

THE USE OF ORAL PROMPTS AS AN EFFECTIVE
TEACHING STRATEGY IN ORAL READING ACTIVITIES

BY

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A primary purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which teachers adopted a method of teacher prompts when working with average fifth-grade readers in oral reading activities.

A second purpose of this study was to examine the use of teacher prompts as an effective teaching strategy with average readers in fifth grade in oral reading activities.

Three main objectives were included in the investigation.

1. Teacher ability to adopt a prompting condition when correcting student oral reading errors.

2. Student achievement gains when teacher prompts were used in oral reading activities.

3. Effectiveness of four designated prompting conditions among one another.

The six schools selected for the three-and-one-half month study were located in Volusia County, Florida, and represented the three different socioeconomic groups.

Twelve teacher subjects were randomly selected. Three teachers were randomly assigned to one of four prompting conditions: 1) uncorrected, 2) graphophonic, 3) semantic, or 4) repeat. They were instructed to use the assigned prompts as often as possible when correcting the average fifth-grade readers' oral reading errors during the daily 30-minute instructional period. Each teacher was observed 14 times during the study.

The 72 average fifth-grade readers were selected from a larger population of fifth-graders. In the final analysis, 67 students were considered.

The results of the study suggested that teachers could adopt assigned prompts when working with average fifth-grade readers. The uncorrected and semantic prompts recorded significant adoptability. The repeat prompt showed no difference in adoptability in relation to the other prompts. The graphophonic prompt recorded no significance in adoptability.

The results of the student achievement gains indicated that the uncorrected prompt produced significant student gains whereas the graphophonic, semantic, and repeat prompts produced no significant differences during the three-and-one-half month study.

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

During an oral reading task the reader is likely to give an incorrect response. The teacher must then decide how to react to the error and whether to provide feedback to the reader. The first decision is concerned with whether to signify to the reader that an error had been made or whether to withhold reaction. Secondly, the teacher must decide at what point she will provide feedback to the student that a specific error had been made. The final decision for the teacher is concerned with the type of prompt she will use to provide feedback to the oral reader.

Many educators believe that immediate correction of student errors is most facilitative to oral reading instruction while others support different methods including delayed feedback, cuing, and repeating. Although a variety of instructional techniques are available, reading programs of the past and recent years have favored the immediate feedback approach whereby the teacher corrects a student's errors at the time they occur. Teachers adopting this approach believe that failure to correct errors in oral reading promotes learning of incorrect responses (Niles, Graham, and Winstead, 1977). However, Pehrsson (1974) found that teacher interruptions of student oral reading caused recall to decline. Similarly, Buschke (1974) found that recall with young oral readers would also decline through teacher interruptions during the oral reading stage unless the students were probed at the conclusion of the task.

Gattegno (Mitchell, 1979) suggested that not only must teachers be concerned with the errors made by students during oral reading activities but with effective methods of dealing with them. Interrupting a student's oral reading performance should not be the only strategy used by a teacher. Goodman (1970) stated that teachers must go beyond the errors. Therefore, educators cannot merely correct errors but must examine effective strategies to use with students.

Brophy and Good (1978) argued that teacher education programs do not provide teachers with the necessary skills to work effectively in this domain. They believed that teachers are not trained to adopt different strategies for classroom use nor given practice in refining such strategies. This suggests that teacher responses to errors may be guided to provide valuable and meaningful instruction.

This study was concerned with the examination of the different methods of providing feedback to student oral reading errors. The methods under investigation included the following: 1) uncorrected, 2) graphophonic, 3) semantic, and 4) repeat. Specifically, each method was examined with average readers in the fifth grade who were taught by teachers who employed one of the methods during oral reading instruction.

This study served as a facilitative examination of the use of prompts as an effective teaching strategy and an impetus for future investigations and research.

Statement of the Problem

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which teachers adopted a method of teacher prompts when working with

average fifth-grade readers in oral reading activities using basal readers as the primary source of instructional reading material. Since four different types of prompts were studied, each type was observed to gauge its adoptability as a teaching strategy.

A second purpose of this study was to examine the use of teacher prompts as an effective teaching strategy with average readers in fifth grade in oral reading activities. Student achievement gains were studied after students had been exposed to one of four designated teacher prompts for a three-and-one-half month period. The four identified prompts were 1) uncorrected, 2) graphophonic, 3) semantic, and 4) repeat.

Objectives and Research Questions

Listed below were the objectives of this study. Immediately following each objective were the specific questions that were studied.

Objective I

To investigate the use of teacher prompts as an effective teaching strategy with average readers in the fifth grade.

Question IA

Are teacher prompts an effective teaching strategy with average readers in the fifth grade?

Objective II

To investigate teacher adoptability of particular prompting procedures.

Question IIA

Will there be differences in teacher adoptability among the different prompting procedures?

Question IIB

Will one prompting procedure produce more significant adoptability than the others?

Objective III

To investigate student achievement gains between prompting procedures.

Question IIIA

Will there be differences in student achievement gains between the different prompting procedures?

Question IIIB

Will one prompting procedure produce more significant gains than the others?

Hypotheses

The research hypotheses were stated in the null form and are listed below. An explanation for the statistical analysis for each hypothesis will be presented later in the study.

Hypothesis IA

There will be no significant adoptability by teachers among the different prompting conditions.

Hypothesis IB

There will be no significant adoptability of a particular prompting condition over the others.

Hypothesis IIA

There will be no significant achievement gains by students between the different prompting conditions.

Hypothesis IIB

There will be no significant achievement gains by students of a particular prompting condition.

Basic Assumptions

It was assumed in this study that:

1. All fifth-grade students involved with this study received the same basic oral reading skills training as set forth by county and state regulations.
2. All fifth-grade students involved with this study received equal amounts of teacher time, instruction, and materials although the material goods varied.
3. All oral reading instruction was directed by the participating teacher rather than from outside help (aides, interns, volunteers, etc.).
4. Since the subjects were randomly grouped, home background, prior school background, and prior instruction in oral reading were equal in all classes.
5. Teacher ability to adopt a new oral reading teaching strategy was equal.

6. Outside variables were evenly distributed among all classes.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study certain terms will be defined according to their usage in this study.

Basal Readers

Basal readers are referred to as foundation readers. They may be of two types: 1) method readers where the material is primarily selected with reference to phonetic difficulties so that the reader will more readily acquire the independent power to pronounce words from the printed page, and 2) non-method readers where phonetic and diacritical factors are quite subordinated to the thought of the material presented.

Coding

Coding is a process by which a researcher collects units of teacher behavior at specified intervals.

Graphophonic

A graphophonic prompt is a type of teacher prompt whereby a teacher is concerned with the visual characteristics and sound characteristics of a word and encourages the student to consider one or both characteristics.

Informal Reading Inventory

The informal reading inventory is an individual test to determine oral and silent reading achievement. It consists of graded word lists,

graded reading passages, and comprehension questions for each passage. An informal reading inventory is used to determine an individual's independent, instructional, and frustration reading levels.

Instructional Level

An instructional level is the highest level at which instruction in reading may be inaugurated. Materials for this level should be difficult enough to be challenging but not so difficult as to be frustrating.

Powell Criteria

The Powell criteria are the differentiated criteria set by William Powell (1969, 1978) for determining reading levels.

Prompt

A prompt is an external source of information which helps the student to arrive at a correct response to a problem. A prompt may be given to reinforce the reader's correct response or may serve as a cue to the reader that an incorrect response was given. The study included four types of prompts: 1) uncorrected, 2) graphophonic, 3) semantic, and 4) repeat.

Random Sampling

Random sampling permits each member of the population to have the same chance for selection in the sample.

Repeat

A repeat prompt is a type of teacher prompt whereby the teacher provides feedback to students' oral reading performance after the

reading passage or complex thought was completed. The prompt is used to cue the reader that the oral reading was different from the printed text. The repeat prompt does not cue the reader to specific errors but to discrepancies between the oral reading and printed text.

Semantic

A semantic prompt is a type of teacher prompt whereby the teacher provides feedback to students' oral reading performance after the reading passage or complex thought was completed. The prompt is used to cue the reader that a change in the author's meaning or intent resulted from the error. Although the semantic prompt does not cue the reader to specific errors, the reader is made aware of discrepancies in what he orally read and the printed text.

Standardized Tests

Standardized tests provide a sample of achievement or ability. They may be norm-referenced or criterion-referenced with individual scores reported in derived scores (grade equivalents, percentiles or stanines).

Transfer

Transfer is regarded as a shift in responsibility for correcting a student's oral reading errors from teacher to student. Transfer may be regarded as a terminal process which would eventually cause the student to be self-sufficient when correcting oral reading errors.

Uncorrected

An uncorrected teacher prompt is a type of teacher prompt whereby the teacher provides no feedback to students when an oral reading error occurs.

Limitations of the Study

The findings and conclusions reached in this study were limited to a random sample of fifth-grade students and teachers in Volusia County, Florida, during the 1980-1981 school year and do not necessarily reflect the use of prompts as an effective teaching strategy for all fifth-grade students and teachers in other settings.

Each teacher subject received a one-hour training session concerning the use of the assigned prompt. No additional training was given nor was feedback given during the study. This insured that all teacher subjects received the same amount of teacher training throughout the study.

The study's limited focus was on fifth-grade students who were receiving oral reading instruction on the fifth-grade level. The fifth grade was selected for the study because there were no additional remedial or enrichment reading programs offered at this level which could have affected the amount of oral reading instruction each student was given.

The study was concerned with the students' ability to make significant achievement gains in oral reading activities. Student achievement gains for each type of prompt were also studied.

The study did not take into account the different grouping processes among the different classrooms. That is, differences between departmentalized, self-contained, and open-space groupings were not studied.

CHAPTER II REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Rationale for Oral Reading Instruction

Oral reading instruction must be a prime consideration of the total reading program. Harris (1961), Sipay (1969) and Durkin (1970) have deemed oral reading as a necessary component of reading instruction which must be fostered with great care. It should provide the student with the necessary skills and confidence to function in an everchanging world. Moody (1974) described the oral reading process as

. . . a necessary social and pedagogical skill, and indeed a valid modification, or extension, of skill in spoken English, which can be neglected only to the detriment of any community in which the language has an important role. (315)

Although oral reading serves as an integral means of communication, the goal of oral reading should go beyond this basic need. Efforts should be exerted to guide students from teacher-dependency to self-sufficiency. That is, an ultimate goal of oral reading instruction should make the reader more responsible for his own oral reading instruction. To acquire the necessary skills for self-sufficiency in oral reading the individual must be taught to automatically confront new ideas, overcome vocabulary, and assimilate new thoughts as a simultaneous process. Teachers must make a conscientious effort to guide students through this developmental process using practices and

strategies appropriate to the learning task. "Not only must oral reading be regarded as an integral part of the instructional program but . . . teachers should use the most pedagogically sound method of practicing reading which will best develop essential oral reading skills" (Cox and Shrigley, 1980, p. 306).

Weinstein (1976) believed that oral reading is the teacher's best method for gauging student growth in reading. The teacher has the opportunity to point out accurate and inaccurate responses to print and to engage the student in meaningful dialogue. Such dialogue between teacher and student provides the essence of good oral reading instruction (Hoffman and Baker, 1981). The dialogue typically involves the teacher giving feedback or instruction to the student's oral reading performance and allows the student to accept or reject the teacher feedback and move on.

Pearson (1976) maintained that a goal of good oral reading instruction should allow the student to regulate his own oral language and to detect oral reading errors. To do this Pearson suggests a three-step system: 1) student must see the relationship between oral speech and print, 2) student's anxiety level must be minimized to promote fluent reading rather than mere guessing, and 3) student must see that both oral speech and print involve the student's own experiences.

If the goal of oral reading instruction is to cause students to become more independent, self-sufficient readers, instruction must be designed to guide students through a developmental process which allows them to accept the responsibility of regulating oral reading. Various researchers have maintained the need for teacher awareness and involvement in the guidance process while using appropriate teaching practices

to aid students (Cox and Shrigley, 1980; Weinstein, 1976; Pearson, 1976). Oral reading instruction cannot be regarded as a continuous dialogue between teacher and student in and of itself; rather, the dialogue between teacher and student evolves into a monologue by the student with himself in control of the total oral reading process.

Feedback

According to Bourne (1966), feedback is an external source of information which helps the student to arrive at a correct response to a problem. Feedback may be given to reinforce the reader's correct response or may serve as a cue to the reader that an incorrect response was given. Niles and Tech (1980) believe that teachers give feedback for two main reasons: 1) for the purpose of assisting comprehension, or 2) for the acquisition or recognition purpose. Although it would be difficult to approach the two purposes as separate skills that are segregated from one another, the teacher must decide her purpose for using feedback and adjust her strategies to meet her goals. If the primary concern of the teacher is to build comprehension skills, her feedback strategies to students might be quite different than those strategies used to build word recognition skills. Therefore, a teacher must identify her purpose for the oral reading task and adjust her feedback strategies to meet the purpose.

When the student makes an oral reading error the teacher may choose from three strategies. The reader can be informed 1) of both right and wrong answers, 2) of right answers only, or 3) of wrong answers only. At that time the teacher makes a decision as to whom should accept the responsibility for correcting the error. If the

teacher decides to supply the correct word or cue to the student for both correct and incorrect responses, she accepts the responsibility for correction of the error. If, on the other hand, the teacher decides to cue the student that a wrong response was given, she is transferring the responsibility for correction to the student.

During the transfer of responsibility for correction from teacher to student the reader must adopt a set of behaviors to meet the oral reading feedback situations. The process involves three main steps: 1) The reader recognizes that a deviation has occurred and must decide whether to accept the response or to correct the response; 2) The reader decides whether to correct immediately or to delay correction; and 3) The reader decides what strategies to use in the correction. The process is concerned with both the timing factor of correction (immediate or delayed) and the type of correction used. Thus, the student must assume responsibility for two decisions when he accepts self-correction.

Niles and Tech (1980) stated that the reader must process feedback at the two separate levels simultaneously. While the reader contends with the major task of deriving meaning from print, he must also judge his own oral responses. A reader who receives feedback from the teacher and who accepts responsibility for correction of the oral reading error must process information on two higher levels of thought than a reader who does not receive some type of feedback (Niles and Tech, 1980). Therefore, a reader who receives feedback and accepts responsibility for oral reading corrections may be confronted with a more complicated reading task which encourages the reader to be more self-sufficient.

Teacher use of feedback when instructing students in oral reading activities may be very beneficial if the teacher has identified her purpose for providing feedback and the specific strategies to use to achieve the goals. Feedback may also be advantageous in involving students in the correction process through transfer of responsibility for oral reading corrections. If a teacher's ultimate goal in oral reading instruction is to make students self-sufficient in oral reading, feedback may be regarded as an important and necessary factor for students.

Teacher Conceptualizations

Although research has been conducted on oral reading errors during the early decades of the century (Madden and Pratt, 1941; McCullough, 1946; Monroe, 1928, 1932), investigations were most often limited to remedial situations where teachers were removed from the normal classroom environment. Additionally, teacher practices and strategies for dealing with student oral reading errors were overlooked in favor of analyzing specific student miscues during the oral reading task. This resulted in little practical advice to teachers for effective methods for dealing with student errors.

Various researchers of the 1960s recognized the need for investigations into teacher involvement in the oral reading process (Conrad, 1964; Corder, 1967; Wickelgren, 1965). They contended that the teacher must be regarded as an important factor in oral reading programs when assessing specific student miscues. Although lacking in theoretical consideration, they did progress the idea that a teacher should be able to aid students with text discrepancies.

Spiegel and Rogers (1980) stated that teacher feedback may be a viable part of the reading instruction program. The teacher's feedback may aid the student in word identification in actual reading situations. Also, the way by which a teacher offers feedback could provide valuable insight into the teacher's theoretical perception of reading and her expectations of student oral reading performance. For example, teachers who rely on the interrupted method may be primarily concerned with the student's ability to accurately pronounce the printed words on a page. Teachers who rely most often on delayed feedback may be more concerned with the overall meaning or intent of the author.

Investigations in the 1970s were conducted by researchers who focused on the behavioral aspects of the teacher when dealing with student errors. Anderson and Brophy (1976), Brophy and Evertson (1974) and Terry and Cohen (1977) believed that a teacher's behavior in providing feedback to student miscues was an integral part of the student correction process. They further believed that such teacher behavior could provide an understanding of particular theoretical frameworks held by individual teachers (Mitchell, 1979).

Carroll and Chall (1975) suggested that teacher beliefs about reading heavily influence their instructional practices. Harste and Burke (1977) agreed and stated further that teachers do indeed have identifiable models of reading which are reflected in their teaching strategies.

Bawden, Burke and Duffy (1979) identified five conceptualizations of reading which serve as models of reading: 1) linear skills,

2) basal text, 3) natural language, 4) interest, and 5) integrated curriculum. Their study of 23 teachers showed that 20 of them had at least two overlapping conceptualizations. The researchers concluded that teachers were more easily identifiable by content centered (linear skills, basal text) and child centered (natural language, interest, integrated curriculum). Additionally, the years of teacher experience affected conceptualizations of reading with more experienced teachers being more child centered. However, the results showed that although teacher conceptualizations were a major force in oral reading feedback, other factors as reading ability, grade level and other context variables were of more importance when the two sets of conceptualizations were compared. This would indicate that teacher conceptualizations are very important in guiding students to correct oral reading responses but should be considered in light of other factors.

The investigations of Conrad (1964), Corder (1967), Wickelgren (1965) and Spiegel and Rogers (1980) emphasized the importance of teacher involvement in oral reading programs. Not only is the teacher facilitative in teaching word recognition skills to students during oral reading instruction but integral in guiding the students to become self-sufficient readers. Through the use of feedback a teacher may provide students with the necessary training and skills to become more independent readers.

The ability to guide students towards independence in reading relies heavily on teacher conceptualizations of reading. Carroll and Chall (1975), Bawden, Burke and Duffy (1979) and Harste and Burke (1977) agreed that teachers do hold specific beliefs concerning reading which affect their behavior when instructing students in oral reading.

Although research is scarce concerning the actual possibility of teachers being able to adopt new teaching strategies in light of preconceived strategies, indications are that teachers could adopt new practices if sufficient training and experience were provided. Even with preconceived teacher conceptualizations of reading, teachers should be able to effectively provide meaningful feedback to students which would aid the readers in assuming control of the correction process in oral reading activities.

Teacher-Student Interaction

Feedback in oral reading situations is viewed as an effective way to improve word recognition (Biemiller, 1970; Brady and Lynch, 1976; Jenkins and Larson, 1978). However, the researchers regarded teacher feedback as a terminal practice which would transfer the responsibility of feedback from teacher to student. In this way the student would adopt an independent feedback process comprised of three different prompts: 1) graphophonic, 2) syntactic, and 3) semantic.

Biemiller (1970), Goodman (1970) and Weber (1970) believed that the student would progress from teacher responsibility for providing feedback to accepting responsibility for providing his own feedback. The researchers regarded this as a developmental process shared equally by the student and teacher.

Investigations have shown that teachers do use different strategies for providing feedback to students that are based on teacher conceptualizations. Although most teachers favor a transfer of feedback responsibility from teacher to student, in practice they most often fail to

transfer the responsibility. Additionally, teacher perceptions of a student's reading ability could be a major factor in a teacher's adoption and transfer of feedback.

Anderson, Brophy, and Everston (1977) and Anderson and Brophy (1976) also recognized the need for transfer of feedback from teacher to student but found that teachers would most often supply the word rather than lead the student through the necessary steps to allow for transfer of feedback. The studies used first-grade students as subjects in situations where a faster reading pace was of more importance than interrupting a student to employ a particular prompt. Different results might occur if older students were studied.

Investigations by Brady and Lynch (1976) found that teachers did not practice a systematic guidance process which would progress from teacher responsibility for providing feedback to student responsibility for providing his own feedback. Instead, most teachers studied were grouped into one of three categories: 1) teachers who used all types of prompts with little consideration of their appropriateness, 2) teachers who used no prompts, and 3) teachers who used a variety of prompts but with little effort to use particular prompts at appropriate times or with little attention given to the guidance of feedback responsibility from teacher to student.

Although the transfer feedback process was well accepted in concept, in actual practice it was not adopted by most teachers. This suggests two possibilities for the apparent lack of adoptability: 1) the teachers were not trained to transfer the responsibility of providing feedback to students or; 2) the teachers could not do so.

Pehrsson (1974) studied the process of providing feedback from both a teacher's and student's viewpoint. He was interested in establishing whose responsibility it was to provide feedback when fifth-graders read orally from 200-word sixth-grade passages. The students read under one of three conditions: 1) uncorrected in which the students received no help, 2) corrected in which the students were asked to pay attention to words, and 3) unaided in which the students were asked to pay close attention to words. Pehrsson found that readers could indeed provide their own feedback if the teacher provided some type of meaning orientation. Therefore, Pehrsson suggested that the transfer of responsibility for providing feedback may vary between types of errors, particular prompts, and the meaning orientation established between teacher and student.

The transfer of responsibility for providing feedback could also be affected by the teacher's perceptions of student reading ability. Gumperz and Hernandez-Chavez (1972) found that teachers did indeed vary the amount of feedback between good and poor readers with poor readers receiving more interrupted feedback than the good readers.

Allington (1980) investigated the same issue with 20 teachers and 147 good and 120 poor readers on the primary level. The tapes of the oral reading selections were analyzed for the selection (no response), timing (point of feedback), and the content of the prompt (graphemes, phonemes, semantic/syntactic, teacher pronounce and other). The proportion scores showed that poor readers received more feedback than good readers, 74% to 31% respectively. For semantically unacceptable responses, the poor readers again received more feedback, 76% to 54%.

For teacher-pronounced words the poor readers also received more feedback, 50% to 38% for good readers.

The results of the Allington study suggested that teachers felt a greater need to help the poorer readers who showed difficulties in fluent reading and comprehension whereas teachers thought the good readers could figure out the correct responses by themselves. This would indicate that teachers could adjust their conceptualizations according to their perceptions of a student's reading ability.

The studies by Biemiller (1970), Brady and Lynch (1976) and Jenkins and Larson (1978) regarded feedback in oral reading activities as a terminal process which must progress in a developmental manner from teacher-directed to student-directed. Anderson, Brophy, and Everston (1977) and Anderson and Brophy (1976) found that teachers do recognize the need to guide students through the transfer process although in actual practice teachers often disregard the developmental steps necessary in the transfer process. This would indicate that teachers vary in the concepts they hold concerning the transfer of feedback and actual practice when working with students in oral reading activities.

The studies cited suggest the need for further research into the teacher-student transfer process of feedback in oral reading. Research is necessary to determine the extent to which teachers can instigate their concepts concerning the transfer of feedback into actual practice when instructing students in oral reading activities and their effectiveness in guiding students to accept responsibility of the feedback process.

Use of Prompts

Niles and Tech (1980) suggested that not only must we be concerned with the necessity of feedback in oral reading and the ability of the teacher to transfer the responsibility for providing feedback to the student but with the amount and type of feedback. To be more explicit, what type of prompts should be used and how much prompting should occur by the teacher and by the student?

Pearson (1976) stated that teachers have long regarded oral reading errors as things that should be corrected. Although teachers were unsure as to the type of prompt to use in particular situations or how often to prompt, they did believe that failure to correct would promote learning incorrect responses among the students. Pearson regarded the popularity of such practices by teachers as having ". . . a seductive rationale behind them." He gave the example often used by teachers in correcting oral reading errors as having the student read a word off a flashcard or making lists of words missed to be read and reread by the student. Such practices, Pearson believed, placed total responsibility for prompting on the teacher who would more than likely use the same prompting condition for all miscues. Little attention or responsibility was given to the student to decide his own prompting strategies. Instead, Pearson believed that the ultimate goal of prompting should place the responsibility and choice of prompting on the student with care given that the student be trained to use prompts and prompting strategies effectively.

Pearson's ideas for student involvement may be traced to the Goodman line of thought. Goodman (1970) maintained that the student

is the main provider of feedback and little teacher feedback is needed. Goodman stated further that errors were ever-present when a student was learning new material and should be taught how to provide his own prompts for guiding instruction. From this viewpoint the teacher plays a minor role in prompting and the type and amount of prompting becomes the major issue.

Jenkins and Larson (1978), however, viewed the issue in a reversed way from Goodman. If one accepts the Jenkins and Larson (1978) belief then one accepts the belief that the teacher is the main provider of prompts with minimal student responsibility. Using a case study/experimental approach with five junior high students, the researchers studied the effects of five different prompting conditions with remedial readers. Of the prompting conditions studied (no correction, sentence repeat, end of page review with teacher-pronounced words, word meaning with teacher providing the word and teacher or student providing the definition, and drill with the word correctly taught to mastery), results indicated that drill was superior with the teacher guiding the prompting process. The least effective prompting condition was the no correction condition where the teacher did not guide the student in the prompting process. The results suggested that teacher involvement and guidance in providing prompts would affect student learning.

Niles, Graham and Winstead (1977), working with fourth-grade students, studied two types of prompts to gauge the effects of student-directed feedback where the teacher did not provide a correction condition and teacher-directed feedback where the teacher provided a

graphophonic prompt. The results of the study showed that students could provide their own feedback effectively when the goal of the oral reading task was to express the meaning of the passage. The results also indicated that teacher use of the graphophonic prompt to aid student corrections could be as effective. However, since only one teacher prompt was studied, it would be impossible to predict the effectiveness of other prompts on the basis of this study.

Niles (1979), using third-graders, expanded the original study to include two additional prompting conditions: 1) a semantic prompting condition in which the teacher asked if a meaning change deviation made sense, and 2) a repeat condition in which the teacher asked the reader to repeat a sentence which contained a meaning change but was not explicitly told there was a change. The results indicated that the graphophonic prompt produced less semantically acceptable responses and more responses which changed the author's meaning. The semantic and repeat conditions produced results similar to the uncorrected condition with no significant differences recorded across any of the four conditions. This would indicate that the graphophonic prompt relied mainly on graphic level information already in the text while the other prompts relied on the semantic level information.

The results of the series of studies (Jenkins and Larson, 1978; Niles, 1979; Niles, Graham and Winstead, 1977; Pearson, 1976) investigated prompting conditions in a limited scope. The researchers attempted to study the effects of particular prompts on teacher-student interaction and the transfer of responsibility for prompting. They did not, however, sufficiently explore the effectiveness of particular prompts

on student achievement, the ability of teachers to adopt particular prompts, nor the amount of prompting necessary for student achievement. Such concerns should be given increased attention to progress the understanding of prompts and feedback in oral reading instruction.

Summary

If the goal of oral reading instruction is to guide students toward independency in oral reading tasks, teachers must practice appropriate strategies to aid students during this developmental process. Teachers must be aware of the purpose of oral reading instruction and adjust their instructional practices to meet these purposes.

The use of feedback to students during oral reading activities has been viewed as an advantageous instructional practice when used correctly by teachers (Bourne, 1966; Niles and Tech, 1980). It is imperative, however, that teachers understand the different types of feedback and use appropriate types when guiding students in the correction of oral reading errors. Teachers must be aware of their own conceptualizations of reading and be willing and able to adjust their beliefs to meet the needs of individual readers. As Spiegel and Rogers (1980) suggested, feedback may be a viable part of the instruction program if teachers could adjust their use of feedback strategies with their perceptions of reading. Indeed, teachers must strive to provide meaningful feedback to students which would promote reader self-sufficiency in the oral correction process.

The goal of oral reading instruction should not begin and end as a teacher-student dialogue. Instead, efforts should be exerted to

establish effective teacher use of feedback which ultimately transfers the responsibility of oral reading instruction from the teacher to the student. It should be regarded as a sequential process with the end result being reader independence.

CHAPTER III PROCEDURES AND METHODOLOGY

Pilot

During the summer and fall of 1980, two pilot studies were conducted by the researcher. The primary purpose of each study was to compare the extent to which teachers adopted four methods of prompting when working with average readers in oral reading activities using basal readers as the primary instructional reading material.

A second purpose of each study was to compare the use of the four teacher prompts as an effective teaching strategy in relationship to student achievement.

Each study was conducted in public schools in Volusia County, Florida, with teachers who were willing to participate. The schools represented the three socioeconomic classes as determined from available data on free lunches and reduced lunches to students.

The studies were exploratory in nature rather than quantitative. Emphasis was on studying oral prompting methods in broad terms from which specific questions for indepth research would evolve.

A discussion of each pilot study is presented below.

Pilot Study I

Twenty-four students of varying ages and reading levels were selected from a summer school program in Volusia County, Florida. All participants were attending a remedial math program and were not

designated as deficient readers. Test results from the Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills (reading subtests) and from the Nelson-Denny Reading Test (grade 10), administered during the spring of 1980 on a countywide basis, indicated that all participants were average readers on their appropriate grade levels. The student groups yielded the following information: 1) Group I consisted on eight third-grade students from a school of middle socioeconomic status; 2) Group II consisted of eight sixth-grade students from a school of low socioeconomic status; and 3) Group III consisted of eight tenth-grade students from a school of high socioeconomic status.

Within each group two students were assigned to each of the following prompting conditions: 1) uncorrected, 2) graphophonic, 3) semantic, and 4) repeat. Each student orally read an assigned passage of approximately 200 words to the researcher on two occasions with the researcher supplying the appropriate prompting condition when the student made an oral reading error. The students were asked to recall all they remembered. Only the second readings were considered for evaluation.

The results showed that students in grade three could recall more information through use of the repeat prompt. Students in grade six could also recall more information through use of the repeat prompt. Students in grade ten could recall more information through use of the uncorrected prompt.

The results of Pilot Study I formulated several questions for further research into the use of oral prompts as an effective teaching strategy.

Pilot Study II

The primary purpose of the study was to examine the extent to which teachers were able to adopt an assigned prompting condition when working with average readers on the fourth-grade level.

The student subjects included 48 fourth-grade students selected from five public schools in Volusia County, Florida, during the fall of 1980. The students were identified as average readers from scores on the Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills (reading subtests). Six students were randomly chosen from eight classrooms and remained unidentified to the teachers.

Eight teachers were selected from the five schools and were randomly assigned to one of four prompting conditions. They were instructed to use the assigned prompt as often as possible when instructing the average readers in oral reading activities for approximately 30 minutes per day for a one-month period.

The researcher observed both teacher and student subjects one day per week during the study and used a coding process to gauge the extent to which each participant adopted the assigned prompt. The four prompting conditions included the following: 1) uncorrected, 2) graphophonic, 3) semantic, and 4) repeat.

At the conclusion of the one-month study it was found that teachers could adopt one of the assigned prompting conditions with little difficulty. Although the teachers seemed to adopt the uncorrected and repeat prompts more readily, little variation in adoptability was recorded among the four conditions.

Pilot Study II held several implications for further research:

1. The study should be replicated over an extended period.
2. The study should provide qualitative data for analysis.
3. The effects of student achievement associated with the different prompting conditions should be studied.

The pilot studies generated several questions for further indepth study. First, could teachers adopt a particular prompting condition over an extended period of time when working with students in oral reading activities? Although the pilot studies indicated that teachers could adopt a particular prompting condition over a short period of time, the adoptability of prompting conditions over a longer period was not established. Second, would student achievement in oral reading increase through teacher adoptability of particular prompting conditions? The pilot studies did not adequately assess student achievement. An extended study would be recommended to measure student achievement gains.

Pilot Studies I and II provided the researcher with background information for indepth study into the effectiveness of oral prompts as a teaching strategy. The researcher instigated a three-and-one-half-month study to gauge the extent to which teachers adopted a method of prompting and the subsequent effect on student achievement. A description of the study follows.

Research Study

The researcher conducted a three-and-one-half-month study to gauge the effectiveness of oral prompts as a teaching strategy.

Specifically, the study was concerned with the extent to which teachers could adopt a particular prompting condition when working with average readers in the fifth grade and the effect of the prompting conditions on student achievement. The four prompting conditions under investigation included the following: 1) uncorrected, 2) graphophonic, 3) semantic, and 4) repeat.

Sample

The subjects were 72 fifth-grade students who were selected from a larger population from six public schools in Volusia County, Florida. The students were randomly selected from a pool of average fifth-grade readers with six students selected from each of 12 classrooms. The students involved in the study were unidentified to the teachers. All subjects were enrolled in one of the participating schools on September 8, 1980.

The six schools selected for the study included the following: Bonner Elementary School, Minerva Bond Long Lake Helen Elementary School, Ormond Elementary School, Pierson Elementary School, Port Orange Elementary School, and Spruce Creek Elementary School. The schools were selected because they contained kindergarten through grade six and had principals and faculties who were willing to participate in the study. The schools also represented the three different socioeconomic levels as determined by available data on free and reduced lunch counts for each school. Since free and reduced lunches to students are based on family income, classification of the schools into socioeconomic groups may be indicated.

Bonner Elementary School and Minerva Bond Long Lake Helen Elementary School were considered the low socioeconomic schools with over two-thirds of the students in each school qualifying for free or reduced lunch. Pierson Elementary School and Port Orange Elementary School were considered middle socioeconomic schools with between one-third and two-thirds of the students qualifying for free or reduced lunch. Ormond Elementary School and Spruce Creek Elementary School were considered high socioeconomic schools with less than one-third of the students qualifying for free or reduced lunch.

Twelve fifth-grade teachers were selected from the six schools and were randomly assigned to one of four oral prompting conditions (uncorrected, graphophonic, semantic, or repeat). The teacher subjects were observed prior to the study as favoring immediate correction of student oral reading errors.

None of the teachers were involved in the pilot studies nor given advanced knowledge of the study. It was assumed that all teacher subjects had equal opportunity for adopting the assigned prompting condition.

Instruments

The student subjects were designated as average readers from scores obtained from a standardized test, the Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills (reading subtests) and from scores on an informal reading inventory (using Powell criteria).

The Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills (CTBS) was selected for use in the study since it was administered on a countywide basis. The

results of the reading subtests for each student served as a locator for the teacher to identify a group of average readers.

All designated average readers were then administered an informal reading inventory (IRI) by the researcher. The passages administered ranged in readability from grade five to grade seven. Powell criteria were used to determine the reading instructional level of each student. Only students who were determined to be on the fifth-grade instructional level were given an opportunity to be included in the study.

Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills (CTBS)

As validation for the use of the reading subtests scores of the CTBS, the following information was provided. The standardization of the CTBS (Form Q) at all levels was based on a probability sample of the entire national school population. Included in the sample were approximately 212,000 students from grades 2 through 10 from both public and Catholic schools from all fifty states. Geographically, the sample also represented different types of communities and various socioeconomic levels.

The Kuder-Richardson formula #20 was used to determine internal consistency for Form Q. Reliability statistics were calculated on the reading subtests and include the following information:

	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>KR#20</u>
Total Reading	48.2	17.74	.95

The validity of the CTBS (Form Q) is based on correlation coefficients with the California Achievement Tests at appropriate levels

and the California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity. Although the data produce an acceptable measure of validity, caution must be taken when generalizing to other situations.

Informal Reading Inventory (IRI)

An IRI is a practical technique for determining a student's skills or lack of skills in comprehension and word recognition. An IRI consists of graded word lists, graded reading passages, and comprehension questions for each passage. Results from an IRI can produce an independent, instructional, and frustration reading level for each reader.

An IRI was administered to each subject in the study to determine the instructional level for each subject. The San Diego Quick Assessment (Graded Word Lists) (La Pray and Ross, 1969) was used for the graded word list section (see Appendix A). Each list consisted of ten words which were read orally by each subject to determine the level at which the reading passages should begin.

The reading passages were read by each subject to determine reading instructional level. Each passage contained approximately 180 words on levels five through seven and were arbitrarily assigned a reading level of 5.0, 6.0, or 7.0 to equal the readability levels of the grades they were designed to measure (see Appendix B).

Each IRI was scored using Powell criteria (see Appendix C). The criteria was used to score the oral readings and to determine the reading instructional levels.

Reliability

The reliability of the IRI may be more consistent at the lower grade levels than at the upper grade levels. This may be attributed to increased vocabulary, language structure and content.

The IRI used in the study may be regarded as a reliable test instrument using Powell criteria for scoring.

Validity

An IRI is considered to be valid if the readability of the reading passage is equal to the grade level it is designed for. Second, the administration of the IRI should approximate techniques used in normal classroom instruction (Powell, 1969).

The IRI used in the study adhere to the two aspects of validity and is regarded as being a valid test instrument.

Procedure

Testing

The CTBS was administered on a countywide basis prior to the study. The results of the reading subtests for each student served as a locator for the teacher to identify a group of average readers for possible inclusion in the study. Other than locating possible average readers for the study, the CTBS results were not used for specific analysis.

An IRI was administered by the researcher to each student who was designated an average fifth-grade reader from the CTBS scores. The IRI consisted of graded word lists, oral reading passages, and

oral comprehension questions. Students whose instructional level was fifth grade according to the IRI results were considered average readers.

At the conclusion of the study the researcher again administered an IRI to each subject to determine possible changes in reading instructional levels. The same IRI form was used as in the initial testing of the three-and-one-half-month study. The final IRI testing was conducted with all student subjects during the same week under similar situations.

It was the intent of the researcher to determine reading instructional levels only. Independent and frustration reading levels were not considered for inclusion in the study.

Assignment of Teachers

The 12 teacher subjects were randomly assigned to one of four identified prompting conditions for correcting student oral reading errors. Three teachers were assigned to each of the following oral prompt conditions: 1) uncorrected, 2) graphophonic, 3) semantic, or 4) repeat. Six average fifth-grade readers, who remained unidentified to the teachers, were observed during oral reading activities.

During the three-and-one-half-month study each teacher was instructed to use the assigned prompting condition with all average readers during oral reading activities. Each teacher was expected to instruct the average readers in oral reading activities for approximately 30 minutes per day using the reading materials already in use in the classroom.

Teacher Training

All teacher subjects were observed prior to the study as being immediate prompters when instructing average readers in oral reading activities. When a student makes an oral reading error an immediate prompter corrects the error when it occurs. The teachers were encouraged to become delayed prompters when working with their assigned prompting condition.

Each teacher received a one-hour training session on an individual basis concerning the use and instructions of the particular prompt. The teachers were instructed to use the assigned prompt whenever possible when instructing the average readers in oral reading activities. The following terms were selected for each prompt:

1. uncorrected
 - a. (Teachers did not attempt to correct student errors but would provide feedback within a five-ten second interval for unknown words.)
2. graphophonic
 - a. "Look closely at the word and see if the word part looks like _____."
 - b. "Look closely at the word and see if the word part sounds like _____."
3. semantic
 - a. "Does the sentence/passage make sense?"
 - b. "Do you think that is what the author meant?"
4. repeat
 - a. "Repeat the sentence/passage."
 - b. "Try that sentence/passage once again."

No additional training was given to the teachers nor was feedback offered during the study concerning their use of the prompt. This insured that all teachers received an equal amount of teacher training with assigned prompts throughout the study.

Observations

The teacher and student subjects were observed one time per week for a 30-minute period during the study. Although observation visits were limited to specific times when the average readers met for reading instruction, the visits were made on different days of the week to insure an equal observation schedule among the classrooms.

Each classroom was visited 14 times during the study for observation purposes. To control for researcher bias a trained coder was used on two visits to each classroom. A tape recorder was used on two additional visits to each classroom after which the researcher coded the responses. The researcher visited the classrooms on the other ten visits.

On each visit a code sheet was used (see Appendix D) to record the possibility for teacher use of the prompt, whether the prompt was adopted, and the result of the prompt on student correction of the oral reading error.

Method of Analysis

All data cards were punched onto IBM cards for analysis. The SAS Introductory Guide for the Social Sciences (Helwig, 1978) was used to aid computation. The computation of data was done by computer analysis at the University of Florida Computing Center, Gainesville, Florida, using the SAS programs for scientific data.

The research hypotheses are stated in null form. An explanation for the statistical analysis is given for the hypotheses.

Hypothesis IA

There will be no significant adoptability by teachers among the different prompting conditions.

Hypothesis IB

There will be no significant adoptability of a particular prompting condition over the others.

An analysis of variance model was used to gauge the significance of the teachers' ability to adopt the particular assigned prompting condition and to determine if one prompting condition showed more significant gains than the others.

These hypotheses were tested at a significance level of $\alpha = .05$.

Hypothesis IIA

There will be no significant achievement gains by students among the different prompting conditions.

Hypothesis IIB

There will be no significant achievement gains by students of a particular prompting condition.

A hierarchical design was used to gauge treatment effects between methods of prompts and student groups. The hierarchical design was used to determine the influence of the social unit of the subjects. Therefore, each score was subjected to a treatment effect, a group effect, and a residual component reflecting error of measurement.

CHAPTER IV
RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Results

A primary purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which teachers adopted a method of teacher prompts when working with average fifth-grade readers in oral reading activities.

A second purpose of this study was to examine the use of teacher prompts as an effective teaching strategy with average readers in fifth grade in oral reading activities. Student achievement gains were studied after students had been exposed to one of four designated teacher prompts for a three-and-one-half month period. The four identified prompts were 1) uncorrected, 2) graphophonic, 3) semantic, and 4) repeat.

The factors involved in the analysis were teacher observations and prompting conditions. Each of the 12 teacher subjects were observed 14 times to gauge the extent to which each adopted the assigned prompt. Three teachers were assigned to each of the four prompting conditions. Table I reported the identification process for teacher assignment to prompting conditions and the prompt IDs.

The results for the testing of each hypothesis were presented along with a discussion of those results.

Hypothesis IA--There will be no significant adoptability by teachers among the different prompting conditions.

Hypothesis IB--There will be no significant adoptability of a particular prompting condition over the others.

Table I. Identification Process for Teacher Assignment to Prompting Conditions and Prompt Identification

Prompt	Prompt ID	Teacher ID
Uncorrected	A	1, 2, 3
Graphophonic	B	4, 5, 6
Semantic	C	7, 8, 9
Repeat	D	10, 11, 12

Percentages were determined between the possibility for teacher adoptability of the prompt and actual adoptability by the teacher for each of the 14 observations for each teacher. Results were recorded in Table II.

The percentages suggested a variance in adoptability among the four prompting conditions. An analysis of variance was used to test for differences in adoptability among the four prompting conditions. Table III reported the results. The value of the F statistic (16.34) indicated that differences did occur among the adoptability of the four prompting conditions at the .05 level.

An analysis of variance was used to test for interaction between the observations and prompting conditions. The value of the F statistics showed no interactions at the .05 level. Table IV reported the results in an abbreviated table.

A Modified Bonferroni test was used to make Pairwise Comparisons among the prompting conditions at the .01 level. The results indicated that the uncorrected and semantic prompting conditions were not significantly different in adoptability between one another. The graphophonic prompting condition was significantly different in adoptability from the uncorrected and semantic prompting conditions. The repeat prompting condition was not significantly different in adoptability from the uncorrected, semantic, nor graphophonic prompting conditions. Table V reported the results. This indicated that the uncorrected and semantic prompting conditions were more readily adopted in the study than were the repeat or graphophonic prompting conditions.

The graphophonic prompting condition was reported as one prompting condition in the initial reported results. The condition, however,

Table II. Proportion of Oral Reading Errors Actually Prompted

Observation	Teacher Identification											
	Uncorrected			Graphophonic			Semantic			Repeat		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	.75	.83	1.00	.76	.85	.50	1.00	.78	.60	.71	.80	.88
2	.75	1.00	.80	1.00	.67	.67	.60	.80	1.00	.92	1.00	.67
3	.90	.83	.80	.33	.40	.75	1.00	.83	.50	.50	1.00	.75
4	1.00	.71	.86	.60	1.00	.40	.75	1.00	.67	.50	.75	.60
5	.63	.67	1.00	.50	.50	.50	.75	1.00	.80	1.00	.50	.75
6	.64	1.00	.60	.50	.40	.29	1.00	.64	.67	.50	.50	.80
7	1.00	.60	.73	.67	.78	.50	.71	.80	.80	.71	.50	.67
8	.83	.77	.75	.57	.33	.67	.67	.67	.80	.71	.50	.67
9	.88	.71	.80	.60	.50	1.00	.75	.75	1.00	1.00	.33	1.00
10	.60	.50	.75	.67	.50	.40	.67	.70	.64	.57	.75	.67
11	.75	.75	1.00	.40	.40	.50	.83	.33	.40	1.00	1.00	.75
12	1.00	.71	.43	1.00	.67	.50	1.00	.80	.57	.33	.60	.00
13	.50	.67	.57	.63	.33	1.00	.83	.33	1.00	.50	.33	.43
14	.73	.50	.75	.56	.43	.29	.80	1.00	.67	.33	.67	.60
Mean By Teacher	.78	.73	.77	.63	.55	.57	.81	.75	.72	.66	.70	.65
Mean By Prompt		.76			.58			.76			.67	

Table III. Analysis of Variance Abbreviated Table for Prompting Conditions

Source	df	SS	MS	F	
Prompt	3	.917	.306	16.34*	.0009
Error	8	.150	.019		

* $p < .05$

Table IV. Analysis of Variance Abbreviated Table for Interactions Between Observations and Prompting Conditions.

Source	df	SS	MS	F	
Observations	13	.767	.059	1.58**	.103
Observations and Prompts	39	1.47	.038	1.01**	.474
Error	104	3.88	.034		

** $p < .05$

Table V. Pairwise Comparisons Among Prompting Conditions
Using a Modified Bonferroni Procedure

Prompt	Mean	Grouping*
Uncorrected	.76	A
Semantic	.76	A
Repeat	.67	A B
Graphophonic	.58	B

* $p < .01$

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

obviously consisted of two integrated but separable processes: the visual or grapho dimension and the auditory or phonic dimension. For the purpose of analysis, the graphophonetic condition was also considered as two separate subcategories.

With the grapho prompt the teacher would prompt the reader to correct an oral reading error by cuing him to examine the error visually. The teacher would use a particular statement to prompt the reader to the visual characteristics: "Look closely at the word and see if the word part looks like _____."

The second category was the phonic prompt which was concerned with the sound characteristics of a word. Using the phonic prompt the teacher would prompt the reader to correct an oral reading error by cuing him to examine the error through sound. The teacher would use the following statement to prompt the reader to the second characteristics: "Look closely at the word and see if the word part sounds like _____."

Since the teachers used either one or a combination of the two subcategories, specific results for each category were reported. Table VI depicted teacher adoptability of the grapho prompt in relation to the remaining three identified prompting conditions (uncorrected, semantic, and repeat). The grapho prompt was used during all but two observations of the graphophonetic prompting condition. Therefore, the results of the grapho prompt are very similar to the overall graphophonetic prompt results.

A mean of .58 was recorded by the grapho prompt which suggested a variance in adoptability when compared with the uncorrected prompting mean (.76), the semantic prompting mean (.76), and the repeat prompting mean (.67).

Table VI. Proportion of Oral Reading Errors Actually Prompted:
Grapho Prompt

Observation	Teacher Identification											
	Uncorrected			Grapho			Semantic			Repeat		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	.75	.83	1.00	.76	.84	.50	1.00	.78	.60	.71	.80	.88
2	.75	1.00	.80	1.00	.67	.67	.60	.80	1.00	.92	1.00	.67
3	.90	.83	.80	.16	.40	.75	1.00	.83	.50	.50	1.00	.75
4	1.00	.71	.86	.60	1.00	.40	.75	1.00	.67	.50	.75	.60
5	.63	.67	1.00	.50	.50	.50	.75	1.00	.80	1.00	.50	.75
6	.64	1.00	.60	.50	.40	.29	1.00	.64	.67	.50	.50	.80
7	1.00	.60	.73	.67	.78	.50	.71	.80	.80	.71	.50	.67
8	.83	.77	.75	.57	.33	.67	.67	.67	.80	.71	1.00	.50
9	.88	.71	.80	.60	.38	1.00	.75	.75	1.00	1.00	.33	1.00
10	.60	.50	.75	.67	.50	.40	.67	.70	.64	.57	.75	.67
11	.75	.75	1.00	.40	.40	.50	.83	.33	.40	1.00	1.00	.75
12	1.00	.71	.43	1.00	.67	.50	1.00	.80	.57	.33	.60	.00
13	.50	.67	.57	.63	.33	1.00	.83	.33	1.00	.50	.33	.43
14	.73	.50	.75	.56	.43	.29	.80	1.00	.67	.33	.67	.60
Mean By Teacher	.78	.73	.77	.62	.55	.57	.81	.75	.72	.66	.70	.65
Mean By Prompt		.76			.58			.76			.67	

An analysis of variance was used to determine if significant differences in adoptability by the teachers did occur with the grapho prompt when compared with the three remaining prompting conditions. Table VII depicted an analysis of variance abbreviated table for the grapho prompt. The value of the F statistic (16.34) indicated that a significant difference did occur.

Pairwise Comparisons among the prompting conditions were made to determine the difference between the grapho prompt and the other three prompting conditions. A Modified Bonferroni procedure was used with a .01 significance level. Table VIII recorded the results which showed that the grapho prompt mean was significantly different from the means of the other three prompting conditions at the .01 level.

The lower mean of the grapho prompt indicated that the prompting condition was not as easily adopted by the teachers in the study as were the other three prompting conditions.

Table IX depicted teacher adoptability of the phonic prompt in relation to the remaining three prompts (uncorrected, semantic, and repeat). The mean of the phonic prompt (.00) suggested low adoptability of the particular prompt by the teachers in the study.

An analysis of variance was used to determine if significant differences in adoptability by the teachers did occur with the phonic prompt in relation to the remaining three prompting conditions. Table X reported the analysis of variance abbreviated table with the value of the F statistic recorded as 25.28 at the .05 level. This indicated that the phonic prompt was significantly different in adoptability from the other three prompting conditions.

Table VII. Analysis of Variance Abbreviated Table for Grapho Prompt

Source	df	SS	MS	F	
Grapho Prompt	8	.917	.306	16.34*	.0009
Error	8	.150	.019		
Observations	13	.767	.060	1.58	.1026
Observations and Prompts	39	1.466	.038	1.01	.4743
Error	104	3.883	.037		

* $p < .05$

Table VIII. Pairwise Comparisons Among Prompting Conditions Using a Modified Bonferroni Procedure:
Grapho Prompt

Prompt	Mean	Grouping*
Uncorrected	.76	A
Semantic	.76	A
Repeat	.67	A B
Grapho	.58	B

* $p < .01$

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Table IX. Proportion of Oral Reading Errors Actually Prompted:
Phonic Prompt

Observation	Teacher Identification											
	Uncorrected			Phonic			Semantic			Repeat		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	.75	.83	1.00	.00	.00	.00	1.00	.78	.60	.71	.80	.88
2	.75	1.00	.80	.00	.00	.00	.60	.80	1.00	.92	1.00	.67
3	.90	.83	.80	.17	.00	.00	1.00	.83	.50	.50	1.00	.75
4	1.00	.71	.86	.00	.00	.00	.75	1.00	.67	.50	.75	.60
5	.63	.67	1.00	.00	.00	.00	.75	1.00	.80	1.00	.50	.75
6	.64	1.00	.60	.00	.00	.00	1.00	.64	.67	.50	.50	.80
7	1.00	.60	.73	.00	.00	.00	.71	.80	.80	.71	.50	.67
8	.83	.77	.75	.00	.00	.00	.67	.67	.80	.71	1.00	.50
9	.88	.71	.80	.00	.12	.00	.75	.75	1.00	1.00	.33	1.00
10	.60	.50	.75	.00	.00	.00	.67	.70	.64	.57	.75	.67
11	.75	.75	1.00	.00	.00	.00	.83	.33	.40	1.00	1.00	.75
12	1.00	.71	.43	.00	.00	.00	1.00	.80	.57	.33	.60	.00
13	.50	.67	.57	.00	.00	.00	.83	.33	1.00	.50	.33	.43
14	.73	.50	.75	.00	.00	.00	.80	1.00	.67	.33	.67	.60
Mean By Teacher	.78	.73	.77	.01	.00	.00	.81	.75	.72	.66	.70	.65
Mean By Prompt		.76			.00			.76			.67	

Table X. Analysis of Variance Abbreviated Table for Phonic Prompt

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Phonic Prompt	1	.655	.655	25.38*
Error	4	.103	.026	
Observations	13	.598	.046	1.15
Observations and Prompts	13	.300	.023	.58
Error	52	2.078	.040	

* $p < .05$

Table XI recorded the results of the Pairwise Comparisons among the phonic prompt and the remaining three prompting conditions. Using a Modified Bonferroni procedure at the .01 level, the results showed that the phonic prompt was different in adoptability than the other three prompts. The results indicated that the phonic prompt was not as readily adopted by the teachers in the study in relation to the other prompts.

Hypothesis IA was rejected. Significant adoptability did exist among the different prompting conditions. The results indicated that the uncorrected and semantic prompting conditions were not different between one another whereas the graphophonic prompt was significantly different from both the uncorrected and semantic prompts. The repeat prompt did not show significant differences in relation to the other three prompting conditions.

Hypothesis IB was rejected. Significant adoptability by teachers of one prompt from another did exist. The results indicated that the uncorrected and semantic prompts were more readily adopted by the teachers than the repeat or graphophonic prompts.

Several factors could have influenced the order of adoptability of the four prompting conditions. The teacher correction statement for particular prompting conditions could have varied in difficulty. The uncorrected teacher prompt required no verbal statement whereas the graphophonic prompting conditions required specific graphic and phonic statements. The semantic and repeat prompting conditions each used a one-statement correction.

The use of instructional materials in oral reading activities could have influenced the order of prompt adoptability. Although each

Table XI. Pairwise Comparisons Among Prompting Conditions Using a Modified Bonferroni Procedure: Phonic Prompt

Prompt	Mean	Grouping*
Uncorrected	.76	A
Semantic	.76	A
Repeat	.67	A B
Phonic	.00	B

$\underline{p} < .01$

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

teacher used a basal text and materials designated for fifth-grade readers, the basal texts were not from the same series or publisher. Readability, content, and vocabulary approach could have differed among the materials used in each classroom. This could have affected the teachers' use of the assigned prompts and the students' ability to handle the material.

A third factor of concern in the order of teacher adoptability of the prompting conditions was the actual use of the assigned prompt when the researcher was not visiting the individual classrooms. Although each teacher subject was instructed to use the assigned prompt as often as possible when correcting the average students' oral reading errors, the researcher could not be certain that the instructions were carried out during the instructional reading periods when the researcher was not present. This could have affected the amount of practice each teacher received in the use of the assigned prompt and the student achievement gains.

A fourth consideration of the results of the order of teacher adoptability of the prompting conditions was the grouping of students among the six schools. Certain teacher subjects taught in a departmentalized situation and taught only reading to the entire fifth-grade population. This particular grouping situation could have provided the teachers with more opportunity to practice the assigned prompt than teachers in a self-contained classroom situation who taught reading on a lesser time plan.

A fifth factor could have been the interest of individual teachers in participating in the study. Although the teacher subjects were willing to participate at the beginning of the study, certain teachers

showed a lack of interest in using the assigned prompt towards the conclusion of the study. This could have affected the teachers' adoptability of the assigned prompt.

A final consideration could have been the control of the students by individual teachers to maintain order in certain classrooms. Two particular teachers showed difficulty in managing student behavior which affected the amount of time spent on actual instruction. Thus, teacher adoptability of particular prompting conditions could have been affected.

Hypothesis IIA stated that there would be no significant achievement gains by students between the different prompting conditions.

Hypothesis IIB stated that there would be no significant achievement gains by students of a particular prompting condition.

Table XII depicted the means and standard deviations for student scores from an informal reading inventory. As discussed in Chapter III, the IRI score values were arbitrarily assigned as 5.0, 6.0, and 7.0 based upon the grade levels the passages represented. The pretest and posttest means for each prompting condition were recorded. Table XIII recorded the number of student subjects in the final analysis, the mean scores, and standard deviations for student posttest scores by each teacher.

Table XIV recorded the frequency and percentage of students on instructional reading levels 5, 6, and 7 at the conclusion of the study. The results indicated that of the 67 student subjects included in the final analysis, 22 were on the fifth-grade instructional reading level, 42 were on the sixth-grade instructional reading level, and 3 were on the seventh-grade instructional reading level.

Table XII. Means and Standard Deviations for IRI Scores

	Pretest		Posttest	
	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S
Prompt	5.00	0	6.06	.57
Uncorrected	5.00	0	5.71	.47
Graphophonic	5.00	0	5.66	.49
Semantic	5.00	0	5.44	.51
Repeat	5.00	0		

Table XIII. Mean and Standard Deviations of Student IRI Scores by Teacher

Prompt	Teacher ID	N	Mean	Standard Deviations
Uncorrected	1	6	6.14	.41
	2	4	5.75	.50
	3	6	6.17	.75
Graphophonic	4	6	5.67	.52
	5	6	5.67	.52
	6	5	5.80	.45
Semantic	7	6	6.00	.45
	8	6	5.33	.00
	9	6	5.67	.52
Repeat	10	5	5.40	.55
	11	5	5.60	.55
	12	6	5.33	.52

Table XIV. Frequency and Percentage of Students: Prompting Condition by Instructional Reading Levels

Prompt	Instructional Reading Levels			TOTAL
	5	6	7	
Uncorrected	2 2.99	11 16.42	3 4.48	16 23.88
Graphophonic	5 7.46	12 17.91	0 0.00	17 25.37
Semantic	6 8.96	12 17.91	0 0.00	18 26.87
Repeat	9 13.43	7 10.45	0 0.00	16 23.88
TOTAL	22 32.84	42 62.69	3 4.48	67 100.00

This indicated that 33% of the student subjects scored on the fifth-grade instructional reading level, 63% scored on the sixth-grade instructional reading level, and 4% scored on the seventh-grade instructional reading level. The results suggested that more students were on a sixth-grade instructional reading level at the conclusion of the study than on a fifth-grade or seventh-grade instructional reading level. Since average readers at the end of fifth grade would be expected to be on a 5.9 instructional reading level, the results indicated that achievement gains for the majority of the student subjects were average.

An analysis of variance was used to test for significant differences in student achievement gains within prompting conditions. Table XV reported the results. The value of the F statistic (3.48) indicated that significant differences in student achievement gains were recorded among the different prompting conditions.

Duncan's Multiple Range Test was used to determine which prompting condition realized significant student achievement gains in relation to the others at the .05 level. Table XVI recorded the results which indicated that student achievement gains were significantly higher for the uncorrected prompting condition. The graphophonic, semantic, and repeat prompting conditions recorded no significant differences in student achievement gains in relation to one another.

Pairwise Comparisons using the Bonferroni T-test at the .01 level were conducted to determine differences in student achievement gains among the different prompting conditions. The results showed a significant difference between the uncorrected prompting condition and the

Table XV. Analysis of Variance Abbreviated Table Within Prompting Conditions.

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Prompt	3	2.711	.904	3.48*
Teachers Within a Prompt	8	2.121	.265	1.02**
Error	55	14.283	.259	

*.05 < p < .10

** p < .05

Table XVI. Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Variable IRI

Prompt	N	Mean	Grouping*
Uncorrected	16	6.06	A
Graphophonic	17	5.71	B
Semantic	18	5.66	B
Repeat	16	5.44	B

$p < .05$

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

three remaining prompting conditions. No significant differences were recorded among the other prompting conditions.

Hypothesis IIA was rejected. Significant achievement gains were recorded between the different prompting conditions.

Hypothesis IIB was rejected. Significant achievement gains were recorded by students of a particular prompting condition. The uncorrected prompt produced significant student achievement gains whereas the graphophonic, semantic, and repeat prompting conditions did not.

Summary and Discussions

A primary consideration of the study was to examine the extent to which teachers adopted a method of teacher prompts when working with average fifth-grade readers in oral reading activities.

A second purpose of the study was to examine the use of teacher prompts as an effective teaching strategy with average readers in fifth grade in oral reading activities. Student achievement gains were studied after students had been exposed to one of four designated teacher prompts for a three-and-one-half month period. The four designated prompts were 1) uncorrected, 2) graphophonic, 3) semantic, and 4) repeat.

The reported results indicated a variance in adoptability among the four prompting conditions. The uncorrected and semantic prompting conditions showed the highest percentages between possibility for teacher adoptability and actual adoptability by the teacher for each of the 14 observations for each teacher. The repeat prompt showed the third highest percentages between the possibility for teacher

adoptability and actual adoptability by the teacher. The grapho-
phonic prompt showed the fourth highest percentages. The uncorrected
and semantic prompts recorded significant adoptability in relation to
the other three prompts whereas the repeat prompt showed no difference.
The graphophonic prompt recorded no significance in adoptability in the
study.

The findings differed with the investigations by Brady and Lynch
(1976) who found that teachers would not prompt students in oral reading
errors in actual practice even though the concept of oral prompts was
accepted in concept. The difference in findings could be a result of
the extended observation period of this research study compared with a
shorter observation period designed by Brady and Lynch.

Pehrsson (1974) found similar results with this researcher. He
maintained that particular prompts could be adopted by teachers if a
meaning orientation was established between teacher and student.
Gumperz and Hernandez-Chavez (1972) also found that teachers could
adopt particular prompting conditions although the amount and type
would vary from teacher to teacher.

The graphophonic prompting condition was divided into two sub-
categories for purposes of further analysis. The grapho subcategory
was concerned with the visual characteristics of the word part when
cuing a student that an oral reading error had occurred. The phonic
subcategory was concerned with the sound characteristics of the word
part when an oral reading error occurred.

The results indicated a strong preference for the grapho sub-
category rather than for the phonic subcategory. The three teachers

who were assigned to the graphophonic prompting condition used the grapho prompt 40 times of the total 42 observations. This would indicate that the teachers who adopted the graphophonic prompt approached the correction of student oral reading errors from a visual standpoint rather than from a phonic standpoint. These results coincided with the findings of Niles (1979) who reported that teachers relied mainly on graphic level information rather than phonic information. Indications supported the idea that the grapho prompt may be more effective than the phonic prompt with intermediate-aged readers. The results could not necessarily be applied to primary-aged readers, however.

The results of the student achievement gains suggested that students who were prompted by the uncorrected condition showed the highest gain. The graphophonic, semantic, and repeat prompts yielded very similar achievement gains by the students assigned to those prompting conditions although none produced significant student achievement gains. The results indicated that the three prompting conditions were not facilitative in producing significant student achievement gains during the study.

The results indicated that teachers could adopt a designated prompting condition over a three-and-one-half month period with minimal training. The uncorrected and semantic prompts were the most easily adopted prompts with the repeat prompt the third most easily adopted prompt. The graphophonic prompt was fourth in adoptability.

The results differed with the findings of Niles (1979) who indicated that the semantic, repeat and uncorrected conditions produced similar results with the repeat prompt producing much lower results.

Bawden, Burke and Duffy (1979) stated that students could achieve in correction of oral reading errors if more than one identified prompting condition was used. Therefore, identification of the effectiveness of one prompting condition over the others may produce insignificant results when compared with overall student achievement gains.

The study was effective in identifying the possibility that teachers could adopt a particular prompting condition with minimal training over a three-and-one-half month period when working with average readers in the fifth grade. Certain prompting conditions were found to be more readily adopted by the teachers in the study. Significant achievement gains by average fifth-grade readers in oral reading activities were found for the uncorrected prompting condition. The study did provide evidence that teacher prompts in oral reading activities on the fifth-grade level could promote instruction of oral reading strategies which could aid students to become more self-sufficient readers.

CHAPTER V
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A primary purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which teachers adopted a method of teacher prompts when working with average fifth-grade readers in oral reading activities.

A second purpose of this study was to examine the use of teacher prompts as an effective teaching strategy with average fifth-grade readers in oral reading activities. Student achievement gains were studied after students had been exposed to one of four designated teacher prompts for a three-and-one-half month period. The four identified prompts were 1) uncorrected, 2) graphophonic, 3) semantic, and 4) repeat.

Three main objectives were included in the investigation.

1. Teacher ability to adopt a prompting condition when correcting student oral reading errors.
2. Student achievement gains when teacher prompts were used in oral reading activities.
3. Effectiveness of four designated conditions among one another.

The six schools selected for the study represented the three different socioeconomic levels as determined by available data on free and reduced lunch counts for each school. All schools contained kindergarten through grade six.

Twelve teachers were selected from six schools and were assigned to one of four oral prompt conditions (uncorrected, graphophonic,

semantic, or repeat). A one-hour training session was given to each teacher on an individual basis concerning the proper use of the assigned prompt when correcting student oral reading errors. The teachers were instructed to use the prompt as often as possible when correcting the average students' oral reading errors during the daily 30-minute instructional period.

The student subjects were 72 fifth-grade students who were selected from a larger population from six schools in Volusia County, Florida, during the 1980-1981 school year. The students were selected from a pool of average fifth-grade readers with six students selected from each of 12 classrooms. Sixty-seven students were included in the final analysis.

All student subjects were determined to be average readers from scores obtained from the Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills (reading subtests) and from scores on an informal reading inventory (using Powell criteria). The student scores from the informal reading inventory were recorded as 5.0, 6.0, or 7.0 to designate grade levels and were used to determine instructional reading levels. The researcher again administered an informal reading inventory at the conclusion of the study to determine possible changes in instructional reading levels.

During the three-and-one-half month study all teacher and student subjects were observed 14 times to determine the extent to which each teacher adopted the assigned prompt and the effect of the prompting conditions on the students' oral reading correction process. The researcher used a coding process to examine the percentage of times the individual teachers adopted the assigned prompt compared with the possibility for adopting the prompt.

Four hypotheses were tested in the study.

1. Hypothesis IA stated that there would be no differences in adoptability by teachers among the different prompting conditions.

2. Hypothesis IB stated that there would be no significant adoptability of a particular prompting condition over the others.

Percentage scores were determined between the possibility for teacher adoptability of the prompt and actual adoptability by teachers for each of the 14 observations for each teacher.

An analysis of variance was used to test for differences in adoptability among the four prompting conditions at the .05 level. Since the test indicated that differences did occur, Hypothesis IA was rejected.

A Modified Bonferroni test was used to make Pairwise Comparisons among the prompting conditions at the .01 level. The results indicated that the uncorrected and semantic prompting conditions were not significantly different from one another in adoptability by the teachers in the study. The repeat prompt was not significantly different from the other three prompts in adoptability. The graphophonic prompt was significantly different from the other three prompts. The results indicated that the uncorrected and semantic prompting conditions were more readily adopted by the teachers in the study than were the repeat or graphophonic prompts. Therefore, Hypothesis IB was rejected. Significant adoptability of a particular prompting condition over the others did occur.

Two factors could have influenced the inability of the teachers to adopt the graphophonic prompting condition to a significant degree. The particular prompt required specific grapho and phonic statements whereas the other three prompts required a brief correction statement by the teachers.

The ages of the student subjects could have also influenced the low adoptability of the graphophonic prompt. Whereas younger readers often approach unfamiliar words using phonetic skills, more mature readers often use a contextual approach. Therefore, the average readers in the study relied most often on the uncorrected, semantic, or repeat prompting conditions than the graphophonic prompting condition.

3. Hypothesis IIA stated that there would be no significant achievement gains by students between the different prompting conditions.

4. Hypothesis IIB stated that there would be no significant achievement gains by students of a particular prompting condition.

An analysis of variance was used to test for significant differences in student achievement gains among the prompting conditions at the .05 level. Since the test indicated that differences did occur, Hypothesis IIA was rejected.

The Duncan Multiple Range Test was used to determine which prompting condition realized significant student achievement gains at the .05 level. The results indicated that student achievement gains were significantly higher for the uncorrected prompting condition. The graphophonic, semantic, and repeat prompting conditions recorded no significant differences in student achievement gains. Therefore, Hypothesis IIB was rejected.

The results reflected the achievement gains of students in the study and should not be readily compared with students in other situations. Since the only significant achievement gains were recorded for students in the uncorrected prompting group, caution should be given in making widespread conclusions or applications as to the effectiveness of one prompting condition over another to gauge student achievement gains.

The results of the study indicated that the teacher subjects could adopt assigned prompts after a one-hour training session although particular prompts would be more readily adopted than others. The results also indicated that significant achievement gains could be realized by the average fifth-grade readers in the study during a three-and-one-half month period although for only one prompting condition.

APPENDIX A
SAN DIEGO QUICK ASSESSMENT WORD LISTS

Graded Word Lists*

<u>PP</u>	<u>Primer</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>
see	you	road	our	city
play	come	live	please	middle
me	not	thank	myself	moment
at	with	when	town	frightened
run	jump	bigger	early	exclaimed
go	help	how	send	several
and	is	always	wide	lonely
look	work	night	believe	drew
can	are	spring	quietly	since
here	this	today	carefully	straight
<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	
decided	scanty	bridge	amber	
served	business	commercial	dominion	
amazed	develop	abolish	sundry	
silent	considered	trucker	capillary	
wrecked	discussed	apparatus	impetuous	
improved	behaved	elementary	blight	
certainly	splendid	comment	wrest	
entered	acquainted	necessity	enumerate	
realized	escaped	gallery	daunted	
interrupted	grim	relativity	condescend	
<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	
capacious	conscientious	zany	galore	
limitation	isolation	jerkin	rotunda	
pretext	molecule	nausea	capitalism	
intrigue	ritual	gratuitous	prevaricate	
delusion	momentous	linear	risible	
immaculate	vulnerable	inept	exonerate	
ascent	kinship	legality	superannuate	
acrid	conservatism	aspen	luxuriate	
binocular	jaunty	amnesty	piebald	
embankment	inventive	barometer	crunch	

*LaPray, Margaret and Ross, Ramon, "The Graded Word List: Quick Gauge of Reading Ability." Journal of Reading. Vol. 12, No. 4, January, 1969, pp. 305-307.

APPENDIX B
INFORMAL READING INVENTORY

New Days and Deeds (186 words)

Initial procedure

A boy is studying for something he thinks is important. Read aloud from here to here to find out what it is, and how his family feels about it.

Robert Beacham sat with his eyes closed so that he could not see the dictionary page before him. He spelled aloud, "Re-spon-"

Just then Mrs. Beacham called from the farm kitchen. "Bobby! Come to supper."

The boy was absorbed in his study and did not hear the call. He continued spelling. "-si-bil-i-ty."

His brother bellowed, "Supper, Bobby!"

This time Robert heard. He marched out of the room spelling, "Re-spon-si-bil-i-ty."

Striding into the warm country kitchen, he exclaimed, "Look here, Dick! Please quit calling me Bobby. Anybody who can spell a big word like responsibility is no baby."

Dick Beacham walked over to the table, carrying a pitcher of milk. "Anybody who can spell that word really should know what it means," he teased. "I noticed, Bobby, that you haven't fed the hens or the calves. You haven't done any of your chores."

Robert scowled and clenched his fist. He said angrily to his eighteen-year-old brother, "My studying for the spelling match at school is more important than chores. Nothing on this whole big farm is as important as that spell-down--to me, at least."

Comprehension check

1. Why was Robert studying spelling? (for contest, match)
2. What does the word "absorbed" mean? (very interested)
3. Why did Dick say, "anybody who can spell that word really should know what it means?" (Bobby wasn't doing his chores, taking care of his responsibilities)
4. Where did Bobby live? (farm)
5. What does the word "bellowed" mean? (called very loudly)
6. How did Robert show he was angry? (scowled, clenched his fist)

5th Recapitulation	
Silent or Oral	
WR	_____ %
Comp.	_____ %
Time	_____ sec
WPM	_____

SIXTH READER (6¹)

New People and Progress. Pages 60-61 (190 words)

Initial procedure

Brad is ready to take part in a contest, but something unexpected happens. Read orally from here to here to find out what happened.

Meanwhile, in one of the cottages at Derbytown, Brad was talking earnestly with Mr. Rod Black of the Bay City Times-Post. This newspaper had sponsored the soapbox races in Brad's home town. The two were discussing a letter, signed "One Who Knows," that had been received yesterday by the Derby officials. It stated that Brad's father had helped Brad build his racer, and now the officials were challenging Brad's right to race.

The statement in the letter was not true, and it really hurt. Though Brad had said nothing about it, he was pretty sure that Pidge had written the letter because of something that had happened two months ago.

"Well, don't worry," said the newspaperman as he rose to leave the cottage. "The inspectors are fair, and they don't want to doubt your word. But there have been a few cases where the contestants have said they made their racers when they didn't. So the inspectors can't afford to overlook any hint of cheating. I'm sure, though,

that you passed the test they gave you
 this morning at the trade school on
 using tools needed to build a racer."

Comprehension check

1. Why were they challenging Brad's right to race? (letter said he had help building his racer)
2. What is a "Derby"? (race)
3. Why do you think they called the place where Brad stayed "Derbytown"? (where those in the race lived, where race was held)
4. Who sponsored the race in Brad's home town? (newspaper)
5. What does the word "contestant" mean? (one who competes)
6. Who did Brad think wrote the letter? (Pidge)
7. What does the word "earnestly" mean? (seriously)
8. What kind of test did Brad take to help prove he built the racer? (use of tools)

6th Recapitulation	
Silent or oral	
WR _____	%
Comp. _____	%
Time _____	sec
WPM _____	

SEVENTH READER (7¹)

Parades. Pages 17-18 (182 words)

Initial procedure

Muffy would like to play in the City Orchestra, but she has one fault. Read orally from here to here to discover what her musical and social troubles are.

For her age, she was an excellent musician. She could read music easily at first sight, and no one had to drive her to do her practicing. She took good care of her instrument, always soaking the reed so that it would function properly in the oboe's mouthpiece. But every time she had to play a solo, she either produced a series of wild squeaks or remained mute while the accompaniment plunked on alone.

When she met Lucinda later, she found her friend full of cahtter about the recital to be held that night at the high school. There was to be a party afterwards for all the participants.

"What are you going to wear?" Lucinda demanded. "My mother got me a new pink taffeta dress. And Don Everta asked me to go with him to the party. Did anyone ask you?"

Muffy shook her head. "I guess I'll wear my white pique," she said tiredly.

"But you've worn that all summer everywhere you've gone!" Lucinda wailed. "Why, you've--"

"Who cares about clothes--or dates?" cried Muffy. "Stop picking on me."

Comprehension check

1. What was Muffy's musical trouble? (couldn't play a solo)
2. How can you tell she liked music? (practiced willingly, took care of instrument)
3. Why did Muffy soak the reed? (so it would work properly)
4. What does the word "mute" mean? (silent)
5. What part of the story tells you that the oboe is not a string instrument? (mouthpiece, reed)
6. What is a recital? (musical program)
7. About how old was Muffy? (13/18, high school age)
Why do you think so? (dating, recital at high school)
8. What is a participant? (one who takes part)

7th Recapitulation	
Silent or oral	
WR _____	%
Comp. _____	%
Time _____	sec
WPM _____	

APPENDIX C
POWELL CRITERIA

Comprehension Score as a Percentage

		Number of questions asked							
		4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
		(Percent)							
Number answered correctly:	1/2	13	10	8	7	6	6	5	
	1	25	20	17	14	13	11	10	
	1 1/2	38	30	25	21	19	17	15	
	2	50	40	33	29	25	22	20	
	2 1/2	63	50	42	36	31	28	25	
	3	75	60	50	43	38	33	30	
	3 1/2	88	70	58	50	44	39	35	
	4	100	80	67	57	50	44	40	
	4 1/2		90	75	64	56	50	45	
	5		100	83	71	63	56	50	
	5 1/2			92	79	69	61	55	
	6			100	86	75	67	60	
	6 1/2				93	81	72	65	
	7				100	88	78	70	
	7 1/2					93	83	75	
	8					100	89	80	
	8 1/2	The numbers in the table are percentages rounded to whole numbers.						94	85
	9						100	90	
	9 1/2							95	
	10							100	

Finding Independent, Instructional, and Frustration Levels

When each passage has been tallied, and when the word recognition error ratios and the comprehension percentages have been computed, the scores should be entered in a summary table as in the following example.

Passage	W.R. Ratio	Level	Comp. %	Level
Primer	1/36		85	
1 ²	1/22		83	
2 ¹	1/15		75	
3 ¹	1/ 5		44	

The child's independent, instructional, and frustration levels may now be ascertained by reference to the following criteria. They should be found and entered in the spaces in the summary table.

Examples of summary tables for the total test record, word recognition errors, and comprehension responses may be found in the appendix.

Criteria for Ascertaining Reading Levels

1. COMPREHENSION:

For passages at all graded levels.

90% or better = Independent level
 70% - 89% = Instructional level
 69% or less = Frustration level

2. WORD RECOGNITION:

a. For passages at graded levels 1 and 2.

1 error or less per 50 running words = Independent
 1 error per 8 to 1 error per 49
 running words = Instructional
 1 error or more per 7 running words = Frustration

b. For passages at graded levels 3, 4 and 5.

1 error or less per 50 running words = Independent
1 error per 13 to 1 error per 49
 running words = Instructional
1 error or more per 12 running words = Frustration

c. For passages at graded level 6 and above.

1 error or less per 50 running words = Independent
1 error per 18 to 1 error per 49
 running words = Instructional
1 error or more per 17 running words = Frustration

Informal Reading Inventory
Scoring Criteria by Performance Level
and Condition

	Diagnosis		Developmental Teaching		Lesson Evaluation	
	W/R	Comp.	W/R	Comp.	W/R	Comp.
Independent Level						
1 - 2	1/17+	80+	1/17+	80+	1/17+	80+
3 - 5	1/27+	85+	1/27+	85+	1/27+	85+
6+	1/35+	90+	1/35+	90+	1/36+	90+
Instructional Level						
1 - 2	1/8 -1/16	55-80	1/12-1/16	70-80	Converted to Independent Level	
3 - 5	1/13-1/26	60-86	1/20-1/26	75-85		
6+	1/18-1/35	65-90	1/26-1/36	80-90		
Frustration Level						
1 - 2	1/7 -	55-	1/11-	70-		
3 - 5	1/12-	60-	1/11-	75-		
6+	1/17-	65-	1/25-	80-		

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APPENDIX D
CODING SHEET FOR RECORDING
TEACHERS' ADOPTABILITY OF
ASSIGNED PROMPTS

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Patricia Seely attended public school in Meriden, Connecticut, through the second grade. She and her family moved to Daytona Beach, Florida, where she continued her schooling. She graduated from Seabreeze Senior High School in 1968.

Patricia attended Clemson University and graduated from Stetson University in May, 1972, with a bachelor's degree in elementary education.

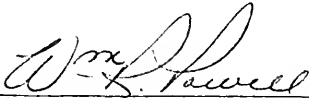
For the next four years she taught first-graders in Andover, New Jersey. She moved to Daytona Beach, Florida, in 1976 and taught sixth-graders for two-and-one-half years.

In 1977, she entered Florida Technological University and began work on a master's degree in reading. She completed her master's work in 1978 and worked as a supervisor of basic skills for the North East Florida Educational Consortium. Patricia also served as a part-time instructor of education at Daytona Beach Community College and as a professional reviewer for the Professional Practices Council of the Florida Department of Education.

In September of 1979, she entered the Ph.D. program in curriculum and instruction at the University of Florida. While working on her degree she worked as an educational consultant for the Volusia County School System. She also worked as a teaching assistant at the University of Florida and as an adjunct professor at the University of Central Florida.

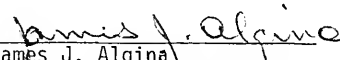
After completing requirements for the Ph.D. in August, 1981, Patricia became an assistant professor of curriculum and instruction at the University of West Florida.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



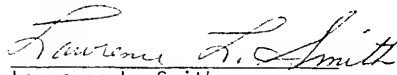
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I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



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This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Division of Curriculum and Instruction in the College of Education and to the Graduate Council, and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

August 1981

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