Effects of Preread Vocabulary Strategies on Vocabulary and Comprehension of Basal Stories by Primary Children.

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EFFECTS OF PREREADING VOCABULARY STRATEGIES ON VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION OF BASAL STORIES BY PRIMARY CHILDREN

The Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical Col.

Ph.D. 1986
EFFECTS OF PREREADING VOCABULARY STRATEGIES
ON VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION OF BASAL STORIES
BY PRIMARY CHILDREN

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

in

Education

by

Dana G. Thames
B.S., University of Southern Mississippi, 1978
M.S., University of Southern Mississippi, 1981
August 1986
To my Father, Mother, and Daughter
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writing of this dissertation, while it has been an uphill battle at times, could not have been accomplished without the help and support of many. To the following individuals, I would like to extend my grateful thanks:

To John Readence, my major professor and friend, whose inspiration, guidance, support, role modeling, and unending patience made the task a reality.

To Ray Buss, my minor professor and friend, whose assistance went far above and beyond the call of duty.

To Bonnie Konopak, friend and supporter, who always had time to listen and "laugh" at just the right time (when things looked their bleakest).

To Mike Martin, friend and supporter, who was always in "my" corner and provided the much needed "insight" that allowed me to ultimately finish.

To Don Richgels, friend and teacher, whose door was always open for the purpose of sharing and providing needed advice.

To Al Moe, for his help in "stepping in" and making this endeavor a reality.

To all my fellow graduate students on the Third Floor, for their support, love, willingness to share and listen, babysitting, and their understanding throughout this entire process.
To the entire Reading Faculty, for their exemplary attitudes and role modeling that they have provided for us.

To Shelby and Shirley, my father and mother, for their loyalty, support, understanding, and belief in me through all these years.

To Scott and Clay, my brothers, who would never let me quit believing in myself.

To Brittany, my daughter, whose love and understanding have made even the worst of times "bearable."
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ABSTRACT

This study focused on the instructional use of three prereading vocabulary strategies, Directed Reading Activity, Reconciled Reading Lesson and List-Group-Label, as a means for improving vocabulary and comprehension of basal reader stories. Subjects were 66 average and above-average second-grade students. Data were collected over a seven-day period with instruction and post-testing occurring on alternating days.

Data were analyzed in three ways. First, a repeated measures analysis of variance on the pre- and post-test vocabulary scores indicated that statistically significant amounts of learning took place within each instructional group. Second, an analysis of variance was used to assess the effects of these three vocabulary strategies on comprehension. This yielded statistically significant results showing that subjects in the Reconciled Reading Lesson group out performed subjects in either of the other two groups. Finally, a simple linear regression analysis assessed the ability of vocabulary knowledge to predict comprehension. Results found that 49% of the comprehension scores for this particular study were attributable to vocabulary knowledge.
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

The need for comprehension instruction in conjunction with basal reading series has long been a concern in the teaching of reading (Pearson, 1985). Research which estimates that more than four out of five children are instructed through the basal reading approach (Chall, 1967) serves to intensify this concern. If successful learning in school requires that readers be able to comprehend their basal materials, then students must receive instruction that will foster the development of comprehension.

In observational research studies conducted by Durkin (1966, 1978-79, 1981), the need for comprehension instruction was reemphasized. These studies focused the attention of many educators on what was actually taking place within the classroom under the pretense of reading instruction and on guidelines for comprehension instruction found in basal material. Durkin's findings indicated that teachers' instructional practices were lacking in the area of comprehension instruction. Additionally, the basal manuals themselves, which served as the framework for this instruction, failed to include the teaching of comprehension (Beck, McKeown, McCaslin, & Burkes, 1979; Pearson, 1985; Russavage, Lorton, & Millham, 1985).
A reasonable assumption for the lack of procedures for comprehension instruction might possibly be due to the means by which reading instruction is treated in various basal reading series. The focus of beginning reading instruction has dealt primarily with efforts to promote decoding and word attack skills, with little regard to improving comprehension efficiency (Rosenshine & Stevens, 1985). Rosenshine and Stevens stated, "explicit items and rules are taught in decoding. In comprehension, we do not, at present, have such neatly explicit rules to teach skills like main idea, sequence, drawing conclusions, or paraphrasing" (p. 774). Indeed, it would appear that it might be easier or safer to focus instruction on those specific aspects of the reading process that come with outlined rules and regulations for their effective as well as efficient use. In order to teach comprehension like decoding, the comprehension process would need to be defined in such a way as to allow specific steps to be delineated around which instructional formats could be developed.

Review of Related Literature

This section provides a discussion concerning some of the current research pertinent to the present study. For definitions of the various terms relevant to the study, see Appendix A. For a more complete review of the literature, see Appendix B.
Defining the processes of comprehension dates back to the early 1900's when educational psychologists attempted to define the manner in which learning and remembering took place. Using this information, Bartlett (1932) has been given credit for establishing the foundations for the notion of "schema". While the terminology was somewhat definitionally broader than that we use today, Bartlett's ideas concerning schema are basically the same. Indeed recently, Adams and Bruce (1982) indicated that comprehension of what is read involves construction of ideas out of pre-existing concepts, or schema. Use of this background knowledge allows the combination of pre-existing knowledge with the new knowledge to improve comprehension.

In a similar vein, Pearson and Johnson (1978) discussed the importance of developing activities that will provide anchors for new information. Current research (e.g., Anderson, 1984; Anderson, Pichert, & Shirey, 1983; Paris & Lindauer, 1976; Russavage, Lorton, & Millham, 1985) has also focused on the effects of engaging prior knowledge (schema activation) and of building background knowledge (schema acquisition) through classroom experiences to enhance the development of comprehension abilities in readers.
Pre-reading activities have functioned as the primary means for engaging prior knowledge and/or building background knowledge prior to reading. In the classroom, these pre-reading activities have long been a key part of basal reading instruction (Chall, 1967; Durkin, 1984). These activities usually involve preteaching vocabulary as well as arousing interest and activating prior knowledge. The Directed Reading Activity (DRA) (Betts, 1946) has served as the primary method for activating this background knowledge. For a complete outline of the Directed Reading Activity, see Appendix C.

For beginning readers, part of the preparation for the reading phase of the DRA focuses on the accurate use of the vocabulary specified by the teacher's manual. Much of the current research supports the notion that vocabulary instruction facilitates reading comprehension (Anderson & Freebody, 1979; McNeil, 1984; Stahl, 1983). Additionally, Davis (1944) supplied quantitative findings which support the idea that vocabulary is the single most important criteria for predicting comprehension ability.

Although, vocabulary instruction is valuable, the preparation for reading phase of the DRA appears to address this issue at the surface level only. Students are generally only asked to supply the appropriate word for the missing blank of a sentence. Although it can be argued that manuals
provide specific vocabulary to be taught and indicate possible questions that could be asked prior to reading, these basic suggestions tend to be inadequate for the purpose of building and activating prior knowledge of the students. Beck, et. al. (1979) found that these questions, located at the beginning of the lesson, often represent a barrage of ideas that form no cohesive pattern for understanding the text.

If one accepts the value of schema theory, activities for improving comprehension must include engaging prior knowledge and building background knowledge prior to reading, with emphasis being placed on building cohesive thoughts for understanding the material (Reutzel, 1985). Reutzel (1985) stated that basal manuals are flawed because they focus attention on building background information at the end of the story.

Reutzel's recommended solution to this problem is to reverse the basal reading lesson sequence by beginning at the end and moving backwards through the lesson. This notion would cause teachers to shift their emphasis away from evaluation activities after reading and include more background information at the beginning of the lesson sequence prior to actually reading a basal selection. Reutzel has termed this approach "the Reconciled Reading
Lesson" (RRL). For a complete outline of the Reconciled Reading Lesson Format, see Appendix C.

Russavage, Lorton, and Millham (1985) also found that "not only are many stories irrelevant to the experiences of each student and not matched to their interests, but teachers' manuals include few strategies for developing background knowledge or resolving conflicts of inaccurate prior knowledge" (p. 316). The lack of story relevance and inaccurate prior knowledge has been found to have tremendous potential for interfering with comprehension (Alvermann, Smith, & Readence, 1985; Lipson, 1984). Thus, by using an instructional technique prior to reading that would allow students to participate in a collaborative activity, this conflict might be resolved prior to reading and allow for maximum comprehension by students.

The use of List-Group-Label (LGL) (Taba, 1967) could provide such an activity for students. When using this strategy, students are asked to think of words or expressions related to stimulus words that have been taken from the text. Through evaluation of selected words and student input, teachers are given the opportunity to alter students' prior knowledge of a topic so that it accurately fits the material to be read (Bean, Inabinette, & Ryan, 1983). For a complete outline of the List-Group-Label procedure, see Appendix C.
Based on current research in activating prior knowledge and building background interests, current instructional practices in basal readers appear to be insufficient. When adhering to the present format of the basal manuals for reading instruction, we are placing the "cart before the horse" because we are asking students to formulate their own ideas as they read. What we should be doing, instead, is assisting them in building these ideas prior to reading so that understanding can develop during the reading process and not after the fact. This study will attempt to address this need by investigating the efficacy of three prereading vocabulary strategies as alternative means to improve students' vocabulary and comprehension of the basal stories.

Additionally, the relation between vocabulary and comprehension will be explored. There is no question as to the efficacy of the notion that there is a direct relation between vocabulary knowledge and comprehension (Davis, 1944). Davis (1944) established quantitative evidence to support the tenet that the single most important factor related to comprehension ability was indeed vocabulary. However, not all research concurs with this position. Anderson and Freebody (1981) cautioned that the link between vocabulary and comprehension is not causally related.
In an additional study conducted by Freebody and Anderson (1983), a significant effect for vocabulary was found in conjunction with the study's sentence-recognition task. While this information tends to lend support for the notion that vocabulary has an effect on comprehension, it fails to provide sufficient evidence for a causal relation. Therefore, this study will also investigate the relation between prereading vocabulary strategies and their effect on comprehension.

Need for the Study

The basal reader approach is the most widely used approach to teaching reading in our country (Searfoss & Readence, 1985). Each reading lesson, as stated by Tierney and Cunningham (1985), "includes a prereading activity which provides a bridge of sorts between the reader's knowledge base and text" (p. 610).

In many prereading activities vocabulary is viewed as a primary means for arousing previous conceptual associations and providing new associations for the purpose of assisting students in relating the unfamiliar to the familiar (Johnson, Levin, & Pittelman, 1984). Kamennui, Carnine, and Freschi (1982) and Stahl (1983) have indicated that vocabulary instruction has been found to facilitate reading comprehension because an inability to understand the vocabulary and its use in the text causes a breakdown in
understanding. Further, Beck et al. (1979) have indicated that teaching vocabulary is a specialized aspect of developing prior knowledge that is viewed as essential for comprehension.

The directed reading activity (DRA) also addresses the need to activate prior knowledge and focuses some of its prereading activities on teaching students the vocabulary necessary for understanding. Beck (1984) stated, "in the teacher's manuals of most reading programs, the developers provide specific instructional strategies for dealing with the meaning of target words" (p. 10). In general, however, there is simply a basic suggestion that teachers may wish to introduce target words by presenting them in some form of context and having the students infer the necessary meanings of the words.

The reconciled reading lesson (RRL), as outlined by Reutzel (1985), would include reversing the original format of the directed reading activity (DRA) in order to provide prereading instruction through the effective use of follow-up and enrichment activities which are found at the end of the DRA format. Participating in such activities, the students are given a broader range of opportunities to incorporate as well as expand the use of these terms. As a prereading activity, the RRL would address the need to include activities that would require students to become
active as well as effective users of these concepts and their appropriate terminology.

The use of such techniques as brainstorming (Moore, Readence, & Rickelman, 1982; Spiegel, 1980) and List-Group-Label (Bean, Inabinette, & Ryan, 1983; Taba, 1967) has also been specified as a way to assist students in activating and organizing their prior knowledge about a text. An instructional strategy like list-group-label (LGL) focuses on the notion that not only can students' vocabulary be broadened, but also through oral discussion each individual student can be given a broader view of the concept in question. The premise for the use of this activity is that a collaborative group effort will allow students the opportunity to express ideas and clear up any misconceptions that might be present prior to reading the text.

These concerns will be addressed in detail in this study. The effectiveness of each strategy, i.e., DRA, RRL, and LGL, will be investigated in terms of which approach might be most beneficial in activating prior knowledge for the purpose of improving vocabulary and comprehension in second grade subjects who are reading basal stories. As such, the following questions will serve to guide this study:
1. Will various prereading vocabulary strategies have differential effects on postreading vocabulary of basal reader stories by second grade students?

2. Will various prereading vocabulary strategies have differential effects on postreading comprehension of basal reader stories by second grade students?

3. Is there a relation between prereading vocabulary strategies and their effect on the comprehension of basal reader stories?
CHAPTER TWO
METHOD

This chapter describes the subjects involved in the study, the materials that were used, and the procedures employed for data collection and scoring.

Subjects

The subjects for this study were 75 second graders from a public school located in a moderate-sized Southern city. These students were placed in their respective classrooms by homogeneous grouping procedures. This grouping procedure was based on the use of the Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test (SDRT) (1983), the Ginn 720 Basic Skills Test (GBST) (1982), and the Louisiana Basic Skills Testing Program (LBST) (1984-85). Testing and grouping assignments were conducted by the various classroom teachers and administrators in the school system.

Subjects were drawn from three, of a total of five, second-grade classrooms located within this school. The three classrooms which were selected for use during data collection were those that had been designated as the average or above-average classes. Subjects participating in this study were randomly assigned to one of three instructional groups, DRA, RRL, and LGL.
Materials

Pilot testing was conducted in order to develop the original materials and instruments used in the study. For a complete description of the pilot study, see Appendix D.

Story Selection. The Ginn 720 reading series (1982) is currently in use in the school system. To ensure that all subjects participating in the study had not seen the texts that would be used, the Ginn 900 reading series (1984) served as the instructional material. This series was chosen for the purpose of maintaining a consistent text structure and insuring ecological validity.

The three experimental groups in the study were required to read three story selections. These stories were selected from the Ginn 900 reading series (1984) by a panel of three judges who were doctoral students in reading education. A sample of the Rater's Review Sheet for Story Selection appears in Appendix E. The selection of these stories involved identifying those that contained: (a) appropriate story content, and (b) adequate vocabulary loads. For example, the use of expository and narrative texts were a primary consideration of this study since such story formats as plays, poems, etc., are not necessarily conducive to the prereading activities to be employed in this study. The stories selected were, *Morris Has A Cold*,
Pea Soup and Sea Serpents, and Feather in the Wind. These stories are found in Appendix F.

**Teaching Protocols for Stories.** Teaching protocols and instructions were written in the form of scripts so that continuity of instruction was maintained during the instructional and testing procedures. The directed reading activity format followed its original procedures as outlined in the Ginn 900 reading series (1984) for each lesson, while the reconciled reading lesson followed a general format adapted from Reutzel (1985). Scripts were also devised for using list-group-label by the researcher based upon procedures outlined by Readence, Bean, and Baldwin (1985). A sample of the scripts used can be found in Appendix G.

**Pre-test.** To allow for the measurement of subjects' vocabulary knowledge of the three story selections' prior to reading and their improvement on these items after reading, a multiple-choice testing instrument was devised. In view of the recommendations made by Johnston (1984), all items for the pre-test measure and half of the post-test items were constructed based on the use of the vocabulary terms that were designated by the basal manuals. This recommendation was followed because the specified vocabulary is relevant to those concepts needed to accurately understand the ideas presented in the story. Johnson, Levin, and Pittelman (1984)
have noted that the words highlighted for instruction in basal reading series are: (a) generally obtained from high frequency word lists or, (b) are "new" in the series and assumed to be unfamiliar to the students.

A multiple-choice format was selected for use based on the notion that Johnston (1984) indicated that students should be tested in the manner in which they are taught. Since primary children operate primarily under the restraints of multiple-choice type formats in their workbooks and skill-paks due to their limited writing capabilities and ease of scoring for the teachers, a similar format was used for this research to eliminate possible variations in scores due to the testing format. The pre-test was piloted to ensure that questions were passage-dependent and were also rated by a panel of five reviewers for the purpose of determining level and content appropriateness. For an example of the Rater's Review and Scoring Sheet for Story Questions, see Appendix H.

The pre-test was comprised of 30 multiple-choice vocabulary items, eight items for each of the three stories related specifically to the designated vocabulary items and six distractor items. These distractor items served to insure that subjects were not cued as to the various topics that were to be covered in the three story selections. The
pre-test was administered for the purpose of estimating the subjects' prior knowledge of the three story selections. A copy of this instrument appears in Appendix I.

**Post-test.** The individual post-tests (one for each of the three stories) consisted of the respective vocabulary items used on the pre-test along with two distractors. Each post-test consisted of an additional 10 questions dealing primarily with the comprehension of each story's content. These additional comprehension questions were divided into two equal categories: (a) text-explicit and (b) text-implicit, as defined by Pearson and Johnson (1978). Therefore, each individual post-test consisted of no more than 20 multiple-choice items. Items on both the pre- and post-test instruments consisted of a stem and four possible choices.

Items were assessed by a panel of judges for: (a) clarity, whether or not items are appropriate in terms of wording for the subjects being used in the study; (b) content, whether or not they are relevant and pertinent to the content of the story; and, (c) passage dependency, whether or not the questions could be answered without the benefit of reading the story selection. Each item had to receive four out of five votes in order to meet the criteria set forth in this study. Items that failed to meet this
criteria were reevaluated, modified, and submitted for a second review. The post-test instruments appear in Appendix J.

**Procedures**

**Instructors.** Instructors were randomly assigned to an instructional method, and then randomly assigned to a group of subjects. The instructors remained with their respective groups throughout the data collection period. This procedure was employed so that variations in instructional methods and procedures could be minimized. In addition, it minimized the possibility of the outcomes being due to the result of instructor effects.

**Data Collection.** Data was collected by the investigator and two trained doctoral students during the subjects' regular reading class periods. This time frame encompassed the early morning period of 8:45 until 10:00. The use of instructional scripts allowed uniformity in the presentation of instructional formats within groups as well as continuity of directions across groups. All directions used to complete the assigned tasks were read by the researchers to insure that subjects understood what they were being requested to do.

1) **Day one.** The instructors introduced themselves to the subjects and briefly explained the events to follow.
Subjects were instructed to complete the pre-test. Subjects were able to complete the task with no apparent difficulty.

2) Day two, four, and six. Subjects received the instructional format assigned to their groups. The instruction was provided by the investigator and the two doctoral students according to their designed scripts.

3) Day three, five, and seven. Subjects were provided a brief review of the previous day's story by their respective instructors. Story booklets were then distributed and uniform instructions were presented to each group. Subjects were directed to read the story and when finished to raise their hands; the instructor then brought them the post-test to complete.

**Scoring.** The pre-tests and post-tests were both scored by the researcher using an answer key. Two additional raters per test scored the items to check for accuracy in scoring; no errors were found. The additional raters were senior level students enrolled in an undergraduate education course at Louisiana State University. Raw scores on the pre-test ranged from seven to 29 (total possible = 30), with a mean of 21.56 and a standard deviation of 4.96.

The post-test scores for the vocabulary items on Story One ranged from four to 10, with a mean of 8.82 and a standard deviation of 1.09. For Story Two the post-test
vocabulary scores ranged from three to 10, with a mean of 7.77 and a standard deviation of 1.60. Finally, for Story Three scores ranged from one to 10, with a mean of 8.88 and a standard deviation of 1.64.

The post-test scores for the comprehension items on Story One ranged from one to 10, with a mean of 5.13 and a standard deviation of 1.97. For Story Two, the post-test comprehension scores ranged from three to 10, with a mean of 7.54 and a standard deviation of 1.49. Finally, for Story Three, scores ranged from one to 10, with a mean of 6.37 and a standard deviation of 2.34.

In addition, coefficient alphas were calculated for each of the measures, using the Kuder-Richardson 20 formula. The following results were obtained by using the SPSSX statistical package. The reliability coefficients were: a) vocabulary pre-test = .86, b) vocabulary post-test = .83, and c) comprehension post-test = .80.
For the purpose of this study, three analyses were conducted. First, a repeated measures analysis of variance was conducted to assess the effects of the three prereading vocabulary strategies for promoting vocabulary learning. Second, an analysis of variance was computed to determine the effects of these strategies on comprehension. Finally, a simple linear regression analysis was used to determine whether vocabulary knowledge could be used as a predictor of comprehension ability.

In addition to the normal statistical procedures, effect sizes (ES) were calculated for each analysis. Glass & Hopkins (1984) outlined procedures for determining effect size using a delta coefficient, $d$. The calculation of $d$ involves subtracting the mean of the control group from the mean of the treatment group and then dividing that by the standard deviation of the control group. This procedure was used to determine effect sizes for both the repeated measures ANOVA and the ANOVA. Glass & Hopkins (1984) have also provided a set of criteria for assessing the size of the effects once they have been calculated. Glass and Hopkins's criteria are as follows: effects found to be within a range of $d = .2$ are said to be small; a value
within a range of $d = .5$ indicates medium effects; and, for $d = .8$, effects are said to be large.

When determining the effect sizes for a multiple regression analysis, however, a different set of statistical procedures are involved. Cohen (1977) indicated that effect sizes may be calculated by dividing the proportion of variance by the proportion of unexplained variance. This procedure yields a value of $f$. When interpreting this data, Cohen indicated that: effects found to be within the approximate range of $f = .10$ are said to be small; a value of $f = .25$ indicates moderate effects; and, for $f = .40$, effects are said to be large. The raw data can be found in Appendix K.

**Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance**

The repeated measures analysis of variance was calculated for the purpose of assessing the difference between the three prereading vocabulary strategies for improving vocabulary. The repeated measures analysis of variance consisted of a: (a) between-subjects factor, and (b) within-subjects factor. The between-subjects factor was the three treatments -- Directed Reading Activity (DRA), List-Group-Label (LGL), and Reconciled Reading Lesson (RRL). The within-subject factor was the vocabulary scores, i.e., pre- and post-test vocabulary scores. Means and standard deviations are presented in Table 1.
No statistically significant differences were found between the treatment groups, $F(2, 63) = .89, p > .05$. Additionally, the interaction was nonsignificant, $F(2, 63) = .84, p > .05$.

Results of the repeated measures ANOVA indicated that there was a statistically significant difference, $F(1, 63) = 80.68, p < .001$, between pre- and post-test vocabulary scores across all groups. This indicates that for each treatment group a statistically significant amount of learning took place between the time the pre-test was taken and the period in which students were post-tested. The direction of the means indicated that RRL seems to be the most effective treatment, followed by DRA and LGL.

The DRA was chosen to serve as the control group for the purpose of calculating the effect size measure because the DRA represented "business as usual" in the subjects' schools. Using the DRA strategy as the control group, the effect size (ES) for the LGL was calculated to be $d = -0.17$, while the effect size for the RRL was $d = .26$. Using Glass & Hopkins' criteria, these effect sizes are small.
### Table 1

**Means and Standard Deviations for Pre- and Post-test Vocabulary Scores Among Groups**

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</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRA</td>
<td>21.73</td>
<td>5.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LGL</td>
<td>21.00</td>
<td>4.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RRL</td>
<td>21.96</td>
<td>5.03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** Maximum Score = 30.

\[^{a}\text{n = 22/group.}\]
Analysis of Variance

The analysis of variance was used to determine the effects of the three prereading vocabulary strategies for improving comprehension. The dependent variable was the comprehension post-test scores, while the treatments served as the independent variables. Means and standard deviation scores are reported in Table 2. Statistically significant differences for the comprehension post-test were found between the groups, \( F(2, 63) = 9.36, p < .001 \).

Tukey's post hoc procedure was used to determine which means differed. The Tukey critical value was 3.05. The difference between DRA and LGL means was not significant. On the other hand, both differences between RRL and DRA means and RRL and LGL means were significant.

______________
Insert Table 2 about here
______________

Effect sizes (ES) for the treatments groups were then calculated. The effect size for the difference between RRL and DRA was \( d = .86 \), and the effect size for LGL and DRA was \( d = -0.11 \). Based on Glass & Hopkins', these findings indicate that the effect size for RRL and DRA is large while that of LGL and DRA is small.
Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations for Comprehension Post-test Scores Among Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatments</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DRA</td>
<td>17.64</td>
<td>5.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LGL</td>
<td>17.09</td>
<td>3.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RRL</td>
<td>22.09</td>
<td>3.24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Maximum Score = 30.  
\[ a_n = 22/\text{group}. \]
Simple Linear Regression Analysis

The regression analysis was used to determine whether or not vocabulary knowledge was a predictor of comprehension. This procedure required the use of a predictor variable (the post-test vocabulary score) and a dependent variable (the comprehension post-test score). In an effort to further refine the results by establishing group equivalency, an analysis of variance was computed using the pre-test vocabulary scores. The results of this procedure indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between groups, $p > .05$. This indicates that all three groups were equivalent in terms of their vocabulary ability prior to receiving instruction.

The regression analysis indicated that the results were statistically significant, $F(1, 64) = 61.52, p < .001$. When calculating the effects of the post-test vocabulary score on the comprehension score, the regression analysis indicated that 49% of the variance of the comprehension scores was due to vocabulary knowledge. Means and standard deviation scores are reported in Table 3.

_________________________

Insert Table 3 about here
_________________________
Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for Regression Analysis on Comprehension Post-test Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable Label</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension Post-test Scores</td>
<td>25.47</td>
<td>3.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary Post-test Scores</td>
<td>21.56</td>
<td>4.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 66.
Effect sizes were computed using Cohen’s (1977) calculation procedures. Results yielded an effect size of \( f = .96 \) for the ability of vocabulary to account for comprehension potential. In accordance to procedures outlined by Cohen (1977), this is considered a large effect size.

In summary, the findings indicate that: (a) the DRA, LGL, and RRL can be used to improve vocabulary learning, (b) use of the RRL instructional strategy enhances comprehension more than the DRA and LGL, and (c) vocabulary knowledge predicts a large amount of the variance in comprehension scores.
CHAPTER 4
DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to determine the effects of three prereading vocabulary strategies on second-grade subjects' vocabulary and comprehension development using the basal reader. In taking into account the generalizability of the results of this study, the following limitations should be considered. First, in order to assess subjects' prior knowledge and subsequent learning, a multiple-choice testing format was utilized. Although this format allows for ease of scoring and maintenance of ecological validity, this particular format is only one of many that may have been used. If subjects who participated in this study were evaluated using alternative testing formats, results may have varied. Second, the sample for this study involved only second graders who ranged in reading ability from average to above-average. Again, findings may have varied given different age and ability ranges. Finally, another possible limitation for this study is the fact that one specific basal reading series was utilized. Other basal series may provide different results.

Given the limitations of this study, the following conclusions can be drawn. First, it was found that all three treatments increased vocabulary knowledge. This conclusion should be considered in light of the fact that it
was more difficult for subjects to improve their vocabulary scores. The pre-test scores indicated that subjects were nearing a possible ceiling effect on vocabulary (70% or more correct by each treatment group). It appeared that subjects possessed a large amount of prior knowledge about vocabulary before they read the stories. Nevertheless, this finding corroborates the results of other studies which have shown that teaching students new vocabulary before they read improves their acquisition of that vocabulary (e.g., Beck, Perfetti, & McKeown, 1982; Kameenui, Carnine, & Freschi, 1982). What is novel is that this study provides evidence, where little or no empirical evidence currently exists, that using RRL, LGL, and DRA can make a difference in vocabulary learning.

Contrary to the findings of previous research concerning the efficacy of the DRA in prereading (Becker, 1977), the DRA also proved effective in improving vocabulary. Previous research has indicated that, although teaching new vocabulary is important in reading basal stories, it does not seem to be a critical factor in most basal lessons (O'Rourke, 1974). One possible explanation for this finding is that during the course of the instructional phase of the study, embellishment of the DRA format by the instructor occurred. The general DRA format suggests that a
student be called on to use a new vocabulary word in a sentence. In this study, however, several students were given the opportunity to provide input, resulting in potentially more discussion of vocabulary than anticipated or called for in the lesson.

Second, it was found that RRL did enhance subjects' ability to understand the basal stories used in this study to a greater extent than the other two strategies. As Reutzel (1985) has indicated, reversing the DRA format so that students experience a variety of creative means for activating prior knowledge and acquiring new knowledge before reading the story seems to be an effective approach to help students understand a basal story. Although further research is needed to corroborate this finding, it seems that the enrichment activities at the end of a basal selection provide students with a more active learning situation and involves them more fully in knowledge activation before reading than the DRA format seemingly provides. In contrast, the use of LGL was not as effective as RRL in enhancing subjects' comprehension. One possible explanation for such an occurrence is that this strategy might be a better post-reading enrichment strategy (Bean, Inabinette, & Ryan, 1983) than a prereading strategy; i.e., LGL may function better for enrichment of concepts rather than their activation.
Finally, the findings indicated that post-test vocabulary scores accounted for 49% of the variance in subjects' comprehension scores. Thus, vocabulary knowledge plays a substantial part in the outcome on the comprehension post-test measure. This finding adds to the previous research literature which indicates that vocabulary knowledge can predict comprehension ability (e.g., Becker, 1977; Davis, 1944; Johnston, 1981; Vineyard & Massey, 1957). The uniqueness of this finding is that this study involved second-grade subjects. To this researcher's knowledge, no other study used subjects at this grade level. However, a few studies (e.g., McKeown, Beck, Omanson, & Perfetti, 1983) have also found large effects for vocabulary or comprehension with subjects at the third-grade level or higher using basal readers.

Based on the findings of this study, the following implications seem to be suggested for instructional practice. First, it is important that teachers spend time on new vocabulary before students read their basal stories if they expect them to learn those words. Second, although many pre-reading strategies exist that purport to foster comprehension development (Moore, Readence, & Rickelman, 1982), the RRL appears to be a strategy that teachers might consider using. Though it might require
teachers to reorient their lesson presentation, implementing the RRL would not be an arduous task because it only requires teachers to use the enrichment activities provided in the basal manual before students read the basal stories. Finally, if teaching vocabulary before reading is not important enough to consider for vocabulary development alone, the fact that this study revealed that vocabulary teaching improved students' ability to understand what they read makes it imperative that teachers reconsider the importance of vocabulary instruction. Since Davis (1944) has pointed out that vocabulary is the primary indicator of comprehension and other studies (e.g., Draper & Moeller, 1971; Freebody & Anderson, 1983), in addition to the present one, have shown that vocabulary knowledge has a causal effect on comprehension development, it seems prudent for teachers to preteach these words which will help students understand the concepts present in students' basal stories.

Future research needs to focus on the use of the RRL, as well as other prereading strategies, with students at other grade levels and with other basal stories to corroborate the findings of this study. In addition, a variation in post-test formats should be used to allow for greater variety in task demand. The use of formats other than multiple-choice would add to the findings of this study.
In summary, teaching vocabulary before students read their basal texts is an important consideration in fostering growth in students' vocabulary and comprehension knowledge. Although the lesson formats currently found in basal readers may provide some impetus for learning, strategies like RRL, which provide a more in-depth presentation of the words and concepts to be learned in students' basal stories, should be considered as effective, alternative lesson formats.
References


APPENDIX A

DEFINITION OF TERMS
For the purpose of this study, the following terms are defined. Definitions have been taken from *A Dictionary of Reading Related Terms* (1981), T. L. Harris, & R. E. Hodges, (Eds.), except where noted.

**Basal reading program or series** - a comprehensive, integrated set of books, workbooks, teacher's manuals, and other materials for developmental reading instruction, chiefly in the elementary and middle school grades.

**Basal reader** - a text in a basal reading series.

**Directed reading activity** - a step-by-step process of dealing with a reading lesson under the guidance of a teacher; developmental reading lesson. A lesson plan which involves: (a) preparation/readiness/motivation for reading a lesson; (b) silent reading; (c) vocabulary and skills development; (d) silent and/or oral re-reading; and, (e) follow-up or enrichment activities.

**List-group-label** - a classification technique emphasizing word relationships through group collaboration (Readence, Bean, & Baldwin, 1985).
Prior knowledge - the background knowledge about a topic that readers possess before reading a passage about that topic.

Reconciled reading lesson - reversal of the outlined reading lesson format in the basal sequence to fit the basic tenets of schema theory (Reutzel, 1985).

Schema theory - a generalized description, plan, or structure, as a schema of the reading process. A conceptual system for understanding something.

Story and/or stories - an imaginative tale shorter than a novel but with plot, characters, and setting, as a short story. The story includes such aspects as, prereading activities, silent reading, skills activities, and follow-up or enrichment activities (Ginn, 1984).

Script - a written or printed text used to guide the speech and actions of performers, as in a play, motion picture, radio or TV show, etc.
Text explicit questions - questions that elicit information which is directly stated in the text. The type of understanding these questions measure is referred to as "reading the lines" (Pearson & Johnson, 1978, p. 163).

Text implicit questions - questions that elicit information which is derived from the text also require the reader to make logical inferences to find a response. The type of understanding these questions measure is called "reading between the lines" (Pearson & Johnson, 1978, p. 164).
APPENDIX B

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
Review of the Literature

The current research focusing on schema theory by Anderson, Bransford, and their colleagues (e.g., Anderson, Pichert, & Shirey, 1983; Bransford, 1979; Bransford & Johnson, 1972) has established a precedent for the importance of securing a relationship between what has been previously known and that which is to be learned. While their research continues to have tremendous impact on educational practices today, its origin can be traced as far back as the first half of the century. Articles that were authored by experimental psychologists, such as Max Wertheimer, Wolfgang Kohler, and Kurt Koffka in the 1930's and 1940's, established the foundation from which researchers are currently focusing their direction of study. Indeed, as early as 1932, Sir Frederick Bartlett is acknowledged and given credit for establishing the use of the term schema in reference to research of his time. However, the usage of the term at that time was given a very broad and general definition. Its connotation implied not only the inclusion of new information but the ability to recall this information as well. In today's reading jargon this is known as schema acquisition and schema activation, respectively (Pearson & Johnson, 1978).
The term *prior knowledge* is commonly used today to refer to the notion of schema theory. The use of this term has been attributed to the early work of David P. Ausubel (1963). Ausubel (1963) proposed the tenet that if learning were to be meaningful, then learners must already possess in their cognitive structures knowledge of concepts which can be related to that which is going to be learned. The possession of such structures allows the reader to take the new, incoming information and assimilate it into pre-existing knowledge. Acquisition of knowledge, under these particular constraints, would represent a bridging of sorts. Indeed, Pearson & Johnson (1978) used the term *bridging* to refer to the relationship of connecting new, incoming information, to old, existing knowledge. In many instances, this bridging effect in reading is the key to reading comprehension. One's prior knowledge of a particular topic will ultimately influence the degree to which information being read will not only be processed, but acquired (Amarel, 1982).

If one accepts the tenets of schema theory, there are several factors that, when coupled with this theory, will ultimately improve a student's comprehension of incoming information. These factors will be explored in
this review because they serve as integral factors related to the present study. Investigated will be pertinent literature related to: (a) the activation of prior knowledge, (b) the acquisition of prior knowledge, (c) the relation that exists between vocabulary and comprehension, (d) vocabulary as an intervention method for improving comprehension during the prereading phase of a reading lesson, and (e) prereading strategies used to foster the activation of prior knowledge, specifically, (1) the prereading stage of the DRA, (2) the prereading stage of the reconciled reading lesson, and (3) the use of list-group-label.

Activation of Prior Knowledge

The majority of current research focusing on prior knowledge has dealt primarily with the relation between the activation of this prior knowledge and its influence on comprehension of text. Prior knowledge is seen as "providing the framework that helps the reader to assimilate new information" (Anderson, Osborn, & Tierney, 1984, p. 8). The importance of prior knowledge in comprehension is not a new notion. Indeed, William S. Gray (1948) addressed, in both his professional writing as well as his suggestions for teachers in the basal manuals, the necessity of engaging children's
prior knowledge before reading. However, current research has seen a preponderance of information stressing the concept of prior knowledge. Several studies have produced results citing a positive relation between the activation of prior knowledge and the comprehension of text.

In addressing this same tenet, Langer (1981), Lipson (1982), and Ribovich (1979) have produced overwhelming findings from their research that background knowledge indeed fosters comprehension. These researchers have found that it is extremely useful to activate subjects' background knowledge prior to reading. Langer (1981) stated that "when preparing students for a reading activity, we can help them become aware of relevant prior knowledge, while we judge whether or not that knowledge is sufficient for comprehension of the text. At that point we will be able to make knowledgeable decisions about reading assignments and instruction and related concepts" (p. 153). It is the activation of this knowledge that allows for comprehension to effectively and efficiently take place.

Crafton (1983) investigated another means of activating prior knowledge. Using a sample of 30
eleventh graders, she employed the use of a reading passage as a prior knowledge acquisition-facilitator or activator for a second, related passage. Her findings indicated that subjects reading the two related passages "not only comprehended the material at higher levels, . . . but also were more active during the reading process and personalized information to a greater degree than did subjects who read unrelated materials" (p.590).

Additional research that adds credence to this notion of schema activation has been conducted by Pearson, Hansen, and Gordon (1979). Results of their study indicated that a substantial benefit in retention of text occurs for those students who activated their prior knowledge by various means.

In addition to these studies, Hayes and Tierney (1982) have indicated that presenting background information to students improves their comprehension. They reported that this improvement was achieved regardless of how that background information was presented or how general and/or specific it was.

Another possible classroom alternative for presenting background information in order to activate prior knowledge is the use of previews. The use of
previews, prior to reading, provides a means for presenting background information in which the student is the primary participant. Studies that focused on the use of previews for the purpose of activating prior knowledge to improve comprehension were conducted by Graves and Cooke (1980), Graves, Cooke, and LaBerge (1983), and Graves and Palmer (1981). These previews consisted of one central and vital component, the information necessary to build background knowledge that was important to the understanding of the topic. These studies cited findings that supported the notion that through reading these previews containing the necessary background information, students increased their learning from stories by a substantial amount.

Lipson (1982) conducted a study examining the relation between prior knowledge and children's comprehension of expository passages. Subjects were 28 third-grade pupils of average and below-average reading ability. A pre-test was administered to assess the subject's level of prior knowledge in reference to the topics of eight expository passages. Two weeks later, subjects were given the passages to read, with sentence combinations to perform. Results indicated that: (a) subjects recognized more explicit than implicit
information, (b) subjects' prior knowledge varied between passages, (c) subjects answered correctly more post-test items when the pre-test item received a correct response, and (d) post-test items were answered correctly more often when they had not been attempted on the pre-test when compared with giving a wrong answer on the pre-test. Thus, the level of prior knowledge that an individual possessed about a given topic directly influenced his or her ability to comprehend while reading.

**Acquisition of Prior Knowledge**

While the activation of prior knowledge is indeed an important component of comprehension, so to is the notion of acquisition of such information. Children do not enter school as empty vessels ready to be filled with facts and skills (Heine, 1985). Quite the contrary, children enter school with a wealth of experiences that make up the foundations for that which will be learned.

Current findings in educational research are very clear that a reader's background knowledge is critical to the reading process. Indeed, no reading event takes place without the reader referring to portions of this knowledge.
Reder (1980), in a review of research on text and story comprehension retention, examined three major areas: (a) investigations of factors that affect the amount of recall; (b) representations of text structure; and (c) use of world knowledge to aid in comprehension. Reder indicated that prior knowledge, as well as an inherent interest in the subject matter, can influence the degree of comprehension and retention.

In addition to the previously mentioned studies which reflect the importance of the activation of prior knowledge, Ausubel (1963), Graves, et. al. (1983), and Marr and Gromley (1982) have noted the need to assess reader's existing background knowledge in order to improve their reading comprehension. In particular, Marr and Gromley (1982) sought to find out whether content knowledge would affect reading comprehension. Using a sample of fourth graders, subjects were asked to read, recall, and answer probe questions about familiar and unfamiliar texts. The results indicated that prior knowledge had three differing effects on comprehension. The first notion supported was that specific knowledge about a topic supported the reader in learning more about that particular topic. Second, some knowledge of a similar or comparable topic also affected the
comprehension of the selected topic. Finally, a general knowledge and understanding of the world improved comprehension on a specific topic.

Ribovich (1979) stressed the notion that one should not merely assume that schooled knowledge reflects or imparts the only pertinent information necessary for reading comprehension. Using an assessment of background knowledge, she questioned education and economic students about their predictions concerning concepts, ideas, or any information that would be expected from a particular type of text. Ribovich found that both groups predicted similar amounts of information from the education texts while economics students predicted more information from the economics texts than did the education students. These findings are not surprising when one considers that the entire sample had participated in at least 12 to 17 years of educational schooling, and, thus, had accumulated a background for educational formats and knowledge. On the other hand, the economics students were assessed in an area in which they possessed adequate background knowledge while the education students lacked such knowledge. This finding indicates the importance of basic world knowledge that each
individual acquires through daily life experiences. Stevens (1982) also found that teachers can directly provide their students with this necessary background knowledge, and in doing so will improve their reading comprehension of expository texts. These results were obtained from a study that focused on 140 parochial tenth-grade subjects who read a history passage. She examined the relation between direct instruction concerning knowledge of a topic to be read and comprehension of that topic. Subjects given instruction concerning the Texan War were able to answer a significantly larger number of multiple-choice questions after reading a passage dealing with the Alamo than were subjects receiving no instruction on the larger topic. Stevens found that students could improve their comprehension when teachers instructed the students prior to reading the selection compared to those students who received the paragraph to read without instruction.

In addition, Swaby (1977) presented 108 sixth graders, classified as both good and poor readers, with a written introductory passage designed to connect possible prior knowledge with the longer text passage to be read. Although this pre-reading instruction did not
produce statistically significant results with good readers, it did indicate positive results for those readers classified as "poor readers". In conclusion, Swaby noted that poor readers, especially, would benefit from instruction prior to reading.

Another aspect of background knowledge that has been addressed is the quality of content knowledge and its effect on reading comprehension. Holmes (1983) found that the background information of readers fell into four categories: (a) accurate, (b) inaccurate, (c) incomplete, and (d) missing. The information obtained from this study indicated that both good and poor readers with limited background knowledge comprehended about the same. However, a difference appeared between good and poor readers who had substantial background knowledge. The good readers did significantly better than poor readers when they had the necessary background knowledge. Another pertinent finding worth noting is that poor readers often relied on background knowledge that was inappropriate for the content. These poor readers failed to see the inappropriate nature of this knowledge, while good readers recognized the inappropriate nature of the information.
In a study conducted by Alvermann, Smith, and Readence (1985) using 52 sixth-grade students, they examined the effect of prior knowledge activation on average readers' comprehension of compatible and incompatible text. The findings indicated that the lack of story relevance and inaccurate prior knowledge has been found to have tremendous potential for interfering with comprehension. Results supported the notion that prior knowledge, under certain conditions, may interfere rather than aid comprehension. In addition to this study, Townsend (1980) investigated schema shifting with a sample of 48 undergraduate subjects. The findings of this study indicated that the activation of an appropriate schema prior to listening to longer units of connected discourse aided recall of information, but the activation of an inappropriate schema confounded comprehension as measured by recall. Lipson (1982) also found evidence to support the promotion of comprehension when substantial amounts of background information are possessed by students. Findings indicated that readers were more likely to recall text information that was unknown to the reader than information that was known but counter to the text. These findings as well as those of Holmes (1983) suggest that while the quantity
and quality of background is important in comprehension, the way that the knowledge is used also affects the readers' comprehension.

Such findings lead us to question the means through which we should begin to focus instruction in order to promote comprehension. Indeed, extensive consideration must be given to an appropriate method for introducing and initiating instruction prior to reading in those early school years.

**Vocabulary as a Means of Activating Prior Knowledge for the Promotion of Comprehension**

There is no question as to the efficacy of the notion that there is a direct relation between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension (Davis, 1944). As Anderson and Freebody (1981) suggested in conjunction with an extensive review of research: "Word knowledge is a requisite for reading comprehension: people who do not know the meanings of words are most probably poor readers" (p. 110). In retrospect, if students are introduced to relevant vocabulary before these terms are encountered in text, their ability to construct meaning from text is likely to be enhanced (Tierney, Readence, & Dishner, 1985). Additionally, new vocabulary words are more easily retained when students
are given an opportunity to explore the meanings of words in-depth through a variety of language modes.

For beginning readers, the primary methods for prior knowledge acquisition or activation generally focus on the accurate use of vocabulary that is specified in the teacher's basal manual. In most prereading activities provided by these manuals, vocabulary is viewed as the primary means for arousing previous conceptual associations and providing new associations for the purpose of assisting students in relating the unfamiliar to the familiar (Johnson, Levin, & Pittelman, 1984). The manner in which this vocabulary background information is obtained by students is of primary importance because it is this knowledge that enhances students' comprehension ability. To date, the primary method of introducing this vocabulary revolves around the use of the prereading activities outlined in basal manuals. This format generally requires that the teacher place several sentences on the board and request that the students supply the appropriate vocabulary in the missing blank. In addition, some manuals include a variation of this procedure in that the teacher writes a short paragraph on the board and the students fill-in the missing blanks of the paragraph.
It is difficult to differentiate pertinent background knowledge and pertinent vocabulary knowledge. Irwin (1986) stated "because word meanings are learned best when learned in terms of their associations with other concepts, it is probably best to think of expanding prior knowledge and building background simultaneously" (p. 107). McNeil (1984) reiterated that thought when he stated, "a person who knows a word well knows other words and ideas related to it. It is this network of ideas that enhances comprehension" (p. 96-97). In a study conducted by Anderson and Freebody (1979), they suggested that the child who would know the meaning of the word mast would generally have knowledge of sailing, thus implying that general knowledge of sailing, not of the word mast, enables the child to understand the text of sailing. In a similar vein, Stahl (1983) indicated that vocabulary instruction has been found to facilitate reading comprehension because an inability to understand the vocabulary and its use in the text causes a breakdown in understanding.

Pearson and Johnson (1978) emphasized the need for providing anchors, or building blocks, through activation of prior knowledge so that students might accommodate the new incoming information. Further,
Beck, McKeown, McCaslin, and Burkes (1979) have indicated that teaching vocabulary is a specialized aspect of developing prior knowledge and a possible means of supplying the anchor viewed as essential for comprehension.

This link between comprehension and vocabulary has been noted in research as far back as Davis (1944, 1968) who provided quantitative evidence to support the notion that the single most important factor related to comprehension ability was vocabulary. A study extending this relationship was conducted by Becker (1977). Becker reported that the limited availability and use of vocabulary is one of the single most important factors affecting disadvantaged students' problems with reading comprehension.

Not all research concurs with this position. Anderson and Freebody (1979) cautioned that the link between vocabulary and comprehension is not causally related. In conjunction with this position, Jenkins, Pany, and Schreck (1978) have been widely cited as presenting evidence against the hypothesis that vocabulary instruction can improve comprehension. However, the results on several measures of the study showed positive effects of vocabulary instruction.
On the other hand, several studies (e.g., Johnston, 1981; Vineyard & Massey, 1957) have also indicated that vocabulary instruction can improve reading comprehension. Draper and Moeller (1971) obtained improved comprehension, as measured by a standardized test, with a program that taught a large number of words over a period of an entire school year. Other studies using a similar research format and producing comparable supporting results are those of Barrett & Graves (1981), and Graves & Bender (1980). These studies sought to improve comprehension through the teaching of vocabulary prior to reading a given selection of text. The results were measured by standardized tests after the reading had taken place, and an increase in comprehension was noted.

Stahl (1983) examined the effects of varying vocabulary treatments on the reading comprehension of average, fifth-grade students. Three passage selections were developed from the Dale-O'Rourke and the Dale-Chall word lists. Questions were developed to assess passage comprehension. Three treatments were administered to all groups: (a) definitional, (b) definitional and contextual, and (c) control. Using a 3 x 3 factorial design with repeated measures analysis of variance,
results indicated that neither treatment nor the order in which the treatments were administered was significant for passage comprehension; however, their interaction was. Both treatments had a significant effect on comprehension and vocabulary learning, and a mixed method of definitional and contextual information produced higher comprehension scores than a definitional method alone.

Another study which focused on an examination of the effects of vocabulary difficulty on reading comprehension was conducted by Freebody and Anderson (1983). Seventy-nine sixth graders were asked to read three social studies content passages. These passages ranged from: (a) an easy passage composed of high frequency words, (b) a passage in which low frequency, or difficult words, were substituted at the rate of one in six substance words, and (c) a passage that yielded a one in three substitution rate. A total of three dependent measures were taken. The first was a written free recall, while the second was a short written summary. The last measure that was secured from each of the subjects was a true/false sentence-recognition task. A significant effect for vocabulary was found only in the sentence-recognition task.
While this information tends to lend support for the notion that vocabulary improves comprehension, it fails to produce sufficient evidence to support a causal relation between young readers' basal lesson exercises and vocabulary. The desire to find support for such a relation has led to a line of research investigating the various instructional methods of preteaching vocabulary and their impact on comprehension.

The Importance of Vocabulary as an Intervention Method for the Prereading Phase of the Reading Lesson

When readers appear to lack the prior knowledge deemed necessary to read, what can teachers do to compensate? There are generally three alternatives that are found in the existing literature that serve as guidelines for possible alternatives as well as viable options: (a) teach vocabulary as a prereading step; (b) provide experiences that will fill-in the missing information; or (c) provide students with a scenario that resembles the information to read and allow them to make the various connections for themselves. These instructional alternatives can be found in many of the instructional materials used in today's classroom. However, the most widely used alternative is that of teaching vocabulary as a prereading step of the basal lesson.
Studies which support the need to teach key words from passages prior to reading have been conducted by Beck, Perfetti, & McKeown (1982), and Kameenui, Carnine, & Freschi (1982). In addition, McKeown, Beck, Omanson, & Perfetti (1983) investigated, through a replication of Beck et. al. (1982), the relation between vocabulary instruction and reading comprehension. Using a sample of 41 matched pairs of fourth graders, subjects were taught 104 difficult words in approximately 75 lessons. Each lesson lasted approximately 30 minutes and extended over a five-month period. Instruction for the two groups involved one group being provided exposure to each word 10-18 times while the second group received exposure to each word anywhere from 26-40 times. The instructional aspect of the study involved manipulation of these words that would allow for a deeper understanding and more flexible usage. The results of this study indicated that instruction enhanced knowledge of the specified words for the group with the most exposures and, in turn, enhanced the comprehension of stories containing these words.

Kameenui, et. al. (1982) also produced similar findings. They indicated that words to be taught should be key words in the target passages. These words should
also be semantically- and topically-related sets. By using target words in such a manner, the word meanings and background knowledge improve concurrently. An additional recommendation that was made was to hold the number of new words introduced to a small number, per lesson, per week.

When combining the results of the aforementioned studies, we find that these researchers specify that not only should the vocabulary to be learned be target words, but that these words be taught in topically- and semantically-related sets. This would allow word knowledge and background knowledge to improve simultaneously. While some studies have indicated that a range of 20 to 25 words be taught to students at one setting (Beck, et. al., 1983; Becker, 1977), others have indicated that only a few words per lesson, per week, be taught to the students (Kameenui, Carnine, & Freschi, 1982; Stevens, 1982). Their research has also indicated the need to teach these words in such a way that would allow for these words to be learned in a thorough manner. It seems more reasonable to assume that only a few new vocabulary words can be taught to students if it is expected that they are to learn these words thoroughly.
Vocabulary strategies that focus on building on existing knowledge of a student are likely to have positive effects on comprehension (Beck, et. al., 1982). Herber (1978) concurred with this notion of vocabulary instruction by stating that it is false to assume that students who have memorized definitions or who have participated in brief prereading discussions have received all the instruction necessary for comprehending the text to be read. He stressed the need to allow students to "use words in many situations" (p. 160) before assuming that the words were really known and, therefore, usable by the students. Herber went on to state that "students develop vocabulary when they use words in situations that have meaning, in conversations, and animated discussion" (p. 162). Additionally, Schank (1982) also stated it was necessary to allow immediate oral practice for students when learning new words.

Therefore, vocabulary instructional methods that require that students use the words being learned in a meaningful manner, both orally and written, are generally more likely to result in their being learned than by mere memorization. If this is so, this would bring into question the efficacy of the use of the prereading phase of the directed reading activity to
develop vocabulary and, ultimately, promote comprehension.

The Use of the Prereading Stage of the Directed Reading Activity as a Means to Promote Comprehension

The basal reader approach is the most widely used approach to teaching reading in the U.S. (Searfoss & Readence, 1985). This method of reading instruction originated in the early 1930's after extensive research had been conducted to produce an effective way of teaching reading (Beck, 1984). The basal reading series was designed as a complete set of instructional materials that could be used to teach reading. Once the teacher had the materials, all he or she had to do was follow the specific steps and guidelines given in the teacher's manuals. The general consensus has been that students would learn to read and comprehend as a consequence of following these activities outlined in the manuals. When many students began to fail to learn to read, other possibilities were explored for improving these instructional reading materials. Betts (1946) compiled a series of guidelines known as the Directed Reading Activity (DRA) that many authors of basal readers recommended for teaching reading selections. The rationale behind the use of such a format was: (a) to
give teachers a basic format from which to provide systematic instruction on a group basis, (b) to assist in improving students' word recognition and comprehension skills, (c) and to successfully help them comprehend. Betts (1946) described such a plan of instruction, based on the DRA format:

First, the group should be prepared, oriented, or made ready, for the reading of a story selection. Second, the first reading should be guided silent reading. Third, word-recognition skills and comprehension should be developed during the silent reading. Fourth, the reading--silent or oral, depending upon the needs of the pupil--should be done for purposes different from those served by the first, or silent, reading. Fifth, the follow-up on the "reading lesson" should be differentiated in terms of pupil needs. (p. 492)

Thus, the purpose of the DRA was to provide a comprehensive means for providing reading instruction to children from the beginning of a reading selection to the end of this selection. Indeed, some authors are now creating various lessons in the basal series around the format of the DRA.
Although the DRA has had many interpretations during the years following its origination, it has basically maintained several generic steps. These steps include: (a) preparation for reading, (b) guided reading, and (c) postreading skill development and enrichment activities (Searfoss & Readence, 1985).

The first step of the DRA, central to this study, is known as the preparation for reading. The focus of instruction is on preparing the students to read the selection. Such preparation involves preteaching vocabulary, relating the story topic to the students' past experiences, assisting them in developing an interest for reading the story, and then helping them establish their own purposes for reading the story. Many studies have pointed out that the prereading step of the DRA, or of any lesson, is the most important aspect of any school lesson, not just of reading (Anderson, Pichert, & Shirey, 1982; Wilson, 1981).

Spache and Spache (1977) have suggested that the first step to any basal lesson should be the introduction of new vocabulary. Durkin (1974) also felt that, if students are expected to read a basal selection that would include new words, then they must be given the appropriate opportunity to learn these words.
O'Rourke (1974) asserted that vocabulary instruction, based on the guidelines provided in the teachers' manual, was managed in an unstructured, incidental, and sometimes accidental manner. Stauffer (1971) also felt that teachers generally relied on a limited number of activities given in these manuals and failed to use other, more relevant, means for vocabulary instructional purposes. On the other hand, Beck (1984) stated that, "in the teacher's manuals of most reading programs, developers provide specific instructional strategies for dealing with the meaning of target words" (p. 10). In general, however, there seems to be merely a suggestion that teachers may wish to introduce target words by presenting them in some form of context and having the students infer the opposite meanings of the words.

This lack of sufficient prereading activities, which serve as a means to build and activate prior knowledge of a story, is a problem prevalent in many basal reading series. The failure to address such issues at the beginning of a reading lesson often causes misunderstandings of the text being read (Alvermann, Smith, & Readence, 1985; Lipson, 1984). Indeed, an
examination of the general format of basal reading
lessons suggests that the primary emphasis for
developing prior knowledge in comprehension instruction
is found at the end of the lesson (Reutzel, 1985).
In a survey conducted by Russavage, Lorton, and Millham
(1985) examining the weaknesses of basal readers,
teachers identified a serious problem with basal
manuals, that the manuals "failed to address adequately:
Students' lack of prior knowledge" (p. 316).

Thus, this review of the literature does not
indicate that it is appropriate to conclude that the use
of the prereading stage of the DRA is an effective means
to promote students' comprehension of basal materials.
Indeed, Durkin (1984) and Russavage, et. al. (1985)
indicated that it is not safe to say that adhering to
the format of the DRA will promote comprehension in
early readers by activating their prior knowledge.
Reutzel (1985) has gone so far as to advocate the
reversal of the DRA format so that those enrichment and
follow-up activities found at the end of the lesson
would serve as the procedures for activating students'
prior knowledge before reading a selection.
The Use of the Reconciled Reading Lesson as a Means to Promote Comprehension

Since the use of the initial phase of the DRA lesson seems to have little to do with building background knowledge in order to promote comprehension, another possible alternative, adapted from Reutzel's (1985) Reconciled Reading Lesson (RRL), will be investigated. While one might argue that manuals do provide several questions at the beginning of each story which often serve to focus attention on the text, Beck et. al. (1979) found that these questions often represent a barrage of ideas that form no cohesive pattern for understanding the text. If one supports the value of schema theory in producing better comprehension, the emphasis on developing prior knowledge and building background information should come prior to reading the story with emphasis being placed on building cohesive thoughts for understanding the material (Reutzel, 1985).

Schema-based theories have dominated the contemporary research on the reading comprehension process. As a result, practitioners have been directed to give greater amounts of time and attention to building prior knowledge and providing instruction prior to
reading. The use of the Reconciled Reading Lesson and its procedures holds the potential to simply, and yet effectively, bridge the gap between current theory and classroom practice. The use of the RRL would allow for "minor modifications which can help accomplish at least one major goal associated with schema theory. It shifts the emphasis away from evaluation activities after reading and toward more instructional activities preceding reading" (Reutzel, 1985, p. 195).

The fundamental steps involved in the Reconciled Reading Lesson are primarily the original generic steps that are found in the DRA lesson format. However, the Reconciled Reading Lesson reverses the basal manual format to fit the basic tenets of schema theory.

The initial step for the RRL is the use of the enrichment activities. To initiate such a lesson, the teacher begins by turning in her manual to the last section of the reading lesson entitled, "Expanding the Story" or "Language Enrichment Activities". Reutzel stated that:

by using the enrichment activities coupled with the new vocabulary prior to reading, teachers can actively involve students with the unfamiliar events and concepts associated with the story they
are going to read. In addition, using these enrichment activities, which are often viewed as a postreading optional activity, becomes an essential preparatory instructional activity (p. 195).

Such a notion focuses on building a knowledge base in which students might relate incoming information to existing or newly provided information. In a study conducted by Graves, Cooke, & LaBerge (1983), two specific investigations were conducted. In Experiment 1, 32 eighth graders from an inner-city junior high school were given previews of the material that they were to later read. The materials used were four short stories, with prepared previews of questions and statements. Students were also provided with an oral overview of the story while the characters of the story were discussed and their respective roles outlined. In addition, three to four words, relating to the text were introduced to the students. Following the reading, subjects completed a multiple-choice test. Students who received the preview instruction provided more correct responses than those students who did not receive the treatment. In Experiment 2 a total of 40 seventh graders were given two short stories with treatments being the same as
those used in Experiment 1. Findings again indicated that students receiving the previews outperformed those students who did not have the benefit of the previews. In addition, attitudes were assessed about the usefulness of the previews, and subjects indicated that they were viewed as a help rather than a hindrance.

Following along these same lines, the majority of enrichment or follow-up activities tend to focus on providing students with activities that will allow them to extend the knowledge provided and alter their personal understanding of the story's content. Many of the activities that are recommended for use as post-reading activities are cumulative in nature and focus on such practices as questioning, group collaboration, as well as establishing some type of format for preview of the material. An example of one such activity would be to have the students who were going to read the story, "Stone Soup" (Houghton Mifflin, 1976) make a pot of stone soup. Once they had made the soup and eaten it, then small groups of children may be assembled and each group allowed to reenact the steps that had just taken place in order to make the stone soup.
While reversing the format of the Directed Reading Activity may indeed alter the amount of learning that takes place, the format may not vary significantly and, therefore, appear to the students to present the necessary information with little diversification. In promoting comprehension through the effective use of a vocabulary strategy, one of the important notions is to utilize a strategy that will allow students to actively engage in eliciting responses or ideas concerning the topic in question. One such strategy that allows this particular format to evolve is the use of list-group-label.

The Use of List-Group-Label as a Means to Promote Comprehension

In addition to the use of the RRL as a potential means for activating students' knowledge prior to reading a selection, the use of List-Group-Label (LGL) has also been cited as a possible means for activating students' prior knowledge (Readence, Bean, & Baldwin, 1985). The LGL strategy was originally designed by Taba in 1967 for the purpose of aiding students' in dealing with the technical vocabulary in science and social studies classes. This strategy was originated based on the notion that through the categorization of words
students could organize their original thoughts, ideas, and experiences in relation to the concept being learned. Such an activity would allow for students to verbalize their understanding of a concept, and through collaborative group effort, make any adjustments and reorganization of misconceptions prior to reading that might cause inappropriate connections to be made during the course of reading.

For instance, in a basal story that focused on the training of lions to perform, the teacher would first place the word lion on the board. The teacher would then call for someone to read the word on the board. When the word has been identified, the students would be asked to spend a few minutes thinking about the word and any pertinent information that can relate to it. After providing the students with some "think-time," the teacher would call on individual students for their responses. Responses would then be written on the board. Once an appropriate number of responses have been solicited (i.e., approximately 20-25), students are asked to group these words into categories. When they have finished their grouping procedure, they are requested to provide an appropriate heading for each of the small groupings. Finally, students are required to
justify or provide a rationale for why they chose a particular heading for each group.

To this researcher's knowledge the only study reported in the literature that examined the efficacy of LGL is one conducted by Bean, Inabinette, and Ryan (1983). They examined the effect of LGL on secondary students' retention of vocabulary. Results of this study indicated positive effects for the use of LGL as a post-reading strategy. Based on the theory that students' need an adequate, as well as appropriate, understanding of the concepts contained in the story and that vocabulary is often the means for fostering such an understanding, the use of LGL will also be examined as a means to promote comprehension of basal stories in this study.

While research supporting the efficacy of LGL is minimal, the research indicating the importance of specifying the important concepts prior to reading is vast in number. For example, a recent study conducted by Alvarez and Risko (1984) concerning the use of thematic organizers, again, illustrates the importance of relating the students' prior knowledge to what will be encountered when the text is read. Using 48 undergraduate subjects classified as poor readers,
results indicated significantly greater recall of literal, inferential, and transfer level ideas. Subjects who were placed in the experimental conditions indicated a greater ability to present more complete propositions and fewer incorrect answers in their retellings than did subjects in the comparison group. The results of this study support the notion that:

relating subjects' prior knowledge to thematic concepts before they read varied contexts facilitates their ability to generate explanations for "new" information. This process of alerting subjects to common elements between their prior knowledge and concepts presented in varied contexts can reduce confusion and encourage the generalizability of knowledge (Alvarez & Risko, 1984, pp. 13-14).

This is precisely what the use of LGL can do for students when utilized prior to the actual reading of a story. Not only will it allow the student to make new connections concerning the story to be read, but it will allow for any misconceptions to be altered and made appropriate prior to reading so that comprehension potential is maximized.
Summary

While this review has delineated the importance of schema activation and acquisition, it has also outlined the role that vocabulary instruction plays in promoting these two aspects of learning. Indeed, three plausible alternatives have been addressed and outlined in this review for use during the prereading stage of the basal manual lesson. In particular, the emphasis has been to explain each of the three strategies in terms of their strengths and weaknesses for effectively improving comprehension via vocabulary instruction during the prereading phase of a reading lesson.

While there are studies that have indicated positive results in terms of teaching vocabulary prior to reading, to this researcher's knowledge there have been no actual studies assessing the appropriateness of the prereading phase of the DRA for promoting comprehension via vocabulary instruction. Additionally, there are those who are unwilling to believe that the use of the DRA is the only and/or best way to promote comprehension. Thus, the use of the RRL has been suggested. By restructuring the format of the basal lesson, emphasis would shift from merely supplying appropriate terms to missing blanks to fostering group
collaboration, discussions, creative thinking, and problem-solving. Thus, new connections as well as misconceptions are handled prior to reading and students can focus their time and energy on reading for meaning and not trying to make sense out of misunderstood messages.

However, it has been stated that there may not be appropriate activities found at the end of each basal lesson (Beck, 1984). In lieu of this comment the need to investigate another prereading format, LGL, arises. While only one study (Bean, Inabinette, & Ryan, 1983) has been conducted with this strategy, it does point to the need to stress activities that focus students' attention on those necessary concepts that will be found in the story. Through the use of group collaboration, every individual is afforded the opportunity to participate and to provide input in reference to the story and its meaning by using LGL. Through such an activity the teacher then serves as moderator and can focus her attention on clearing up any misconceptions that might occur.

Based on this information, the present study will attempt to look at these three prereading, vocabulary strategies and determine their effectiveness for
promoting comprehension in early readers. In summary, the following questions will guide this study:

1. Will various prereading vocabulary strategies have differential effects on postreading vocabulary of basal reader stories by second-grade students?

2. Will various prereading vocabulary strategies have differential effects on postreading comprehension of basal reader stories by second-grade students?

3. Is there a relation between prereading vocabulary instructional strategies and their effect on the comprehension of basal reader stories?
References


APPENDIX C

BACKGROUND ON INSTRUCTIONAL FORMATS

A. Directed Reading Activity
B. Reconciled Reading Lesson
C. List-Group-Label
DIRECTED READING ACTIVITY

Most basal reading series provide similar formats for their reading lessons (Alexander, 1983). Although the sequence may vary, generally the contents contain the following phases: (a) preparation for reading the story or prereading activities, (b) guided reading, (c) skills development and practice, and (d) follow-up and/or enrichment activities. This combination of phases is generally referred to as the Directed Reading Activity (DRA) (Alexander, 1983; Cushenberry, 1969; Karlin, 1975).

The prereading or preparation phase of the lesson involves motivating the students to read the story, setting a purpose for reading, providing background information, and the development of concepts that students will be required to know in order to understand the story. The basal reading series provides a list of possible questions which serve the purpose of providing the teacher with the opportunity to stimulate interest in the story (Alexander, 1983). During this phase of the DRA, the teacher generally introduces a certain number of words that pertain to the story which might prove to hinder comprehension of the story if the student did not have an understanding of their meanings in relation to the story being read.
The guided reading or developmental phase of the lesson directs the student's attention to picture interpretation, oral reading, silent reading, and, ultimately, comprehension. During this phase, the student does not read the entire story at one time. Directions from the teacher, as outlined in the manuals, often instruct the student to read a page or two to find the answer to a specific question that has been provided by the teacher. Thus, reading takes place over a period of time when teacher-directed questioning and class or group discussion take place.

The skill development or practice phase of the lesson requires that the teacher initiate instruction and activities in such areas as vocabulary development, decoding, comprehension, and study skills. This phase of the lesson is often viewed as a student evaluation activity as well as the instructional phase to the lesson.

The follow-up or enrichment phase of the lesson involves additional skills work, reading from library books on similar topics of interest, art activities, music activities, and writing activities. Generally, more suggestions than can be used are given at this point in the lesson. Teachers must choose those activities which are best
suited for the needs of their students and their particular interests.

Thus, the basal manual lessons using the DRA format follow a very specific set of steps with outlined procedures and suggestions for the teacher in terms of how to implement these various steps. Specific recommendations are made to the teacher as to how these various steps might be introduced to the students in order to improve the comprehension of the story.
RECONCILED READING LESSON

The Reconciled Reading Lesson (RRL) (Reutzel, 1985) encompasses the same steps as the DRA but in reverse order. The RRL reverses the DRA in order to comply with the basic tenets of schema theory.

The follow-up or enrichment activities become the first phase of the lesson. "By using the enrichment activities coupled with the new vocabulary prior to reading, teachers can actively involve students with the unfamiliar events and concepts associated with the story they are going to read" (Reutzel, 1985, p. 195). Through the use of these enrichment activities, often viewed as postreading optional activities, the emphasis is placed on promoting the understanding of the story prior to reading and not after the fact. The selection of these activities to be used in the initial phase of reading instruction is determined by the teacher based upon the students' needs and the appropriateness of the activities. These activities are used for the purpose of building background and activating, as well as enhancing, existing schemata for the story or assisting in the development of new schemata prior to reading the selection.

The second phase of the RRL is the skills instruction phase. Typically, we find in basals that skills instruction comes at the end of the story. This is in direct contrast
with the notion that these specified skills are needed in order to effectively read the lesson. Duffy and Roehler (1984) stated that, "when comprehension is dealt with, it is after the fact; teachers frequently teach comprehension skills after the students have read, and perhaps misunderstood a story. They do this partly because it is recommended in most basal text books" (p. 1). In the RRL, skills instruction should occur prior to reading so that students will understand that these reading skills should be applied to the material they are going to be reading. Thus, the use of reading skills is encouraged in the true context of the reading act and not in isolated drills.

The third phase of the RRL involves a discussion of the story through guided questioning. Questions that are found at the end of the basal reading selection may be posed prior to the actual reading of the story. However, when using such a strategy, teachers should note that questions should reflect important and relevant information to be gained from reading the story (Anderson & Pearson, 1984). The types of questions that are used at this point in the lesson will either hinder or improve the comprehension of the story depending upon the structure of the question.

The fourth phase of the RRL involves guided silent reading. During this stage of the reading process, students
are given the opportunity to apply their background knowledge and reading skills independently to the actual story context. Students are given the opportunity to read the story on their own without using oral reading as a means to complete the reading of the story.

The final phase of the RRL requires very brief and to-the-point activities. The primary emphasis of schema theory is placed on instruction at the beginning of the lesson so that minimal amount of time should be spent on closure of the lesson. Those activities that are selected by the teacher help achieve this closure should focus on the purpose of helping the teacher in terms of "directing future instruction" (Reutzel, 1985, p. 197).
The List-Group-Label activity (LGL) was designed by Taba in 1967 for the purpose of using collaborative instruction through word relations to foster understanding of the various concepts in a story. This type of activity provides the students with the opportunity to associate and organize content terminology. In this study LGL will be used as the prereading phase of the lesson and will involve the following procedures: (a) topic selection, (b) list procedure, (c) group and label, and (d) discussion (Searfoss & Readence, 1985).

During the First Phase, the prereading phase of the LGL activity, the teacher selects a topic that is relevant to the story. This topic should be one that reflects various subgroupings and labels for which the students will later create.

Next, the teacher writes the topic on the board and indicates to the students that they should try and provide anywhere from 15-25 possible words that would relate to this topic. As terms are generated, they are written on the board. This procedure is continued until the students have solicited all possible suggestions. In the event that necessary terminology has not been provided by the students, the teacher may then make possible suggestions as to other
terms that might be appropriate for the topic. This may be done through leading questions or specifically supplying those necessary terms.

The students then reorganize this comprehensive list into smaller lists of items that share similarities. Each sublist is assigned an appropriate label or heading.

Finally, a discussion of the various categories is undertaken with students providing justifications and rationales for their various categories and headings. This procedure allows the students the opportunity to view the terminology in a structured format while forming relationships and understandings of the information prior to reading the story selection.

The Second Phase, or guided reading phase of the lesson, concerns itself with the need to develop the various skills that would be necessary in order to effectively read the story. Instruction of the various skills at this point in the lesson provides the teacher with the opportunity to model the use of the skills in the context of the story to be read.

The Third Phase of this lesson format requires that the students read the selection silently. This provides the students with the opportunity to relate the various concepts and ideas that were constructed during the LGL activity as
well as give them the opportunity to apply those learned skills to the story being read.

The Final Phase of the lesson requires that the teacher provide a brief closure session. At this time, the teacher may wish to review the LGL activity and see if the students have obtained through reading additional words that they might choose to add to the list. Also, students may wish to alter their original groups and labels so that categories become more closely related to the content of the story.
PILOT STUDY

PURPOSE

The purpose of this pilot study was to determine the following information:

1. The amount of time which should be allowed for various facets of the study, i.e., time on task for each lesson.

2. Whether or not the level of difficulty of the items on the pre- and post-tests was appropriate for measuring the difference in comprehension ability of the subjects.

3. The reliability and validity of the pre- and post-test instruments.

4. The appropriate format and content of those lessons to be taught to the various groups.

PROCEDURES

The sample consisted of one classroom of average second graders. The sample was obtained from a school located in the same geographical location as the sample for the original study. The total amount of time required for the pilot study was a period of three days.

On Day 1, the pre-test was administered to the entire sample of approximately 30 second graders. This procedure
involved a total of 15-20 minutes. The multiple-choice vocabulary pre-test was developed from a sample story found in the Ginn 900 reading series. This pre-test consisted of 10 multiple-choice vocabulary items. In addition, three distractor items were included. Thus, the pre-test measure consisted of 13 items.

On Day 2, the subjects were randomly assigned to one of three treatment groups. Instruction was provided by the researcher to the individual groups during their regular reading period. Instruction for each group was provided in a separate room to maintain consistency in treatments.

Day 3 involved a brief follow-up for each individual group, silent reading of the story, and post-testing. The post-test consisted of the 13 vocabulary items from the pre-test, as well as an additional 11 items that pertained to the comprehension of the story. This made the total post-test consist of 24 items.

Upon completion of the pilot study, those questions that were developed prior to the study were addressed and adjustments in instructional time and test length were made within the study to accommodate the information obtained. The researcher-developed instructional scripts, format, story content, and time required to complete the treatment conditions were judged to be satisfactory from the pilot study results. The Directed Reading Activity had a tendency
to require less instructional time than the Reconciled Reading Lesson and the List-Group-Label activity. Therefore, it was determined that in the event the DRA instructional group proceeded faster than anticipated, filler activities would be employed to insure equal amounts of instructional time for all three treatment groups. The filler activities chosen were skill-pak pages from previous stories in the *Ginn 900* series that contained no relation in terms of content to the stories being used in the study.

An item analysis on the multiple-choice post-test was conducted to determine the feasibility of these test items. From these data, changes were made on two of the items in terms of their possible answer choices. The revised multiple-choice post-test was again given to a panel of judges for approval.

The pilot study revealed that the length of the test was too long. It was decided that the total number of items presented on each post-test would not exceed a total of 20 items.

A pilot study was also conducted on all three post-test forms. Results indicated that the items on the post-tests were content appropriate. The clarity of the items was also judged appropriate for second-grade students.
APPENDIX E

PROTOCOL AND RATER'S REVIEW SHEET

FOR STORY SELECTION
Ginn 900 Reading Series, 1982
Level 2-6 and 2-7
Title of Story: ________________________________________
Author: _________________________________________________
Length of Story: _______ 
Story Classification: Narrative _______ Expository _______
(Please check appropriate blank)
Appropriate Story Content: (Please check the appropriate blank.)
  Adequate _______
  Inadequate _______
Appropriate Vocabulary Load: (Please check the appropriate blank.)
  Adequate _______
  Inadequate _______
This story should be considered as one of the five most
appropriate for use in this study.
  Yes _______
  No _______
REVIEWER'S NUMBER: _______
DATE OF REVIEW: _______

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DEFINITION OF TERMS
FOR STORY SELECTION SPECIFICATIONS

LENGTH OF STORY = the total number of pages of the story

STORY CLASSIFICATION =

Narrative = story type text. A form of writing in which a person tells a story, actual or fiction, in prose or verse.

Expository = informational type text, such as found in science or social studies text.

APPROPRIATE STORY CONTENT =

This particular section refers to the notion that the story:

a. is appropriate in length;
   i.e., the story is more than four pages in length

b. the story contains at least two sentences per page
   i.e., disregarding those that have pictures only

c. the story lends itself to follow-up questioning;
   i.e., in your opinion, the story contains enough information to allow for questioning to take place in order to assess comprehension

APPROPRIATE VOCABULARY LOAD =

This particular section refers to the notion that the story contains enough words so the teacher may focus on several of these as possible vocabulary items that should be stressed to promote comprehension and an understanding of the story;

i.e., the story should contain at least eight words, that would serve as words that could be targeted as words needing to be taught prior to reading the story selection.

In the space provided below, please indicate these eight or more words that you feel are necessary for instruction.
Based upon your own teaching experience, when you have completed the review of this story, please select the five stories that you feel would be most appropriate for use in this study. Indicate these five, by marking the appropriate blank on the Text Selection Review Sheet: Summary.
APPENDIX F

COPIES OF STORIES USED IN THE STUDY

A. Morris Has A Cold
B. Pea Soup and Sea Serpents
C. Feather in the Wind

(Note: Permission granted to reprint materials by William Morrow & Company, Inc./Publishers, 105 Madison Avenue, New York, New York 11016; and Dodd, Mead & Company, Inc., for the adaption of "Morris Has A Cold" by Bernard Wiseman.)
Copyrighted materials in this document have not been filmed at the request of the author. They are available for consultation, however, in the author’s university library.

These consist of pages:

113-137
143 Ginn Reading Program Level 7 Skillpack
"Morris Has a Cold"
164 Ginn Reading Program Level 8 Skillpack
"Pea Soup and Sea Serpents"
185 Ginn Reading Program Level 8 Skillpack
"Feather in the Wind"
APPENDIX G

INSTRUCTIONAL SCRIPTS
DRA SCRIPT for

STORY ONE
DRA Script for
Story One

TEXT: Morris Has A Cold
Ginn 900 reading series, pages 76-83
Level 7, 2(1)

DAY 1 ACTIVITIES
(Time = 40 minutes)

Using the Preparing for Reading guide in the teacher's manual:

1. Write these words on the chalkboard:
   stomach  better  four
   throat    tongue  forehead

2. Then read these sentences, stressing the underlined words:
   My stomach feels better now.
   I have four cats.
   She has a sore throat.
   Can you touch your nose with your tongue?
   My forehead feels hot.

3. Point to each new word and read it. Then have pupils read the words after you. Ask:
Which words name a part of your body?
(stomach, forehead, tongue, throat)

4. Have volunteers underline the answers on the chalkboard and read the words aloud.

5. Write these words and read them:
   four, for, and fore. Ask:
   How are these words alike? (They sound the same.)
   Which word names a number? (four)
   (Write the numeral four beside the word four.)
   Which word could be used in the sentence "I have a collar for my dog"? (for)

6. Point to fore and tell pupils that this word is part of a new word they have just learned. Have a volunteer name the word. (forehead) Then ask:
   Can you think of another word that fore is part of?
   (before)

7. Write Boris and Morris, point to each name, and read it. Point to each name again, and have pupils read them. Ask pupils whether they notice anything about the two names? (They rhyme.)
8. Then write breakfast, hungry, and hairy, and read the words. Ask pupils to repeat the words and use them in oral sentences.

9. Independent writing activity:

    Have pupils write the four new words that are parts of the body on their papers and use each in a sentence.

(In the event that instructional time should run short compared to the other instructional groups, please include the following task.)

10. Distribute copies of skill-pak page 39. Ask the students to complete the page. Remind them to write their name at the top of the page. When they have finished they may put their pencils in their holders, and you will come to their desks and take their papers.
DAY 2 ACTIVITIES
(Time = 40 minutes)

List all vocabulary words on the board that were studied yesterday, ask the students to read each one, and ask for a volunteer to repeat each one in a sentence.

- stomach
- throat
- better
- tongue
- four
- forehead
- for
- Boris
- Morris
- hairy
- hungry
- breakfast

Tell the students to look at their stories. The title is, **Morris Has A Cold**. Ask whether or not anyone has ever seen or heard about Morris? Tell them that Morris is a moose. Ask them if they have ever seen a moose with a cold? Tell them to read the story about this moose to find out more about his cold. Tell them to please read the entire story silently.

Indicate to the students that when they have finished reading the story silently to please close their books. When they have finished, you will come around and give them a worksheet (post-test) to complete.
(As each student finishes, take them a copy of the post-test for the story and remind them to write their name on the top of each page. You will also want to make sure that you have taken their copy of the story so that the information they give you on the post-test measure is from their information and not the information obtained by looking back in the text.)
LGL SCRIPT for

STORY ONE
LGL Script for
Story One

TEXT:  Morris Has A Cold
Ginn 900 reading series, pages 76-83
Level 7, 2(1)

DAY 1 ACTIVITIES
(Time = 40 minutes)

1. The first step of this procedure is to select a topic.
   For this story, the topic selection is: MOOSE.

2. The teacher should then write the word, MOOSE, at the top of the chalkboard in big, bold letters.

   At this point, the teacher should point to the word and ask the students if anyone knows what that word is. When someone responds by reading the word, MOOSE, the teacher should indicate that this was an appropriate response. (i.e., Sue, that was right. You have done very well.) The teacher should then ask the students if anyone knows what a moose is? (Allow a few minutes for oral classroom discussion, then if the students are unable to provide the appropriate answer - you should tell the students that a moose is a "large animal, that looks like a deer with antlers but is larger."
3. Tell them to think about this word, moose, for a few seconds.

4. Tell them that you would like for them to think about all the words that remind them of a moose (i.e., teacher could say, for example, when I see the word moose, I think of the word, deer). Write your response on the board.

5. Pause for a few minutes to allow the students time to think about your response.

6. Then ask the students to raise their hands when they have a word that they would like for you to add to the list. Words that you want to be included in this list are: stomach, throat, tongue, forehead, better, four, breakfast, hungry, and hairy (see part 8).

7. Students' should generate enough words to allow for grouping, (i.e., 15-20 words would be adequate).

8. In the event that the class might fail to include the necessary words, you may wish to lead them into the inclusion of these words through the following cues (tell
students that these are words they will encounter when they read their story about a moose):

a. Boys and girls, the words you have given me are excellent. I was wondering if anyone could tell me where the food that a moose eats might go in his body? (in his STOMACH)

b. The opposite of worse is ______. (BETTER)
Do you think a moose would feel better or worse if he ate his breakfast? Why?

c. We go to the doctor when we have a sore ______. (THROAT)
Do you think a moose would go to the doctor with a sore throat? Why or why not?

d. When we go to the doctor and he wants to check our sore throat, he tells us to, "stick out your ______". (TONGUE)
Do you think that a moose could stick out his tongue? Why or why not?

e. What number comes before the number five?
(FOUR)
Do you think that the moose in this story is four years old? Why or why not?
f. When we have a fever, our mother feels our ______ to see if we are hot. (FOREHEAD)
Do you think that a moose could feel his forehead to see if he was hot? Why or why not?

g. What meal do we eat in the morning before we come to school? (BREAKFAST)
What do you think a moose would eat for breakfast?

h. When we are ready to eat, we say that we are _______. (HUNGRY)
What do you think a moose might say when it gets hungry?

i. When a person has lots of hair on their body we call them ____? (HAIRY)
Since a moose has hair all over his body, like a deer, what do we call a moose?

9. Next, tell the students to look at the words and see if there is any way they could put these words into smaller groups? Give an example such as: tell them to look at the words throat and tongue; those two words could be put together. Ask if anyone knows why you might place these words in the same group (because they are both words that
10. Once you have placed these words into their respective groups, ask the students if they could give you a title for each small group of words. For example, the words tongue and throat might be given the title, "PARTS OF THE MOUTH".

11. Once you have completed this activity, the students should tell you why they chose the headings they did. Much of this may take place during #10, above, in that students may have to persuade their peers that their particular heading is appropriate and tell them why. At this time, you will wish to refresh their memories or to call on the child that solicited this response and ask them to refurnish their rationale for the selection of that title.
DAY 2 ACTIVITIES
(Time = 40 minutes)

Using an overhead, the teacher should display a copy of the words that were generated from Day 1 on the board. At this time, she should have the students read each of the words and their respective classification headings.

The teacher should direct the students to look at their story, *Morris Has A Cold*. Tell them to keep in mind the words on the list and the groups they made as they read the story.

Tell the students that they are to read this story silently. When they have finished, they should close their books and you will come to their desk and give them a worksheet (post-test) to complete.

(As each student finishes, take them a copy of the post-test for the story and remind them to write their name on the top of each page. You will also want to make sure that you have taken their copy of the story so that the information they give you on the post-test measure is from their information and not the information obtained by looking back in the text.)
RRL SCRIPT for

STORY ONE
RRL Script for
Story One

TEXT: Morris Has A Cold
Ginn 900 reading series, pages 76-83
Level 7, 2(1)

DAY 1 ACTIVITIES
(Time = 40 minutes)

Enrichment activities selected for use in the prereading stage of the lesson

1. The story that we will be reading about a little later is about a moose. Does anyone know what a moose is? In the event that the students are unable to provide a response, the instructor should explain that a moose is an animal that is similar to a deer. However, a moose is a little larger and has a very long nose. At this time, you should explain that a moose also has quite a bit of hair. Ask the students what we call a person or thing that has a lot of hair (Hairy).

In the story, Morris Has A Cold there are many puns. Explain that a pun is a funny way of using a word that has two meanings. Help pupils find examples of puns in the
meant when the following statements are made:

a. "I have a cold. My nose is walking."

1. What do we usually say when we have a cold? (I have a cold; my nose is running.)

2. Why do you think that the story used the word walking instead of running? (Because the cold was a little one and not a big one.)

b. "Let me feel you forehead." "Four heads! I don't have four heads!"

1. What is the person in this sentence thinking about? (He only has one head, not four.)

2. What does the term forehead actually mean? (Write the word forehead on the board and then write the words four and head on the board. Show the students that the word forehead is talking about the front part of your head, or that part that your mother feels when you have a fever. Illustrate that the word four indicates that the person in the story thinks that there are 4 heads on his body. Write the numeral four beside the word four.)
c. The author of this story asks Morris, the moose, if he wants some tea. Morris tells him he knows what tea is? It is A, B, C, and T. (Morris thinks that he is talking about the letter of the alphabet. But he is really talking about a drink to soothe his sore throat.)

d. When the author tells Morris to stick out his tongue what is he doing? (He is trying to see if Morris' throat is red.)

But Morris tells him he can't because it is bad manners to stick out your tongue.
(Why do you think that he tells him that?)
(Because Morris' Mom has told him it is not nice to stick out your tongue at people.)

2. Ask the students if they can think of puns that they have heard other people use or that they have read. Allow the students a few minutes to discuss their experiences with various puns.

3. Distribute sheets of white paper and ask the students to select one of the puns that have been discussed and illustrate it using their paper.

4. Write these excerpts from Morris Has A Cold on the board:
"Not HERE!" Boris shouted.

Ask why here has been printed in capital letters (to be read with emphasis). Have a volunteer read the sentence aloud, emphasizing here.

Call on volunteers to read aloud the following sentences from the story. Remind pupils to emphasize the capitalized words:

"A-CHOO!" Morris let out a big sneeze.

"TEA. Don't you know what tea is?"

"STOP! That is not nice."

"DON'T EVER GET SICK AGAIN!"

5. Why do you think that the word TEA is capitalized? (Boris is getting tired of Morris misunderstanding every thing that is said.)

Why do you think that the word STOP is capitalized? Which pun do you think that it might relate to? (Stick out your tongue.)
Why do you think it is so important to Boris that Morris not get sick again? (He is very hard to take care of because he doesn't understand anything that is said.)

6. To finish this exercise, read the list of puns over again to the class. Ask them to look at the words that have been capitalized in the other sentences that were placed on the board. Tell the students to select their favorite sentence and to illustrate on a clean sheet of white paper what pun the sentence represents.

7. Explain to the students that the story they are going to read contains most of these puns. Remind them to look for these puns when reading and to see if they can determine what two meanings are being represented in the story.
DAY 2 ACTIVITIES
(Time = 40 minutes)

To begin, have the various puns and the sentences taken from the story transcribed on transparencies.

Have the students read the information together. Then show a few (TWO) samples of drawings of each pun that the students did on the previous day.

Tell the students that they are going to read a story today, entitled Morris Has A Cold.

Explain to them that you would like for them to read the entire story silently. When they have finished, they may close their books and you will bring them a worksheet (post-test) to complete.

(As each student finishes, take them a copy of the post-test for the story and remind them to write their name on the top of each page. You will also want to make sure that you have taken their copy of the story so that the information they give you on the post-test measure is from their information and not the information obtained by looking back in the text.)
DRA SCRIPT for
STORY TWO
DRA Script for
Story Two

TEXT: Pea Soup and Sea Serpents
Ginn 900 reading series, pages 219-227
Level 7, 2(2)

DAY 1 ACTIVITIES
(Time = 40 minutes)

Using the Preparing for Reading guide in the teacher's manual:

1. Write these words on the chalkboard:

   a. added  b. believe
   c. less    d. perhaps
   e. neither f. rough

2. Have the pupils sound out the first three words, (a, b, and c), and ask volunteers to use each of these three words in a sentence.

3. Then have the pupils read, neither, perhaps, and rough, in unison with you. Ask volunteers to use these words in oral sentences.

4. Finally, read the following sentences and ask which word from the list best fits into each:

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a. Ben makes up stories so often that now no one will ____ him. (BELIEVE)

b. Sue will not come to the playground now, but ____ she will come later. (PERHAPS)

c. Dad put some salt in the stew, and then Mom ____ even more. (ADDED)

d. ____ of my brothers can ride a bike yet. (NEITHER)

e. My little sister weighs ____ than I do. (LESS)

f. The water was not smooth; it was ____ (ROUGH)

5. Write Atherton and Norton on the chalkboard and read them.

   Explain that "These are names of the two boys in the story."

6. Write jacket, mistaken, and overboard on the board. Read the words. Ask for volunteers to read each word and use it in a sentence.

   (If necessary, explain that overboard means, "falling from a ship or boat into the water!"

7. Finally, have the students read the title of the story, Pea Soup and Sea Serpents.

   (WRITE THE TITLE ON THE BOARD.)

   -Ask pupils what they think a serpent is.
   -Do they know what a sea serpent is supposed to be?
(A large, but presumably legendary sea snake)

8. Distribute paper to each student, with the words 
   Perhaps and Believe on the top.
   -Ask each student to write synonyms for each word.
   (Pick these up when the students are finished.)

9. Distribute paper to each student, with the words 
   Rough and Less written at the top.
   -Ask each student to list antonyms for each word.
   (Pick these up when the students are finished.)

(In the event that instructional time should run short 
compared to the other instructional groups, please 
include the following task.)

    -Ask the students to complete the page.
    (Pick these up when the students are finished.)
List all the vocabulary words on the board that were studied yesterday, ask the students to read each one, and ask for a volunteer to repeat each one in a sentence.

- added
- neither
- Atherton
- mistaken
- believe
- perhaps
- Norton
- overboard
- less
- rough
- jackets
- serpents

Tell the students to look at their stories. The title is, *Pea Soup and Sea Serpents*. Ask whether pupils think this will be a real or make-believe story and why. Tell them to please read the entire story silently.

Indicate to students that when they have finished reading the story silently to please close their books. When they have finished, you will come around and give them a worksheet (post-test) to complete.

(As each student finishes, take them a copy of the post-test for the story and remind them to write their name at the top of each page. You will also want to make sure that you have taken their copy of the story so that the information that they give you on the
post-test measure is from their information and not the information obtained by looking back in the text.)
LGL SCRIPT for

STORY TWO
1. The first step of this procedure is to select a topic. For this story, the topic selection is: SERPENTS.

2. The teacher should then write the word, SERPENTS, at the top of the chalkboard in big, bold letters.

   At this point, the teacher should point to the word and ask the students if anyone knows what the word is. When someone responds by reading the word, SERPENTS, the teacher should indicate that this was an appropriate response (i.e., Sue, that was right. You have done very well.). The teacher should then ask the students if anyone knows what SERPENTS are? (Allow a few minutes for oral classroom discussion; then if the students are unable
to provide the appropriate answer - you should tell the students that **serpents** are "large, but make-believe, sea monsters."

3. Tell them to think about this word, **serpents**, for a few seconds.

4. Tell them that you would like for them to think about all the words that remind them of **serpents** (i.e., teacher could say, for example, when I see the word **serpents**, I think of the word, **sea**). Write your response on the board.

5. Pause for a few minutes to allow the students time to think about your response.

6. Then ask the students to raise their hands when they have a word that they would like for you to add to the list. Words that you want to be included in this list are: **added**, **believe**, **less**, **neither**, **perhaps**, **rough**, **jackets**, **mistaken**, and **overboard** (see part 8).

7. Students' should generate enough words to allow for grouping, (i.e., 15-20 words would be adequate).
8. In the event that the class might fail to include the necessary words, you may wish to lead them into the inclusion of these words through the following cues (tell students that these are words they will encounter when they read their story about a serpent):

   a. Boys and girls, the words you have given me are really very good. I was thinking and I wondered if anyone could tell me what the opposite of smooth is? (ROUGH)
      Boy, I bet that serpent could really make the water rough if he was in it.

   b. Boys and girls, if I told you I put some things into you cubby boxes, you would say that I ____ stuff to your boxes. (ADDED)
      What do you think the serpent might have added to the water where he lived?

   c. Who do you think weighs more, a serpent or you? If the serpent weighs more, then you weigh ____.
      (LESS)

   d. If you and the serpent went fishing but you didn't catch anything, then ____ of you caught a fish. (NEITHER)

   e. Boys and girls, if you had gone fishing in a
boat, what would you wear to keep you from drowning? (LIFE JACKET)
Do you think a life jacket would keep a serpent from drowning? Why or why not?

f. If you did fall over into the water, what should the serpent yell so that people would come and help get you out? (MAN OVERBOARD)

g. If I tell you the truth about things, then you will always be able to _____ me. (BELIEVE)

Do you think that the serpent always told the truth? Why or why not?

h. If someone is wrong, they are often ___. (MISTAKEN)

Do you think that people would think you were mistaken if you told them you saw a serpent? Why or why not?

9. Next, tell the students to look at the words and see if there is any way they could put these words into smaller groups? Give an example such as: tell them to look at the words added and less; those two words could be put together. Ask if anyone knows why you might place these two words in the same group (because they are both words that indicate changes in the amounts of things).
10. Once you have placed these words into their respective groups, ask the students if they could give you a title for each small group of words. For example, the words added and less might be given the title, "CHANGING THE AMOUNTS OF THINGS".

11. Once you have completed this activity, the students should tell you why they chose the headings they did. Much of this may take place during #10, above, in that students may have to persuade their peers that their particular heading is appropriate and tell them why. At this time, you will wish to refresh their memories or call on the child that solicited this response and ask them to refurnish their rationale for the selection of that title.
DAY 2 ACTIVITIES
(Time = 40 minutes)

By using an overhead, the teacher should display a copy of the words that were generated from Day 1 on the board. At this time, she should have the students read each of the words and their respective classification headings.

The teacher should direct the students to look at their story, *Pea Soup and Sea Serpents*. Tell them to keep in mind the words on the list and the groups they made as they read the story.

Tell the students that they are to read this story silently. When they have finished, they should close their books and you will come to their desk and give them a worksheet (post-test) to complete.

(As each student finishes, take them a copy of the post-test for the story and remind them to write their name on the top of each page. You will also want to make sure that you have taken their copy of the story so that the information they give you on the post-test measure is from their information and not the information obtained by looking back in the text.)
RRL SCRIPT for

STORY TWO
TEXT: Pea Soup and Sea Serpents
Ginn 900 reading series, pages 219-227
Level 7, 2(2)

DAY 1 ACTIVITIES
(Time = 40 minutes)

Enrichment activities selected for use in the prereading stage of the lesson

1. Explain to the pupils that you are going to read a poem that tells about a funny animal the poet imagined. Have pupils listen to find out what that funny animal looked like. (Display poem on overhead transparency.)

FUNNY ANIMAL

I saw a dog
Who wasn't a dog,
And a cat
Who wasn't a cat.
In a dream I saw
Strange animals
Like that:

With a camel's hump
And an elephant's trunk,
And the neck
Of a tall giraffe,

And a fish's tail,
And the shell of a snail,
And the funniest kind
Of a laugh.

---Llo Orleans---

Ask the students to tell you some of the unusual features this animal had.

Reread the poem.

Give the students a sheet of paper, and let them draw the funny animal.

2. Explain to the students that: (a) they will be reading a story about a sea serpent, and (b) ask them
if they know what a sea serpent is. In the event that the students are unable to provide an appropriate response, you may wish to explain that a sea serpent is an imaginary animal, just like the one we read about in the poem.

Possible questions that will lead to a thorough discussion of ideas pertinent to the story are:

a. Do you think that a sea serpent or the animal in the poem would weigh more?
   If the (whatever their response) weighed more, then the other animal would weigh _____. (LESS)

b. If we gave the animal in the poem another camel's hump, we would say that we ______ a hump. (ADDED) This would give our animal two humps!

c. What type of skin do you think our animal has?
   If it is like the skin of a cat, it is soft and smooth. But if it is like the skin of an alligator it is not smooth, it is ______. (ROUGH)

d. If our animal lived on the land and was afraid of the water, what might he wear to keep him from getting hurt in the water? (LIFE JACKET)
e. If this animal fell in the water, what do you think he might yell to get someone to help him out? (MAN OVERBOARD)

f. Do you **BELIEVE** in sea serpents? What do we mean when we ask someone if they believe something?

g. If you thought you saw a sea serpent but you really didn't, then you would be **MISTAKEN**.

Ask them to think about this imaginary sea serpent and what it might look like (ask them to write their responses on a sheet of paper). Tell the students that they may include such information as:

1. Where this animal might live.

2. What it might eat.

3. When the students have finished writing their responses, you should allow one or two of them (time permitting) to read their paragraph to the class. Ask the other students to imagine what this serpent would look like as their friends are reading.
4. Read to the students a copy of the weather report found in today's paper. Discuss the kinds of information given in the article. For example, temperature, wind speed, humidity, and the possibility of rain.

Let the students speculate about other types of weather conditions you might read about in the newspaper. Ask them what kind of weather the serpent they wrote about might like to live in.

Write these speculations on the board. When you have finished, have the students reread their list of speculations.
To begin, have the students' descriptive paragraph and/or phrases and weather speculations transcribed on a transparency.

Have the students read the paragraph and/or descriptive phrases aloud.

Then have them read their weather speculations aloud.

Tell the students that they are going to read a story today, entitled *Pea Soup and Sea Serpents*.

Explain to them that you would like for them to read the entire story silently. When they have finished, they may close their books and you will bring them a worksheet (post-test) to complete.

(As each student finishes, take them a copy of the post-test for the story and remind them to write their name on the top of each page. You will also want to make sure that you have taken their copy of the story so that the information they give you on the post-test measure is from their information and not the information obtained by looking back in the text.)
DRA SCRIPT for

STORY THREE
DRA Script for
Story Three

TEXT: Feather in the Wind
Ginn 900 reading series, pages 112-121
Level 7, 2(2)

DAY 1 ACTIVITIES
(Time = 40 minutes)

Using the Preparing for Reading guide in the teacher's manual:

1. Write the following paragraph on the chalkboard and read it to the group, underlining words as shown:

   The big storm came closer to the beach. The speed of the wind got faster, until the storm was really a hurricane.

2. Ask students to sound out the decodable words:
(Write these on the board.)

   closer = /cl/ /o/ /s/ /er/
   speed = /sp/ /e/ /d/
3. Then have them read the whole paragraph. Call on volunteers to read the underlined words as you point to them.

4. Call on volunteers to name different kinds of storms. (wind, rain, hail, snow, thunderstorm)

5. Ask a volunteer to explain what a hurricane is. Show the glossary definition of hurricane and until (which should be written on a transparency and placed on the overhead).

   Hurricane (hér'kān) a storm with very strong winds and heavy rains. The hurricane blew down trees and soaked the land.

   Until (un 'til') up to the time of. We waited until morning for the sun to rise.

6. Then ask these questions:

   a. Which word do we use when we talk about how fast or how slow something moves? (SPEED)
   b. Which word has almost the same meaning as the word nearer? (CLOSER)

7. Have pupils use the new words in oral sentences.
8. Write palm, squirrel, yellow, and Stephen on the board. Read the words and explain that palm is not only a part of the hand but that it is also a kind of tree.

9. Ask a volunteer to tell the class what a squirrel is.

10. Then tell pupils that Stephen is the name of a boy in the story they will be reading. Have students read these three words aloud: palm, Stephen, and squirrel.

11. Using only the words until, hurricane, storm, closer, and speed, have the students place them in alphabetical order.

Pass out clean sheets of paper for the students to work on.

When they have finished, make sure that they have written their names on the top of their pages.

Ask for a volunteer to tell the class which word should come first on the list, second, etc.

12. Distribute copies of skill-pak page 66. Ask the students to complete the page. Remind them to write their name at the top of the page. When they have finished they may put their pencils in their holders, and you will come to their desks and take their papers.
DAY 2 ACTIVITIES
(Time = 40 minutes)

List all the vocabulary words on the board that were studied yesterday, ask the students to read each one, and ask for a volunteer to repeat each one in a sentence.

storm closer speed until storm palm
hurricane squirrel yellow Stephen

Tell the students to look at their stories. The title is, Feather in the Wind. Ask whether or not anyone has ever seen a feather in the wind? Tell them to read the story about this feather to find out more about it. Tell them to please read the entire story silently.

Indicate to the students that when they have finished reading the story silently to please close their books. When they have finished, you will come around and give them a worksheet (post-test) to complete.

(As each student finishes, take them a copy of the post-test for the story and remind them to write their
name on the top of each page. You will also want to 
make sure that you have taken their copy of the story 
so that the information they give you on the post-test 
measure is from their information and not the 
information obtained by looking back in the text.)
DAY 1 ACTIVITIES
(Time = 40 minutes)

1. The first step of this procedure is to select a topic. For this story, the topic selection is:
   HURRICANE.

2. The teacher should then write the word, HURRICANE, at the top of the chalkboard in big, bold letters.

   At this point, the teacher should point to the word and ask the students if anyone knows what that word is. When someone responds by reading the word, HURRICANE, the teacher should indicate that this was an appropriate response. (i.e., Sue, that was right. You have done very well.)

   The teacher should then ask the students if anyone knows what a hurricane is? (Allow a few minutes for
oral classroom discussion. If the students are unable to provide the appropriate answer, you should tell the students that a hurricane is a "large windstorm that begins over the sea and moves into the land".

3. Tell them to think about this word, hurricane, for a few seconds.

4. Tell them that you would like for them to think about all the words that remind them of a hurricane (i.e., teacher could say, for example, when I see the word hurricane, I think of the word, storm). Write your reponse on the board.

5. Pause for a few minutes to allow the students time to think about your response.

6. Then ask the students to raise their hands when they have a word that they would like for you to add to the list. Words that you want to be included in this list are: storm, hurricane, closer, until, speed, palm, squirrel, yellow, and Stephen (see part 8).

7. Students' should generate enough words to allow for grouping, (i.e., 15-20 words should be adequate).
8. In the event that the class might fail to include the necessary words, you may wish to lead them into the inclusion of these words through the following cues (tell students that these are words they will encounter when they read their story about a hurricane):

a. Boys and girls, the words you have given me are excellent. I was wondering if anyone could tell me another word that might possibly mean the same as the word near. (CLOSE, CLOSER) Have you ever been close to a hurricane?

b. When we have bad weather, we often call this a ______. (STORM) Do you think that a hurricane might be a type of storm? Why or why not?

c. If we go very fast on the road, we will _____. (SPEED) Do you think a hurricane has a fast or slow speed? Why or why not?

d. We can always wait _____ it is our turn. (UNTIL) Do you think a hurricane would wait until it was his/her turn? Why or why not?
e. What is the name of the animal that eats nuts, has a long bushy tail, and plays in the trees? (SQUIRREL)

Do you suppose squirrels enjoy hurricanes? Why or why not?

f. Another kind of a tree is a ______. It is also a part of our hand. (PALM)

What do you think might happen to a palm tree during a hurricane?

g. A very bright color that makes you think of sunshine is _____. (YELLOW)

Do you think that the sky is sunshine yellow during a hurricane? Why or why not?

9. Next, tell the students to look at the words and see if there is any way they could put these words into smaller groups? Give an example such as: tell them to look at the words palm and squirrel, those two words could be put together. Ask if anyone knows why you might place these two words in the same group (because they are both words that indicate living things).

10. Once you have placed these words into their respective groups, ask the students if they could give
you a title for each small group of words. For example, the words *palm* and *squirrel* might be given the title, "LIVING THINGS".

11. Once you have completed this activity, the students should tell you why they chose the headings they did. Much of this may take place during #10, above, in that students may have to persuade their peers that their particular heading is appropriate and tell them why. At this time, you will wish to refresh their memories or to call on the child that solicited this response and ask them to refurnish their rationale for the selection of that title.
DAY 2 ACTIVITIES
(Time = 40 minutes)

By using an overhead, the teacher should display a copy of the words that were generated from Day 1 on the board. At this time, she should have the students read each of the words and their respective classification headings.

The teacher should direct the students to look at their story, Feather in the Wind. Tell them to keep in mind the words on the list and the groups they made as they read the story.

Tell the students that they are to read this story silently. When they have finished, they should close their books and you will come to their desk and give them a worksheet (post-test) to complete.

(As each student finishes, take them a copy of the post-test for the story and remind them to write their name on the top of each page. You will also want to make sure that you have taken their copy of the story so that the information they give you on the post-test measure is from their information and not the information obtained by looking back in the text.)
RRL SCRIPT for

STORY THREE
RRL Script for
Story Three

TEXT: Feather in the Wind
Ginn 900 reading series, pages 112-121
Level 7, 2(2)

DAY 1 ACTIVITIES
(Time = 40 minutes)

Enrichment activities selected for use in the prereading stage of the lesson

1. In Feather in the Wind the sea is a source of treasures, bringing shells of different colors and shapes during the storm. The following poem tells about another person's point of view of the ocean.

Read the poem to the students, having them listen to find out what the poet thought about the ocean.

The Great Eraser

My blackboard was
The soft white sand,
Which stretched out far
On every hand.

I searched and found
   And empty shell,
And wrote out words
   That I can spell.

But waves dashed on
   The sand to play,
And washed my letters
   All away.

And that is how
I got the notion—
   A great eraser
Is the ocean.

--Llo Orleans--

2. Ask the students what the writer is comparing the ocean to in this poem. (ERASER)

3. Ask the students to tell you what it was that the ocean erased. (Words written in the sand.)

4. Ask whether anyone has ever been to the ocean, and encourage those who have to share some of their
experiences with the sand and the water—have they written in the sand, have they built sandcastles?

a. Ask the students if they feel that the weather is always pleasant near the ocean? Ask them if they are familiar with any particular type of bad weather that we might find near the ocean? (HURRICANE) In the event that the students do not offer this as a response, you will need to indicate that a hurricane is a type of bad weather that you often have near an ocean. A hurricane is a storm that forms over the ocean and comes into the land, bringing water, rain, and high SPEED winds. Ask the students what another name for a hurricane might be. (STORM)

b. Ask the students if they happen to know what type of trees you usually find near the ocean or beach. (PALM)

5. Reread the poem, asking pupils to listen for the rhyming pattern (lines 2 and 4 in each stanza) and for the words that rhyme.

6. Have pupils write about their view of the ocean. Distribute blank sheets of paper to the students and
ask them to write their own story about the beach. For those who have never been to the beach, ask that they imagine what it would be like. When students have finished, ask for a volunteer to read their selection. Explain to the students that they will be reading a story about an event that takes place near the ocean.

7. In the story we will read next, the storm is going to be portrayed as having human characteristics. For example:

"sometimes it stood resting, catching its breath"
"from the sea, the storm dug shells...it spread them on the beach"
"from the air...so small that it slid from its hold"

Ask students to suggest other things in nature that could be spoken of or written about in this way. As they suggest phrases and descriptions, write them on the board. To help students think about nature in this way, suggest that they think about a tree bending down to touch the ground, rain pounding on a window to get inside, or a plant reaching up to be closer to the sun. Help students understand that, of course, things in nature do not have feelings and motivations, but that writing as if they do creates a special effect.
8. To finish this exercise, read this poem in which nature is personified. Explain to the students that like the fog in this poem that you are going to read, there is something in the story that they will read next that also acts like the fog. Tell them to listen carefully as you read the poem, Fog, so that when they read their story they can find the "thing" that acts like the fog.

FOG

The fog comes
on little cat feet.

It sits looking
over harbor and city
on silent haunches
and then moves on.

--Carl Sandburg--

Have the students illustrate the poem. (PROVIDE THEM WITH PAPER.)
DAY 2 ACTIVITIES
(Time - 40 minutes)

To begin, have the students' work transcribed on transparencies.

Have the students read the information together.

Tell the students that they are going to read a story today, entitled Feather in the Wind.

Explain to them that you would like for them to read the entire story silently. When they have finished, they may close their books and you will bring them a worksheet (post-test) to complete.

(As each student finishes, take them a copy of the post-test for the story and remind them to write their name on the top of each page. You will also want to make sure that you have taken their copy of the story so that the information they give you on the post-test measure is from their information and not the information obtained by looking back in the text.)
APPENDIX H
RATER'S REVIEW AND SCORING SHEETS
FOR STORY QUESTIONS
DIRECTIONS

Enclosed you will find a packet of information. This information contains three stories and the questioning formats that will be used with each story.

Please read each story first. After reading the story, answer the post-test questions.

When you have completed the post-test, indicate your judgment for the classification of each question (text-explicit or text-implicit) in the appropriate space.
You are being asked to judge the appropriateness of the multiple-choice, vocabulary questions that will be used in an experiment involving second-grade students. These questions will be used to gather quantitative information on the subjects involved in the study. More specifically, the vocabulary questions will be used to judge the subjects' level of prior knowledge during the pre-test phase of the study. These same questions will be administered during the post-test phase of the study and will be used to indicate the degree of difference between the three pre-reading vocabulary strategies being employed in the study.

For the evaluation of the vocabulary questions, you are being asked to judge each question based on the following set of criteria:

a. clarity of the question, i.e., appropriateness in terms of wording for the second-grade subjects being used in the study.

b. content of the question, i.e., whether or not they are relevant and pertinent to the content of the story.

c. passage dependency, i.e., whether or not the questions can be answered without the benefit of reading the story selection.

Please read the story that follows. After reading the story, look over the pre- and post-test vocabulary items. On the scoring sheet, place a check in the appropriate column for each item based on each of the above criteria. If you have any additional comments concerning the multiple-choice, pre- and post-test vocabulary questions, please state them in the section provided for comments.
Judgment of Validity of Multiple-Choice, Comprehension Post-Test Questions

You are being asked to judge the multiple-choice, comprehension post-test that will be used to measure the level of comprehension of the subjects being used in this study. These questions are being used in an experiment involving second-grade students. The post-test questions on the following pages represent those that will be read and answered by the subjects in the experiment. You are being asked to judge whether these post-test questions are: (a) textually explicit, or (b) textually implicit.

DEFINITIONS

Textually-Explicit Questions (TE) - these questions elicit information which is explicitly stated in the text. The type of understanding these questions measure is referred to as "reading the lines. A question-answer relation is classified as textually explicit if both question and answer are derivable from the text and if the relation between question and answer was explicitly cued by the language of the text" (Pearson & Johnson, 1978, p. 163).

Textually-Implicit Questions (TI) - these questions elicit information which is derived from the text and also requires the reader to make pragmatic or logical inferences to make a question. The type of understanding these questions measure is called "reading between the lines. Hence, a question-answer relation is classified as textually implicit if both question and answer are derivable from the text but there is no logical or grammatical cue tying the question to the answer and the answer given is plausible in light of the question" (Pearson & Johnson, 1978, p. 163 - 164).

In addition to the above criteria, the multiple-choice, comprehension post-test questions should also be evaluated on the following set of criteria:

a. clarity, i.e., appropriateness in terms of wording for the subjects being used in the study.

b. content, i.e., whether or not they are relevant and pertinent to the content of the story.

c. passage dependency, i.e., whether or not the questions can be answered without the benefit of reading the story selection.
Please read the story that follows. After reading the story, look over the multiple-choice, comprehension post-test questions. Using the score sheet provided, indicate by placing a check (√) in the appropriate column for each item based on each of the above criteria. Then, beside each question, write TE if you consider the question to be textually-explicit or TI if you consider the question to be textually-implicit. If you have any additional comments concerning the multiple-choice, comprehension post-test questions, please state them in the section provided for comments.
QUESTIONING TAXONOMY
(Question-Answer Relationships)

TEXTUALLY EXPLICIT:
These questions have obvious answers right there on the page. Some would call them factual recall questions. A question-answer relation is classified as textually explicit if both question and answer are derivable from the text and if the relation between question and answer was explicitly cued by the language of the text.

TEXTUALLY IMPLICIT:
These questions have answers that are on the page, but the answer is not so obvious. Comprehension is regarded as being textually implicit if there is at least one step of logical or pragmatic inferring necessary to get from the question to the response and both question and response are derived from the text. A question-answer relation is classified as textually implicit if both question and answer are derivable from the text but there is no logical or grammatical cue tying the question to the answer and the answer given is plausible in light of the question.

EXAMPLE

"When items made of rubber first came out, customers were not happy with them. They turned glue-like in the hot summer and rock-hard in the cold winter. Storekeepers who had purchased such items had to bury piles and piles of their goods. Because they lost a lot of money, storekeepers became fed up with rubber products."

QUESTION
(1) Why did store keepers become fed up with rubber products?(TE and/or TI, depending upon the choice of responses)
ANSWERS
(a) Because they lost a lot of money.(TE)
(b) Because no one would buy them.(TI)
(c) Because they couldn't sell them.(TI)
(d) Because they had to bury so many.(TI)
(e) Because customers didn't like them.(TI)
(f) They turned like glue and rocks.(TI)
(Responses (d), (e), and (f) represent text-implicit responses, because the students generating such responses had to establish a causal link between becoming fed up and each of the responses.)

QUESTION
(2) Why did rubber products turn glue-like in the hot summer?(TI)
ANSWERS
(a) They were too soft.(TI)
(b) They didn't add sulphur yet.(TI)
### Scoring Sheet for Vocabulary Items

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APPENDIX I

PRE-TEST AND INSTRUCTIONS
Boys and girls, my name is ____________________.
I am a teacher at Louisiana State University. I have been
asked to teach you several stories and to see how well you
can read them. I am going to be here for the next six days
in the mornings during your reading time. On this first day
we will work as a large group and on the remaining days we
will break into smaller groups. I think that you will find
the stories interesting, and I'm sure that you will read
them well.

The first thing that I would like for you to do is to take
the paper that I am about to hand out and write your name at
the top, on the blank where it says, NAME.

When you have done this, you will find that there are
several questions listed on the pages. I would like for you
to read the following questions and select the answer that
you think is best. When you find the answer that you like,
please circle the letter in front of that answer. (At this
point, make sure to note that all students have a pencil
that writes.)

(Show the students a sample on the board, i.e., how to
circle the letters, and the format of the questions.)
When you have finished, please put your pencil down and I will come and take your paper.

Do not worry if you do not know an answer. There should be some questions that you will not know and others that you will. Just do the best that you can.
1. When we have bad weather, we call it a ______.
   a. party  
   b. storm  
   c. rain   
   d. day

2. A table has ____ legs.
   a. two    
   b. six    
   c. fever    
   d. four

3. ______ of my two friends can swim.
   a. All     
   b. Neither 
   c. The     
   d. See

4. We must wait _____ it is our turn.
   a. undo    
   b. until   
   c. under    
   d. unfair

5. When we get up in the morning, the first meal that we have is called ______.
   a. lunch    
   b. snack    
   c. dinner   
   d. breakfast

6. A furry animal with a long tail is called a _____.
   a. snake    
   b. squirrel  
   c. bird     
   d. elephant

7. A boy's name is ______.
   a. Sarah    
   b. Susan    
   c. Stephen   
   d. Sue
8. When you want to see animals, you go to the _____.
   a. store
   b. school
   c. zoo
   d. church

9. The opposite of bald is _____.
   a. old
   b. hairy
   c. smooth
   d. honey

10. A _____ is another name for a make-believe monster.
    a. spool
    b. sea serpent
    c. sunny
    d. gorilla

11. When someone falls out of a boat and into the water, we yell "__________".
    a. drowning man
    b. have a swim
    c. have fun
    d. man overboard

12. When something is not smooth, it is _____.
    a. hard
    b. soft
    c. round
    d. rough

13. A tree that has sharp, pointed leaves is called a _____.
    a. maple
    b. fruit
    c. red bud
    d. palm

14. The opposite of night is _____.
    a. evening
    b. afternoon
    c. day
    d. midday
15. If we are ready to eat, then we are _____.
   a. full
   b. glad
   c. hungry
   d. happy

16. When we put things away, we are being _____.
   a. helpful
   b. bad
   c. unhappy
   d. messy

17. When we give the wrong answer, we are _____.
   a. right
   b. mad
   c. mistaken
   d. ready

18. If you fall and hurt yourself, sometimes you _____.
   a. laugh
   b. sing
   c. cough
   d. cry

19. We wear a _____ when we are in a boat to keep us from drowning.
   a. swim suit
   b. sun tan lotion
   c. hat
   d. life jacket

20. What do we call a storm that has a lot of rain and wind?
   a. a squall
   b. a hurricane
   c. a twister
   d. a gift

21. The sun is big, bright, round, and _____.
   a. purple
   b. green
   c. yellow
   d. blue
22. When we have a fever, our mother feels our _____.
   a. ear  
   b. nose  
   c. forehead  
   d. throat

23. When we are not happy, we are ______.
   a. glad  
   b. good  
   c. sad  
   d. funny

24. If we do not feel worse, then we are feeling ______.
   a. sick  
   b. tired  
   c. old  
   d. better

25. If you tell lies and stories all the time, pretty soon no one will ______ you.
   a. like  
   b. friend  
   c. believe  
   d. bother

26. If we move next to something, we get ______ to it.
   a. around  
   b. over  
   c. back  
   d. closer

27. When we have a sore throat, we have to stick out our ______.
   a. nose  
   b. tongue  
   c. forehead  
   d. arm

28. When we walk softly, we ______.
   a. crawl  
   b. stand  
   c. tiptoe  
   d. slide
29. What is the name of the place where our food goes when we swallow?
   a. home  
   b. school  
   c. stomach  
   d. toes

30. When we put more food into the pot, we have ______ more.
   a. taken  
   b. subtracted  
   c. borrowed  
   d. added
APPENDIX J

POST-TESTS
STORY ONE POST-TEST

NAME __________________________

1. When we have a fever, our mother feels our _____.
   a. ear  
   b. nose  
   c. forehead  
   d. throat

2. If we do not feel worse, then we are feeling _____.
   a. sick  
   b. tired  
   c. old  
   d. better

3. When we have a sore throat, we have to stick out our _____.
   a. nose  
   b. tongue  
   c. forehead  
   d. arm

4. A table has _____ legs.
   a. six  
   b. five  
   c. four  
   d. fever

5. What is the name of the place where our food goes when we swallow?
   a. home  
   b. school  
   c. stomach  
   d. toes

6. If we are ready to eat, then we are _____.
   a. full  
   b. glad  
   c. hungry  
   d. happy

7. When we get up in the morning, the first meal that we have is called _____.
   a. lunch  
   b. snack  
   c. breakfast  
   d. dinner
8. The opposite of bald is _____.
   a. old
   b. hairy
   c. smooth
   d. honey

9. When we are not happy, we are _____.
   a. glad
   b. good
   c. sad
   d. funny

10. When we put things away, we are being _____.
   a. helpful
   b. bad
   c. unhappy
   d. messy

11. Why did Morris say his nose was walking and not running? Because his cold was _____.
   a. his first one
   b. only a little one
   c. not really too strong
   d. in his feet

12. Why, do you think, Boris wanted to feel Morris's forehead? He wanted to see if Morris _____.
   a. needed a shave
   b. was cold
   c. was hot
   d. had cleaned up

13. Why did Morris say that he put covers over his head? Because his ____ had the cold.
   a. hand
   b. nose
   c. head
   d. friend

14. What happened when Boris took the covers off?
   a. Morris got mad.
   b. Morris sneezed.
   c. Morris rolled over.
   d. Morris fell out of bed.
15. Why did Morris say his throat felt hairy?
   a. Because he felt the fur on the outside of his throat.
   b. Because he felt the fur on the inside of his throat.
   c. Because he forgot to shave.
   d. Because he forgot the right word to use.

16. What did Boris suggest to help Morris's sore throat?
   a. hot chocolate
   b. hot spice
   c. hot tea
   d. hot coffee

17. What did Boris suggest that Morris should eat.
   a. jello
   b. ice cream
   c. soup
   d. sandwich

18. How did Boris explain what soup was?
   a. He explained it to Morris.
   b. He made it for Morris.
   c. He showed it to Morris.
   d. He drew Morris a picture.

19. How did Boris know that Morris had an upset stomach?
   a. His stomach was fighting.
   b. His teeth were green.
   c. His tongue was white.
   d. His tongue was gone.

20. What did Boris want in return for making Morris's breakfast?
   a. His breakfast the next day.
   b. For him to get well.
   c. For him to make his own breakfast.
   d. For him to get out of bed.
NAME

1. If you tell lies and stories all the time, pretty soon no one will ______ you.
   a. like
   b. friend
   c. believe
   d. bother

2. A ____ is another name for a make-believe monster.
   a. spool
   b. sea serpent
   c. sunny
   d. gorilla

3. When we put more food into the pot, we have ____ more.
   a. taken
   b. subtracted
   c. borrowed
   d. added

4. When someone falls out of a boat and into the water, we yell "______".
   a. drowning man
   b. man overboard
   c. have a swim
   d. have fun

5. When we give the wrong answer, we were ____.
   a. right
   b. mad
   c. mistaken
   d. ready

6. ____ of my two friends can swim.
   a. All
   b. Neither
   c. The
   d. See

7. When something is not smooth, it is ____.
   a. hard
   b. soft
   c. round
   d. rough
8. We wear a _____ when we are in a boat to keep us from drowning.
   a. swim suit
   b. sun tan lotion
   c. hat
   d. life jacket

9. When we walk softly, we _____.
   a. crawl
   b. stand
   c. tiptoe
   d. slide

10. If you fall and hurt yourself, sometimes you _____.
    a. laugh
    b. sing
    c. cough
    d. cry

11. Where does the sea serpent live that Atherton and Norton are going to look for?
    a. in the sea
    b. in the ocean
    c. in the lake
    d. in the pond

12. What materials did Norton and Atherton use to hunt for the serpent with?
    a. a rope and pan
    b. a ring and pail
    c. a rope and ladder
    d. a rope and pail

13. What was the weather like that day?
    a. it was smoggy
    b. it was foggy
    c. it was cloudy
    d. it was rainy

14. Why did the boy, Atherton, say they weren't finding any sea serpents?
    a. Because they were smart beasts.
    b. Because they were shy beasts.
    c. Because they were silly beasts.
    d. Because they were sad beasts.
15. What did the boys think caused the boat to rock and the sea to get choppy?
   a. the serpent
   b. the storm
   c. the wind
   d. the whale

16. How did the boys get back to the shore?
   a. they swam
   b. they were carried
   c. they walked
   d. they were pushed

17. What did Atherton catch while he was in the pond?
   a. a fish
   b. a frog
   c. a cold
   d. a crab

18. What did Atherton think had lifted him out of the water?
   a. Norton
   b. the wind
   c. the boat
   d. a fish

19. What did the boys decide to do when they got to shore?
   a. eat lunch
   b. change clothes
   c. play ball
   d. go fishing

20. Another name for a sea serpent that was used in the story was _______.
   a. dragon
   b. monster
   c. He-Man
   d. beast
STORY THREE POST-TEST

NAME _____________________________________________________

1. When we have bad weather, we call it a _____.
   a. party
   b. storm
   c. rain
   d. day

2. If we move next to something, we get _____ to it.
   a. around
   b. over
   c. back
   d. closer

3. What do we call a storm that has a lot of rain and wind?
   a. A squall
   b. A hurricane
   c. A twister
   d. A gift

4. We must wait _____ it is our turn.
   a. undo
   b. under
   c. until
   d. unfair

5. A tree that has sharp, pointed leaves is called a _____.
   a. maple
   b. palm
   c. fruit
   d. red bud

6. A furry animal with a long tail is called a _____.
   a. snake
   b. bird
   c. squirrel
   d. elephant

7. A boy's name is _____.
   a. Sarah
   b. Susan
   c. Stephen
   d. Sue
8. The sun is big, bright, round, and _____.
   a. purple
   b. green
   c. yellow
   d. rose

9. The opposite of night is _____.
   a. evening
   b. afternoon
   c. day
   d. midafternoon

10. When you want to see animals, you go to the _____.
    a. store
    b. school
    c. church
    d. zoo

11. A hurricane sometimes brings _____.
    a. animals
    b. fun
    c. joy
    d. gifts

12. Where did the storm get its speed?
    a. over the land
    b. over the house
    c. over the water
    d. over the hill

13. What word did the authors use to describe the hurricane?
    a. a top
    b. a net
    c. a cone
    d. a toy

14. What hid the sky so that Stephen could no longer see it?
    a. the clouds
    b. the wind
    c. the rain
    d. the sun
15. After the hurricane, Stephen found a bird. Why did he wish the bird would open its eyes?
   a. so Stephen could see what color they were
   b. so that Stephen would know the bird was alive
   c. so the bird could see Stephen
   d. so the bird could see what to eat

16. How did Stephen and his father know that the storm was over?
   a. their friends told them
   b. they looked out the window
   c. the radio told them
   d. the rain had stopped

17. Who was the bird that heard the baby birds cry?
   a. the father bird
   b. a friend bird
   c. the sister bird
   d. the mother bird

18. What do you think made Stephen keep that shell and not the others?
   a. he did not have one like it
   b. it was like no other shell
   c. it was like the bird
   d. he only wanted one shell

19. From the title of the story, "Feather in the Wind", what do you think the title is telling you about?
   a. the leaves during the hurricane
   b. the rain during the hurricane
   c. the bird during the hurricane
   d. the trees during the hurricane

20. What knocked the telephone lines down?
   a. the workers
   b. Stephen and his friends
   c. the storm
   d. the day
APPENDIX K

RAW DATA
Key For Raw Data Variable Names

REC ..................... Record Number

Strategy ................. Instructional Strategy
A ......................... Directed Reading Activity
B ............................ List-Group-Label
C ......................... Reconciled Reading Lesson

PRE ....................... Total Number Correct on the Pre-Test Measure

Story # ..................... Indicates the Number of the Story
1 ............................ Morris Has A Cold
2 ............................ Pea Soup and Sea Serpents
3 ............................ Feather in the Wind

VOC ........................ Number Correct Out of a Total of 10

COMP ....................... Number Correct Out of a Total of 10

TOTAL VOC .................. Total Number of Vocabulary Items Correct When Combining All Stories

TOTAL COMP ................ Total Number of Comprehension Items Correct When Combining All Stories
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</table>
Ms. Dana G. Thames received her B.S. Degree, 1978, in Elementary Education from the University of Southern Mississippi as well as her M.S. Degree, 1981, in Elementary Education and Reading. Ms. Thames has taught Elementary school and tutored during the period between undergraduate and graduate work. She has taught various Education and Reading undergraduate courses at both, Lousiana State University and the University of Southern Mississippi. She will be employed in the Fall, 1986 at Southeastern Louisiana University where she will teach undergraduate and graduate Reading Education courses.

Ms. Thames is the mother of one child, Brittany S. Zachary and they reside in Baton Rouge, Louisiana. She is the daughter of Dr. and Mrs. Shelby F. Thames of Hattiesburg, Mississippi.
DOCTORAL EXAMINATION AND DISSERTATION REPORT

Candidate: Dana G. Thames

Major Field: Reading Education

Title of Dissertation: Effects of Prereading Vocabulary Strategies on Vocabulary and Comprehension of Basal Stories by Primary Children

Approved:

[Signatures]

Major Professor and Chairman
Dean of the Graduate School

EXAMINING COMMITTEE:

[Signatures]

Date of Examination:

June 12, 1986