended families remain important to Mexican Americans. Most Mexican Americans write, telephone, and visit relatives when they can. They keep up with family news. They usually help one another in many ways.

Sometimes, it is hard to keep up these family relationships. A young couple may move to another neighborhood or city. This separates them from other relatives. But others, especially Mexican Americans living close to the Mexican border, are able to keep in touch with members of their extended families. Family relationships are an important part of Hispanic American culture. Many Mexican Americans have relatives in Mexico and sometimes they go there to visit. When crossing the national boundary or the border into Mexico, they find that many things change.

The money changes. In Mexico, the basic unit of money is the **peso**. The prices of things also change. In Mexico many things cost less than in the United States. Foods such as onions, tomatoes, and meat cost less. The prices at movies and restaurants are usually lower. But some things, such as cars, cameras, and other machines are more expensive.

Ways of living also change. In parts of Mexico, people have their big meal in the early afternoon. This is usually between 1:30 and 3:30 P.M. Then they have a light dinner at about 8:00 or 9:00 P.M. Some changes take place as soon as the border is crossed. But changes in ways of living and language happen more slowly. The area for many miles on each side of the border contains parts of the culture of both countries. Such an area can be called a **bicultural** zone. In a bicultural zone, two different cultures are mixed together. For example, Laredo and Nuevo Laredo are border towns. Laredo is on the United States' side and Nuevo Laredo is on the Mexican side. Although there are differences between the two towns, there is little difference in the use of language. One can get along very easily in Spanish in Laredo and in English in Nuevo Laredo.

Other parts of a culture, such as building styles and foods, also don't change quickly across the border. In San Antonio, Texas, parts of the city look like any Mexican city. Los Angeles, California, has many Mexican restaurants. And Monterrey, Mexico, has Kentucky Fried Chicken and Coca-Cola stands. All these places lie in a bicultural zone. Bicultural zones are usually exciting, complicated places.

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HISPANIC AMERICAN

Today, there are about 11 million Spanish-speaking people in the United States. That is five out of every hundred people here. Another word for Spanish-speaking is **Hispanic**.

Hispanic Americans share the Spanish language. They also share other parts of Spanish culture. But they are not all the same, just as other United States citizens are not all the same. Hispanic Americans have different backgrounds and ways of living.

Most Hispanic people in the United States have come from countries settled by Spain 400 years ago.

As you know, Mexican American families have been living in California and the Southwest for hundreds of years. These Spanish-speaking people were the pioneers of what had been the frontier lands of northern Mexico. They founded and settled many of the cities that have Spanish names today. Most of these people were "mestizo." Mestizos have mixed background. They had Indian, Spanish, and sometimes black ancestors.

* Cherryholmes and Manson, 1979: 318-320. Used with the permission of the McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Many more Mexicans have arrived since the early days. Mexican Americans today are the largest Hispanic group in the United States. Mexican Americans live in every state. Those states with the largest population of Mexican Americans are California and Texas.

Puerto Rican Americans are the second largest Spanish speaking group. Puerto Rico is an island southwest of Florida. All Puerto Ricans are United States citizens. Americans can travel between the mainland United States and Puerto Rico as easily as they can go from New York to California.

The third largest group of Spanish-speaking people in the United States are Cubans. Cubans came to the United States in large numbers in the 1960's. They left Cuba after the Cuban government became Communist in 1959. Many Cubans settled in Florida. Most of them have become United States citizens. Most Hispanic Americans are members of the Roman Catholic church. The Catholic church played an important role in the history of all Hispanic countries, including Mexico. Many of the cities in the American Southwest are named after Catholic saints. San Francisco, Santa Barbara, and San Antonio are examples.

Today, going to church and to religious festivals helps create a feeling of **cultural identity** among many Mexican Americans. Cultural identity is a feeling of belonging, or togetherness, among members of a cultural group. Shared beliefs and a common history help create this feeling of togetherness. **Traditions**, things that people do year after year, are also important to cultural identity.

Among Mexican Americans, Christmas or La Navidad, is one of the happiest religious holidays. From December 6 to December 24, one may see people singing Christmas carols and asking for shelter. They are acting out the story of Mary and Joseph. They search for a place to stay overnight as Mary and Joseph did in Bethlehem. This tradition among Mexican Americans is called Las Posadas. Posada means "inn" or "shelter."

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Las Posadas is like a traveling play. The whole neighborhood is the stage. At the first two stops, "Mary" and "Joseph" are turned away. At the third house, they receive posada, or shelter. They usually come into the house and are served cake or cookies. Each night, the procession gets closer and closer to the church. Finally, on Christmas Eve, the actors arrive at the neighborhood church. There they receive the last posada. Then, at midnight, Christmas Mass is held at the church.

In Mexico and some areas of Southwestern United States, part of the Christmas celebration is held on the night of January 5. In the Christmas story, this is the date when the three wise men bring gifts to the infant Jesus. In towns close to the Mexican border, Mexican American children leave their shoes on the doorstep overnight. On the following morning, January 6, they find their Christmas presents near their shoes. This day is called **El Dia de los Reyes**, or day of the kings.

THE AMISH

One of the many groups that came to the New World as colonists were a people called the Amish. The Amish were a small religious group in Europe. Most were German-speaking farmers. The Amish had strong religious beliefs. These beliefs were often different from the teachings of the main churches in Europe. Thus, the Amish were forced to move many times. There were few places in Europe where they were safe. Some of them were drowned, burned, or tortured.

So the Amish came to the New World for the freedom to practice their religious beliefs. They wanted to lead a hardworking farming life. They would not dress in fancy clothes or live in fancy homes. They felt they were different from other groups.

Most Amish came to William Penn's colony. The first Amish arrived in Philadelphia in 1727. In Pennsylvania, Amish families started farms in an area called Lancaster County. Other Amish people settled farther west.

* Cherryholmes and Manson, 1979: 113-114, 116, 118, 119, 127-128, 138. Used by permission of the McGraw-Hill Book Company.

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Today the largest number of Amish people live in Pennsylvania, Ohio and Indiana. Most Amish still speak Pennsylvania Dutch at home. It is similar to German. Over the years, Amish culture has changed very, very slowly. Today, many things the Amish do and believe have not changed since these people first came to North America.

Amish people lead a simple farming life. They are self-sufficient. They grow much of the food they eat. They build their own buildings. They sew their own clothes. For transportation, they use mostly horses. They could keep going even if somehow all the machines stopped. Their way of life depends on skills many people in the United States have now lost. Few Americans, for example, can make their own clothes or grow their own food.

The Amish even have their own one-room schools. They do not believe that their children need a lot of schooling. Amish schools only go to the eighth grade. The Amish are friendly people. But unless you are Amish, you probably won't get to see the inside of their houses. The Amish keep pretty much to themselves. They don't want too many ideas from the outside to change their way of life.

In Lancaster County, Pennsylvania, and in other places, the Amish stand out in many ways. There are no electrical wires going into the large, neat Amish farms. The Amish don't believe in using electricity or machines that run by electric power. They know what television is. But they don't want such things for themselves.

Amish people can be seen driving buggies, which are usually painted black. The buggies are pulled by horses. The Amish are surrounded by cars, trucks, buses, and tractors of modern America. They know all about them. Most Amish take rides in cars and trucks when it is necessary. But it is not proper for an Amish person to own a car, truck, or tractor. The Amish men, women and children wear dark clothes. Women and girls do not wear any makeup or jewelry. Instead of belts, the boys and men wear suspenders to hold up their pants. Their jackets have no collars or pockets. The Amish call such things "modern."

In an Amish community, people often do things together. They feel responsible for one another. For weddings, worship services, and other large get-togethers, relatives and neighbors help the host family prepare the food. When a family member has an accident or is sick, neighbors come to help at the farm.

Barn raisings are an Amish custom. Many other people in the United States once had this custom, too. At a barn raising, friends and neighbors get together and help someone put up -or raise- a barn or other building.

Working together and helping others to achieve a goal is called **cooperation**. The Amish **cooperate** to get what they want or need.

THE BEDOUIN"

The Bedouin people live on the deserts of the Middle East and northern Africa. The word **Bedouin** comes from the Arabic language. It means **desert dwellers**. The Bedouin are **nomads**, people who do not settle in one place for long. They wander from place to place, hunting food and water for themselves and their animals.

The Bedouin people keep flocks of sheep and goats and herds of camels. The camel is their most important source of food, clothing, and transportation. In addition to meat, the camel provides milk. This milk is both food and water for survival in the desert. A Bedouin's wealth is judged by the number of camels he owns.

* Adapted from Educational Research Council of America. <u>Lands of</u> <u>the Middle East</u>. Concept and Inquiry: The Educational Research Council Social Science Program. Rockleigh, NJ: Allyn and Bacon, 1976: 83-86, 89-91, 93. Used by permission of Allyn and Bacon, Inc. The house of the Bedouin nomad is a tent. It is made of cloth woven from sheep wool and camel hair. Desert nomads need a shelter that can be put up and taken down fast and easily.

The Bedouin, like many of the world's peoples, think of a few jobs as "men's work." They think women should do the other tasks. Men raise the tent poles. Women put up the heavy cloth of the tent itself. Women do all the work of taking the tent down. The men load the tent and other goods onto the camels. Women do the cooking, but they and the children may not eat until the men are finished. Women take care of the children. They do all the household jobs in the tent. They spin yarn and make cloth for the family's clothing and tents.

The men's jobs are taking care of the camels and protecting the family. The men also must find grass for the herds. The survival of the Bedouin depends on the men's decisions. Children help to tend the flocks of goats and sheep. A person alone in the desert could not survive very long. As a result, each Bedouin knows how important the group is. The basic unit of Bedouin society is the family. A group of families related to one another make up a **clan**. A clan is led by a **chief**. Several clans form a **tribe**. A tribe is led by a **sheik**, who rules with a council of clan chiefs. The sheik inherits his position from his father. When people quarrel, the sheik acts as a judge. Thus Bedouin society is made up of clans and tribes related by blood. A Bedouin is first loyal to his family, then to his clan, then to his tribe.

Most tribes are made up of hundreds of families. The tribe is too large to form a nomad community. So the clan is the unit that wanders with the herds. Decisions about routes to follow on the desert are made by the clan chief. The Bedouin way of life is thousands of years old. It is a way of life that may soon disappear. Bedouin have always been nomadic herders. There was not any other way to live on the desert. Farming was impossible without water. Towns or cities where they could find other jobs did not exist in most desert areas.

The Bedouin way of life is hard and often dangerous. Yet most Bedouin like it better than settled life in villages or towns. On the desert they are free. This is more important to them than comfort.

Civilization, with its machines and buildings and roads, is slowly changing the desert. Some of the Bedouin themselves are being changed by civilization. They see the things other Arabs get by working for the oil companies. They, too, would like to buy cars and houses. On the desert, there is no way to make enough money to buy these things. More and more Bedouin are leaving the desert way of life and taking jobs. The nomadic way of life is slowly dying.

	Details
ood of Spanish-	-Sp word for neighborhood -like many other Sp words, has become part of English -barrios in cities throughout the U.S.
eserving Mex-Am culture life in the barrio?)	-Mexican families just arriving in U.S. find Sp-speaking people in the barrios -shopkeepers speak Spanish -supermarkets carry Mexican food and spices -old people and young children can talk to each other in language they know best and love - Spanish
me another a great deal	-neighbors or relatives take care of children -when a parent has to go to work, shopping, to doctor
relatives that depend on ed family erican family like?)	 -many Mex-Ams come from small farming communities where -parents, children, grandparents, uncles, aunts, and cousins are very close -see each other often -depend on each other in good times and bad/help one another in many ways -older members of family are greatly respected -relatives usually live near one another -100 years ago, most families were extended families
clear families - smaller ended families nds of families?)	<pre>-family life centers mainly on parents and children -grandparents, uncles, aunts and cousins usually don't live near one another -don't see one another very often</pre>
e an important part of	 extended families remain important to Mexican Americans most Mex-Ams write, telephone and visit relatives when they can keep up with family news keep up with family news sometimes it is hard to keep up these family relationships - young couple may move to another neighborhood/city separating them from other relatives others, especially Mex-Ams living close to the Mexican border, are able to keep in touch with members of their extended families

BARRIO - Part A

Main Ideas

A barrio is a neighborhood of Speaking people (What is a barrio?) Barrios important in preserving Mex-Am cul (Can you tell me about life in the barrio?

People in barrio help one another a gre

Large family with many relatives that depend c each other is an extended family (What is the Mexican American family like?)

Many Am families are nuclear families - sn and not as close as extended families (Are there different kinds of families?)

Family relationships are an important p Hisp-Am culture

Main Ideas

into Mexico, many things change. (What happens when you cross the border into When crossing the national boundary/border (What changes take place?) Mexico?)

Money and prices change

Ways of living change.

(Can you tell me about life along the border?) Bicultural zone - two different cultures are mixed together; area for many miles on each side of the border contains many of the cultural elements of both countries

Main Ideas - 10

BARRIO - Part B

Details

-many Mex-Ams have relatives in Mexico and sometimes they go there to visit.

-changes in ways of living and language happens more slowly -some changes take place as soon as border is crossed

-in Mex, many things cost less than in the U.S. -foods - onions, tomatoes, meat; movies, restaurants -in Mexico, basic unit of money is the peso -some things are more expensive -cars, cameras, other machines

-big meal in early afternoon 1:30-3:30 -light dinner about 8:00 or 9:00 P.M.

-usually exciting, complicated places -Laredo on the U.S. side and Nuevo Laredo on Mex side. Although differences between the two towns, little difference in use of language. One can get along very easily in Spanish in -building styles don't change quickly across the border -San Antonio, Texas parts of the city look like any Mexican Laredočanď in English in Nuevo Laredo

-Los Angeles, Calif. has many Mexican restaurants -Monterrey, Mex has Kentucky Fried Chicken and Coca-Cola stands -food is similar citv

Details - 40

	VALENTION - LOID -
Main Ideas	Details
Today, about 11 million Sp-speaking in U.S. (What does the word "Hispanic" mean?)	-5 out of every 100 people here -Hispanic - another name for Spanish-speaking
Hispanic Americans have some things in common (How are Hispanic Americans alike?)	 -share the Sp language -share parts of Sp culture -most have come from countries settled by Spain 400 years ago -but not all the same - different backgrounds and ways of living
Three largest groups of Hispanic Americans in U.S. are Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans and Cubans (What are the largest groups of Hispanic Americans in the U.S.? Tell me about the)	
Mexican Americans are largest Hispanic group in U.S.	<pre>-living in Calif. and Southwest for 100's of years -pioneers of what had been the frontier lands of northern Mexico -founded/settled many of the cities that have Sp names today -most of these people were mestizo -mixed background- Indian Spanish, sometimes Black ancestors. -many more Mexicans have arrived since early days -live in every state -States with largest population - Calif., Texas.</pre>
Puerto Rican Americans - second largest Spanish-speaking group	-P.R. is an island southwest of Florida -All Puerto Ricans are U.S. citizens -Americans can travel between the mainland U.S. and P.R. as easily as they can go from New York to Calif.
Cubans - third largest group of Spanish-Speaking people in U.S.	-came to U.S. in large numbers in 1960's -left Cuba after government became Communist in 1959 -Many settled in Florida -Most have become U.S. citizens

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HISPANIC AMERICAN - Part

Main Ideas

(What religion are many Hispanic Americans?) Catholic Church played an important role in history of all Hispanic countries

togetherness among members of a cultural group (How is a feeling of togetherness created among Cultural identity is a feeling of belonging or a group of people?)

Las Posadas is a Christmas tradition among (How do many Hispanic Americans celebrate Mexican Americans Christmas?) Mexican Americans along the horder observe El Dia de los Reyes/ Day of the Kings as part of the Christmas celebration. (What other holiday is often celebrated at Christmas-time?)

Main Ideas - 10

Details

-most Hispanic Ams. are members of the Roman Catholic church -many cities in Am southwest named after Catholic saints -San Francisco, Santa Barbara, San Antonio

-among Mex-Ams the feeling created by going to church and -traditions - things people do year after year -shared beliefs and common history religious festivals

on Christmas Eve, actors arrive at the neighborhood church, -Christmas, La Navidad, one of the happiest religious holidays -each night procession gets closer to the church and finally -acting out story of Mary and Joseph's search for a place to -usually come into the house and are served cake or cookies -at first two stops, Mary and Joseph turned away; at third -from Dec. 6-24 people sing Christmas carols and ask for shelter - Las Posadas -means inn or shelter -traveling play - whole neighborhood is a stage -at midnight, Christmas Mass held at church house, they receive posada/shelter there they receive last posada stay overnight in Bethlehem -night of Jan. 5

-In Christmas story, this is the date when the 3 wise men bring gifts to infant Jesus

-Mex-Am children leave their shoes on the doorstep overnight. On following morning, Jan 6, they find their Christmas presents near their shoes

-celebrated in Mexico and some areas of Southwestern U.S.

Details - 38

	<u>Details</u>
ious	-most German-speaking farmers -strong religious beliefs often different from the teachings on the main churches in Europe -were forced to move many times, few places in Europe where they were safe -some of them were drowned, burned or tortured
mists for iefs	-wanted to lead a hardworking farming life -would not dress in fancy clothes or live in fancy homes -felt they were different from other groups
lor 1d?)	 -first arrived in Philadelphia -in 1727 -In Pennsylvania, Amish families started farms in an area called Lancaster County -other Amish people settled farther west -other Ingest number of Amish people live in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana
ve not changed America	-most still speak Pennsylvania Dutch at home -similar to German -over the years, Amish culture has changed very slowly
	 -lead simple farming life -grow much of the food they eat -build their own buildings -sew own clothes -for transportation, they use mostly horses. -for their way of life depends on skills many people in the U.S. -their way of life depends on skills many people in the U.S. -their way of life depends on skills many people in the U.S. -their way of life depends on skills many people in the U.S. -their way of life depends on skills many people in the U.S. -their way of life depends on skills many people in the U.S.

Main Ideas

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AMISH - Part A

The Amish were a small persecuted religious group in Europe (Who are the Amish?) (Where did the Amish come from?) The Amish came to the New world as colonists freedom to practice their religious beliefs (Why did they come to the New World?)

Most came to William Penn's colony (Where did they first live in the New World (Where do they live now?) Many things the Amish do and believe have not chan since these people first came to North America

The Amish are self-sufficient (Can you describe how they live?)

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Main Ideas

The Amish don't want too many ideas from the outside to change their way of life. (How do they feel about change?)

The Amish way of life differs in many ways from that of most Americans (In what ways does their way of life seem different from that of most Americans?) Amish cooperate with members of the community to get what they want or need (Can you tell me about the Amish community?)

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Main Ideas - 8

Details

electrical power, no electrical wires
-they know what TV is but don't want such things for themselves -for weddings, worship services, and other large get-togethers, relatives and neighbors help the host family prepare the -unless you are Amish, you probably won't get to see the inside -not proper for an Amish person to own a car, truck or tractor -men, women and children wear dark clothes -don't believe in using electricity or machines that run by -when a family member has an accident or is sick, neighbors -drive buggies, painted black, pulled by horses -surrounded by cars, trucks, buses, and tractors of modern America, know all about them -women and girls do not wear any makeup or jewelry -instead of belts, boys and men wear suspenders to hold up their pants; jackets have no collars or pockets - such -cooperation - working together and helping each other to come to help at the farm
-barn raising an Amish custom - friends and neighbors get -most take rides in cars and trucks when it is necessary -feel responsible for one another -keep pretty much to themselves things called modern of their houses achieve a goal friendly people food

Details - 43

together and help someone put up a barn or other building -many other people in the U.S. once had this custom **BEDOUIN - Part A**

Main Ideas

The Bedouin people are nomads (Where do the Bedouin people live?) (How do the Bedouin live?) Camel is their most important source of food, clothing, and transportation

Bedouin shelter is a tent

Men and women each have specific responsibilities in the family (Do family members have specific jobs or responsibilities? What are they?)

Details

-live on deserts of the Middle East and Northern Africa -word Bedouin means desert dwellers, from Arabic language -nomads are people who do not settle in one place for long -wander from place to place, hunting for food and water for selves and animals

-keep flocks of sheep and goats and herds of camels

-provides meat and milk -milk is both food and water for survival in desert -wealth judged by number of camels owned -made of cloth woven from sheep wool and camel hair -nomads need shelter that can be put up/taken down fast/easily

Men

-raise tent poles and load tent and other goods onto camels
-take care of camels and find grass for herds
-protect family
-survival depends on men's decisions
Momen
-put cloth of tent up and take tent down
-cook
-they and children eat after men

-all household jobs in tents -spin yarn and make cloth for clothing and tents -children help tend flocks of goats and sheep

-take care of children

<u>Details</u>	-a person alone could not survive very long -each Bedouin knows how important the group is	-basic unit is family -clan is a group of related families led by chief -tribe formed by several clans and led by sheik -sheik rules with council of chiefs -sheik inherits position from father and acts as judg people quarrel -Bedouin first loyal to family, then clan, then tribe	-most tribes made up of 100's of families -tribe too large to form a nomad community -decisions about routes to follow on desert made by c	-Bedouin way of life is 1000's of years old -farming impossible without water -towns/cities where they find other jobs did not exis desert areas	-Bedouin way of life hard and often dangerous -freedom more important to them than comfort	-civilization, with its machines, buildings, roads, i changing the desert -Bedouins themselves being changed -see things other Arabs get by working for oil compan -would like to buy cars and houses -on desert no way to make enough money to buy these t Bedouin are leaving desert way of life and taking
				lesert ')		nue?)

BEDOUIN - Part B

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Main Ideas

Being a member of a group is essential for survival in the desert.

Bedouin society made up of clans and tribes related by blood (Can you tell me about Bedouin society?)

Clan is the nomad community that wanders together through the desert Bedouin have always been nomadic herders because there was no other way to live on deser (Why do the Bedouin people live as they do?)

Most Bedouin prefer their way of life to settled life in villages/towns because on desert they are free. (How do they feel about their way of life?) Civilization may cause the Bedouin way of life to soon disappear. (Is the Bedouin way of life likely to continu

Main Ideas - 10

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