SENTENCE LEVEL PROCESSING
IN BASAL READING PROGRAMS

By
Karen Lynn Parker

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Sentence Level Processing
in Basal Reading Programs

Karen Lynn Parker

Approved:

R. Scott Baldwin
Associate Professor of
Educational Psychology
Chairman of the Doctoral
Project Committee

Jo Anne Hecker
Associate Dean of the
Graduate School

Martha S. Beech
Assistant Professor of
Educational Psychology

David K. Oller
Associate Professor of
Pediatrics

Richard L. Carner
Professor of Educational
Psychology

Eugene F. Provenzo
Associate Professor of
Educational Psychology
Sentence Level Processing in Basal Reading Programs. (May, 1984)

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Doctoral project supervised by Professor R. Scott Baldwin.

A content analysis of the manuals of five basal reading programs, levels primer through grade three, was conducted in order to describe and contrast the amount of reading instruction given to word level processing, discourse level processing, and the transition between the two, which was designated as sentence level processing. Sentence level activities in each manual were assigned to syntax, punctuation, or intonation categories. Two trends were observed between primer and third grade manuals: a decrease in activities in word level processing (61% to 45%) and an increase in activities in discourse level processing (30% to 40%). Activities for sentence level processing were consistently low, averaging 5% for all grades. The study concludes that sentence level instruction in basal reading programs may be inadequate and that more activities should be provided to aid the reader who is having difficulty making the transition from word level to sentence level reading.
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INTRODUCTION

According to current models of reading, such as those found in LaBerge and Samuels (1976) and Gough (1976) fluent readers react automatically to cues on varying levels. The reader's visual processing system detects distinctive features which are combined to form letters, which in turn form spelling patterns, which in turn feed into word codes. In parallel fashion the reader's phonological memory supplies the associated phonological spelling-pattern codes and word codes, and the reader's lexicon and episodic memory provide the appropriate word meanings and schemata necessary for comprehension. Presumably a failure at any level results in an inability to comprehend. Readers who have not detected the distinctive features necessary to recognize letters cannot combine those letters to form words. If the words are not recognized they cannot be combined into phrases, clauses, or sentences; and if the relational meanings among the sentences are not understood then the reader cannot attain comprehension of a passage at the discourse level.

Numerous studies have focused upon the lower-level processing of word and sub-word units (e.g., Cattell, 1886; Anderson, 1937; Barr, 1975; Morrison & Inhoff, 1981). At the other end of the spectrum research has also concentrated on the higher-level processes, particularly discourse analysis (Pearson, 1974-1975; Anderson, Reynolds, Schallert, & Goetz, 1977; Pearson & Camperell, 1981; Pearson & Spiro, 1981) and schema theory (Pratt, Krane, & Kendall, 1981; Rumelhart, 1981; Richgels, 1982).

In contrast to the extensive research on higher-level and lower-level reading processes, relatively little research exists relevant to
the transition from word level reading to discourse level reading. However, what research there is strongly supports the importance of sentence level processing as a part of the total reading process. Literature dealing with sentence level processing can be grouped into three categories: chunking into syntactic units, observing punctuation, and supplying appropriate intonation.

The first area of the literature examines chunking into syntactic units. Syntax is the pattern or structure of word order in phrases, clauses, and sentences. In the late 1960's it was widely accepted that by age six nearly all syntactic structures were mastered. Later research revealed that acquisition of syntax was strongly subject to individual rates of development. Active syntactic acquisition was taking place up to age nine and perhaps even beyond (Chomsky, 1969; Pearson, 1974-1975; Bormouth, Carr, Manning, & Pearson, 1970). Vogel (1974) cited a number of studies demonstrating oral syntax deficits in poor readers. In a study by Semel and Wiig (1975), children who demonstrated delays in acquisition of syntax rules did not improve spontaneously with age. Structures with higher grammatical complexity were most discriminating between good and poor readers. Complex structures included questions, demonstratives, "wh" forms, possessive relationships, and relationships between direct objects and indirect objects.

Research has demonstrated that strategies utilizing syntactic units are characteristic of fluent reading. This process, known as "chunking," is the ability to process groups of words as wholes or "chunks" (Gibson & Levin, 1975; Stevens, 1981; Brozo, Schmelzer, & Spires, 1983). The fluent reader employs economical processing of the largest structural unit that
has utility for the task. Clay and Imlach (1971) demonstrated that good
readers process cues at the inter-sentence, sentence, phrase, and word
levels, while poor readers are dominated by word and part-word cues.
Mehler, Bever, and Carey (1967) concluded that surface level structure
is the level which interacts most strongly with the visual scanning
pattern during reading. Other research has supported the utility of
phrase and clause boundaries for proficient readers (Schlesinger, 1968;
Levin and Kaplan, 1968; Resnick, 1970; Rode, 1974). Failure to master
oral syntactic structures or the inability to process written syntax can
both interfere with reading.

The second area of the literature related to sentence level
processing deals with punctuation, which involves orthographic devices
that signal syntactic boundaries to the reader. The first punctuation
marks in England appeared during the Middle Ages. These early marks
were "breath marks," similar to those used in a musical score, but
primarily designed to meet the demands of oral reading. Their placement
was not determined by the meaning of the passage, but by the reader's
need to take a breath. Gradually the marks came to be recognized as
determined by the sense or the meaning (Ong, 1944).

Comprehension is significantly enhanced by the ability to read
punctuation accurately, quickly, and meaningfully. Failure to observe
punctuation weakens meaning and results in poor reading. Children need
to learn the precise use of punctuation, because it can completely alter
the meaning of a sentence (Zintz, 1980).

Mary said Grace failed the test.

"Mary," said Grace, "failed the test."
Instruction dealing with punctuation is often related to oral reading. Lefevre (1964) has cited situations in which readers are often taught inaccurate and misleading information. For example, students are told to use a high-rising final pitch for every question mark and to pause wherever they see a comma, semicolon, or period and nowhere else. Instead, they should learn that some questions do not end with a high-rising pitch and that commas, semicolons, and periods are ways of keeping parts of sentences and ideas separated in order to avoid confusion as well as to indicate where the author wants the reader to pause (Kohl, 1973).

Traditional punctuation rules are sometimes empty conventions that do not consistently predict or explain reading behavior involving punctuation. For example, Baldwin and Coady (1978) demonstrated that punctuation may be viewed on a continuum from critical to redundant depending on other cues available in the context. Such cues might include syntactic cues to mark surface structure boundaries and semantic cues to confirm or reject syntactic expectations based on the most common Subject-Verb-Object patterns. Fifth graders, in contrast to adults, tended to ignore grammatically critical punctuation cues, indicating that punctuation may be a late developing cue system. Baldwin (1977) concluded that points of punctuation, although they are sometimes minimal language cues, must be extracted from perceptual input since the alternative is an apparent increase in the probability of syntactic misprocessing.

Intonation, the third area of the literature related to sentence level processing, is the variation of voice pitch (rise or fall) in spoken
language. The related prosodic features of stress (accent) and juncture (pause) are frequently included in intonation instruction (Clay & Imlach, 1971; Mountain, 1971; Pival, 1968). Some speech behavior is communicated by punctuation, but the few punctuation marks available to the writer are meager substitutes for the range of variation available to the voice. There are features of speech that cannot be recorded with standard text conventions. A person who is reading aloud is faced with the difficult task of assigning appropriate intonation while reading, an achievement reading teachers often refer to as "reading with expression." In addition, children rely more heavily than adults on intonational features to understand language (Schreiber, 1980). In fact, according to deVilliers and deVilliers (1978), infants produce some intonational features before they learn words and they use intonation to signal intent before they use sentences.

Intonation may be dichotomized as interpretive and structural. Interpretive intonation is paralinguistic. It is an emotive dimension, an overlay upon the language structure. Interpretive features are the personal expression at the individual's option.

I love you! (spoken sarcastically)

I love you! (spoken with enthusiasm)

Structural intonation, on the other hand, is linguistic, a part of the language system itself. Its grammatical basis makes it obligatory, central rather than peripheral to the study of language (Lefevre, 1970). For example, normally only one word in a sentence should receive a primary or "heavy" stress. One of the most common intonation difficulties, word-by-word reading, is characterized by several primary stresses in
each sentence. In word-by-word reading, each word takes a primary stress along with simultaneous falling pitch and voice fadeout. This "fade-fall terminal" indicates completion or finality and is normally reserved for the last word of a structural element or the word that completes an utterance (Lefevre, 1964).

Oral reading difficulties are a clue to the quality of silent reading. The reader must learn to supply signals which do not exist in written language. The "monotone" reader is not ignorant of the pitch patterns of English, but rather is unaware that the words on the printed page follow the same patterns used on the playground (Pival, 1968).

Intonation aids comprehension (Mountain, 1971). Lack of inflection and emphasis may indicate comprehension difficulties or contribute to them (Harris & Sipay, 1979). Reading aloud with expression forces the reader to think about the meaning of the text (Pauk, 1980). Lack of fluency in oral reading is often noted as characteristic of poor readers, but it is seldom treated. It is mistakenly viewed as simply symptomatic, but it is at least indirectly related to silent reading comprehension (Allington, 1983). Intonation may influence meaning. For example, stress is considered phonemic because it differentiates words which are otherwise alike in pronunciation.

I object to your purchase of that hideous object.

Coady and Baldwin (1977) discovered that students reading at fourth and fifth grade levels were unable to read many sentences with correct intonation even though the students had correctly read the words in isolation and the sentences were chosen from the primers in use in the subjects' school. For example, primary stress placement before the last
word of the sentence was very difficult for the readers.

We can go and look at it.

Primary stress usually falls on the last major lexical item in the sentence. However, in the sample sentence the last major lexical item comes earlier, so readers must look ahead of the words as they are spoken to in order to give primary stress before the end of the sentence. This requires the development of an adequate eye-voice span in oral reading. The eye-voice span is the distance the eyes are ahead of the voice which allows the reader to anticipate meaning, phrase in thought units, adjust intonation and breathing, and check pronunciation before speaking (Buswell, 1921). This is an example in which just reading the words in correct sequence is inadequate to reflect the syntactic structure.

Another structure that was difficult for the readers involved sentences in which a comma signalled the primary difference between two meanings:

Ralph, let's eat.

Let's eat, Ralph.

In the first sentence the omission of the comma is unlikely to affect comprehension of the sentence. However, failure to observe the comma in the second sentence alters the sentence meaning. These two sentences demonstrate that punctuation cues are critical to the meaning of the sentence at some times but at other times punctuation does not affect meaning.
Purpose of the Study

The ability to combine words into phrases is essential to deriving meaning from written text. Some readers have difficulty making the transition from word level to phrase level reading. This study investigated the current status of instruction to aid readers with sentence level processing.

Because it has been estimated that more than 90 per cent of primary classrooms in the United States use basal readers to guide their reading curriculum and instruction (Harris & Smith, 1981), it was decided that a content analysis of the manuals of basal reading programs would be most representative of current reading instruction materials. Grades one through three were examined for the five leading basal reading programs selected. Allington (1983) concluded that the transition from word level reading to phrase level resulting in reading fluency should never become the only goal in beginning or remedial instruction, but it is at least as important as many others. The purpose of this content analysis was to describe and contrast the amounts of reading instruction devoted to word level processing, discourse level processing, and the transition between the two, which was designated sentence level processing.
METHOD

Materials

The materials selected for examination in this study were basal reader manuals because they exert a strong influence on elementary school practices (Durkin, 1981; Harris & Smith, 1981). Because research has indicated that many students are already able to take advantage of grammatical structure by fourth grade (Gibson & Levin, 1975), the study was limited to grades one through three, from level P (primer) to level 3-2 (third grade, second semester).

In order to include the manuals that would be most accessible to classroom teachers, current editions of the five best-selling publishers were examined. Based upon a market analysis provided by one of the publishers, five leading basal programs were chosen. The following is a list of the titles in each basal reading program included in the study:


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Sun and Shadow
Together We Go
World of Surprises
People and Places
Widening Circles
Ring Around the World


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<tr>
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Birds Fly, Bears Don't
1 Level 6 Across the Fence
2-1 Level 7 Glad to Meet You
2-2 Level 8 Give Me a Clue
3-1 Level 9 Mystery Sneaker
3-2 Level 10 Ten Times Round


P Level E Sunshine
1 Level F Moonbeams
2-1 Level G Skylights
2-2 Level H Towers
3-1 Level I Spinners
3-2 Level J Weavers


P Levels 7-8 Opening Doors
1 Levels 9-10 Rainbow World
2-1 Levels 11-12 Magic Times
2-2 Levels 13-14 Mirrors and Images
3-1 Levels 15-16 Secrets and Surprises
3-2 Levels 17-18 Full Circle


P Level 3 Hang On To Your Hats
1 Level 4 Kick Up Your Heels
2-1 Level 5 Rainbow Shower
The method selected for this study, content analysis, is the analysis of the expressed and hidden meaning of a communication to find out its purpose and to judge its potential effects (Berelson, 1952; Atkinson, 1958; McClelland, 1961; Rosengren, 1981). A system of category codes was developed and used by the primary investigator to score every lesson of all thirty manuals. As a reliability check, two additional scorers each examined three randomly selected lessons from each manual. These two scorers were blind to the purpose of the study.

Copies of the lessons to be scored were provided for each scorer, and the category codes were written directly on the copies. The category codes were written in red in the left margin at the beginning of each column and at each point where the category changed according to the guidelines for category codes which follow. A short line was also drawn in the left margin to indicate the beginning and end of each section to be included for the category. Activities in the manuals were assigned to the highest level focused upon in the instruction, although the involvement of other levels was assumed. Two category codes were assigned to the same passage only if the major objective of the passage applied to both categories. Some activities encountered in the manuals required the use of sentence level processing although the major objective of the activity was not focused upon that level. For example, students were given exercises composed of sentences with blanks for
certain words which had been omitted and were instructed to fill the blanks with vocabulary words. Although sentences were used in the activity it was scored as word level rather than sentence level because the objective was to teach vocabulary words, not to teach sentence skills. The frequency data were based on activities categorized according to the major objective. Clinical observation sheets were used to note any unusual or interesting features of the lessons.

Introductory material and appendices were read by the primary investigator, but only the lesson material was coded and included in the frequency data. Any reproductions of the student's text which appeared in the teacher's instructions were not scored. Headings and spaces that separated activities were not included in the measurement. Headings and spaces that were part of a line of text or that were written within an activity were included. Any other graphic material that pertained to the scoring categories was included in the scoring. The graphic material included answers, tables, charts, and other similar items. Other organizational features of the texts that were not included in the scoring were unit introductions, lists of materials, notes to teachers, and unit conclusions.

After the category codes were written on the copies of the lessons, the graphic material for each category code was measured in column inches. The column inch was selected as the unit of enumeration for this study because it provides greater precision for comparison than the measures more commonly used, such as the number of pages, paragraphs, or incidences (Berelson, 1952). The number of column inches was written by each code that had been marked in the margin on the lesson pages.
The following guidelines were provided along with a measuring device marked in quarter-inches.

**Instructions for measuring**

1. Accuracy is essential.
2. Write your initials inside the front cover of each book.
3. Begin at the page where the measuring guide is clipped.
4. Use pencil only.
5. Measure the distance between the marks on each page
   --use the nearest measurement on the guide (nearest quarter-inch).
   --use the higher measurement if halfway between.
6. Record all measurements in the left margin.
7. Clip the guide at the last page completed each time you stop.

Thanks so much for helping!

Mrs. Parker

When the measurements were completed, the total column inches for each category code were recorded by page on the scoring sheets. If two codes were assigned to one passage the column-inch measurement for that passage was recorded in both categories. The total column inches in each category was computed for each scoring sheet, and the page totals were added for each manual.

**Category Codes**

The scorers were encouraged to refresh their memory by studying the guidelines before starting to score and to refer to them while scoring whenever necessary. Also, the scorers agreed in advance to score only what the scoring guidelines covered and not to score a particular category if in doubt.
All of the activities in the manual lessons were divided into two major categories: those dealing with the levels of processing and those dealing with enrichment. The levels of processing are the subprocesses of reading described as a continuum based on the size of the chunk to be processed. The levels described in this study are Word Level, Sentence Level, and Discourse Level. The Word Level category was subdivided into Sound-Symbol and Meaning. The Sentence Level category was subdivided into Syntax, Punctuation, and Intonation. All of the activities that were

![Diagram]

Figure 1. Categories used in the study.
not related to one of the levels of processing were assigned to one of the enrichment categories: Schema Building or Miscellaneous. Figure 1 illustrates the relationships of the category levels.

The following is a list of each category included in the study with its code, description, list of areas included, and examples:

**Word Level—Sound-symbol (WL-S)**

**Description.** This level deals with decoding and word analysis skills that are not related to the meaning of the word. It includes the processing of individual words and units smaller than a word such as letters, sounds, and blends. WL-S processes include word identification, word recognition, and decoding. Phonics, pronunciation of words, syllabication, prefixes and suffixes, formation of singular and plural, and other word analysis topics are also included as long as they are not taught in relation to the meaning of the word.

- Vocabulary
- Pronunciation of words
- Finding words in a sentence
- Finding words in a list
- Rhyming words
- Abbreviations
- Affixes
- Sound associations
- Recognizing words
- Discriminating among words
- Letter substitutions
- Homographs
Onomatopoeia

Visual discrimination between sentences

Dividing into syllables

Example. When there is one vowel in a word it usually has its short sound (cat, mop, hid).

Word Level—Meaning (WL-M)

Description. This level deals with activities designed to teach the meaning or function, rather than just the pronunciation of the word. It may include the processing of entire word units as well as units smaller than a word such as letters, affixes, and inflectional endings. Activities at this level may teach the definitions by various methods. Included are vocabulary exercises, prefixes and suffixes, and any other word analysis skill used to teach the meanings of the words. If an activity discusses the sounds of words and also uses them in sentences or in context, both Word Level codes are used (WL-S/WL-M).

Vocabulary

Using words in sentences

Inserting words in sentences

Class relationships

Compound words

Contractions

Affixes

Categorizing

Words with multiple meanings

Word riddles

Using words in context
Homographs
Synonyms
Antonyms
Word denotations
Singular / plural
Capitalizing names
Stressing words in italics, boldface type, all capitals, etc.

Example. Words that sound alike may have different meanings. ("Blue" is a color and "blew" is the past tense of the verb "blow.") Although sentences may be used in these activities, the objective is to teach the vocabulary words which is a Word Level rather than Sentence Level skill. However, since syntactic skills are clearly required to successfully complete these tasks they should be noted as possible indirect instruction in Sentence Level skills.

Sentence Level—Syntax (SL-S)

Description. This category is based on the rules underlying language use that deal with the pattern or structure of words in phrases, clauses, and sentences. This category deals with word order. It includes the study of word clusters, phrases, clauses, and sentence patterns. Any aspects of grammar related to syntax would also be included.

Verb tenses (grammar)
Building sentences
Word position in a sentence
Word referents in a sentence
Scrambled sentences
Negative sentences
Pronoun antecedents in a sentence
Inflected forms (may also be WL-S or WL-I)
Visual memory for sentences
Phrase reading
Types of sentences: questions, statements, etc.
Capitalizing the first word in a sentence

Example. The same word can have different meanings according to its position and function in the sentence.

Fall is my favorite season. (Agent position)
The boy may fall down the stairs. (Verb position)

Sentence Level—Punctuation (SL-P)

Description. This category deals with all aspects of punctuation at the sentence level. Any aspects of grammar related to punctuation would also be included. This level includes punctuation at the end of a sentence—period, question mark, and exclamation mark. Activities with commas used in a series or in apposition are Sentence Level activities. Apostrophes in contractions or possessives and periods in abbreviations are Word Level—Sound-symbol (WL-S) topics.

Commas in a series
Period at end of a sentence
Commas in direct address
Question mark at end of a question
Quotation marks around what characters say
Exclamation point shows surprise, excitement, etc.
Ellipsis shows hesitation or words left out

Example. A period indicates the end of a sentence.
Sentence Level--Intonation (SL-I)

Description. This category deals with variations in the voice during oral reading, including the observation of punctuation. This encompasses pitch (rising or falling), stress (accents), and juncture (pauses). Oral reading activities use this code only if there is instruction relevant to expression or voice inflection. This category deals with grammatical intonation, not paralinguistic intonation. Instructions to read in a manner to convey emotion are Discourse Level activities.

Pay attention to punctuation clues as you read.

Pause at: commas in a series or direct address

colon

semicolon

dash

ellipsis

Make your voice go down at a period at the end of a sentence.

Make your voice go up at a question mark.

Example. Make your voice go up at the end of a question.

Discourse Level (DL)

Description. This level deals with the combining of sentences into longer units such as paragraphs or stories. It is the process of getting meaning directly from the text. It must be differentiated from Schema Building, which is getting meaning from sources other than the text in order to interpret the text. Discourse Level includes topics taught as comprehension skills, such as getting the main idea, drawing inferences, and recalling the correct sequences of events.

Finding the main idea
Choosing a title
Following directions
Finding and reading the sentence that answers a given question
Comprehension check
When they have finished reading, ask comprehension question
Teacher reads poem / story aloud then asks comprehension questions
Recognizing sequences of events
Understanding cause-effect
Reality vs. fantasy
Intersentential riddles
Predicting outcomes
Noting important details
Drawing conclusions
Figurative language --- simile, metaphor, hyperbole
Analogies
Reading the sentences the way the character would sound
Sounding relieved, excited, etc.
Reading with expression

Example. Find and read the sentence that tells why Melinda was unhappy.

Schema Building (SB)

Description. The materials provided in a basal reading program have a two-fold purpose. Some of the activities are designed to teach language structure, while others provide enrichment. The enrichment activities that prepare the reader to read the passage may be considered Schema Building. All knowledge is packaged into units, and these units are the schemata. In order to develop schemata the reader is provided
information from sources other than the text in order to interpret the
text. Schema Building includes the development of thinking skills,
background information, and context for lessons.

Looking at the pictures before reading

Instructions to read the page to find out something

Introducing the selection

Motivation

Providing a purpose for reading

**Example.** Listening to a poem about snow before reading a story
about the Arctic. Material is provided in this activity to assist the
readers as they later read the text. The readers are not yet attempting
to derive meaning from the text itself.

**Miscellaneous (M)**

*Description.* Enrichment activities which do not fit any of the above
categories are labelled Miscellaneous. All "creative" activities such as
drama, handcrafts, and creative writing use this code unless designed to
teach a specific Word Level, Sentence Level, or Discourse Level skill.
The Miscellaneous category includes instructions to the teacher that are
not related to a coding category, enrichment activities not designed to
enhance comprehension of the text, and literary appreciation activities.
The miscellaneous category also includes study skills involving
alphabetical order, resource books, index and table of contents.

Size relationships

Summary of story for teacher

Map skills

Drama
Handcrafts
Creative writing
Deciphering codes
Telephone directory
Professional articles (to teachers)
Sketches about the author
Oral communication
Science / social studies activities
Alphabetical order
Listening activities
Group discussion (not based on the story read)
Books to read
Research activity
Using the dictionary, encyclopedia, etc.
Study skills
Using glossary, index, table of contents, etc.
Oral compositions
Reading graphs
Capitalization -- general

Example. After reading a story about a butterfly the students make posters about the life cycle of a butterfly.
RESULTS

The interscorer agreement for all three scorers in this study was .93. This coefficient was calculated by determining the number of column inches on each page for which all three scorers agreed and dividing by the total number of column inches scored. This yielded a conservative estimate because inflation of the coefficient due to chance was minimized by using matching codes on the page for calculations rather than frequency tabulations. Identical frequency tabulations do not necessarily indicate a high level of agreement. It would be possible for scorers to count the same number of items on the page without counting the same items. Also, the use of three scorers yielded a conservative estimate because the interscorer agreement was higher between any two scorers than for the three scorers combined:

- Scorer 1 with scorer 2: .95
- Scorer 1 with scorer 3: .94
- All three combined: .93

Frequency Data

The total of the column inches in each category was calculated by grade for each individual publisher. These totals were then combined for all the publishers and reported by grade. Each of these totals was also converted to a percentage of the total column inches for each measurement so that the results could be compared by grades and by publishers. The distribution of instruction is reported in percentages among grade levels in Table 1.
Table 1. Distribution of Instruction Among Grade Levels *

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2-1</th>
<th>2-2</th>
<th>3-1</th>
<th>3-2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Word Level</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sound-symbol Meaning</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence Level</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syntax</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punctuation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intonation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discourse Level</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrichment</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schema Building</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total column inches  9776  10889  12161  11367  11777  11374

* Values are rounded to the nearest whole percent
An examination of the Distribution of Instruction Among Grade Level in Table 1 reveals three general trends in the amount of material in the manuals devoted to Word Level, Sentence Level, and Discourse Level processing. These trends are illustrated in Figure 2. First, there is a tendency for Word Level instruction to decrease in the upper grades. The percentage decreased from 61% in the primer level to 45% in third grade, second semester. The second trend is an increase in Discourse Level instruction from 30% to 40% as the grade level increased. The trend for the Sentence Level was consistently low across all grades, varying only from 4% to 7%.

![Figure 2. Comparison of processing levels](image-url)
The Distribution of Instruction Among Publishers is reported in Table 2. The figures indicate similar patterns of distribution for word level processing, sentence level processing, and discourse level processing for all five publishers. Although there are differences among the publishers, these differences are not consistent.

After the study was completed, each activity that had been categorized in the study as Sentence Level was re-examined. There were nearly 800 activities. Approximately 50% of these dealt with syntax, about 30% with punctuation, and about 20% with intonation. The scope of activities ranged from a single sentence to a full page or more in length. However, few of them were longer than one paragraph.

The activities dealing with syntactic units were divided into two broad categories, function words and sentences. Two-thirds of the function word category was taken up by the three largest groups: word referents, describing words, and inflectional endings. Word referents comprised the largest group of function word activities. These were exercises in which the reader must use the context to find the referent of a word. For example, in the sentence, "Mary could not find her book," "her" refers to "Mary." Describing words was the topic of the next largest group of function word activities. These were primarily activities identifying adjectives, although there were several exercises using "place phrases" and -ly endings. Activities involving the inflectional endings -s, -ed, and -ing composed the third largest function word group.

The remaining one third of the function word activities included verbs, pronouns, nouns, subjects, and prepositions. Verb exercises required the identification of verbs and correct usage according to tense
and subject-verb agreement. Pronoun studies dealt with subject, object, and possessive pronouns. The identification of nouns introduced noun characteristics such as: nouns are naming words, nouns are agents in a sentence, nouns often end in -er, and nouns often follow an article. There were six activities for identifying subjects and two for prepositions.

Sentence exercises comprised the second broad category of syntax activities. Students were directed to build sentences, unscramble them, and alter word order. The use of syntactic cues was introduced by instructing students that words in sentences have "jobs" to do that help us recognize what kind of word can fit in the sentence. Also, practice in visual memory for phrases was provided to help students overcome word-by-word reading. Various kinds of sentences were introduced in the lessons: declarative, interrogative, imperative (called "directional sentences" by one reading program), exclamatory, and negative sentences. Several of the activities in this group provided useful strategies for independent reading. For example, the use of syntactic cues and phrase reading practice.

Punctuation activities comprised the second group of Sentence Level activities. One half of the punctuation lessons were devoted to commas and quotation marks. The topics of the remaining punctuation activities are listed in descending order according to the number of activities provided for each one: exclamation marks, question marks, dashes, ellipses, colons, parentheses, hyphens, and periods. Most of the punctuation activities were related to the way the sentence should be read aloud rather than to the meaning of the sentence.
The third group of Sentence Level activities emphasized intonation. These focused attention on punctuation clues and meaningful phrasing. In modeling activities, examples of appropriate intonation were provided by the teacher or by tape recording. Students also listened to the same passage read several different ways and chose the best intonation. Other activities included altering word stress, interpreting word play, and reading poetry aloud.
Table 2. Distribution of Instruction
Among Publishers *

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>HBJ</th>
<th>HM</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SF</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Word Level—Total</strong></td>
<td>52</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sound—symbol</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sentence Level</strong></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syntax</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punctuation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intonation</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Discourse Level</strong></td>
<td>36</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrichment</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schema Building</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total column inches</strong></td>
<td>12586</td>
<td>12761</td>
<td>13100</td>
<td>17392</td>
<td>11505</td>
<td>673444</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Values are rounded to the nearest whole percent

G
Ginn
HM
Houghton Mifflin
HBJ
Harcourt Brace
M
Macmillan
Jovanovich
SF
Scott, Foresman
DISCUSSION

The scope of instruction in syntax appeared adequate for primary level. However the proportions of the activities had no apparent relationship to the importance of the topic; e.g. 68 activities for word referents compared to 6 activities for finding the subject of a sentence.

Most of the punctuation activities were related to the way the sentence should be read aloud rather than to the meaning of the sentence. The reader's attention should be focused on meaning and content rather than form and structure in order to derive the meaning of the passage. Also, the emphasis on certain punctuation marks seemed excessive; e.g. 62 activities for quotation marks compared to 6 activities for periods.

There were more instructions to the teacher regarding oral reading than any other Sentence Level category. Oral reading was emphasized as one of the best indicators of a student's understanding of a passage. However, over half of the intonation activities were vague instructions for the oral reading of a passage. For instance, students were frequently directed to pay attention to punctuation clues as they read, but no specific punctuation marks were mentioned nor was there any indication of what the students should do when they encountered one. When instructions were given they were often incomplete. For example, students were directed to read sentences that end with a question mark in a questioning voice. Students may have difficulty determining what a "questioning voice" should be. Instructions to students to make their voices go up at the end of questions are also misleading, because some types of questions, such as "wh" questions, do not follow the pattern of
a rising pitch at the end.

"Where are you going?"

One reading program offered recordings of the text passages and recommended that students listen to them at the end of the lessons as a model of vocal inflection. Teacher modeling was recommended in other programs. Other activities suggested reading a passage correctly and also reading it with the stress on different words or ignoring punctuation cues. Students were then asked to choose the version with the best intonation. Expressive poetry reading was an intonation activity. The voice characteristics of pitch, tone, and volume were the focus in another lesson.

Most of the activities in each category consisted of teacher directions for student practice with little, if any, instruction about the topic. The proportion of activities for each topic appeared unrelated to the importance of the topic. The activities were not equally distributed among the reading programs or even among the manuals within a program. Some topics were found exclusively in one or two of the programs. Some were even limited to a single manual in the program, and then mentioned once or twice in a later manual. These observations were consistent with those found by Durkin (1981) in an examination of comprehension instruction in the manuals of basal reading programs. The primary common characteristic observed by Durkin was the tendency to offer numerous application and practice exercises instead of direct, explicit instruction. The following tendencies reported by Durkin were also observed in this study: brief instructions, nonspecific review instructions, many unrelated exercises on the same manual page, practice
exercises unrelated to the story read, and random spacing of a topic throughout a manual or a series.

Similar results were obtained by Coady and Baldwin (1977) in a study of intonation instruction in the teacher's editions of several basal series. Only one series mentioned intonation, and it was limited to pointing out the importance of voice changes without providing specific instruction for the teacher to use. The lack of instruction implied that the authors of reading programs typically assume that there is a direct transfer of intonation ability from speaking to oral reading, and that no formal or structured approach is necessary.

Perhaps over-reliance on word order is one reason for the lack of instruction in sentence level processing. The English language lacks many of the graphic cues provided by the declensional patterns of other languages resulting in a heavy reliance on word order for deriving sentence meaning in written discourse. It is commonly assumed that a reader who has correctly pronounced each word in a sentence has automatically derived the meaning of the sentence. However, the meaning of the sentence is based on more than just "adding" the words from left to right. The interaction of the words is important. There may also be other cues, such as punctuation, to indicate a deviation from the meaning suggested by word order alone, as in the sentence: Let's eat, Ralph.

According to Schreiber (1980) letter-sound correspondence is at least reasonably consistent and rational, but most teachers are not aware that there is no consistent acoustic-graphic correspondence for intonation. At least in part, the ability to compensate for the absence of
prosodic cues enables the reader to achieve reading fluency.

Overall it was evident in this study that there were few activities devoted to Sentence Level processing in comparison with the other levels. Little meaningful instruction was provided for the transition from Word Level to Sentence Level reading in the activities that were offered. It is assumed that Sentence Level processing is required for many of the exercises even when this processing is not the major objective. Therefore it is likely that the reader is given some opportunity to practice sentence level skills but not in any systematic fashion. Because the ability to combine words into phrases is essential to deriving meaning from written text, more activities should be provided to aid the reader who is having difficulty making the transition from word level to sentence level reading.

One method that has been recommended to improve fluency is the use of repeated readings (Allington, 1983; Schreiber, 1980; Anderson, 1981; Samuels, 1979). As the story is read again and again the reader begins to recognize the syntactic phrasing necessary to make sense of the passage. Rate, accuracy, and comprehension are enhanced. Other methods have been suggested to improve fluency (Anderson, 1981; Allington, 1983). These include echo reading, assisted reading, the neurological impress method, read-along, teacher modeling, modified cloze, greater amounts of silent reading, a reduction in teacher correction of errors, marking phrase boundaries, and pre-reading. (Schreiber, 1980; Allington, 1983; Stevens, 1983). According to Allington (1983), additional decoding training is not the answer because word level practice does not improve intonation.
This content analysis of basal reader manuals is a descriptive study. It is not possible to predict from this study what might happen if the instruction in the manuals were to be altered. However, the ability to combine words into phrases is essential to deriving meaning from written text, and some readers do not make the transition from word level to phrase level reading on their own. Therefore it appears reasonable that more activities to improve sentence level processing should be provided in basal reading programs. The activities that are presently provided in basal reading programs often include no instructions for the teacher other than the mechanics of how to complete the activity, e.g., fill in the blank, match the terms, or choose the correct answer. Many teachers are not aware of the importance of sentence level processing nor do they know how to teach it. Teachers should be provided explicit instructions on topics related to sentence level processing. Another shortcoming of basal reading programs is the failure to relate the practice activities to the stories in the student's text or to the teacher's instructions. The activities must be coordinated and spaced throughout each level and each series in a manner to provide meaningful reinforcement. Finally, practice activities and instruction must be structured in such a way that readers are taught to apply sentence level skills when reading on their own.
REFERENCES


Cattell, J. M. (1886). The time it takes to see and name objects. Mind, 11, 63-65.


Schlesinger, I. M. (1968). Sentence structure and the reading process. The
Hague: Mouton.


APPENDICES
APPENDIX A

GLOSSARY OF TERMS

Basal reading programs are comprehensive, integrated sets of books, workbooks, teacher's manuals, and other materials for developmental reading instruction, used chiefly in the elementary and middle school grades.

Levels of processing are the subprocesses of reading described as a continuum based on the size of the chunk to be processed. The levels described in this study are Word Level, Sentence Level, and Discourse Level.

Word level processing is subdivided in this study into two levels that deal with words and units smaller than a word: word processing based on sound-symbol correspondences and word processing based on meaning.

Sentence level processing includes chunking words into phrases and clauses, observing punctuation, and supplying appropriate intonation. It deals with relationships of words in phrases, clauses, and sentences.

Discourse level processing includes comprehension skills such as getting the main idea, drawing inferences, and recalling correct sequences of events. It entails the combining of sentences into paragraphs or stories.

Schema building is the development of the cognitive structures and background information necessary to understand the meaning of a passage. It involves concept development from sources other than the text in order to interpret the text.
Syntax is the pattern or structure of words in sentences, clauses, and phrases; the set of rules underlying language use.

Punctuation is a system of orthographic devices which signals a syntactic pattern to the reader. Traditional punctuation rules may be empty conventions that do not consistently predict or explain reading behavior involving punctuation.

Intonation is the variation of voice pitch (rise or fall) in spoken language. In this study the related prosodic features of stress (accent) and juncture (pause) will be included in intonation. Graphic cues to aid the reader with intonation are often absent or inconsistent.

Content analysis is the analysis of the expressed and hidden meaning of a communication to find out its purpose and to judge its potential effects (See Appendix C).
APPENDIX B

SURVEY OF THE PUBLISHERS
APPENDIX B

SURVEY OF THE PUBLISHERS

The letter that follows was sent to fourteen companies that publish basal reading programs. The following is a summary of the results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Publisher</th>
<th>First basal</th>
<th>First manual</th>
<th>Current basal</th>
<th>Current sales *</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Allyn and Bacon</td>
<td>1955</td>
<td>1955</td>
<td>1978</td>
<td>？</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>1972</td>
<td>1972</td>
<td>1980/84</td>
<td>8-10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ginn</td>
<td>1867</td>
<td>1867</td>
<td>1984</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harcourt Brace</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>1983</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jovanovich</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harper and Row</td>
<td>1889</td>
<td>1889-90</td>
<td>1980</td>
<td>confidential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heath (American Book)</td>
<td>1879</td>
<td>1902</td>
<td>1983</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(McGuffey Readers)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holt, Rinehart and</td>
<td>1960</td>
<td>1960</td>
<td>1983</td>
<td>15-18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Winston</td>
<td>1911</td>
<td>1930</td>
<td>1983</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Houghton Mifflin</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laidlaw</td>
<td>1916</td>
<td>1930's</td>
<td>1984</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lippincott</td>
<td>1963</td>
<td>1963</td>
<td>1981</td>
<td>confidential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macmillan</td>
<td>1936</td>
<td>1936</td>
<td>1983</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Gates Readers)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open Court</td>
<td>1962</td>
<td>1962</td>
<td>1982</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Riverside</td>
<td>1972</td>
<td>1972</td>
<td>1981</td>
<td>data not available for distribution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Rand McNally)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scott, Foresman</td>
<td>1909</td>
<td>1909</td>
<td>1983</td>
<td>15-35%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Percentage of the U. S. market for basal reading programs
Nationwide $238,000,000 was spent on basal reading in 1981. It is estimated that Scott, Foresman had between 15% to 35% of this figure. According to the marketing department, the top five basal reader programs are these:

Scott, Foresman
Harcourt Brace
Houghton Mifflin
Macmillan
Ginn

They are not listed in any particular order, however, because the publisher that heads the list will vary from state to state and from region to region, and according to marketing, there are no nationwide figures. In any list, though, one of these publishers will top the list.
Gentlemen:

I am a graduate student doing research on the basal reading programs of major publishers. Please fill in the following information and return it in the enclosed self-addressed envelope as soon as possible.

1) In what year was your first basal reading program published? 

2) In what year were teacher's manuals first published for your basal reading program? 

3) What is the publication date of your current basal reading program? 

4) What percentage of the U.S. market for basal reading programs does your company supply? 

(If you have figures available to compare your sales to other leading publishers please enclose a copy.)

Thank you for your cooperation. I must meet a deadline on this project, so I would appreciate a prompt reply.

Sincerely yours,

(Mrs.) Karen Parker
APPENDIX C

SCORING INSTRUCTIONS
APPENDIX C

SCORING INSTRUCTIONS

Introduction to Content Analysis

Content analysis is a systematic, quantitative description of composition, an analysis of the expressed and hidden meaning of a communication to find out its purpose and judge its potential effects. This method allows an identification of patterns and a means of quantifying them. It is a reductionist process, reducing the material to its basic elements and quantifying them. The most frequent use of content analysis is to describe the attributes of the message without reference to either intentions or effect of the message. In order to be effective the analyses must be objective, systematic, and generalizable.

The content of any written document can be analyzed for the incidence of any words or meanings that can be specified carefully enough so that their occurrences can simply be counted. The technique of counting incidences that are clearly defined is simple enough. The method of developing the definitions of the things to be counted is the crucial aspect. The first step is to determine the categories to be defined. These categories must be derived from a single classification principle. They must be exhaustive, mutually exclusive, and independent. The construction of categories is a trial-and-error process in which tentative categories are formed, tested, and modified in light of the data. Starting with an overall definition, two or three persons search separately for instances of the concept. The definitions are constantly checked and refined by a process of approximation. To the extent that
the scores agree when they compare their results, it can be said that they are using the same concept. When disagreements occur, the scorers are in a position to improve their precision by refining their definition and rechecking on more written material. They are not merely discussing their concepts but constantly checking them. The technique is long and arduous, but the result is as close an approximation to complete agreement as can be attained in this realm. The development of careful definitions to be used in content analysis adds the dimension of focus and checks the reliability of communication. Agreement can be enhanced by simpler categories and units; experienced, well-trained scorers; precise, complete sets of scoring rules; and full illustrations of their use (Berelson, 1952).

A classic scoring system for need achievement was developed using the methods described (Atkinson, 1958; McClelland, 1961). The scoring system for the present study was developed using the McClelland-Atkinson system as a model.

A copy of the following scoring instructions was provided for each of the three scorers employed in the study:

Scoring Instructions

The following manual attempts to provide a scoring system for categorizing the activities in the teacher's manuals of basal reading programs. Every page of all the manuals will be scored by the first scorer. As a reliability check, the second and third scorers will each score three randomly selected lessons from each manual. Copies of the
lessons to be scored will be provided for each scorer, and the category codes will be written directly on the copies. The category codes will be written in red in the left margin of each column. The code will be written at the beginning of each page and at each point on the page where the category changes according to the guidelines for category codes which follow (also see the sample lesson page at the end of the scoring instructions). Any reproductions of the student's text which may appear in the teacher's instructions will not be scored. Any other graphic material that pertains to the scoring categories will be included in the scoring. The graphic material may include headings, tables, charts, and other similar items. (See the sample lesson.) Two category codes may be assigned to the same passage only if the major objective of the passage applies to both categories. Each scorer will also keep a clinical observation sheet to note any unusual or interesting features of the lessons.

After the category codes have been written on the copies of the lessons, the first scorer will measure the graphic material for each category code. The number of column inches will be written by each code on the lesson pages. The total column inches for each category code will be recorded by page on the scoring sheets. (See sample scoring sheets which follow.) If two codes are assigned to one passage the column-inch measurement for that passage will be recorded in both categories. The total column inches in each category will be computed for each scoring sheet, and the scoring sheets will be cumulated for each manual.

Better results will be obtained if scorers refresh their memory by
studying the manual before starting to score and refer to the manual while scoring whenever necessary. Also, the results are more reliable when scorers agree in advance to score only what the scoring manual covers and not to score a particular category if in doubt.

Category Codes

Each category of the study is listed with its code, followed by a discussion, list of areas included, and examples.

Word Level

Word Level—Sound-symbol (WL-S)

Discussion. This level deals with decoding and word analysis skills that are not related to the meaning of the word. It includes the processing of individual words and units smaller than a word such as letters, sounds, and blends.

Areas. WL-S processes include word identification, word recognition, and decoding. Phonics, pronunciation of words, syllabication, prefixes and suffixes, formation of singular and plural, and other word analysis topics are also included as long as they are not taught in relation to the meaning of the word.

Examples. If there is one vowel in a word it usually says its short sound.

Word Level—Meaning (WL-M)

Discussion. This level deals with activities designed to teach the meaning or function, rather than just the pronunciation of the word. It may include the processing of entire word units as well as units smaller than a word such as letters, affixes, and inflectional endings.

Areas. Activities at this level may teach the definitions by various
methods. Included are vocabulary exercises, prefixes and suffixes, and any other word analysis skill used to teach the meanings of the words.

Examples. Activities that require the students to fill in the blanks in sentences with vocabulary words. Although sentences are used in these activities, the objective is to teach the vocabulary words, a Word Level rather than Sentence Level skill. However, since syntactic skills are clearly required to successfully complete these tasks they should be noted on the Clinical Observation sheet as possible indirect instruction in Sentence Level skills.

Sentence Level

The following categories deal with Sentence Level processing, the processing of words in meaningful syntactic units, such as phrases, clauses, and sentences. The emphasis is on the structure of the language rather than individual words.

Syntax (SL-S)

This category deals with word order. It includes the study of word clusters, phrases, clauses, and sentence patterns. Any aspects of grammar related to syntax would also be included.

Punctuation (SL-P)

This category deals with all aspects of punctuation. Any aspects of grammar related to punctuation would also be included.

Intonation (SL-I)

This category deals with variations in the voice during oral reading, including the observation of punctuation. This encompasses pitch (rising or falling), stress (accents), and juncture (pauses).
Discourse Level (DL)

Discussion. This level deals with the combination of sentences into longer units such as paragraphs or stories. It is the process of getting meaning directly from the text. It must be differentiated from Schema Building, which is getting meaning from sources other than the text in order to interpret the text.

Areas. Discourse Level includes topics taught as comprehension skills, such as getting the main idea, drawing inferences, and recalling the correct sequence of events.

Examples. Silent or oral reading is typically followed by comprehension questions.

Schema Building (SB)

Discussion. The materials provided in a basal reading program have a two-fold purpose. Some of the activities are designed to teach language structure, while others provide enrichment. The enrichment activities may be considered Schema Building. All knowledge is packaged into units, and these units are the schemata. In order to develop schemata the reader is provided information from sources other than the text in order to interpret the text.

Areas. Schema Building includes the development of thinking skills, creativity, and context for lessons.

Example. Listening to a poem about snow before reading a story about the Arctic. Material is provided in the activity to assist the readers as they later read the text. The readers are not yet attempting to derive meaning from the text itself.
Miscellaneous (M)

Activities which do not fit any of the above categories are to be labelled as Miscellaneous. This would include instructions to the teacher that are not related to a coding category, enrichment activities not designed to enhance comprehension of the text, and literary appreciation activities. The miscellaneous category also includes study skills involving alphabetical order, resource books, index and table of contents.

Clinical Observations

Any unusual or interesting features not covered by the given categories should be noted on the Clinical Observation sheets provided. Special note should be made on any activities that appear to involve Sentence Level processing without actually providing direct instruction or specific objectives related to the Sentence Level. Such observations will be included in the descriptive analysis rather than the statistical analyses.

Category Examples

WL–S

*Vocabulary
Pronounce words
Find in a sentence
Find in a list
Rhyming words
*Abbreviations
Affixes
Sound associations
Recognizing words
Discriminating among words
Letter substitution
*Homographs
Onomatopoeia
Visual discrimination between sentences
Dividing into syllables

*May also be WL-M if related to the meaning.

WL-M

*Vocabulary
Use in a sentence
Insert in a sentence
Class relationships
Compound words
Contractions
*Affixes
Categorizing
Words with multiple meanings
Word riddles
Use in context
*Homographs
Synonyms
Antonyms
Word denotations
Singular / plural
Capitalize names
SL-I
Pause at commas in a series
commas in a direct address
colon
semicolon
dash
ellipsis
Stress words in italics, boldface type, underlined, all caps, etc.

SL-P
Commas in a series
Period at end of a sentence
Commas in direct address
Question mark at end of a question
Quotation marks around what characters say
Exclamation point shows surprise, excitement, etc.
Ellipsis shows hesitation or words left out
Commas in direct address

SL-S
Verb tenses (grammar)
Building sentences
Word position in a sentence
Word referents
Scrambled sentences
Negative sentences
Antecedents
*Inflected forms (may also be WL-S or WL-M)
Visual memory for sentences
Phrase reading
Types of sentences: questions, statements, etc.
Capitalize first word in a sentence

Finding the main idea
Choosing a title
Following directions
Find and read the sentence that says...
Comprehension check
When they have finished reading, ask...
Teacher reads poem/story aloud then asks comprehension questions
Recognizing sequence of events
Understanding cause-effect
Reality vs. fantasy
Riddles
Predicting outcomes
Noting important details
Drawing conclusions
Figurative language -- simile, metaphor, hyperbole
Analogies
Read the sentences the way the character would sound
Sound relieved, excited, etc.
Read with expression

Looking at the pictures before reading
Instructions to read the page to find out . . .

Introducing the selection
Motivation
Purpose for reading

M
Size relationships

Summary of story for teacher
Map skills
Drama
Handcrafts
Creative writing
Deciphering codes
Telephone directory
Professional articles (to teachers)
Sketches about the author
Oral communication
Science / social studies activities
Alphabetical order
Listening activities
Group discussion (not based on the story read)
Books to read
Research activity
Use dictionary, encyclopedia, etc.
Study skills
Using glossary, index, table of contents, etc.
Oral compositions
Reading graphs

Capitalization -- general

Special notes
1. WL-S / WL-M If an activity discusses the sounds of words and also uses them in sentences or in context, use both codes.
2. M All "creative" activities such as drama, handcrafts, and creative writing, use this code unless designed to teach a specific WL, SL, or DL skill.
3. WL-S Punctuation at the word level such as apostrophes in contractions / possessives and periods in abbreviations use this code rather than SL-P.
4. SL-I Oral reading activities use this code only if there is instruction relevant to expression or voice inflection. Any other oral reading activity is DL.
Title
Publisher
Level          Pages to

**SCORING SHEET**

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Totals

(C.I.= column inches)
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3. Vocabulary Check

**Objective**
Word identification
T★ Identifies mastery words

Put the following nondecodable mastery words on the board:

- eyes
- hours
- neighborhood
- tall
- terrible
- recycling
- blew
- world
- truth

Have pupils pronounce each word after you. Then read the following sentences to the class. Have pupils select the word which completes each sentence.

1. There are many countries in the ______.
2. Basketball players are usually very ______.
3. I didn’t like that ______ movie I saw on TV.
4. The wind ______ the fire out.
5. They are ______ metal cans and newspapers in that center.
6. I want you to tell me the ______.
7. Gail’s ______ are blue.
8. School lasts six ______.
9. There are many stores in my ______.

**Answers**
1. world; 2. tall; 3. terrible; 4. blew; 5. recycling; 6. truth; 7. eyes; 8. hours; 9. neighborhood

4. Context: Meaning and Syntax: Consonants

**Objectives**
Word Identification
T★ Uses context: meaning and syntax
T★ Relates initial, final, and internal consonants with the sounds they stand for

Duplicate the following sentences, or write them on the board:

1. Pablo lives on Main Str____t.
2. Mark ate a cheese s____ndw____ch for lunch.
3. Ito likes shopping in the gr____c____ry store;
4. My father wants me to cl____n my room.
5. Kathy wrote a ______t____r to her friend Jean.
6. Do you write with a pen or a p____nc____l?

Have pupils figure out the “mystery” word in each sentence. Remind them to think of a word that makes sense in the sentence and then match the consonant letters of that word with those in the “mystery” word.

**Answers**
1. Street; 2. sandwich; 3. grocery; 4. clean; 5. letter; 6. pencil

5. Appropriate Word Meaning

**Objective**
Comprehension
T★ Uses context to determine appropriate word meaning

Read the following stories aloud. Then ask pupils the question that follows each story.

1. Wendy was in a hurry. She ran out of the house. Then she remembered she had left her book behind.
   —In this paragraph the word left means:
   a. did not take
   b. a direction

2. Barry and Ann were watching the elephants at the zoo. One large elephant lifted its trunk and sprayed itself with water. The elephant was giving itself a shower.
   —In this paragraph the word trunk means:
   a. a very large suitcase
   b. the long nose of an elephant

Invite volunteers to offer sentences using alternate meanings (left—a direction; trunk—a very large suitcase).

**Answers**
1. a; 2. b

**Enrich**

**Creative writing** Have pupils continue the story of “A Brand-New Beautiful Me.” Ask them to write their own story about what happens to the gift wrap paper. Stories might include where the gift paper goes, who buys it, what it’s used to wrap, where it’s discarded, and what it becomes after it’s recycled. Have volunteers read their stories to the class.

**Artistic interpretation** Discuss with pupils what they’d like to be recycled into if they were old newspapers. Then have them draw pictures of the recycled product. Have other pupil match the pictures with the pupils who made them. Have pupils design their own signs about recycling. The sign can be a picture, a slogan, or both.

**Independent reading** Two simply written and informative books to introduce at this time are About Garbage and Stuff by Ann Zane Shanks (Viking, 1973) and Where Does the Garbage Go? by Paul Showers (Crowell, 1974). For a description of ways to recycle scrap materials around the home, a pleasant book is Beginning Crafts for Beginning Readers by Alice Gilbreath (Follett, 1942).

**Special Practice Books** Pupils may enjoy reading “People and Pollution," which appears in Level 8, Set A, of the Scott, Foresman Special Practice Books. There may be some words which pupils will not know.
APPENDIX D

PILOT STUDY

A pilot study was conducted in order to refine the scoring procedures and to provide training for the scorers. The manual used was *Reading Systems Manual, Level 5*, published by Scott, Foresman (1971) for grade 2-1 (second grade, first semester). This manual was not used in the actual study. The primary investigator scored all the lessons in the manual, as in the actual study, and two other scorers examined three randomly selected lessons. The three scorers met together before and after scoring the first lesson in order to clarify the scoring procedures and discuss discrepancies in assigning category codes.
## Pilot Study Data

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* Total exceeds 100% because some passages are assigned to more than one category.

### Reliability

- With scorer 2: .97
- With scorer 3: .95
- Combined: .93
APPENDIX E
SUMMARY DATA

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Inter-scorer Agreement

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### Inter-scorer Agreement

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TOTAL     .95       .94       .93

* Combined—Number of column inches on which all three scorers agreed divided by the total column inches.
Distribution of Instruction
Among Grades *

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* All values rounded to the nearest whole per cent.
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* All values rounded to the nearest whole per cent.

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HBJ  Harcourt Brace
Jovanovich
HM  Houghton Mifflin
M  Macmillan
SF  Scott, Foresman
Ginn

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* All values rounded to the nearest whole per cent.
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* All values rounded to the nearest whole per cent.
Houghton Mifflin

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* All values rounded to the nearest whole per cent.
Scott, Foresman

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* All values rounded to the nearest whole per cent.
VITA

Karen Lynn Parker was born in Winston-Salem, North Carolina on December 21, 1950. Her parents are Reverend Elmer Cleveland Painter and Frances Bowman Painter. She received her elementary education in North Carolina and West Virginia, and her secondary education at Central High School in Chattanooga, Tennessee. In September 1967 she received early admission to Tennessee Temple College from which she was graduated with the B.A. degree in June, 1970. She has been employed for fourteen years as a teacher, curriculum coordinator, and supervisor at Fort Walton Christian School in Ft. Walton Beach, Florida; Averyville Christian Academy in Peoria, Illinois; and Florida Christian School in Miami, Florida. She is presently employed at Freedom Christian Academy in Miami, Florida.

In 1977 she attended Florida International University, taking courses for teacher certification. In September 1978 she was admitted to the Graduate School of Florida International University. She was granted the degree of Master of Science in March 1980. She was admitted to the Graduate School of the University of Miami and awarded a Graduate Assistantship in September 1980. Her duties involved working in the Testing Department of the University of Miami Reading Clinic for one year. She was awarded the University of Miami Fellowship in 1981-82 and 1982-83. In May 1984 she was granted the degree of Doctor of Education by the University of Miami, Coral Gables, Florida.

Permanent Address: 12350 S.W. 8th Street D412, Miami, Florida 33184