

EFFECTS OF THREE PREVIEWING TACTICS  
ON THE ORAL READING PERFORMANCE  
OF FOURTH-GRADE STUDENTS

by

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## ABSTRACT

This study investigated the effects of three previewing tactics on the oral reading performance of 12 fourth grade students. The oral reading performances examined were rate of oral reading and word recognition errors. The oral reading performance of each student was evaluated for four conditions: oral previewing, silent previewing, listening while reading previewing, and no previewing.

Each student previewed a passage orally at his instructional level and then reread it orally while it was taped for later evaluation. This procedure was repeated for silent previewing and for listening while reading previewing. In addition, each student read orally for taping a passage that had not been previewed. Reading rate and word recognition error scores were obtained from later evaluation of the taped oral readings.

Results showed a significant difference in reading rate for all three previewing methods when compared to the no previewing condition. Data obtained from this study indicated no significant difference between the number of word recognition errors made without previewing and the number of word recognition errors made after oral, silent, or listening while reading previewing.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The primary goal of reading is to obtain meaning. This is to be accomplished fluently and at a rate appropriate for the material. For the good reader the actual act of reading becomes an automatic behavior, except when he encounters new or difficult words. For the poor reader a great deal of attention must be given to the process aspects of reading. Theoretically, providing a student with a tactic that will enable him to decode rapidly and correctly will better enable him to understand what he reads.

Smith (1973) stated that to a certain extent a reader must understand material read before many words can be decoded successfully. Very often in the classroom establishing this familiarity with the text can be accomplished through prereading, or previewing, the material. For purposes of the present study previewing was defined as any method which enables a student to read or listen to a selection prior to instruction or testing. This study focused on three types of previewing used to improve reading skills: oral previewing, silent previewing, and previewing by listening while reading.

Research findings regarding any method of previewing, or prereading, are mixed. Opinions as to the effectiveness of oral prereading conflict. Brecht (1977) found that third, fourth, and fifth grade students scored at least one grade level higher on an informal reading inventory when rated on oral rereading than on oral reading from sight. This contradicted Buswell's (1947) opinion that children comprehend best when reading silently, and that oral reading should almost be eliminated from the classroom. Building reading fluency was given as the objective of Samuel's (1979) strong support for rereading.

Gates (1947) recommended that students read assignments silently before oral reading sessions. Glenn (1971) later reported that oral reading accuracy was not significantly improved when silent reading preceded oral reading.

Cody's (1962) findings indicated that when a child both listened to and looked at material he was aided more than when he just listened to it read. This seemed to contradict earlier recommendations that children could greatly profit from just being read to.

Although previous research has dealt with each of these previewing tactics, few studies have examined more than one previewing method. This study dealt with two questions: Does previewing significantly affect oral



reading rate? Does previewing significantly affect word recognition?

### Statement of the Problem

The major purpose of the present study was to investigate the effects, if any, of student previewing of a passage prior to reading it orally. Data for rate and word recognition errors were compared between no previewing and oral, silent, and listening while reading previewing by examining the oral reading performance of fourth graders.

### Definition of Terms

Oral reading. Oral reading referred to the process of changing printed symbols into spoken language.

Chronological age. Chronological age referred to the child's age in months and years at the time the oral reading performance test was given.

Word recognition errors. Word recognition errors were used as measures of oral reading performance. Substitutions, mispronunciations, insertions, omissions, examiner pronounced words, punctuation omitted or inserted, hesitations, and repetitions were noted as errors. These performances were more specifically described as follows:

- (a) Substitutions were real words that were used in place of the text word, making sense or not.

- (b) Mispronunciations were nonsense words produced by one of the following: (1) false accenting, (2) wrong pronunciation of vowels or consonants, or (3) omission, addition, or insertion of one or more letters.
- (c) Insertions were a word or words added to the existing text.
- (d) Omissions were deleted portions of the text, either a word or words.
- (e) Examiner pronounced words were words pronounced by the examiner after the student made no audible effort to pronounce the word.
- (f) Punctuation omitted or inserted errors were periods, commas, or question marks that the student ignored or added to the reading material.
- (g) Hesitations were pauses made by the student that were not long enough to require prompting by the examiner.
- (h) Repetitions were successive recurrences of the same word or phrase.

Oral previewing. During oral previewing the examiner listened to the student read the passage orally, supplying feedback on errors. The student was then asked to reread the same passage while it was taped for data collection.

Silent previewing. During silent previewing the student was told that as he read the passage silently he could ask for pronunciation of any unfamiliar words. After the silent previewing the student read orally the same passage as it was taped.

Listening while reading previewing. During the listening while reading previewing the examiner read the passage orally to the student as he followed along in his own text. The student then reread the passage orally while it was taped.

No previewing. During the no previewing condition the student was given a passage to read orally-at-sight while it was taped.

Oral reading performance. Oral reading performance included rate of reading material at the student's instructional level as well as word recognition in context.

### Hypotheses

1. There is no significant difference between oral reading rate without previewing and oral reading rate after oral, silent, or listening while reading previewing.
2. There is no significant difference between the number of word recognition errors made without previewing and the number of word recognition errors made after oral, silent, or listening while reading previewing.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### Introduction

Studies dealing with the effects of previewing on oral reading performance are limited and inconclusive. Differences in previewing methods used, error categories, and grade levels involved make comparisons across these studies difficult.

Selection of research for review was determined by the relationship of that research to the topic of previewing. The relationship of silent reading to oral reading, and the relationship of listening to both oral and silent reading were considered essential elements when comparing previewing methods and were therefore included. Some studies reviewed in this search of literature measured changes in reading comprehension. These were considered meaningful to the present study, although it is concerned only with measurement of reading rate and word recognition errors.

Specific descriptors involved in the search conducted for studies related to previewing were: prereading, auditing, reading processes, reading rate, reading diagnosis, reading skills, reading improvement, oral

reading, and silent reading. In an attempt to thoroughly search the literature pertaining to previewing, the investigator first consulted the Thesaurus of ERIC Descriptors, obtaining only a few possible areas from which related studies could be found. Next followed a search of the annual cumulation editions of Resources in Education covering the years 1970 through 1981. Several studies included in the literature review were found by consulting the Social Sciences Citation Index after finding references to names in unpublished research (Christensen, 1974; Eaton, Lovitt, Sayre, and Lynch, 1974; Glenn, 1974). The International Reading Association's annual Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading, (July 1, 1979 to June 30, 1980) was also consulted. A limited number of studies identified were excluded from review due to lack of availability.

Literature found to be relevant to the present study is reviewed below. First the roles of silent and oral reading are discussed. Then the relationship of listening to reading is investigated and studies are cited. Last, studies using oral, silent, or listening rereading, or previewing, are presented.

#### Oral Versus Silent Reading

Until the early 1900's reading in the elementary school was almost exclusively oral reading. Everyday

situations in which reading material was scarce and time was limited necessitated that families gather together in the evening as someone read the Bible or other available books.

This oral reading practice fell under criticism during the early 1920's. Enough evidence was produced to convince educators that both the rate and the comprehension of silent reading was greater than that of oral reading. Studies of readers' eye movements showed more fixations, more regressions, and fixations of longer duration when reading orally than when reading silently (Judd and Buswell, 1922; Swanson, 1937).

Some scholars, however, considered this difference in eye movement and reading speed relatively superficial and due only to the overt vocalization of oral reading (Rogers, 1937).

Gray (1936) summed up the early 1900's educators' attitudes when he wrote that silent reading was considered more economical and efficient than oral reading. He felt that the ever-expanding school curriculum between 1915 and 1930 demanded the efficiency of silent reading.

In Chicago Public Schools in 1935 McDade (1937) conducted experiments supporting a non-oral method of teaching reading. From the very beginning reading instruction was to be silent. Emphasis was on meaning and phrases, sentences, or passages served as the units of instruction.

Two control groups were used for posttest comparison. One of these control groups emphasized oral reading with a heavy phonics emphasis. The other control group received an ordinary basal program with both oral and silent reading instruction. Using a posttest-only design, McDade concluded that the silent reading program neither favored nor penalized students at either end of the intelligence spectrum. With the posttest-only design, there was no evidence that the groups had been equivalent in reading at the beginning of the experiment.

Although this experiment received criticism and failed to produce statistically significant evidence for support of the non-oral reading method, it received much support. Buswell (1945) argued that adequate preparation of teachers and development of materials had been handicaps for this new method. He supported its continuation and declared oral reading in the primary grades harmful to silent reading development.

In the late 1930's a renewed interest in oral reading occurred, partly because of increased occupations in the business, political, and entertainment fields, requiring skilled oral readers. Gray (1936) concluded that the best reading results were achieved through a well-balanced program which stressed both oral and silent reading activities.

During the last fifty years the composition of what is considered a properly balanced reading program has varied. This shifting of emphasis, first to oral reading and then a few years later back to stronger silent reading programs, was brought about by changing social conditions and by new methods of testing and research.

Part of the movement back and forth between oral reading emphasis and silent reading stemmed from a lack of understanding regarding the nature of the reading processes. Confusion also resulted when oral reading behavior was used to infer the nature of the silent reading process. Weber's survey (1968) reviewed the research on similarities and differences between oral and silent reading. She found no significant evidence indicating that these processes were identical.

#### Listening and Reading

The relationship of listening to reading was the topic of a study done by Young (1953) comparing the vocabulary growth of college students. The experimental design of the study was as follows: 150 students were given The Cooperative Vocabulary Test, Form Q. Young then wrote a series of stories in which all 210 words from the vocabulary test were used in meaningful context. One group of approximately 30 students was given a series of five stories to read silently. Another group was



given the same series of five stories to read orally, and the final group listened to the same series of stories from a tape recorder. After the groups had each experienced the reading material in one of the preceding ways, they were again given the vocabulary test. Pretest and posttest scores for all groups were then computed and statistically compared. Vocabulary gains occurred in all three groups. The mean gain by the listening group was very significantly smaller than that of either of the other groups. Vocabulary gains by subjects reading aloud were greater than those of both of the other groups, but not significantly greater than the subjects who silently read the materials.

A 1962 study by Cody in two Catholic girl's high schools in New York City compared students' recall of biographical information using the following modes: silent reading, simultaneous reading and listening, listening, and note-taking. The selections used were biographies each approximately 1200 words long. Retention was measured by a multiple choice test devised by the investigator. The subjects were arranged at random into four groups of equal size. The Nelson-Denny Reading Test was administered to appraise the reading ability of each of the groups. The reading selections and the methods used were rotated among the four groups in a Graeco-Latin Square experimental design to take advantage of all

combinations of the four selections and the four methods used. The first method consisted of having the subjects read the selection silently at their own rate. The second method consisted of the investigator reading the selection while the subjects read it silently. The third method consisted of the subjects listening as the investigator read a selection. The fourth method consisted of the students listening and taking notes as the investigator read a selection. The findings of the study indicated that the most advantageous method of presentation of the selections had been the silent reading method. The method of silent reading combined with listening was not significantly better than silent reading alone. However, it was significantly more advantageous than listening alone or listening and note-taking.

Skiffington (1965) investigated the effect of improvement in auding ability on the reading achievement of average eighth-grade students. He used the term auding to mean the process of listening, recognizing, and interpreting or comprehending spoken language. Two groups were initially given standardized tests of reading achievement, auding achievement, and intelligence. One group then received 26 taped auding training exercises. Following this, alternate forms of the standardized tests were administered. It was concluded that the eighth-grade pupils who had received the auding training made a

significantly greater auding achievement gain than the pupils who had not received auding training. The same result was found for gain in reading achievement for the group that had received the auding training. Skiffington observed that the reading achievement gains were in paragraph comprehension and alphabetizing. No significant differences were found in reading rate, directed reading, word meaning, or use of index. Based on his findings Skiffington suggested that in school reading programs more attention be given to the improvement of listening skills, particularly after the initial stages of reading instruction.

Swalm (1972) examined the effects on comprehension of oral reading, silent reading, and listening using a sample of 324 second, third, and fourth grade students. Three test groups of the same size were formed at each grade level. Stories were selected for interest, content information, and readability as determined by Fry's readability formula. Average, above average, and below average readers completed cloze exercises that contained a 10 percent randomized deletion of lexical words. Spelling was not counted and only exact answers were counted as correct. In the oral condition, the examiner recorded responses as the subjects read the passage. In the silent condition, subjects read the passage and completed the cloze test in writing on the back of their papers.

In the listening condition, subjects listened to a tape recording, then responded on separate recorders to a cloze test recording.

Results showed no significant differences among the three methods of learning in third and fourth grade. For second grade the oral mode was superior to silent or listening. It was found that students with average reading ability comprehended equally well with all three methods of learning. Students with below average reading ability learned best with either listening or oral reading methods. Silent reading was the least effective at all grade levels for students with below average reading ability. Swalm concluded from this study that no one method of learning should be used with an entire class. Reading abilities and readability levels, he felt, should also be considered in determining appropriate learning methods.

Experiments done by Seaton (1980) compared the effectiveness of lessons involving listening-silent reading transfer with a traditional basal approach to reading comprehension. He theorized that the listening component of the lesson functioned as an illustrative, concrete example of the skill that is to be utilized during the silent reading. One hundred seventy-four fifth grade students were divided into an experimental and a control group. The experimental group received 14 weeks of intensive listening-reading transfer lessons in place of

the normal basal instruction. The control group received traditional basal instruction. Both groups did equally well on tests of reading for information. However, Seaton concluded that the experimental group was positively affected on subtests for interpretation, relationships, and reading appreciation. He recommended that teachers be aware of and consciously direct reading activities toward developing the higher level comprehension skills.

Duker (1965) summarized his bibliography of about two hundred entries on the interrelationship of listening and reading by giving some possible reasons for the sharply conflicting findings. He explained this disagreement "...on the basis of differences in learning materials presented, the diverse characteristics of the populations used as subjects, and the varying means of testing employed" (p. 328).

Reading and listening are very evidently related. Both are involved with the processing of incoming information. Both involve complex related skills and higher mental processes. It cannot be said that teaching listening will improve reading or that teaching reading will improve listening ability. Possibly though, the listening modality may be a better way of obtaining information for some students than either silent reading or oral reading.

### Previewing Strategies

Reading methods instructors have taught that for the most part, silent reading should precede oral reading. Silent previewing gives the student an opportunity to decode some words or to go back over material that does not make sense. Instructions for administering most diagnostic reading tests, however, direct that the student read orally at sight. This would seem to indicate that prereading is an unnecessary step. Research regarding prereading and the impact it has on test results or on oral reading instruction is limited.

In a pilot study Kasdon (1967) tested a random sample of fourth, fifth, and sixth graders with Spache's Diagnostic Reading Scales. Each child read a passage orally-at-sight and answered comprehension questions. Then he read the equivalent selection silently-then-orally before answering comprehension questions. Fifth and sixth graders were omitted from the study since many of them reached the highest score on the test before their instructional levels were determined. Using Spache's criteria, Kasdon determined an oral instructional level and a silent-oral instructional level for each member of the sample. In almost half the cases the silent-oral instructional level was from .7 to 2.0 grades higher than the orally-at-sight average instructional level. In no case was the orally-at-sight instructional

level score higher.

Oral reading speed at the orally-at-sight and the silent-oral instructional levels was a second area investigated. The pupils averaged 111 words per minute at the orally-at-sight instructional level and an average of 119 words per minute at the silent-oral instructional level. The difference was not statistically significant.

A third area investigated in this study was the number of word recognition errors the pupils made under the two conditions. When the pupils read orally-at-sight at the instructional level, the median number of word recognition errors was 4.4, with a range from zero to 13 errors. At the silent-oral instructional level the median number of word recognition errors was 4.3, with a range from zero to 13 errors. The difference between the number of word recognition errors was not significantly different at the .01 confidence level.

This study indicated that while the silent-oral instructional levels of the fourth graders in this study averaged half a grade higher than the orally-at-sight instructional levels, there were no statistically significant differences in oral reading speed or number of oral reading errors. Of the 35 pupils in the study, only 15 students' oral instructional levels were determined by word errors. The instructional level of the remaining

20 was determined by low comprehension scores.

Later Kasdon (1970) made the same kind of orally-at-sight versus silent-oral comparison using the Gray Oral Reading Test. The Gray Oral Reading grade scores were based on a combination of the number of oral reading errors and the length of time required to read the passage. This time the randomly selected 46 subjects were ninth grade pupils from secondary schools in New York City's ghetto areas. A special effort was made not to count dialectical differences as mispronunciations in scoring.

Although there was a significant difference in mean grade scores on comprehension, favoring the silent-oral subjects, there was no significant difference in the mean reading speed. For five of the eight types of reading errors there was a significant difference. The orally-at-sight group had a majority of the repetitions, inversions, and partial mispronunciations. The silent-oral subjects made more substitutions, insertions, omissions, gross mispronunciations, and aided responses. Kasdon stated that while a person is reading silently, he is not thinking about the pronunciation of words. Therefore, he will not necessarily have fewer pronunciation errors because he has read a passage silently, but his comprehension should improve.



In 1971 Glenn studied the effect of silent and oral reading on oral reading performance and literal comprehension. He administered the Gilmore Oral Reading Test to 180 second, third, and fourth grade students. He randomly assigned them to three treatment groups. Group One read paragraphs orally without prior exposure to the material. Group Two read the paragraphs silently and then orally. Group Three read the paragraphs silently. The students in all three groups answered comprehension questions immediately after reading. Glenn found no significant differences among treatment groups at any level. Among the grade levels tested, he did find that second graders made significantly more substitution errors and needed significantly more words pronounced for them than third graders. Also, the second graders made fewer mispronunciations than the third graders, and fewer mispronunciations and repetitions than the fourth graders. Glenn concluded that oral reading accuracy was not improved significantly when silent reading preceded oral reading and that there was no evidence that oral reading interfered with comprehension.

Christensen (1974) attempted to determine the effects of oral rereading of the same passage on the error patterns and reading rates of 19 second grade readers. Results were determined by examining the differences between the error patterns and reading rates

of two readings at the instructional level and of two readings at the frustration level. The error types were categorized into 23 categories. In addition, the average percent of word recognition accuracy for each reading was compared to note changes in functional levels between the first and second readings.

Christensen concluded that the error patterns for the four readings remained quite similar at both the instructional and frustration levels. There was a significant difference at the  $p < .05$  level in the refusals category between the first and second reading at the instructional level. There was a significant decrease at the  $p < .01$  level in the structural analysis category and a significant increase at the  $p < .05$  level in additions between the first reading at the instructional level and the second reading at the frustration level.

The second graders relied heavily on visual-perceptual skills in identification of words. There was a sharp rise in structural analysis errors from the instructional reading level to the frustration reading level. At the instructional level there was a decrease in structural analysis errors during the second reading, indicating that second graders could use this skill at their own developmental level.

Oral rereading did increase the reading rate at both the instructional and the frustration reading levels. On

the basis of this study Christensen concluded that the common practice of diagnosing reading difficulty on the basis of a passage read orally-at-sight is sufficient. The instructional level and types of errors can be accurately established from one oral reading of an extended passage. If, however, a child is asked to read orally he should be allowed to read it first silently because there is a significant difference in rate between first and second readings.

Eaton, Lovitt, Sayre, and Lynch (1974) conducted a series of case studies designed to assess the following previewing tactics: oral previewing with feedback about errors; oral previewing without feedback about errors; silent previewing; and previewing by listening to a teacher on tape. In the comparison of these methods of previewing with eight learning-disabled children, 9 to 17 years of age, the number of previewing tactics evaluated with each child varied. During oral previewing the student read the assigned passage aloud to the teacher before the reading session. In some cases error feedback was provided by the teacher; in others, the child read without feedback. In the listening condition the child followed along in his text as the teacher read the passage. During the silent previewing condition, the pupil read the assigned story silently before beginning the individual reading session. Each child was encouraged

to seek help with word difficulties. Instructional procedures were the same for all children. When a child mispronounced a word or hesitated, he was told the word and asked to say it.

Analysis of data for change between baseline and each previewing condition revealed that all three kinds of previewing positively affected word accuracy. The percent change among conditions ranged from 21.9 percent to 46.3 percent. Error rates for all students decreased ranging from 7.9 percent to 58.5 percent. Reading fluency gains may have been the result of increased familiarity with the story during a second reading. Increased fluency was not maintained when the opportunity for silent previewing and listening were removed. However, improvement in fluency as a result of oral previewing did not deteriorate when this procedure was discontinued. Word accuracy also improved during all previewing conditions. Oral previewing with feedback resulted in the greatest improvement. This research report concluded with the recommendation that the type of previewing tactic used must depend on the individual child's difficulties.

The effects of oral rereading on reading rate and error pattern were examined by Gonzales and Elijah (1975). Third grade level readers reading the same passage twice made new errors during the second reading at both the

instructional and the frustration reading levels. Analysis of the error data indicated that third grade students were making use of contextual clues. Although the specific number of errors that resulted from rereading a passage did become smaller, the pattern of these errors remained consistent over both readings at each level.

In a rural Illinois study done to examine the effects of oral rereading on estimates of instructional level, Brecht (1977) determined that oral reading from sight was an inaccurate measure of a student's abilities in reading. Using two independently developed, nonpublished informal reading inventories to test 28 third graders, 26 fourth graders, and 16 fifth graders, he found the mean score for all students on the oral reading from sight to be approximately fourth grade level. In contrast, the mean score for the students on oral rereading was fourth grade, seventh month. When these scores were subjected to a t test for differences in correlated means, the resultant t value of 6.74 was significant above the .001 level.

As the result of a 1979 study, Samuels advocated that a method called the Method of Repeated Readings be used as a supplement in developmental reading programs. The method consisted of rereading a short, meaningful passage several times until a satisfactory level of fluency was reached. Then the procedure was repeated with

successive passages. With each new selection the starting rates became faster and fewer rereadings were necessary to reach goals. While Samuels considered both accuracy of word recognition and reading speed components of fluency, speed was emphasized.

Samuel's Method of Repeated Readings grew out of the theory of automatic information processing in reading (LaBerge and Samuels, 1974). According to this theory, a fluent reader decodes text automatically, leaving attention free for comprehension. Because the nonfluent reader's attention is on decoding, it is not readily available for comprehension, thus making the process of obtaining meaning more difficult and slower.

Samuels traced the development of word recognition skills through three stages. During the first, called the nonaccurate stage, the student has great difficulty in recognizing words, even without a time limit. In the second stage, the accuracy stage, the student can recognize words with accuracy, but attention is required. At the third stage, the automatic stage, the student is able to recognize words without attention. This third stage is characterized by: 1) an oral reading rate equal to or possibly faster than the speaking rate; 2) reading with expression; and 3) if the material is familiar, comprehension while reading aloud. Samuels argued that a repeated reading method provides the practice needed to

become automatic. He compared it with the small unit of activity, or basic skill, that an athlete or a musician must practice over and over again until it is mastered.

D'Angelo (1979) examined the effect on rate and comprehension of one silent rereading following an initial silent reading. In this study silent reading speed served as an indicator of fluency and automaticity of decoding. The 17 fourth grade students each read silently two selections, each 500 words long, written at third grade level. They then responded to 20 questions based on the material read. Examiners recorded time spent reading silently and responses to the questions. Students then reread the selections and the questions were readministered. Rereading time and responses were again recorded. One day and one week later the questions were again given to students in rerandomized order.

Fifteen of the 17 students (88 percent) spent an average of 55 seconds less in rereading the material. Improved comprehension performance for 13 of the 17 students (76 percent) following rereading supported Samuel's (1979) statement that "...rereading both builds fluency and enhances comprehension" (p. 405).

D'Angelo concluded that silent rereading resulted in better comprehension performance and deserved more widespread use in classrooms. She also suggested further research that examines the effects of silent versus oral

rereading on rate and comprehension of both good and poor readers.

### Summary

Although the research reviewed above presented conflicting views, or provided mixed findings concerning the advantages of various previewing tactics, each added a new element to previous studies. An element common to many of the more recent research studies was the importance of providing error feedback to the students.

Most research reviewed concluded that reading rate was improved by rereading, or previewing (D'Angelo, 1979; Eaton, Lovitt, Sayre, and Lynch, 1974; Glenn, 1974; Samuels, 1979). There was less agreement on previewing benefits to word accuracy or comprehension improvement. Very few comparisons have been made among the various previewing tactics.



## CHAPTER III

### PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of oral previewing, silent previewing, and listening while reading previewing on the oral reading performance of fourth grade students. The study was meant to answer two questions. Does previewing significantly affect oral reading rate? Does previewing significantly affect word recognition? The children were given oral reading performance tests after each form of previewing to collect the relevant data.

#### Sample Selection

The data for the present study were gathered using subjects attending a rural elementary school in a large school district in northeastern Kansas. The enrollment of the school totaled 143, grades K-6. The school population included students whose parents were farmers, persons on welfare, blue and white collar workers, and professionals in the nearby communities. Permission to conduct this study was obtained from the school administration and the subjects' parents.

The subjects were drawn from a self-contained fourth

grade classroom of 20 children. The basal reading series used in this district were the Houghton Mifflin Reading Program, (1976) and Scott Foresman's Reading Unlimited, (1972). The students had been grouped by the district reading consultant into four reading levels on the basis of the basal reading placement tests. The instructional reading levels for these four groups in Scott Foresman's Reading Unlimited series were: Group A, beginning level 17; Group B, level 15; Group C, beginning level 14; and Group D, level 12.

There were only three students at the Group A reading level, and an equal number of subjects from each reading level was desired. Therefore, the researcher chose three students from each of the three remaining reading levels based on the basal reading placement levels and the researcher's judgment of accuracy of placement. One student from the Group D reading level was excluded because of a physical problem that would have made it difficult to accurately tape record oral reading errors. All of these students but one had received at least two years previous instruction in the school district's basal reading program.

The total sample size (n=12) included five girls and seven boys. Their chronological ages at the time of data collection were between 9 years, 8 months and 11 years, 2 months.

### Experimental Design

The dependent variables in this study were rate and word recognition errors. Oral previewing, silent previewing, listening while reading previewing, and no previewing were the independent variables. Table 1 shows the design used to assign each of the four reading passage levels to the four reading group levels.

Reading passages 1, 6, 11, and 16 were taken from books for grades three, four, and five of the Series r: McMillan Reading basal program. Reading passages 2, 7, 12, and 13 were taken from books for grades three, four, and five of The Addison Wesley Reading Program. Reading passages 3, 8, 9, and 14 were taken from books for grades three, four, and five of the HBJ Bookmark Reading Program. Reading passages 4, 5, 10, and 15 were taken from books for grades three, four, and five of the Ginn Reading Program.

TABLE 1  
EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

Group and Level	Treatments			
	Oral Previewing	Silent Previewing	Listening While Reading Previewing	No Previewing
Group A (n=3) Level 5 <sup>1</sup>	Passage No. 1 McMillan	Passage No. 2 Addison Wesley	Passage No. 3 HBJ	Passage No. 4 Ginn
Group B (n=3) Level 4 <sup>2</sup>	Passage No. 5 Ginn	Passage No. 6 McMillan	Passage No. 7 Addison Wesley	Passage No. 8 HBJ
Group C (n=3) Level 4 <sup>1</sup>	Passage No. 9 HBJ	Passage No. 10 Ginn	Passage No. 11 McMillan	Passage No. 12 Addison Wesley
Group D (n=3) Level 3 <sup>2</sup>	Passage No. 13 Addison Wesley	Passage No. 14 HBJ	Passage No. 15 Ginn	Passage No. 16 McMillan

### Instrumentation

To provide students at each of the four instructional reading levels with a different passage for each of the four treatments, a total of 16 reading passages was needed. Material from books for grades three, four, and five of The Addison Wesley Reading Program, (1982); the Series r: McMillan Reading, (1983); the HBJ Bookmark Reading Program, (1983); and the Ginn Reading Program, (1982) was screened for suitability in terms of content. Narrative fiction or passages dealing with everyday experiences at each of the four instructional levels were desired. The Houghton Mifflin Reading Program, (1976) and the Scott Foresman Reading Unlimited, (1972) series were not considered as they were being used in the school district where the study was conducted, and lack of familiarity with the passages was desired.

In choosing the 16 passages to be used, an attempt was made to choose those which could be read out of context without undue distortion of meaning. The passages ranged in length from 260 words to 280 words each. In counting the number of words in each passage, any numbers written either with digits or spelled out were counted as one word. Character first and last names were counted together as one word. After the passages had been selected they were randomly assigned to treatments.

The number of oral reading performance tasks that

were evaluated for each student was four. All three students within the same group level previewed the same selection in the same previewing manner.

#### Data Collection

For all four treatments the students were told the names of story characters before the task began. No student was asked to do more than one oral reading performance task at any one taping session.

Timing of each oral reading performance task began with the student's first audible sound and continued until the 250th word of the passage was read. Reading rate was determined from the total number of seconds required to read each 250 word passage.

The word recognition score for each passage was obtained by counting the total number of word errors in each 250 word passage. Word recognition errors were counted only through the 250th word although students continued reading the remainder of the sentence or paragraph for continuity. Mispronounced story character names were not counted as errors in any of the oral reading performance tasks. These were omitted because of students' unfamiliarity with the wide variety of ethnic names used in current textbooks.

The examiner was an experienced elementary school teacher and graduate student who had previously taken a

diagnostic reading course. This training included procedures for administering tests, using a stopwatch, and recording of oral reading errors.

In five of the 48 oral reading performance tasks, reliability measures were obtained on the timing and word accuracy error count. These five randomly selected passages were evaluated by an independent source. These included at least one passage that had been orally previewed, one silently previewed, one listening while reading previewed, and one unpreviewed passage. There was 96 percent agreement with the researcher's findings.

A repeated measures analysis of variance was utilized to determine whether there was a significant difference in the treatments used. Because the sample was below 30 in number, the Fisher t-test was considered the most appropriate statistic to calculate the difference among the uncorrelated means. Calculations of arithmetic means, standard deviations, analyses of variance, and t-tests were carried out by a graduate assistant with the University of Kansas Department of Education.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to compare the performances of fourth graders on oral reading tasks when given an opportunity to orally preview, silently preview, listening while reading preview, or not preview the selection. Scores for rate and word recognition errors were calculated. Two hypotheses were developed and tested at the .05 confidence level. Post hoc comparisons were made when appropriate.

The results of the study are presented in two sections:

1. the effects of previewing on oral reading rate;
2. the effects of previewing on word recognition errors.

#### Effects of Previewing on Oral Reading Rate

Hypothesis 1 stated that there is no significant difference between oral reading rate without previewing and oral reading rate after oral, silent, or listening while reading previewing.

Table 2 presents the individual scores and the mean reading times for students during each of the four experimental conditions.



TABLE 2  
 ORAL READING PERFORMANCE TIME IN SECONDS  
 FOR EACH 250 WORD PASSAGE

Student	Oral Previewing	Silent Previewing	Listening While Reading Previewing	With No Previewing
1	103	88	100	104
2	97	101	96	126
3	84	80	82	100
4	143	141	150	156
5	119	168	126	147
6	131	115	138	140
7	165	132	150	207
8	154	146	163	198
9	112	103	111	139
10	174	180	155	192
11	124	120	136	162
12	150	151	145	169
Mean	129.67	127.08	129.33	153.33

When a repeated measures analysis of variance was calculated for time, ( $df=3.33$ ;  $F=12.28$ ;  $P<.05$ ), a significant difference was indicated, as shown in Table 3. Hypothesis 1 was rejected. Table 4 presents the results of the t-tests that were subsequently calculated.

TABLE 3  
 REPEATED MEASURES ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR RATE

Source	Sum Score	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Ratio
Groups	5511.06	3	1837.02	12.28*
Subject	35256	11	3205	
Error	4933	33	149.48	
Total	45700	47		

\* significant at the .05 level

TABLE 4  
 t-TESTS FOR READING RATE

Mean For		Mean With No Previewing	t
Oral Previewing	129.67	153.33	37.52*
Silent Previewing	127.08	153.33	14.75*
Listening/Reading Previewing	129.33	153.33	45.36*

\* significant at the .05 level

The mean reading time for each of the three previewing conditions was found to be significantly better than the mean reading time for the no previewing condition.

Effects of Previewing on Word  
Recognition Errors

Hypothesis 2 stated that there is no significant difference between the number of word recognition errors made without previewing and the number of word recognition errors made after oral, silent, or listening while reading previewing.

Table 5 shows the number of word recognition errors made by each student under each of the four conditions.

TABLE 5  
TOTAL WORD RECOGNITION ERRORS  
FOR EACH 250 WORD PASSAGE

Student Code	Oral Previewing	Silent Previewing	Listening While Reading Previewing	With No Previewing
1	9	6	7	16
2	9	18	11	23
3	6	7	9	13
4	11	17	29	17
5	15	28	17	30
6	7	9	9	12
7	26	20	23	35
8	10	12	25	18
9	24	17	20	19
10	35	22	36	25
11	9	8	14	13
12	11	18	17	13
Mean Number of Errors	14.33	15.17	18.08	20.17

Table 6 presents the repeated measures analysis of variance for word recognition errors.

TABLE 6  
 REPEATED MEASURES ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE  
 FOR WORD RECOGNITION ERRORS

Source	Sum Score	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Ratio
Groups	212.23	3	70.74	2.72
Subject	2028.73	11	184.43	
Error	855.52	33	25.92	
Total	3096.48	47		

The repeated measures analysis of variance indicated that these four conditions were not significantly different from one another, ( $df=3.33$ ;  $F=2.72$ , NS). Therefore, hypothesis 2 was not rejected.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

#### Summary

The present study examined the effects of oral previewing, silent previewing, and listening while reading previewing on the oral reading performance of fourth grade students. The oral reading performances examined were rate of oral reading and word recognition errors. The oral reading performance of each student was evaluated for four conditions: oral previewing, silent previewing, listening while reading previewing, and no previewing.

A total of 12 fourth graders representing four instructional reading levels served as the sample. Each student previewed a passage orally at his instructional level and then reread it orally while it was taped for later evaluation. This procedure was repeated for silent previewing and for listening while reading previewing. In addition, each student read orally for taping a passage that had not been previewed. Scores for word recognition errors were obtained from later evaluation of the taped oral reading performance tasks.

A repeated measures analysis of variance was used to test differences between reading rates for each of the four conditions. A t-test was used to test for significance of selected mean differences.

### Conclusions

The hypothesis that there is no significant difference between oral reading rate without previewing and oral reading rate after oral, silent, or listening while reading previewing was rejected. The F score of 12.28 was significant at the .05 level of confidence. When t-tests were done the following observations were made. The rate for the oral previewing condition was significantly better than the rate for the no previewing condition. The rate for the silent previewing condition was significantly better than the rate for the no previewing condition. The rate for the listening while reading previewing condition was significantly better than the rate for the no previewing condition.

The hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the number of word recognition errors made without previewing and the number of word recognition errors made after oral, silent, or listening while reading previewing was accepted at the .05 confidence level. The F score of 2.72 indicated no significant difference among the four conditions.

### Limitations

Any conclusions drawn from the analysis of the data found in the present study are subject to the following limitation. The sample employed was limited to fourth grade students from one classroom in a rural, midwestern school.

### Discussion

On an oral reading test the reading rate of the fourth grade students in the present study was better under all three previewing conditions than it was under the no previewing condition. These conclusions supported the findings of Glenn, (1974); Eaton, Lovitt, Sayre, and Lynch, (1974); D'Angelo, (1979); and Samuels, (1979).

Since no significant difference in the number of word recognition errors was found between the no previewing condition and the three previewing tactics employed, the present study would appear to support the common practice of diagnosing the reading difficulties of a student on the basis of passages read orally-at-sight. Apparently the types of word recognition errors made can be accurately determined from the reading of passages read orally-at-sight.

A comparison of Tables 7, 8, 9, and 10 (see Appendix B) shows a fairly uniform error pattern for all four conditions. The most common word recognition error made



under all four conditions was substitution errors. Insertions and omissions also accounted for a portion of errors made under all of these conditions. Words pronounced for the student by the examiner was the least common word recognition error made in each of the four conditions.

Reading fluency appears to be affected by previewing. This is suggested by the faster reading rate under previewing conditions. While the total number of word recognition errors was not significantly affected by previewing, it appears that the number of repetition errors was fewer under all three previewing conditions. Table 9 shows a total of 66 repetitions under the no previewing condition compared with 46 repetition errors for the oral previewing condition, 35 repetition errors for the silent previewing condition, and 43 repetition errors for the listening while reading previewing condition. This, coupled with increased reading rate when a student is given an opportunity to preview, implies that the reader's fluency is affected. Since a more fluent reading would most likely affect the reader's confidence, a student should, for instructional purposes, be given the opportunity to first preview material to be read orally.

Data presented in this study are in agreement with the conclusions of Christensen, (1974) resulting from an examination of the effects of oral rereading on error

type and rate of reading for second grade students. She found increased reading rate, but no significant difference between the types of errors produced on the first and second readings of an extended passage with the following exception. The number of refusals and structural analysis errors decreased.

Glenn's, (1974) conclusion that rereading had no effect on reading accuracy is supported by acceptance of the hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the number of word recognition errors made without previewing and the number of word recognition errors made after oral, silent, or listening while reading previewing.

Conclusions drawn from data collected in the present study do not support the findings of Gonzales and Elijah, (1978) stating that rereading did reduce the number of oral reading errors. Although their third grade subjects made fewer errors on the rereading, there were new errors made that had not been made on the first reading.

"Which previewing method is most effective?" A visual inspection of the means for rate suggests that the three previewing methods were equally effective. For word recognition, none of the three previewing methods significantly reduced the number of errors. The range of word recognition errors made within each previewing condition may be a reason no significant difference was

found among the four treatments.

Teachers will find that previewing tactics are practical and easy to use in a classroom. A child can independently preview a selection silently or he can read along with a taped passage. Oral previewing can be monitored by a teacher's aide or by a good peer reader. More research is needed to determine which students can best profit from which previewing tactics.

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APPENDIX A  
THE TEST INSTRUMENT



## Passage No. 1

## DR. SCHUMACHER'S DISCOVERY

Jean Little

Dr. Schumacher's waiting room was shabby and crowded. When the Solden family arrived, the two boys had to stand up against one wall with their father because there were not enough chairs.

"All right," Dr. Schumacher smiled, "who's first?"

Rudy stepped forward. Mama got up to go with him. He scowled at her.

"I'm not a baby," he muttered.

"Let him go in by himself, Klara," Papa said. "Go ahead, Rudi." He came over and, taking Anna on his knee to make room, sat on the bench beside his wife.

"It will be fine," he told her.

Mama was not convinced. She was used to taking her children to the doctor only when they were sick. They all had injections before they came to Canada, but that had been so hurried that she had not had time to think about it. Suppose this doctor she did not know found one of her children had some terrible disease?

"One healthy one!" Dr. Schumacher said. "You're next—Gretchen, is it?"

This time Mama sat still, although her eyes followed Gretchen every step of the way until the door closed behind her.

"Do you think she looked pale?" she asked Papa.

Ernest Solden laughed, a big laugh that filled the room. "Gretchen—pale! She has cheeks like roses, and you know it."

Anna snuggled closer to him and laughed, too. It was funny thinking of Gretchen as pale.

"She was green on the ship," Anna offered.

"Now, Anna, that is not tactful," her father said.

"Just because you were the only sensible one..."

Mama shushed them both sternly.

Papa chuckled again and gave Anna an extra squeeze.

Echoes of Time  
McMillan, p. 87 & 88  
Group A (oral)  
Level 51

Passage No. 2

THE MYSTERY OF SARAH TOPS

Isaac Asimov

When I came out of the Museum of Natural History, I saw a crowd gathered around two police cars about halfway down the block. I could hear the cry of an arriving ambulance.

For a minute I hesitated, but then I walked on. Crowds of staring people just get in the way of officials trying to save lives. My dad, who's a detective for the

police, complains about that all the time. I knew enough not to add to the difficulty myself.

Besides, I knew I could ask Dad about it later. Sometimes he'd talk about cases without giving away any of the top-secret details. Mom and I never talk about what he tells us, anyway.

Dad was very quiet during dinner, so I knew he was thinking about a case.

"How is your report on air pollution coming along, Carlos?" Mom asked.

"Great!" I said. "I got a lot of facts at the Museum of Natural History today."

Dad looked at me sharply. "You were at the museum today?" he asked.

"Yes," I said. "All morning."

"I guess you saw all the excitement then," he said. "We caught the thieves who broke into that jewelry store two weeks ago. One of the thieves was being chased by the other two. He tried to lose himself in the museum, but he didn't succeed."

"I would have," I said. "I know the museum, every inch."

"Well, what happened?" asked Mom.

"As the first thief ran out of the museum, he slipped on the steps and was knocked unconscious. The other two thieves stopped to search the unconscious man's pockets

and then ran off. The police arrested them halfway down the block."

The Questionary  
Addison Wesley, p. 74 & 75  
Group A (silent)  
Level 5<sup>1</sup>

Passage No. 3

THE TOOTHPASTE MILLIONAIRE

Jean Merrill

One afternoon I stopped by my friend Rufus's house to borrow his bike pump. He had about fifty bowls and pans scattered around the kitchen.

"What are you making?" I asked.

"I already made it," Rufus said.

He handed me a spoon and a bowl with some white stuff in it. I took a spoonful.

"Don't eat it," Rufus said. "Just taste it. Rub a little on your teeth. It's toothpaste."

I tried a little.

"How does it taste?" Rufus asked.

"Not bad," I said. "Better than the kind my mother buys in the pink-and-white striped tube. How'd you get it to taste so good?"

"A drop of peppermint oil," Rufus said. "But I've got other flavors, too."

He pushed three other pots across the table. The first one had a spicy taste.

"Clove-flavored," Rufus said. "You like it?"

"I don't know," I said. "It's interesting."

"Try this one."

The next sample had a sweet taste. "Vanilla," I guessed.

"Right," Rufus said.

"I like vanilla," I said. "In milkshakes. Or ice cream. But it doesn't seem quite right in toothpaste. Too sweet."

"This one won't be too sweet," Rufus said, handing me another sample.

"Eeagh," I said and ran to the sink to wash out my mouth. "What did you put in that?"

"Curry powder," Rufus said. "You don't like it? I thought it tasted like a good shrimp curry."

"Maybe it does," I said, "but I don't like curry."

Rufus looked disappointed. "I don't suppose you'd like it almond-flavored, either," he said. "I made some of that, too, but I decided not too many people would take to almond."

## Passage No. 4

## THE STONE IN THE ROAD

Stephen Seskin

A long time ago, perhaps before people began to believe the world was round, there stood on the edge of a shimmering green forest a small village of no particular renown. No one important had ever lived there, nor had any stopped in his weary travels.

The village teacher, old Janos, would sigh and shake his grizzled head. No, not since the first clerk kept records had a single important event been recorded. Naturally, it was the cause of much disappointment. "What we need is a miracle," said the teacher.

One early morning the important men of the village went up to the Baron's castle, which stood nearby on a green hill. The castle had many fine towers, some as tall as the sky. It was thought the Baron would rather pore over a dusty old book in his library than do anything else.

"A booklover," the townspeople scoffed. "It's not likely that such a man will ever amount to much."

The Baron was a round, portly man—neither too tall nor too short—an ordinary sort of man with very red cheeks. When the men of the village came to him to register their complaints, he listened with his head sunk upon his chin. Now and then he would nod his head

understandingly.

"The school needs repairs," said Janos. "But, Baron, we have no money to pay workmen."

"My inn has not had a traveler in over two weeks," said Anton the innkeeper.

"No one buys land from our village," said Pieter the landowner. "I cannot blame them, for there is little here to attract the buyer."

Ride The Sunrise  
Ginn, p. 240-243  
Group A (without)  
Level 51

Passage No. 5

JIM BRIDGER'S ALARM CLOCK

Sid Fleischman

Jim Bridger was a mighty tall man. When he stubbed his big toe, it took six minutes before he felt it and yelled "Ouch." But he's not famous for being tall.

Jim Bridger was a long-haired mountain man. In fringed buckskins and Indian moccasins, he wandered through the wilderness of the Old West before almost anyone else. It was Jim who brushed the hair out of his eyes and first discovered the Great Salt Lake. They might have named it after him but no one believed he'd found water you couldn't sink in. Jim shrugged his big,

bony shoulders and headed back to the mountains.

One day his horse broke three front teeth grazing on a patch of green grass. That's how Jim discovered a petrified forest. The grass and trees had turned to stone for miles around. "Petrified, all petrified," he reported when he got back to civilization. "The bees and the wild flowers, and yes sir, some of those trees had petrified birds on their limbs, singing petrified songs."

But he's not famous for all those things.

Jim Bridger was a ramshackle, sharp-eyed army scout. In time they named a fort and a forest after him, and a pass and a creek and a mountain or two.

One day while talking to a stranger, Jim pointed to a mountain in the distance. It was flat-topped and red as a Navajo blanket. "Stranger," he said. Jim liked to talk to strangers; they were so few and far between in the wilderness. "Stranger, look how that mountain has grown! When I first came out here, it was nothing but a red anthill."

Barefoot Island  
Ginn, p. 402 & 403  
Group B (oral)  
Level 4<sup>2</sup>



## Passage No. 6

## THE CARP IN THE BATHTUB

Barbara Cohen

When I was a little girl, I lived in an apartment house in New York City with Mama and Papa and my little brother Harry.

It was not very fancy, but Papa said we were lucky. We had our own bathroom. Mrs. Ginzburg, who lived downstairs, was also lucky. She had a bathroom, too. Everyone else had to share the bathrooms in the hall.

Mama was a wonderful cook. It was well known that she made the finest chicken soup in New York City. Everything she made was the best.

But best of all was Mama's gefilte fish. Mama made gefilte fish twice a year. She made it in the fall for the Jewish New Year. And she made it in the spring for the festival of Passover.

Everybody loved Mama's gefilte fish. But I will tell you a secret. I never put a piece of it into my mouth.

Mama made her gefilte fish out of carp. For a day or two before the holidays, carp was hard to find in the stores. All the ladies in the neighborhood had been buying it for their own gefilte fish. Mama liked to buy her carp at least a week early. She wanted to get the nicest, fattest, shiniest one. But Mama knew that a dead

fish sitting in the icebox for a week would not be very good when the time came to make it into gefilte fish.

So Mama bought her fish live and carried it home in a pail of water. All the way home the fish flopped and flipped because it was too big for the bucket. It would have died if Mama had left it in there.

Rhymes and Reasons  
McMillan, p. 364 & 365  
Group B (silent)  
Level 4<sup>2</sup>

Passage No. 7

### SPY STORY

Marjorie Weinman Sharmat

I never thought a person could be too smart, until my friend Paul got me into a real mess. Paul is so smart that all the parents want their kids to play with him because they are hoping that whatever he's got is catching. And the kids want to play with him even though their parents want them to. Paul is full of ideas, and most of his ideas are fun.

Paul's parents want him to be "well-rounded." They want him to do something besides read books all the time. So Paul plays ball, and takes lessons on the drums, and has outside jobs. That's how he met Ms. Richardson. And meeting Ms. Richardson led to the mess.

A few weeks earlier Ms. Richardson had moved to the neighborhood. Paul rang her bell and asked if she had any odd jobs. Ms. Richardson looked him over and invited him in. She offered him a seat on a packing crate. Then she took out a notebook.

"Your name, please?"

"Paul Botts."

She wrote that down. "How much do you weigh, Paul?"

"Seventy-six pounds, two ounces," said Paul. "In the morning."

"Height?" asked Ms. Richardson.

"Fifty-six and one-half inches with my hair combed flat," said Paul.

"You'll do," said Ms. Richardson. "Would you like a job walking my dog Melvin twice a day? The job pays one dollar a day."

"Checks or currency?" asked Paul.

"Currency, of course," said Ms. Richardson. "What would you do with a check?"

"I would deposit it to my account at the savings bank, which pays a very high annual rate of interest," said Paul. "You might want to look into it."

Passage No. 8  
TO CATCH A BIRD  
Jay Williams

Chris loved to have pets. He liked to watch all sorts of animals, and to catch them and tame them. He had a toad named Harold, a snake named Streak, and two mice named Pickle and Peekle. He also had some beetles, a jar full of polliwogs, and a lizard. None of these had any names yet.

One day, Chris was lying on his stomach in the field out behind his house. He was watching some ants, trying to decide whether they would make good pets. He heard a flutter of wings and looked up. On a nearby fence post a bird had perched.

Chris liked to watch birds. He liked the way robins walked about like solemn fat men with their hands behind their backs. He liked to watch the way chickadees swung upside down on tiny branches. He liked the way nuthatches walked headfirst down a tree trunk.

He had never seen a bird like this one before. It was about the size of a robin. But it had a fierce little head with round bright eyes and a sharp hooked beak. It sat on the post with its brown wings neatly folded, turning its head and staring all around. It cocked its head and looked at Chris. It gave a fierce little cry: Killee-killee! It snapped its wings and flew

high into the air. It flew far above the treetops.  
Chris saw it swoop down into the woods.

He waited for a long time, and after a while the  
bird came back. It sat on the post and looked out.

New Frontiers  
HBJ, p. 392-394  
Group B (without)  
Level 42

Passage No. 9

BARRY: HERO OF THE ALPS

Bettina Hurlimann and Paul Nussbaumer

Translated from the German by Elizabeth D. Crawford

Barry was a Saint Bernard dog. He knew well the  
mountains where he had been born. Almost all year long,  
snow lay in those high places. As a result, there were  
many dangers. Often a person could become lost if snow  
covered the road. Tired travelers could freeze to death  
if they stopped to rest and fell asleep. Sliding snow  
could rush down the mountainside and bury anyone in its  
path.

Barry lived with a group of monks. Their work was  
to help all those who were in need. Their house was  
called a hospice [hos'pis]. The monks' only companions  
were their dogs. People called these dogs Saint Bernards  
because the mountain pass where they lived was known as

Great Saint Bernard.

Though not one guessed it then, Barry was to become a famous Saint Bernard. He became so famous that his story is known in many countries, right down to our time. This is so even though it is more than 150 years since Barry was alive.

Like children, the young dogs had to go to school. They had to be trained to help the monks. There was much to learn. The first thing they had to learn was to obey. For Barry, who liked to play, this was the hardest thing of all.

By the time Barry was a year old, he had learned a great deal. He could run over the snow without sinking into it. He knew how to find a person buried by an avalanche.

Barry grew into a large dog, with sharp eyes and sure movements. He became a good mountain guide.

New Frontiers  
HBJ, p. 147  
Group C (oral)  
Level 41

Passage No. 10

THE FOUNDLING

Carol Carrick

The Tilton family next door to Christopher had a new dog. It was still a puppy, really. He had come through

the gate one day when Christopher got home from school.

Christopher sat down next to the puppy and scratched his head. The puppy had rings around his eyes and his dark ears. He looked the way Christopher's dog, Bodger, must have looked when Bodger was a puppy. Christopher didn't remember because he had been a baby then himself.

The puppy sniffed at Christopher's lunch box, trying to nuzzle it open. Christopher fed him the scrap of uneaten sandwich inside. After that, the puppy waited for him every day after school.

Bodger had been killed in an accident with a pickup truck. Still, Christopher found himself hoping every night that his bedroom door would be shoved open and Bodger's warm weight would settle on his feet. The bad dreams that came for weeks after the accident had stopped. Christopher didn't lie awake any more, reliving the accident. But it was hard getting used to Bodger being gone.

Maybe it was seeing Christopher play all week with the little dog from next door that gave his father the idea. On Saturday his father came out and nodded toward the car. Christopher was bouncing a ball off the roof of the car.

"Hop in. I've got a surprise for you."

Christopher felt excited and wondered what the surprise could be. They stopped in front of a small

building with a sign out front that said "ANIMAL SHELTER!"  
Christopher's head snapped toward his father in panic.

Barefoot Island  
Ginn, p. 52 & 53  
Group C (silent)  
Level 41

Passage No. 11

THE WACKY BIKE

Janet McNeill

Specs' bike gave out on him at the very beginning of the summer. I wasn't surprised really, nor was he. It just fell apart one night, in its place in the bicycle shed. When Specs came to get it, all he found was a heap of rusty spokes and bits of metal and some string and a few old straps. I think it just gave out from sheer exhaustion.

Honestly, I don't blame it. All the time he'd had it, he never oiled it or cleaned it or anything. He said a bike was for riding, not for messing around with. When anything got loose or jammed, he just hitched it up with string or gave it a kick and went on riding. You could hear him coming for miles—clickety clack. He didn't need a bell, even if he'd had one.

It was a bit of a blow when he found the bike in pieces. I think Specs felt a bit sad about it himself.



I was staying with the McCanns for summer vacation. They had taken a nice cabin. It was right at the far end of a sandy bay. It looked as if we might have enjoyed ourselves. But we found that in a cabin Specs' five sisters seemed to add up to a good many more than five.

"We'll have to get away," Specs said. "We can clear out for whole days with some sandwiches. Maybe we can go exploring on our bikes."

"On our whats?" I said. Then, of course, he remembered.

"Well, we can walk, can't we?" he said.

Rhymes and Reasons  
McMillan, p. 164 & 165  
Group C (listening)  
Level 41

Passage No. 12

THE CHICKEN EMERGENCY

D. Manus Pinkwater

Part 1

"Do you have chicken for sale?" Arthur asked. "We need one to cook for Thanksgiving."

"Large family?" the professor asked.

"All my cousins are coming," Arthur said.

"Wait here," the old man said, and he went inside his apartment.

Arthur heard a clucking sound, but not like any clucking he had ever heard. It was deeper and louder. Professor Mazzocchi came out a few minutes later. He was leading a chicken that was taller than he was.

"Here's your 266-pound chicken," said the old man. "Six cents a pound."

Everyone noticed the chicken as Arthur led it home. Most people didn't want to get too close. Some people made a sort of moaning noise when they saw it. By the time Arthur got home, he wanted to keep the chicken for a pet.

"You were supposed to bring home a chicken to eat," Arthur's mother said. "Not a 266-pound pet."

"I thought we could call her Henrietta," Arthur said. "She's a good chicken. Please!"

"We'll talk about it tomorrow," said Arthur's parents.

That night the family had meatloaf, mashed potatoes, and vegetables for Thanksgiving dinner. Henrietta especially liked the potatoes.

Early the next day Arthur took Henrietta for a walk. He had made plans to teach her a lot of tricks. Of course, Arthur wasn't sure if giant chickens could be trained. He decided to start with something simple.

"Heel, Henrietta, heel," he said. Sure enough, Henrietta walked beside him, clucking. Every now and

then Arthur would run a few steps. Henrietta would scurry to catch up with him. She was doing pretty well for a chicken that had never been trained before.

The Abracadatlas  
Addison Wesley, p. 140-142  
Group C (without)  
Level 4<sup>1</sup>

Passage No. 13

MY SISTER, THE SNAKE, AND I

Yolanda Ferguson Stein

My name is Cynthia Ann, but I am called Cindy. I am nine years old and have had this sister Emily all my life. She is twelve, and she is really silly. She is afraid of spiders, white mice, frogs, and snakes—especially snakes. But I think snakes are really great.

One day last summer, when I was visiting my aunt's and uncle's farm, I found a garter snake. I caught it to get a good, close-up look. It was as long as my arm and had three pale stripes and orange dots on its body. There were beautiful little blue slashes on its head. I called it Red Eye because it had red eyes.

My uncle told me to take it home and keep it for a pet.

"No," I said, "Emily hates snakes. She's afraid of them."

"Nonsense," said my uncle. "Why would she be afraid of a little garter snake? It won't hurt anyone if it's handled properly."

"Oh, Emily wouldn't touch Red Eye," I said. "She'd scream and complain and carry on." Then I stopped. I remembered the time Emily had refused to lend me money for Dad's birthday present. I thought of the time she had reported me for using her hairbrush to brush the dog.

"On second thought," I said, "she might learn a lot from Red Eye."

So my aunt gave me an empty coffee can, and I poked little holes in the plastic lid. (The holes were little ones because my aunt told me that snakes are escape artists and can get out of just about anything.) Then I took the garter snake home.

The Dictopedia  
Addison Wesley, p. 178 & 179  
Group D (oral)  
Level 32

Passage No. 14

NATE THE GREAT

Marjorie Weinman Sharmat

I, Nate the Great, am a busy detective.

One morning I was not busy. I was on my vacation. I was sitting under a tree enjoying a peaceful day with

my dog, Sludge, and a pancake. He needed a vacation, too.

My friend Claude came into the yard. I knew that he had lost something. Claude was always losing things.

"I lost my way to your house," he said, "and then I found it."

"What else did you lose?" I asked.

"I lost the list I was taking to the food store. Can you help me find it?"

"Very well," I said. "I, Nate the Great, will take your case. Tell me, what was on the list?"

"If I could remember, I wouldn't need the list," Claude said.

"Can you remember some of the list?"

"Yes," Claude said, "I remember salt, milk, butter, flour, sugar, and tuna fish."

"What streets did you walk on?" I asked.

"I'm not sure," Claude said. "I lost my way a few times."

"Then I, Nate the Great, know what to do. I will draw a map of every street between your house and the food store and we will follow the map."

Sludge and I got up. Our vacation was over. I got a piece of paper and a pen. I drew a map on the piece of paper.

Claude said, "I will walk with you."

"Don't get lost," I said, "or I will have two cases

to solve." We walked between Claude's house and the food store and then between the food store and Claude's house. Sludge sniffed. But we could not find the list.

Ring Around the World  
 HBJ, p. 212 & 213  
 Group D (silent)  
 Level 32

Passage No. 15

GILLESPIE AND THE GUARDS

Benjamin Elkin

In a country far away from here, there were three brothers. They could see better and farther than anyone else in the world.

The youngest brother had very powerful eyes. From a block away, he could read the date on a penny that was inside your pocket.

The middle brother had extra-powerful eyes. From two blocks away, with his eyes closed, he could see a tiny speck in the eye of a baby butterfly.

The oldest brother had super-extra-powerful eyes. In the darkest part of the night he could cover his face with a heavy bandage. He could still read every page of a closed book that was in a locked room three blocks away.

When the king heard about these wonderful brothers, he invited them to join the Royal Guards. The king was

so proud of them that he announced a contest.

"My new guards have the brightest eyes in the world," said he.

"Anyone who can fool all three of them will win a gleaming golden medal set with shimmering, shining diamonds."

What a wonderful prize! From all over the world, people began flocking to the palace. A boy disguised himself as a dog. He ran all around the palace grounds yelping, "Bow-wow!" and "Arf-arf!"

A man disguised himself as a giant clock. He stood in the corner of the palace all day, saying "Tick-tock, tock-tock."

None of these people could fool the new guards. With one glance, the guards could see through any disguise. Hundreds and hundreds of people tried and failed. The three brothers began to grow more and more famous.

Ten Times Around  
Ginn, p. 134-136  
Group D (listening)  
Level 4<sup>2</sup>

## Passage No. 16

## SIMON BOOM GIVES A WEDDING

Yuri Suhl

## Part One—Only the Best

Once there was a man named Simon Boom who liked to brag: "I buy only the best." It didn't matter if the best was a size too short, or a size too long, or altogether out of season. If it was the best, Simon Boom bought it.

One summer day Simon Boom walked into a hat store. He said to the storekeeper, "Give me the best hat you have."

"Very well," said the storekeeper. He brought out the best straw hat in the store.

"Is this the best you have?" said Simon Boom.

"I have a still better hat," said the storekeeper. "But it's made of felt."

"I don't want a better hat," Simon Boom said. "I want the best hat."

"Very well," said the storekeeper. "The very best hat I have is made of wool. It will keep your head warm on the coldest day."

"If it is the very best, I'll buy it," said Simon Boom. And he did.

That summer all the people in town felt cool in their light hats. Only Simon Boom was hot in his heavy



winter hat.

"My head feels so warm," thought Simon Boom. "I'll buy myself an umbrella to hide it from the sun." And so he walked into an umbrella store. He said to the storekeeper, "Give me the best umbrella you have."

"Beach umbrella, or rain umbrella?" the storekeeper asked.

"Best umbrella," said Simon Boom.

"Very well," said the storekeeper. She pulled a black umbrella out of the umbrella stand and opened it up. "This is the best I have," she said. "It's very strong. If it doesn't keep the rain off of you, your money will be returned at once."

Full Circle  
McMillan, p. 156-158  
Group D (without)  
Level 42

APPENDIX B  
ERROR DATA

TABLE 7  
ERROR DATA FOR ORAL PREVIEWING

Student	Substitution	Mispronunciation	Examiner Pronounced	Punctuation Omitted/Inserted	Insertion	Omission	Hesitation	Repetition	Student's Total Errors
A	1	3			2	1	1	2	9
	2	1	3			1		4	9
	3	5	1						6
B	4	4		2	1	1		3	11
	5	4	1		3	2	1	4	15
	6	1	1		1			4	7
C	7	18	2	1			1	4	26
	8	4		1		2	1	2	10
	9	13	1	2		3		5	24
D	10	13			4	4		14	35
	11	4		1	1	1	1	1	9
	12	4			1	1	2	3	11
Total	74	9	1	6	13	16	7	46	172

Note: A - low fifth grade instructional level  
 B - high fourth grade instructional level  
 C - low fourth grade instructional level  
 D - high third grade instructional level

TABLE 8  
ERROR DATA FOR SILENT PREVIEWING

Student	Substitution	Mispronunciation	Examiner Pronounced	Punctuation Omitted/Inserted	Insertion	Omission	Hesitation	Repetition	Student's Total Errors
A	1				2	1	1	1	6
	2	8	1		3		1	5	18
	3	5			2				7
B	4	5			4	2	2	4	17
	5	10	1	1	3	7		5	28
	6	2		1				4	9
C	7	10		3	4	1		2	20
	8	6		1	2	2	1		12
	9	11				2		4	17
D	10	11			3	3		4	22
	11	1					2	5	8
	12	12	2		1	1		1	17
Total	83	4	2	6	24	19	7	35	182

Note: A - low fifth grade instructional level  
 B - high fourth grade instructional level  
 C - low fourth grade instructional level  
 D - high third grade instructional level

TABLE 9  
 ERROR DATA FOR LISTENING WHILE READING PREVIEWING

Student	Substitution	Mispronunciation	Examiner Pronounced	Punctuation Omitted/Inserted	Insertion	Omission	Hesitation	Repetition	Student's Total Errors
A	1	2	1			1		3	7
	2	3			2		1	5	11
	3	4			2			3	9
B	4	18		1	5	1		4	29
	5	15				1		1	17
	6	4	1	1		1		2	9
C	7	11			2	4	2	4	23
	8	14	1		2	3	1	4	25
	9	9	2		2	1		6	20
D	10	23	3	1	2	4		3	36
	11	7						7	14
	12	16						1	17
Total	126	8	0	13	17	16	4	43	217

Note: A - low fifth grade instructional level  
 B - high fourth grade instructional level  
 C - low fourth grade instructional level  
 D - high third grade instructional level

TABLE 10  
ERROR DATA FOR NO PREVIEWING

Student	Substitution	Mispronunciation	Examiner Pronounced	Punctuation Omitted/Inserted	Insertion	Omission	Hesitation	Repetition	Student's Total Errors
A	1	5	2		3	3		3	16
	2	12	2		1	2		6	23
	3	6	1					6	13
B	4	4	1	1	3	1		7	17
	5	17	2	1	3	1		5	30
	6	2	1		1			8	12
C	7	17	4	1	7	1		5	35
	8	7	1	2	1	1	2	4	18
	9	10	1	2	2			4	19
D	10	12	1		3	3	1	5	25
	11	8	1	3	1	1	2	5	21
	12	4	1					8	13
Total	104	15	4	10	25	13	5	66	242

Note: A - low fifth grade instructional level  
 B - high fourth grade instructional level  
 C - low fourth grade instructional level  
 D - high third grade instructional level