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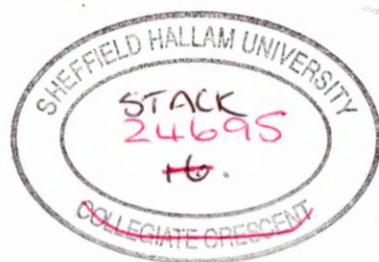
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A STUDY OF BILINGUAL CHILDREN READING IN

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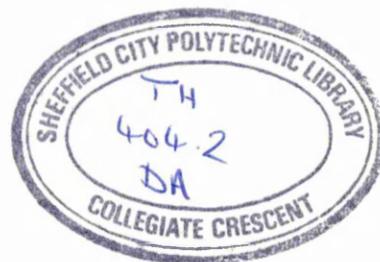
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A thesis submitted to the Council for
National Academic Awards for the qualification
of Master of Philosophy. The thesis is submitted
in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for this degree.

Sponsoring Establishment : Sheffield City Polytechnic

Collaborating Establishment : Sheffield City Council

June 1987



A STUDY OF BILINGUAL CHILDREN READING IN

A SECOND LANGUAGE

BERYL DAVIS

The Abstract

This research tested the hypothesis that bilingual children, using their second language and matched with monolingual children on a word recognition test, may differ significantly from them in the miscues made when reading and in attitudes to reading.

Some prior research has indicated ethnic minority pupils under-achieving in British schools. However, much research in the teaching of reading has been based on standardised tests which may be culturally biased and which may be sometimes less than specific about the particular minority groups involved. It gives little indication about how teaching might be made more effective and the children's reading skills enhanced.

The research analysed the miscues made in the reading of a story, the retelling and the answers to questions about the story. It analysed the results of a cloze test and an attitudes to reading measurement. The subjects were 41 monolingual English children and 41 bilingual Pakistani children in four Sheffield primary schools. They were matched in pairs for sex, schools, chronological ages and reading ages from a word recognition test. Each child was taped reading and retelling a story that had been matched in a pilot study to the reading ages of the children. Using the Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Signed Ranks Test, the data was analysed for older and younger children, for less and more able readers and for a group of bilingual girls and boys.

The results of the analysis were ambiguous. Only 25 of the 200 variables examined showed statistically significant differences between groups. These did, however, suggest some disruption to comprehension in reading, especially among the younger and less able bilingual readers. However, this disruption was not apparent among the more able bilingual readers, suggesting that they had reached parity with their monolingual peers. The possible implications of the research results for the classroom are discussed.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The reading passages used in the study are reproduced by kind permission of the various copyright owners.

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Personal thanks are due to the following for their advice and support:

William Latham, formerly Co-ordinator for Language Development Centre, Sheffield City Polytechnic.

Dr Ronald Parkin, Senior Lecturer, Sheffield City Polytechnic.

Chris Searle, Adviser for Multicultural Education, Sheffield LEA.

Jim Ewing, Research Director, Dundee College of Education.

Jennie Ingham, Research Fellow, Middlesex Polytechnic.

Hilary Hester and Carolyn Steedman, Schools Council Project, University of London.

Sandra Saunby, Secretary, Sheffield City Polytechnic.

The Staff of the Language Development Centre, Sheffield City Polytechnic.

The Staff of Lowfield Multicultural Centre, Sheffield LEA.

The headteachers, staff and pupils of the schools involved in the study.

The Abstract

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CHAPTER 1

THE BACKGROUND TO THE EDUCATION OF BILINGUAL

CHILDREN IN BRITAIN

1.1 Introduction

Since the 1950s, the arrival of people from different ethnic backgrounds into Britain has raised complex issues both in society and schools. In schools, the initial emphasis was on absorbing the children into the school population as soon as possible. Thirty years later, ideologies have progressed from this "assimilationist phase" (Swann, 1985) through the phase of multicultural education that helped to prepare children for life in a multi-racial society, to the implementation in the 1980s of an anti-racist policy in many education authorities.

Schools may find themselves at varying stages in this progression, which is beginning to result in changing attitudes towards the children themselves (Twitchin and Demuth, 1985). At first those entering school with no English were seen as presenting linguistic and cultural problems and underwent an intensive course in English in separate language centres. Such centres, however, placed children in a backwater, away from the mainstream curriculum. Their very separatism placed limitations on the breadth of the curriculum as the work being done did not always reflect work being done in the mainstream. It could have a negative effect on progress in learning English, because of the separation from peers (Swann, 1985). With the implementation of multicultural and anti-racist policies and with new initiatives by Local Education Authorities and schools,

the linguistic skills of bilingual children are coming to be valued (Twitchin and Demuth, 1985). The emphasis is also on supporting their bilingualism. The provision of community language teaching may help to give positive support to their language and culture (Fitzpatrick and Rees, 1980), may increase linguistic awareness for all children and may help children with the task of transferring concepts from one language to another. However the complex language issues raised by community language teaching have only recently started to be researched (Houlton, 1982) and it may be too early to draw firm conclusions.

Learning English as a second language, however, is also essential if children from ethnic minority groups are to succeed in this country. The Swann Report (1985) states that "the key to equality of opportunity, to academic success and more broadly to participation on equal terms and full membership of society is good command of English." In the Report on the Brixton Disorders (1981), Scarman found agreement among minority parents and educationalists that "it is essential that children should leave school able to speak, read and write fluently in the language of British society." However, children from minority groups, entering school for the first time, may have to come to terms with the ideas and attitudes of a culture that may be unfamiliar and may have to learn a new form of linguistic communication. In the 1980s many of them are no longer immigrants, as they have been born in Britain. Nevertheless, they may have been brought up to observe the customs, language and religion of their country of origin. Their white peers, however, bring into school the confidence gained from a background both linguistically and culturally similar to that of the

school. Confidence increases as they encounter familiar objects and find that communication is no problem. Children from minority groups may enter school without the advantage of this prior experience, may be shocked to find the language through which they had previously communicated is no longer understood and may have to use books and materials that are culturally alien.

During the 1960s and 1970s, research tended to centre on the academic under-achievement of minority groups (Tomlinson, 1983). Little was done to relate to the experiences and linguistic skills these children were bringing into school and to make positive use of them in the classroom. During this period, much of the research was based on standardised tests, especially in the testing of reading ability. Many of these tests reflected the culture within which they were standardised and were unsuitable for students from another culture. There was little research to identify areas where they were underperforming and where specific help might be given.

In many schools, bilingual children are taught by monolingual teachers. Marland (1985) points out that in 1984, even in the Inner London Education Authority, there was a ratio of only one bilingual teacher to a thousand bilingual pupils. Monolingual teachers need to be aware of the wider linguistic issues and how, through a positive approach to the children's languages, motivation might be increased and the pupils helped. As monolinguals, however, they may feel inadequate at responding to their pupils' bilingualism and to the rapid changes in educational practice in this field. They may feel they are unable to

cope, but may be willing to identify ways of enhancing linguistic diversity and to find out more about incorporating second language teaching into the mainstream curriculum. They may be interested in relevant information about how bilingual children may be helped. In some research, generalisations about "Asians" can also be misleading and does not take account of the different languages and cultures that might be included in such a word. It might be helpful, therefore, to identify ways in which a specific group of bilinguals might be given support in schools.

The present research, therefore, attempts to identify a particular group of bilingual children, to analyse the way in which they read, in order to indicate ways in which monolingual teachers may help them with reading in a second language. It tests the hypothesis that the miscues made by bilingual children reading in a second language and their attitudes to reading may differ significantly from the miscues and attitudes of monolingual children.

1.2 Linguistic diversity in Britain

The extent of linguistic diversity in Britain has only recently been publicised. The Linguistic Minorities Project (1983) identified 131 languages spoken in ILEA, 64 in Bradford, 50 in Coventry and 42 in Peterborough. Many of these children may be referred to as "children who speak English as a second language" (ESL). This description fails to take into account the linguistic skills of bilingual children who, after a period learning English, are "having, speaking, spoken or written in two languages" - the definition of "bilingual" in the Concise

Oxford Dictionary, 1974. Beardsmore (1982) states that "bilingualism is the presence of two languages in one speaker though ability in these two languages may not always be equal." Lyons (1981) says that "perfect bilingualism is extremely rare, because it is rare for individuals to be in a position to use each language in a full range of situations and thus to acquire the requisite competence." Bilingual children may have concepts about family life and the home, their own culture and religion well established in their first language. In Britain, however, concepts across different areas of the curriculum are likely to be more fully developed in English.

Bilingual children may experience feelings of rejection if their language is ignored. Beardsmore (1982) identifies some of the problems bilinguals face. They may be trying to reconcile two widely divergent linguistic and cultural patterns that may lead to feelings of frustration and "that this is more so when the central norms of the two communities are highly differentiated as, for example, those of Western European and Arab communities." Edwards (1983) puts bilingualism into its perspective in Britain, stating that "the bilingualism of British children is either undervalued or ignored." Referring to groups of bilingual children who underperform in school, she finds it "highly significant that these children tend to belong to immigrant and minority language groups in the process of assimilation by a dominant majority group." By contrast, bilingual children in a majority language group appear to suffer no academic disadvantages, for example, "English children who receive a Welsh medium education have a high record of academic success." In Canada, English speaking children, who took part

in a French immersion programme for bilingualism in English and French, do not appear to have been placed at a disadvantage academically (Lambert and Tucker, 1972). However, the bilingual children in Britain, according to Edwards, are at a disadvantage as members of a minority culture and speakers of a minority language.

1.3 Second language learning

The "academic disadvantages", Edwards refers to, may have been further compounded by the provision made for ethnic minority children to learn English during the 1960s and 1970s. The Swann Report (1985) outlines the history of provision of ESL teaching in separate Language Centres and outlines the arguments against separate education. There are strong linguistic arguments for mainstream provision. Language across the curriculum increases the opportunities for the cross-referencing of concepts. Conversing with white peers facilitates the use of English for different needs. In addition, mainstream teachers should see ESL teaching as a necessary skill and as part of their responsibility, so that the mystique attached to ESL teaching in the 1970s can be dispelled. The Swann Report (1985), however, quotes the DES Survey (1983) that suggests that, nationwide, separate provision has been slow to disappear. Separate language centres apparently accounted for 7% of ESL provision and small specialist classes within the schools for 70% (this could mean full or part time withdrawal).

The length of time spent in a withdrawal situation in a language centre or with full or part time help in the mainstream seems to have varied in the past according to the education authority,

and the child's ability. Cummins (1982) identified a period of eighteen months to two years, after which it is assumed second language learners have become proficient in English. However, after this period, children may not be as proficient as they appear. "Teachers and psychologists tend to assume that minority language students have learned English when they have acquired peer-appropriate fluency in everyday face to face communication." Such communication would involve social exchanges with other children. However, this should not be interpreted as meaning that the child can cope with "context-reduced proficiency". Such a situation might include reading a difficult text or writing an essay with no supportive materials. Cummins also suggests that it may take "from five to seven years on the average for minority language students to approach grade norms in academic aspects of English proficiency."

Other authorities also tended to emphasise areas of concern for ESL learners in British schools, who appear to be proficient in English but who still need help. The Bullock Report (1975) mentions "the failure of second language learners to use articles in the way that comes automatically to the native speaker, inanimate verb forms and confused morphology." The Report indicated the need for linguistic help beyond the initial stages and across the curriculum: "Although after a year, he may seem to be able to follow the normal school curriculum, especially where oral work is concerned, the limitations to his English may be disguised. They become immediately apparent when he reads and writes." Derrick (1977) even uses the unfortunate expression "deceptive fluency" and states that "ESL children

learn to use the language up to a certain point of competence and never move beyond it." To help schools with ESL teaching, the Schools Council funded the Scope Project, "The Teaching of English to Immigrant Children" (1969) which provided graded material for teaching spoken English and for making a start with reading and writing. In the 1970s, therefore, concern was mainly on improving performance in English, especially oral language and reading. The emphasis tended to be on the problems that bilingual children presented rather than on the assets that bilingualism had to offer, and on a withdrawal situation where English was taught by specialist teachers in language centres.

It is not surprising, therefore, that in the 1980s mainstream teachers may feel themselves in need of help and advice as pupils with ESL needs become the responsibility of all teachers. The Swann Report (1985) was strongly in favour of "policies for meeting the needs of second-language learners through integrated provision within the mainstream school." The Report wished ESL teaching to be an extension of the range of language needs for which all teachers should be able to cater. A study such as this which attempts to identify areas where teaching for bilingual children may be enhanced should be of use to the teacher.

1.4 Relevant research into the educational performance of Asian children

The design of studies into the educational performance of Asian pupils can often put these children at a disadvantage. Research conducted in English can include concepts with which the bilingual children are unfamiliar. Standardised tests are

likely to be inappropriate when used with children from another culture: the tests may measure skills and knowledge the children have not yet acquired. Outside factors may affect the outcome such as racist attitudes towards minority groups both in and out of school, the socio-economic status of families living in inner city areas, the length of time the child has been in Britain and more particularly in school, and the length of time the family has been in Britain. Some research may be out of date, for example if it relates to newly arrived immigrants when the majority of bilingual children now in school were born here.

Tomlinson (1983) has identified eighteen large, six medium and seven small scale studies into the educational performance of Asian children. In the 1960s, Saint (1963) and Dosanjh (1969) compared the IQ scores of Punjabi and English secondary (Saint) and primary school (Dosanjh) children. The former reported on the racial hostility the children faced and the latter on the "positive relationship between the length of stay and the length of schooling and improved results." Tomlinson also lists research (Baker, 1965, Bell, 1966, and Burgin and Edson, 1967) where already "the educational problems of Asian immigrant children were being taken seriously by researchers and practitioners, and structured teaching was being offered." The ILEA Survey (1966-68) reported on the English, mathematics and verbal reasoning results of immigrant and indigenous children examined at 11+. It indicated that "on the whole pupils from India and Pakistan do better than other immigrants" (Little, 1975). The data, however, might have been influenced by the fact that in these schools indigenous children numbered 22,023 and Indian and Pakistani children only 508 and that the schools

were situated in a better social class area. The ILEA Literacy Survey, begun in 1967, identified 31,000 eight year olds to discover the factors influencing reading attainment. Pakistani children performed better than Indian children though less well than English children. When they were retested again at fifteen years, Pakistani children were only three points behind the English children (Mabey, 1981). Payne (1974) reported on 1,990 Birmingham primary school children examined in the SRA reading test as part of the Educational Priority Area Research (1968-72). She reported a poor performance, "three-fifths of the Asian children obtained a score indicating an inability to read in English." However, most of the children had only recently arrived in England. Phillips (1979) reported that Asian children tested on the Southgate Reading Test acquired educational skills to the level of indigenous children who are "matched for the social and familial features of ethnic minorities." This research, however, was not reported for ten years and Tomlinson (1983) questions "an inadequately explained D-Score."

In the 1970s, two small scale studies (Ashby, Morrison and Butcher, 1970, and Peace, 1971) and a large scale study (McEwan et al, 1975) suggested that length of stay in the country would affect results. Haynes (1971) considered that favourable teacher attitudes could also affect the outcome. Dickenson et al (1975) compared Pakistani and English children on a variety of attainment tests. Pakistani children performed best on reading tests (Spooner's Group Reading Test and Schonell Silent Reading Test A) in which they were only half a year behind the Scottish children. It was suggested that home-school liaison

would improve school performance. Essen and Ghodsian (1979), analysing the data of the National Child Development Study from testing the IQ scores of children born in 1958, found that Asian children had made significant gains at sixteen and that they scored higher than other minority groups. The Child Health and Education Study, assessing at ten years of age children born in 1970, indicated that West Indian children obtained lower scores on reading tests than Indian and Pakistani children (Swann, 1985). A study of 400 children in the West Midlands (1976-79) in their last year in infants' school reported that attainments in reading using the Southgate Group Reading Test were not significantly different for indigenous and Asian children (Phillips and Marvelly, 1984). However Robinson (1980), who worked in twelve primary schools and used the GAP Test, found that Asian children were 1 year 2 months behind the indigenous children, though Pakistani children scored higher than other ethnic groups and scores were higher for children whose parents spoke English.

Research into the exam results of older Asian children as they leave school does not always indicate they have reached the level of attainment of indigenous children. Taylor (1976) found no difference between the qualifications of white and Asian children. However, Allen and Smith (1975) collected information on school leavers CSE/O level results in Bradford and Sheffield. Tomlinson (1983) comments on those pupils whose results were analysed in Sheffield: "In Sheffield 30 white pupils but only 5 Pakistani pupils and 2 Indian pupils achieved passes." Driver and Ballard (1979) examined the results of school leavers in three inner city secondary schools (1975-77): Asian pupils

tended to score lower for English language than the whites. The claims and methodology of Driver were, however, criticised in the Rampton Report (1981) for generalised statements. Craft and Craft (1983) found that in all secondary schools in an outer London borough, Asian A level results tended to be lower than those of whites. DES statistics (1981) in the Rampton Report indicated that although Asian pupils were reaching the norms of indigenous children, they tended to be in O/CSE exams rather than at A level.

Research comparing Asian girls with boys also presents conflicting findings. Dosanjh (1969) found all Asian girls scoring lower than boys and Muslim girls scoring lower than Sikh girls. Ashby, Morrison and Butcher (1975), Dickenson et al (1975), the ILEA Literacy Survey (1967-76), and Phillips (1979) reported similar trends. However Verma and Bagley (1981) showed Asian girls achieving a higher reading score than Asian boys. Allen and Smith (1975) reported that Pakistani girls in Bradford were less likely to reach CSE/O level than boys and that no Asian girls in Sheffield reached this level.

The studies seemed to pose as many questions as they answered. Who were the "Asian" involved in some of the research? If they were underachieving, how and in what specific areas of any subject? How could the needs of individual children be identified? Why were the children underachieving? Some questions such as the latter were partially answered by analysing some of the factors involved in underperformance. Dosanjh (1969), Ashby et al (1970) and Payne (1974) indicated that length of schooling in Britain might be a factor. Other

positive influences might be favourable teacher attitudes (Haynes, 1971), English being spoken by the parents (McEwan et al, 1975), home-school liaison (Dickenson et al, 1975), the level of education of the parents (Essen and Ghodsian, 1979) and parents being urban-born in the mother country (Robinson, 1980). The benefits of bilingualism in cognitive development were also acknowledged and the importance of mother tongue maintenance (Brown, 1979, Houlton, 1982, Tosi, 1984, Fitzpatrick and Rees, 1980).

1.5 Questions raised by the research

Studies of the educational achievements of Asian children have focussed on the academic levels of the pupils as shown by standardised tests. For schools that are searching for ways in which these children might be helped and for more acceptable methods of assessment than culturally biased standardised tests, such research may be of little help. Staff will be very aware of the levels at which individual children are performing, and will be more concerned with identifying areas where help is most needed. They will be more concerned with identifying more suitable methods of assessment. Some prior research, therefore, may have little direct relevance in the classroom.

Another anomaly in some of the research is the use of the blanket term "Asian" and an inadequate identification of different sub-groups. The Swann Report (1985) also mentions the problem, namely "the extent to which statistics on the performance of Asians as a group may mask considerable variations in the performance of different sub-groups." Ghuman (1980) points to the diversity of the groups, "Hindus and

Moslems, Punjabis and Bengalis, prosperous Kenyan middle class and Sikhs from rural areas. To talk about "Asians" therefore can be misleading and overlooks the existence of cultural sub-groups reflecting country of origin, religion and language." Taylor and Hegarty (1985) point out that research has ignored the differentiation within broad Asian community groups, though such differences can be important. Children of middle class Pakistani parents, for example, are mentioned as doing best in school, but Pakistani children show the greatest range in performance. The majority in the north of England, according to Taylor and Hegarty (1985), come from rural backgrounds, form the largest areas of settlement in Britain and tend to do less well. The Swann Report (1985) also drew attention to the Child Health and Education Study directed by Professor N R Butler that identified children from Pakistan as achieving consistently low scores.

Past studies, however, make little reference to the bilingual skills that many ethnic minority children bring into school. Because monolingual researches are unable to assess a child's first language, it is rarely recognised as a positive skill and a resource that can enrich a school. It follows that if staff also have attitudes that stereotype bilingual children as under-achieving, this is likely to have an adverse effect on relationships and educational achievement. The Swann Report (1985) taking evidence from young people of Afro-Caribbean and Asian origin on their perception of success or failure in the education system states that, "it has to be borne in mind when looking at achievement and underachievement that conclusions drawn from statistical evidence are only one side of the

argument." Factors that bring about the statistics need careful consideration, for example the effect of attitudes, school experiences and teacher perceptions on the child's self-image, the pressures exerted by race and culture and the part played by racial prejudice.

Further studies therefore need to focus on finding ways of helping bilingual children in the classroom apart from using culturally biased standardised tests or trying to diagnose underachievement. The identification of specific groups of children and an in-depth review of their needs in a particular area of the curriculum might also provide some insight into methods and materials that can be used.

1.6 Oral language and reading

It was during the 1970s that the dependency of reading on a mastery of oral skills was extensively studied. Dean and Nicholls (1974) emphasised the need for spoken language opportunities to come before reading as "the development of language skills is an important precursor to reading and a basis on which to build reading." Goddard (1974), writing about reading in the classroom, states that "talking and listening are central to the early stages of building up language skills." There is the need to link reading to the child's everyday life and activities, and to create in school an interesting and stimulating environment. The Bullock Report (1975) said "Reading is secondary and dependent upon the growth of language competence in the early years." Smith (1978) refers to the importance of non-visual information for reading, that is "information we already have in our brain that is relevant to the language and to the subject

matter of what we happen to be reading." Hunter-Grundin (1979) stated that "reading is a language and communication process" and that "the more practised a child is in spoken language, the more easily he will understand written language." Southgate et al (1981) stated that "the process of reading is closely bound up with total language experience" and that "teachers need to give children a chance to exploit their expectations of a text ... through their experience of life and language."

The view that children should bring their previous knowledge and experience of language, and then associate it with what they find on the printed page has been termed "the psycholinguistic view of reading" (Hunter-Grundin, 1979). It presumes two things. Firstly, when most children read they will be searching for meaning and trying to solve any problems they might encounter in the text. Secondly, they will be familiar with the language they are reading, its phonology, syntax and semantics and will be able to use this linguistic knowledge in their search for meaning in the text. These strategies will also be used to check that any guesses made when reading are correct and also to confirm that what has just been read makes sense. In the early stages of learning to read, the most frequently used sight words, phonic sounds and the "language for reading" (Dean et al, 1978) such as the words "letter", "sound" and "sentence" will need teaching but children also need to develop problem solving strategies in order to tackle a text efficiently.

Southgate et al (1981) indicated two main areas where this might be done. In the first place, it might be achieved through the patterns in the text. "Once the elements of a pattern are

recognised, we look for them again and are able to incorporate apparently meaningless features into a coherent whole." In this way, when the same patterns recur they may either become mechanised for the child or by using prior knowledge, they can be guessed at. In the main these patterns will be either phonic or syntactic. Secondly the child begins to make associations with what he finds on the page and what already exists in his conceptual framework. This process may be less automatic and even for the monolingual pupil, changes in the way concepts are expressed or the introduction of new concepts, may be disconcerting.

The bilingual child may still be in the process of mechanising patterns of syntax, may be anxious not to make errors and therefore may have few problem solving strategies to support reading. Within the conceptual framework of the text, the concepts themselves may be unfamiliar to bilingual children, if they are centred on an alien culture. Even if familiar, the manner of expressing them may not have been communicated in past oral situations. The mechanisation of syntax and concepts, dependent as it is on constant practice, may not be sufficiently established to give confidence when reading. In such circumstances, it might be hypothesised that the miscues made by monolingual and bilingual children when reading and their attitudes may differ significantly.

1.7 Research into reading in a second language

There has been little research into learning to read in a second language. Ellis (1980) states that "little has been written about the process of learning to read in a second language

though given the very substantial numbers of children who not only have to pursue literate activities in a second language but also have to acquire basic reading skills in it, there is clearly a need for further investigation." Edwards (1983) also states that "studies which focus specifically on the reading behaviour of children in a second language are rare." According to Edwards (1983), Goodman et al (1979) provide the fullest account of studies of children reading in a second language. Edwards points out that "although designed primarily for American teachers familiar with bilingual education programmes, a good deal of its discussion is relevant to British teachers working with children for whom English is a second language."

Goodman (1978) states that "there is a single reading process which underlies reading, no matter what the language background." He identified (1979) three main patterns of reading behaviour in second language learners. The first consisted of noticeable but superficial differences compared with the text, in which case the process can still be relatively efficient and effective. The second pattern consisted of limitations in the ability of readers to express what they have understood in English. They may have understood far more than they are able to explain. The third pattern consisted of disruptions to comprehension which could be severe.

It would seem, therefore, that children learning to read in a second language show a continuum in the way in which they acquire reading skills (Edwards, 1983). In the early stages, there will be those pupils whose acquaintance with the second language will be slight and who may be unable to gain meaning

from the text. Later pupils may be able to read but may encounter some uncertainty with comprehension. As children become confident in using a second language and as they acquire a vocabulary that encompasses a wide range of situations, reading competence will increase. Edwards (1983) states that "children's reading will faithfully reflect both the relative influence of the mother tongue and the gradual progression towards control over English phonology, orthography, grammar, vocabulary and idiom."

Other authorities have noted a similar progression. Du Bois (1979), in a study of four Navajo children reading in a second language, found that they made fewer semantically acceptable than syntactically acceptable miscues. It was therefore suggested that "increased emphasis needs to be given to semantic relationships." Ulijn (1980) also indicated that for second language learners "vocabulary usually appears to be a more serious obstacle," and that the striking differences between L1 and L2 reading is "that L2 reading is hindered by imperfect knowledge of L2 and by interference from L1." Ellis (1980) analysed the readings of Asian children and found that the better readers could decode at the semantic level and had fewer misreadings, whereas the less able readers, when they could not process a word, substituted a word that was related phonetically but not syntactically or semantically. Vorhaus (1984) emphasised the feelings of the second language reader, noting the insecurity that may be felt. Because the second language reader may be unsure of himself, he "may not always be able to distinguish between what is important information and what is not."

Finally in a pilot study (Appendix A) to test the hypothesis that scores on reading comprehension tests for ESL children are significantly depressed by problems involving concepts, the present researcher (1983) found some evidence to support Du Bois' suggestion that "increased emphasis needs to be given to semantic relationships." Two groups of ESL children, matched in pairs on relevant variables, completed a comprehension test. One group was then taught the concepts involved in the test. Post testing using the same comprehension test revealed statistically significant better results for the group that had been taught. This suggested that the bilingual subjects were on the continuum towards learning a second language. Teaching particular concepts resulted in enhanced scores on the comprehension test.

The present study attempts to extend prior research into reading in a second language. It tests the hypothesis that bilingual children, using their second language and matched with monolingual children in a word recognition test, may differ significantly from them in the miscues made when reading and in attitudes to reading.

1.8 Summary

This chapter has been concerned with the background to the education of bilingual children in Britain. The extent of linguistic diversity in Britain has been indicated and the history of second language teaching in schools has been outlined. The relevant research into the educational performance of Asian children has been referred to and reading in a second language has been placed in the context of oral language, with

the need for the continued development of concepts in a second language for bilingual children. Some of the problems have been indicated, that is the paucity of research with specific groups of Asian children, the need for classroom based studies that will help teaching and the need for alternative methods of assessment that can replace culturally biased standardised tests. The lack of research into bilingual children reading in a second language and the need for further studies in this field have also been indicated.

THE IDENTIFICATION OF THE VARIABLES

2.1 Introduction

This research examines and compares the observed variables of monolingual children reading in their first language and bilingual children reading in their second language. The Bullock Report (1975) was one of the first to indicate that the curriculum should reflect the language and culture of ethnic minority children, and that they should not be required to "cast off the language and culture of the home at the school threshold." Since then, the importance of literacy in the first language and the benefits of its use for the conceptual development of a second language have started to be researched (Fitzpatrick and Rees, 1980, and Houlton, 1982) and discussed by authorities (Brown, 1979). At the same time, if bilingual children are to realise their full potential in British schools, there also needs to be some systematic attention given to their academic progress, to the keeping of records and to assessing their advancement. In this context, an overview about how bilingual children read in a second language is under-researched (Ellis, 1980). Rampton (1983) listing research in the 1960s and 1970s into the English used by Asian children also points out that "none of the studies provide a systematic description of what English these children actually did use." This would seem to indicate the need for further studies into how children learn and read a second language.

It is likely that the child's advancement in acquiring a second language can only be assessed by a long term, fact-finding programme of evaluation. Such a programme, if used in schools, could also indicate differences in usage and with the reoccurrence of particular words and phrases could reassure staff that they were part of the child's progression towards bilingualism. The Swann Report (1985) expressed concern about the negative attitudes of some mainstream teachers towards ESL learners, especially in their correlation of lack of English with lack of ability, and stated that "there clearly needs to be a major shift in opinion in order to accord these pupils opportunity within the mainstream school." Systematic attention to oral language or reading might, therefore, not only reassure the mainstream teacher that any departure from the apparent norm was in fact part of the child's becoming bilingual and to be expected, but might also help towards countering negative attitudes by staff.

An analysis of the variables might also indicate where further linguistic help might be given and where concepts might be developed. It might give monolingual teachers some idea of how to help bilingual children with reading. If any strengths or weaknesses were indicated through the variables, then it might be possible to suggest a suitable and relevant approach to the teaching of reading. Standardised tests "that are the product of a certain culture and ideology" (Taylor and Hegarty, 1985) are also likely to penalise students from another culture. Their suitability for tests of ethnic minority pupils might be criticised and, in using alternative approaches, a more acceptable method of assessing the progress of bilingual children may be indicated.

Most Asian parents are anxious for their children to do well. Dosanjh (1969) noted that "there is a very strong desire among Punjabi parents for upward mobility in their children." The Schools Council Pamphlet 19 (1982) also states that "many immigrant parents attach a high value to success in the education system" though "their particular expectations of it may derive from the education system in the homeland." This may involve rote learning, strict discipline and separate education for boys and girls. The Swann Report (1985) also expressed the growing concern of Asian parents for the education of their children, stating that "only in recent years have Asian parents, teachers and community representatives begun to make known their concern about their children's education." Some of the concerns mentioned were the need for Asian teachers, the effects of racism on their children's education, the need for the maintenance of the children's first language and some balance in the content of the curriculum which in some schools could be said to be monocultural. Among Asian children, some of these issues might affect their motivation and might be reflected in differentials of the variables concerned with children's attitude to reading.

An analysis of the variables from a specific group of bilingual children might be of value to the schools concerned. Some research has been less than specific about the ethnic groups involved (1.5) and there would seem to be a continuing need for education authorities to carry out research in their own schools. Studies of children living in one part of the country may not necessarily relate to children living elsewhere and of a different ethnic group. There is a danger in generalising about

"Asian" children. Such a reference takes no cognizance of their culture, language, religion and country, and the length of time they have lived in Britain.

In this chapter, some reference is made to relevant prior research in which the variables incorporated into the study had been used. The variables are also tabulated and the criteria for identifying each variable is examined.

2.2 The variables in the miscue analysis

2.2.1 The development of miscue analysis

The main part of the research is concerned with the analysis of miscue variables made when reading. Of relevance is some reference, in these two sections, to the work of Kenneth Goodman in the United States and to the development of miscue analysis in Britain.

In assessing children's oral language and written work, teachers in primary schools may set their own standards, often based on prior experience and consultation with other staff. This contrasts with the range of standardised tests which may be used to assess reading ability. These tests, standardised for use with indigenous pupils, reflect a cultural perspective that disadvantages bilingual children. However, a diagnostic assessment can be made of children's reading skills and the extent of the children's mastery of phonic rules and comprehension through the use of "miscue analysis".

"Miscue analysis" was first developed by Kenneth Goodman (Gollasch, 1982). His investigation into the reading miscues or errors that children make when reading was undertaken for the purpose of providing knowledge of the "reading process" (Goodman, 1973). This knowledge, he suggested, can form the basis for more effective reading instruction. In trying to establish a model of the reading process, he found he was mainly concerned with the miscues or errors that children made when reading and that these were of greater significance than the parts of the text that the children could read accurately. He also observed that when readers make reading errors they are not random errors and that therefore they are capable of analysis (Goodman, 1969).

Goodman (1973) defines miscues in reading as "an actual observed response in oral reading which does not match the expected response." For each error, a linguistic cause can be identified. The errors or miscues made when reading are not accidental and can be related not only to what is on the printed page but also to the linguistic knowledge the reader brings to the text. The miscues arise as a result of the child attempting to process the print in order to reach meaning and, for each miscue, there will be one or more identifiable linguistic causes. The child is using prior experiences and knowledge of language to decipher what is on the printed page.

Each miscue, therefore, can be considered on a number of variables so that the researcher considers the linguistic

information inherent in the error. Each error might be considered for its relationship to the visual input, for its proximity to the grammatical structure within which it is contained and for the degree of approximation to the meaning of the text (Gollasch, 1982). Any miscues made will be diagnostically useful for the class teacher, as they will indicate the extent to which the students are using grapho-phonetic, syntactic and semantic knowledge. Teachers can then identify the strengths of the children and where they need help to become more effective readers.

Because of the complexity of Goodman's work in its original form, it had little practical classroom use, as making an analysis of each miscue was time consuming. Goodman and Burke (1973), for example, listed eighteen questions that could be asked of each substitution error. In Britain, adaptations have been made to Goodman's system of miscue analysis that make the coding simpler and are of more general use for the teacher. In the main, however, the principles behind Goodman's theory have been kept intact.

2.2.2 Miscue analysis in Britain

The Neale Analysis of Reading Ability (1958) was one of the first diagnostic tests to categorise the variables or types of errors made when reading, dividing them into substitutions, omissions, reversals and non-responses. By 1970, Biemuller, tracing the reading development of six to seven year olds, concluded that "miscue analysis

was a powerful diagnostic tool for the assessment of reading." Pumfrey (1977) also suggested that miscue analysis might be used as an indication of progress in reading. Each miscue needed to be examined for the extent to which preceding and succeeding context had been used. Dean et al (1978) outlined a simple form of miscue analysis by categorising the errors for substitutions, non-responses, insertions, omissions, pauses and corrections, and then asking questions about the responses. Is the meaning still acceptable? How close is the miscue to the sound and shape of the printed word? Is the substitution the same part of speech?

Southgate et al (1981) used miscue analysis to analyse the reading strategies of seven to nine year olds. Arnold (1982) suggested "a modified method of analysing miscues which should be feasible for general use." She provided a system of miscue analysis that could be used in the classroom and that had been discussed with several groups of teachers. Categories of miscues were analysed for non-response, refusal, omission, insertion, reversal, self-correction, hesitation and repetition. Substitutions were grouped for their graphophonic, syntactic and semantic similarity to the words in the text. A Venn diagram also recorded whether each child might be using the cueing system negatively or positively.

Many of the reading schemes published during the 1970s and 1980s have focussed on language as it is used by children. Such language has been incorporated into the

text of these reading schemes. References to the ideas behind miscue analysis are to be found in some of the teaching manuals of reading schemes, for example Reading 360 published by Ginn. The manual states that "the limited use of graphic/sound cues produces successful reading when it supports the use of grammatical and meaning cues."

Bilingual children, however, may not have the facility with English to be able to take advantage of the approach. The content of the scheme may also be such that the children may not readily be able to relate to it. Some differentials in the miscue variables of monolingual and bilingual children might therefore be expected.

2.2.3 The criteria for the identification of the miscue variables

The variables are summarised in the table below. The criteria for the identification of each variable is afterwards described.

TABLE 1

THE MISCUE VARIABLES

Miscue Variables	Description	Number
Self-correction	Total Acceptable in text Unacceptable in text	
Stress/intonation	Total	
Insertions	Total Acceptable in text Unacceptable in text	
Omissions	Total Acceptable in text Unacceptable in text	
Non-responses	Total	
Reversals	Total Acceptable in text Unacceptable in text	
Multiple Miscues	Total Acceptable in text Unacceptable in text	
Hesitations	Total	
Repetitions	Total	
Substitutions	Total Acceptable graphophonic Unacceptable graphophonic Acceptable syntactic Unacceptable syntactic Acceptable semantic Unacceptable semantic	

The criteria for the identification of the miscues made when reading owes much to the work of Kenneth Goodman (2.2.1). This section gives the criteria for the identification of each of the miscues and briefly states its significance in the analysis.

Self-corrections occur when a reader makes errors and then corrects them. An acceptable self-correction is when the previous error did not make sense. However, less acceptable is a reader who self-corrects an error that is acceptable in context. This could indicate a child anxious to please, who tends to sacrifice the flow of the reading for the accuracy of individual words, or who is not even aware that the original error made sense in the passage.

Stress and intonation miscues were only recorded if they resulted in changes in the meaning of the text. A stress miscue might give a word a different meaning as in "dēsert" and "desērt". An intonation miscue might split a sentence so that part of it becomes part of the grammatical structure of another sentence and therefore changes the meaning, a statement might become a question or the dialogue of one character might be attributed to another.

Insertions occur when a reader introduces an additional word or words into the text. It may indicate the mature reader who is re-encoding the material into language that is more acceptable, in which case an insertion, provided the meaning is not lost, will indicate an effective

reading strategy. On the other hand, it may show an immature reader who is unaware of the error, in which case the miscue will indicate less effective reading strategies.

Omissions occur when a word or words are left out of the passage. They should not be confused with non-responses which occur when a reader cannot process a word. Omissions indicate a mature reader who has processed the text and is adapting it to his/her own language and, on the whole, will be an indication of effective reading strategies. Such a reader may be processing the text so rapidly that small words, continually in use, for example the articles, may be omitted. However, unacceptable omissions were recorded if the meaning of the text were changed, for example if an adjective or a line of the text were omitted.

Non-responses are the least effective of reading strategies and occur when children cannot read the words. They may indicate an immature reader who does not know a word and who does not have the cueing skills to attempt to read it. They may also indicate a child lacking in confidence and possibly over-dependent on the teacher.

Reversals occur when a word or words are taken forward into the following text or backwards into the preceding text. It is an acceptable reading strategy if it indicates some re-encoding of the text so that the meaning of the story is retained. If meaning is lost, it indicates an unacceptable miscue.

Multiple miscues involve a string of words that contains more than one miscue. It may indicate total breakdown in the reading, in which case it is listed as an unacceptable miscue. However, it may indicate a child who has made an error and is attempting to regain meaning. If this is successful, then effective reading strategies are shown. A child might also be reprocessing the text into a language structure that more closely approximates to his/her own and this is likely to indicate a mature reader.

Hesitations occur when a child pauses for several seconds before saying a word. Assessment of what constitutes a hesitation tends to be subjective and needs to be considered within the overall pattern of how a child is reading. A hesitation, for example, identified in a child who is reading rapidly, might not be given the same recognition in a child reading very slowly. Hesitations do not constitute errors. They may indicate a hesitant reader lacking in both confidence and cueing skills in which case less effective strategies are demonstrated, or they may indicate a reader who is reading ahead and trying to gain time to process the text. In this case the strategies are more positive.

Repetitions occur when a child repeats a word or words more than once. As with hesitations, they do not constitute errors but either a hesitant reader or a reader who is reading on and trying to process the text while repeating the previous word.

Substitutions occur when a word or words are substituted for part of the text. They are important as they can yield most information about the child's application of linguistic knowledge to reading. More effective readers begin to combine use of context with phonic knowledge and their substitutions will make sense in total context. Unacceptable substitutions mean that the sense of the passage is lost. Substitutions can be analysed for grapho-phonetic, syntactic and semantic acceptability and unacceptability. Between, there is a range of possibilities that show the reader is attempting to process the text so that a third level of partial acceptability was also identified.

For a substitution to be acceptable grapho-phonically, the phonemes at the beginning and end of a word, or at the beginning and middle, or the middle and end had to be the same as the expected response. For grapho-phonetic partial acceptability, one phoneme of the observed response had to match the expected response or there was a reversal of letters, for example "was" for "saw". For unacceptability, the observed response had no similarity to the expected response.

For a syntactically acceptable substitution, the grammatical structure of the sentence remained the same even though meaning was lost, that is one part of speech was substituted for a similar part of speech. Pronouns and nouns might be interchanged and a change in gender was allowed if the pronoun referred to an object. An

expansion or contraction of the expected response was allowed with verb forms, for example the substitution of "shall not" for "shan't".

For partial acceptability, the substitution had to be acceptable grammatically with either the prior or succeeding part of the text, for example a verb might have a different tense that fitted the subject but might not make sense in the whole sentence. The observed response could also be a non-word to which the ending or intonation made it possible to assign a grammatical function, for example the substitution of "munning" for "running". For syntactic unacceptability, the substitution had to be a different part of speech from the expected response or a non-word to which neither the intonation nor the ending made it possible to assign a grammatical function. Finally, the substitution had to completely disrupt the grammatical structure of the sentence.

For substitutions to be semantically acceptable, the observed response had to retain the meaning of the text both within the sentence and in total context. The use of dialect or accent was semantically acceptable providing the meaning was retained, and could be understood by the mother tongue speaker. Variants of dialect and accent will be identified by the local community as part of the speech patterns of anyone born locally and such shifts on the whole should not interfere with the understanding of the text. Substitutions were deemed to be

partially acceptable when the observed response only resulted in meaning being achieved with either the prior or succeeding parts of the text, and not both. They were also partially acceptable if there were either a change or loss of an unimportant detail in the story, for example in the comparative form of the adjective, or certain tense changes, for example "changed" and "have changed". For a semantically unacceptable substitution, the meaning of the sentence had to be disrupted and the substitution had to have no semantic relationship with either the prior or following parts of the text.

For each child, there was a separate heading for each miscue. When the tape had been transcribed, the miscues were listed under each heading. Self-corrections, insertions, omissions, reversals and multiple miscues were recorded for their acceptability, unacceptability and total number. Stress and intonation miscues, and non-responses were recorded for their total number only, as were hesitations and repetitions. Substitutions were recorded for their grapho-phonetic, syntactic and semantic acceptability or otherwise, and for their total number. The partially acceptable substitutions were identified but were not included in the final tabulation of the data. The amount of material that could be included in the study was a factor and it was considered that partially acceptable substitutions would have less relevance than an analysis of the acceptable and unacceptable substitutions.

2.3 The variables in the retelling of the stories

2.3.1 Background to the variables concerned with the retelling of the stories

As part of the study, the criteria for the variables concerned with the content of the retelling of the story also had to be established. As a means of gaining additional information about how children read, Goodman (1978) requested a reader to retell the story immediately after the reading. He states that "the retelling provides information about the reader's ability to inter-relate knowledge, to interpret, to draw conclusions and to develop concepts" and that "it adds to the picture of the subject's development of efficient and effective reading strategies." It can therefore be used as a test of the reader's comprehension of the text. His taxonomy for retelling the story (Goodman and Burke, 1973) included character analysis, description of the events or happenings in the story, and the order in which they were recalled, the plot or the central concern of the story and lastly the theme or viewpoint on which the story was built.

In Britain, Arnold (1982) followed an examination of the miscues made when reading with an examination of the content of the retelling of the story. Her examination was less structured than that of Goodman. The emphasis was on showing how the overall grasp of meaning was developed. Her interest was in showing how the retelling of a story to the teacher "can be used as a means of interaction between teacher and pupil."

Research into the retelling of the story immediately after a reading appears to be scarce. The criteria for the selection of the variables was therefore based on the work of Goodman and on the researcher's evaluation of the retelling of stories based on several years of teaching bilingual children.

2.3.2 The criteria for the identification of the variables in the story retelling

TABLE 2

THE VARIABLES FOR THE RETELLING OF THE STORIES

Variables from the story components	Score
Plot Main events Characters Details Misconceptions	

The variables identified for analysis for the retelling of the stories included the recall of the outline or plot of the story, the recall of the main events, the recall of the attributes of any of the characters and the recall of details. A separate score was also kept for any misconceptions that were made during the retelling. Grammatical errors were not recorded in the variables. The purpose in asking for a retelling was to find out how much had been understood of the stories. Provided grammatical errors did not interfere with the meaning, they were not recorded in the variables. The criteria for each of these variables are given below.

The plot of the story

It was hypothesised that, although some children might recall different parts of the story, the plot might not be fully understood and therefore the major problem, result or purpose in the story might be ignored. Between five and eight major facts were identified as being crucial to the understanding of each story and were listed as constituting the story plot. The major facts identified as the plot of the story are listed in Appendix B, Stories 1-8.

The main events

These were considered to be the action of the story, the happenings and activities. The omission of any of them would change the story. A list of these events are given for each story (Appendix B, Stories 1-8). In addition, anything that might reasonably be inferred from the story was also included in the marking as was any pertinent evaluation that the child might make of the story.

List of characters and character attributes

The readers were credited if they could recall the characters in the story. Many primary school stories do not show much development of character traits, but if these were present in the story and were recalled then they were credited to the children (Appendix B, Stories 1-8). The characters might be people or animals or even objects. Marks were awarded for the recall of names, appearance, mannerisms and any changes in the characters during the story.

Details of the story

These were considered to be any facts inessential to the development of the story. They included the description of places, the manner in which something happened, or a minor piece of action or any remark that did not affect the main events in the story. A mark was given for each detail recalled.

Misconceptions

These were defined as any departures from the expected response that the child might make. It did not include anything that had been omitted by the child as this had been taken account of in marking for the plot of the story, the main events, character attributes and details of the stories. The misconceptions were any concepts or inferences the readers might make during the retelling which indicated that they were using the story material inappropriately. Such misconceptions would indicate some loss of comprehension or some misunderstanding on the part of the reader. No previous research analysing the misconceptions of bilingual children retelling a story in their second language was found. It was hypothesised that if any misconceptions were identified, a more detailed analysis might have provided useful information for teachers. The total number of misconceptions was recorded.

2.4 The variables in the comprehension tests

2.4.1 Some comments on comprehension in reading

The Bullock Report (1975) identified three categories of comprehension skills. In literal comprehension, the reader needs to be able to identify facts explicitly set down in the text, including details and main ideas. For inferential comprehension, the reader needs to interpret ideas or thoughts which have not been made explicit in the text and which includes the use of figurative language. With evaluative comprehension, the reader decides on the worth and acceptability of the material. Barrett's taxonomy, quoted by Clymer (1972), also includes "reorganisation" as a dimension of reading comprehension, requiring the student to "analyse, synthesise and/or organise ideas or information explicitly stated in the selection."

Lunzer and Gardner (1979) identify the different levels of comprehension. The reader needs to know the meaning of most of the words. The reader also "needs to penetrate beyond the verbal forms of the text to the underlying ideas." The reader needs to be able to compare these with each other and with what he already knows. Working with 257 ten to eleven year olds to resolve the issue that "comprehension is a multiplicity of different subskills", they grouped the comprehension questions that were set for word meaning in context, literal comprehension, that is drawing inferences from single strings or from a single statement, inferential

comprehension, that is drawing inferences from more than one part of the text, interpretation of metaphors, separating main themes from the rest of the text and forming judgements. Some of these aspects of comprehension were used to establish the variables for the comprehension tests in this study. This was because the pilot study into the reading of ESL children (Davis, 1982) and prior research into the educational performance of Asian children (1.4) had indicated that the variables on a comprehension test might show differentials between bilingual and monolingual children.

2.4.2 The criteria for the identification of the variables in the comprehension tests

TABLE 3

THE COMPREHENSION TEST VARIABLES

Comprehension Test Variables	Score
Word meanings	
Difficult expressions	
Literal comprehension	
Inferential comprehension	
Ordering	

The criteria for each of the variables examined by the questions are outlined below. The questions are given in Appendix C.

Word meanings (Question 1)

Three of the more difficult words in each text were chosen and the child had to select the correct meaning from the list.

Meanings of words in context (Question 2)

Words that had more than one meaning were chosen and the child had to identify their correct meaning in the context of the passage.

Meanings of more difficult expressions (Question 13)

This description was left purposefully vague. It included figures of speech such as metaphors and similes. It also included idiomatic expressions that it was considered might be difficult for the children to interpret. In the main, they were items consisting of several words, the meaning of which could not be deduced from individual words.

Literal comprehension (Questions 3-12)

In these questions, the answers could be found in a single phrase or sentence. The phrasing of the question was also part of the phrasing of the answer.

Inferential comprehension (Questions 14-19)

The questions entailed finding the answers from more than one area of the text. They might also involve making comparisons or identifying the main idea.

Sequencing (Question 20)

The child had to list the ideas, presented in the question as an incorrect order of events, in the proper order.

Following the test, the papers were marked and the scores recorded for each variable. The scores for "word meanings" and "meanings of words in context" were recorded together.

2.5 The variables in the GAP test

TABLE 4

THE GAP TEST VARIABLES

Miscue Variables (GAP test)	Description	Number
Global scores Substitutions	Total number Acceptable syntactic Unacceptable syntactic Acceptable semantic Unacceptable semantic	

The GAP test (Appendix D) is a comprehension test that leaves a blank for the child to construct his/her own response. It can be used to show how successful a child is in using the semantic and syntactic cues of a passage and the extent to which a child searches for clues both before and after the deletion. To do this, a similar system of syntactic and semantic variables can be established for the substituted words as was done for the substitutions made during the reading of the story (2.2.3).

The variables from the GAP test, therefore, were listed firstly for the raw scores obtained from the marking of the test according to the GAP manual (1975). This gave some indication of the children's reading ability. Secondly the test was used to provide supplementary information to the information recorded from the miscue analysis. Each replacement, regardless of whether or not it was the replacement word provided in the manual, was

assessed both syntactically and semantically for acceptability, partial acceptability and unacceptability in total context. This meant that the correct word was given a score but that equal credence was also given to any other word that made sense in total context. As with the variables in the miscue analysis of reading, the partially acceptable substitutions were identified but ultimately were not included in the final tabulation of the data. It was considered they were of less relevance to the study.

2.6 The variables concerned with attitudes to reading

Research into reading tends to centre on comprehension, word recognition and phonic skills; less attention has been given to research into attitudes to reading. Ewing (1981) defines attitudes to reading as "including the individual's feelings, beliefs and values as elicited in reaction to reading in general and to identifiable reading experience." He identifies research in this field, Estes Attitude towards Reading Scale (1974), Kennedy and Halinski's Attitude Test for Secondary Schools (1975) and the Dulin-Chester Scale (1974). However the variables listed in each of these scales were considered by Ewing as being either too complex or as giving "rather neutral results". Accordingly he developed a series of statements about reading that was rated on a five point scale. One of these measurements was used in the present research (Appendix E). Research has been identified that indicates Asian children may be underperforming in schools compared with English children (1.4). Authorities (Swann, 1985, Twitchin and Demuth, 1985)

indicate the demotivating factors of an Anglo-centric approach to the curriculum and Hicks (1981) and Klein (1981) indicate the drawbacks of materials that stereotype and caricature other cultures. These factors may affect attitudes to school and to reading.

The measurement used to test the hypothesis was taken from Ewing's "Attitude to Reading Measurement and Classification within a Curricular Structure" (1981). The ATR2 global attitude was chosen (Appendix E). It has eighteen statements that have to be assessed for "definitely disagree", "probably disagree", "not sure", "probably agree" and "definitely agree". The statements have a mixture of positive and negative attributes. Numbers 3, 5, 6, 7, 10, 12, 13, 17 and 18 are the positive statements and score from 1 to 5 for the five points of the scale. The negative statements are numbers 1, 2, 4, 8, 9, 11, 14, 15 and 16, and score from 5 to 1 for the five points of the scale. The resulting scores may indicate a negative attitude (18-53), a neutral attitude (54-60) or a positive attitude (61-84). In this study, the total score from all the variables was recorded for each child.

2.7 Summary

In this chapter, the variables used in the analysis have been identified. The criteria for analysing the miscues made when reading and for identifying the variables for the retelling of the stories and the multiple choice comprehension tests were established. The criteria for the analysis of the global scores and the replacement variables in the GAP test were outlined. The variables for the measurement of the global attitudes on the

Attitude to Reading Measurement were identified. It was anticipated that any differentials among the variables might indicate where the teaching of reading might be enhanced and areas where pupils might be helped. Through the use of the variables, an improved method of assessment might be indicated that would be of greater classroom use than standardised tests.

THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY - THE SUBJECTS

3.1 Introduction

In identifying the subjects, the following criteria were considered. There was need for relevance in the choice of subjects, so that as far as possible the research population would be able to provide the information needed. The sample needed to be representative of the population from which it was chosen. The sample also needed to be able to cope with the work involved in the research. Lastly, as far as the subjects were concerned, there was the need to consider the constraints of time, place and attitude for the institutions involved in the research. The schools involved had to be able to allow time for the children to take part in the research, space needed to be available and it was desirable for success that the research should be regarded favourably in the schools concerned.

This chapter identifies the subjects and describes their cultural and linguistic background. It lists the schools involved in the research. It gives the criteria for matching the monolingual and bilingual subjects and tabulates the resulting match.

3.2 The background of the bilingual children

The Pakistani children involved in the research are Muslims. Their families came from the villages around the town of Mirpur in Pakistan. Many of the fathers came to Sheffield to work in the steel industry and families came to join relatives already

here. Henley and Taylor (1981) state that "the people from Mirpur speak a dialect of Punjabi called Mirpuri." In Pakistan, Punjabi may, for many, be the oral medium but for Muslims, Urdu is the written language. It is also the administrative language of Pakistan so parents educated in Pakistan will be literate in Urdu. Within the Pakistani families in Sheffield, some of the fathers will be literate in Urdu and speak English, whereas most of the mothers speak Punjabi and may speak little or no English. Most of the children attend the mosque after school where they learn Qu'ranic Arabic and Urdu.

Three groups of bilingual children may be identified among the Pakistani children in Sheffield. Firstly there are a small minority from homes where both Urdu and English are spoken. Secondly there are those who speak mainly Punjabi/Urdu at home with some English to older brothers and sisters. Lastly there are those who speak no English at home. Of these groups, the bilinguals in this study belong to the last two, that is speaking mainly Punjabi/Urdu at home and English at school.

Coates et al (1978) in the Sheffield Asian School Leavers' Project stated that "Urdu is the official language of Pakistan. Punjabi is the main dialect." In the School Languages Survey (Hyde, 1986) carried out in Sheffield, 65.6% of the bilingual pupils in Sheffield spoke Punjabi/Urdu. 5.33% of the pupils in Sheffield are bilingual. Pakistani children, therefore, form the majority of bilingual children in Sheffield. There appeared to be a steady increase in the number of bilingual pupils entering Sheffield schools. This percentage, however, is not evenly spread across all schools. As in other large cities,

minority groups tend to be more heavily concentrated in some areas than others. In this way, families are assured of the close support of the extended family which cannot operate so effectively in isolation. They are also able to observe their religion, and children can attend mosque schools in the evenings and at the weekend to learn about their faith and culture.

MacKillop (1980) has written about the background of the Pakistani families in Sheffield stating that "the social networks most Pakistani families left behind in their villages are very different from those in our urban industrial society. Within the self-contained confines of the village, life is strictly organised. The extended family gives support to both relatives and close friends; religions and social life is governed by Islamic Law." Though the majority of children in this study were born in England, family ties with Pakistan are strong and several of the children have returned to Pakistan for long holidays. Most of the parents were born in Pakistan and strong links with the home country are maintained.

All the bilingual children in the study had most of their early education in England, either in infant or first schools, and several had been to nursery schools. As the children were all over the age of eight years, they had been learning English for four years or more, and had passed the initial phase of learning English as a second language (1.3).

3.3 The matching of the subjects

Four schools were approached for the research and all were supportive to the project. The four schools had sufficient

bilingual and monolingual subjects to achieve a matching of pairs of children. It was considered that the Pakistani children in these schools were a representative sample of the Punjabi-Urdu speakers in the city. The schools were also generous about offering time and accommodation for the research. The criteria initially established therefore for the identification of the subjects (3.1) was observed.

Parallel groups of Pakistani and English children were selected for the study. The subjects were matched for the variables of school, sex, chronological age and reading age on the Schonell Graded Word Reading Test. A summary of the subjects and their matching is tabulated below and comments are made on the variables used for matching.

TABLE 5

SUMMARY OF THE MATCHED PAIRS (8.0 - 8.11 YEARS)

Pair No	Sex		School		Mother Language		Age (Yr.Mth)		Reading Age (SGWRT)	
	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B
1	M	M	a	a	English	Punjabi	8.10	8.6	8.10	8.6
2	M	M	a	a	English	Punjabi	8.7	8.7	8.2	7.10
3	F	F	a	a	English	Punjabi	8.3	8.2	9.0	9.0
4	F	F	a	a	English	Punjabi	8.6	8.4	8.6	8.7
5	F	F	a	a	English	Punjabi	8.8	8.0	7.10	8.1
6	F	F	b	b	English	Punjabi	8.4	8.9	8.5	8.9
7	M	M	b	b	English	Punjabi	8.6	8.8	7.1	7.4
8	F	F	b	b	English	Punjabi	8.11	8.9	8.1	7.9
9	F	F	b	b	English	Punjabi	8.1	8.0	7.2	7.5
10	F	F	b	b	English	Punjabi	8.11	8.10	7.1	7.2
11	F	F	b	b	English	Punjabi	8.1	8.5	8.9	8.9
12	M	M	d	d	English	Punjabi	8.6	8.1	8.7	8.2
13	M	M	d	d	English	Punjabi	8.11	8.1	7.6	7.8
14	M	M	d	d	English	Punjabi	8.1	8.4	10.0	9.8
15	M	M	d	d	English	Punjabi	8.11	8.4	9.0	8.7
16	F	F	d	d	English	Punjabi	8.8	8.11	7.8	8.1
17	F	F	d	d	English	Punjabi	8.7	8.8	6.10	6.11
18	F	F	d	d	English	Punjabi	8.3	8.7	7.5	7.3
19	F	F	d	d	English	Punjabi	8.7	8.11	7.10	8.2
20	F	F	d	d	English	Punjabi	8.3	8.9	6.10	6.11

A - English Children
B - Punjabi Children

M - Male
F - Female

TABLE 6

SUMMARY OF THE MATCHED PAIRS (10.0 - 10.11 YEARS)

Pair No	Sex		School		Mother Language		Age (Yr.Mth)		Reading Age (SGWRT)	
	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B
21	M	M	a	a	English	Punjabi	10.0	10.1	8.1	8.6
22	M	M	a	a	English	Punjabi	10.11	10.8	7.7	7.8
23	M	M	a	a	English	Punjabi	10.4	10.0	12.0	11.7
24	M	M	a	a	English	Punjabi	10.0	10.2	10.0	10.2
25	M	M	b	b	English	Punjabi	10.0	10.1	10.3	10.3
26	M	M	b	b	English	Punjabi	10.1	10.0	10.1	10.1
27	F	F	b	b	English	Punjabi	10.8	10.8	8.4	8.3
28	F	F	b	b	English	Punjabi	10.8	10.10	9.1	9.4
29	M	M	c	c	English	Punjabi	10.6	10.5	11.0	11.1
30	M	M	c	c	English	Punjabi	10.5	10.0	8.8	8.6
31	M	M	c	c	English	Punjabi	10.7	10.7	8.6	8.9
32	M	M	c	c	English	Punjabi	10.10	10.2	8.2	8.3
33	M	M	c	c	English	Punjabi	10.2	10.3	9.6	9.6
34	M	M	c	c	English	Punjabi	10.0	10.0	8.3	8.3
35	M	M	d	d	English	Punjabi	10.6	10.4	9.7	10.0
36	M	M	d	d	English	Punjabi	10.0	10.7	9.6	9.6
37	F	F	d	d	English	Punjabi	10.8	10.9	9.7	9.2
38	F	F	d	d	English	Punjabi	10.11	10.5	9.3	9.4
39	F	F	d	d	English	Punjabi	10.10	10.10	8.11	8.6
40	F	F	d	d	English	Punjabi	10.11	10.9	9.2	9.7
41	F	F	d	d	English	Punjabi	10.11	10.10	8.1	7.9

A - English Children
B - Punjabi Children

M - Male
F - Female

3.3.1 The Schools

Four schools within the Sheffield City Education Authority took part in the research. They were older schools within three miles of the city centre. Two of the schools were Middle Schools and two were Junior Schools. To effect a reasonable match of subjects, it was hypothesised that 25% or more of the children should be bilingual in each school, and these four schools fulfilled this criteria. At the time of the research, one of the Middle Schools had a Language Centre, though the children have since been integrated into mainstream classrooms. Each of the other schools had some additional support from a Sheffield Task Force teacher specialising in teaching English as a second language. The number of Pakistani children in each school varied from 25% to over 65%. In each school, there was a small percentage of other minority groups including West Indian, Bengali, Chinese, Indian, Arabic and Vietnamese children.

There did not appear to be any significant differences in the teaching of oral language or reading between the four schools. Oral language was being developed through visits outside school and the use of materials in school, so that language was being supported by practical experience. Language Centre teachers and ESL Task Force teachers were working with small groups of bilingual children who were in the early stages of learning English as a second language.

With regard to the teaching of reading, there was a variety of approaches within all four schools. Phonic skills were being taught, practice was being given in both silent reading and reading aloud and there was some use of cloze passages. Dictionary skills were being practised and comprehension exercises were being used. In all the schools, progression was mainly achieved through reading schemes, many of which used a language experience approach, by which the language used in the readers approximated to the children's own language. "Breakthrough to Literacy" (Mackay et al, 1970) was the first reading scheme to relate more closely to the language of young children. Other readers, such as "Link Up" and "Reading 360" which have followed a similar philosophy, were to be found on the schools' shelves. Some of the supplementary readers, used to move children sideways to consolidate their reading, did not always reflect this approach, for example the Ladybird books. Some readers, for example the Wide Range Readers, also had some content that was racist, especially in the stereotyping of other cultures and in the Euro-centric view of the world that was portrayed. In all the schools, the readers were colour-coded for easy identification and were readily accessible to the children.

3.3.2 Sex

In the study, the pairs were matched for sex. Matching for this variable was seen as being relevant as maturational differences between boys and girls were considered to be a factor in academic progress. At primary school,

girls may be ahead of boys. At this age they develop physically more rapidly especially during the second half of their time in primary school.

Another factor also influenced the match for sex. Authorities (Dosanjh, 1969, Ashby et al, 1975 and Allen and Smith, 1975) indicated that Muslim girls may perform less well in schools than Muslim boys. Parental attitudes towards the education of girls and boys may differ. They may be concerned about any infringement of religious beliefs in school and, for many Muslim parents, the freedom given to girls in our society is unacceptable. Dosanjh (1969) suggested that one of the reasons why boys outperform girls in his study may have been "the attitude of Punjabi parents towards the bearing and rearing of girls." MacKillop (1980) states that "girls are taught to serve their brothers and parents." Their future role may be seen as bringing up children and looking after the home. The Swann Report (1985), summarising the main findings of a study of Dr G K Verma (1980-3), states that "In the South Asian groups, girls tend to have lower levels of self-esteem than boys" and that "Asian parents are really looking towards a good future for their sons." Parents expect girls to do the housework but in fact parents "don't rely as much on them as they do on sons." These attitudes may affect the esteem that girls have of themselves. They may also affect teacher attitudes. If staff are aware of home attitudes to girls, they may come to accept that there is

little they can do to improve standards for girls who may be underperforming.

In conclusion, the match for sex was made because of differences in the maturational ages of boys and girls at primary schools. Attitudes and expectations towards Muslim girls might also have some effect on the findings, especially if staff considered the girls to be too quiet or unlikely to be as successful as boys because of home expectations.

3.3.3 Chronological Age

The pairs were matched for their chronological ages. The matching for chronological ages may have had less significance for the research than the matching for reading ages. The Bullock Report (1975) indicates that children differ in their attainments and develop at uneven rates. Reading and chronological ages, therefore, by the time children are in Junior and Middle Schools may no longer be closely associated. However, Southgate et al (1981), analysing children's reading, found that "chronological age proved a crucial factor in the ability to use all three levels of language suitably." The older children were generally superior in their use of all available cues and used syntactic and semantic cues more often and more efficiently. It was hypothesised that a match for chronological ages might give a teacher some idea of what to expect across a year group. Mercado et al (1981) states that "we cannot judge how well bilingual children are performing in a second language, unless we

know what can be expected of the monolingual native speaker." A match within a year group might, therefore, give some indication of any differentials in the miscues made when reading and in attitudes. It would establish the areas where differences between monolingual and bilingual readers might be expected. If two groups with different chronological ages were also identified, then there might also be differences in the two sets of data. It might be hypothesised that an older group might show the bilingual children beginning to reach parity with the monolingual children, whereas with the younger group there might be greater differentials.

The children who were selected were eight years or more. This age was chosen to ensure that the bilingual children were well into the second stage of learning a second language as indicated by Cummins (1982). He identifies (1.3) the first period of learning a second language, when children acquire "peer-appropriate fluency in everyday face-to-face communication" which lasts for about two years, and "context-reduced proficiency" which may take five to seven years. It was hypothesised that during the early years at school, the second language learner would be mainly preoccupied with the acquisition of oral language skills. This would make any reading comparisons between monolingual and bilingual children inappropriate as some parity in the first place needed to be reached in oral language skills. During the early years in school, reading would be less of a priority than learning English. Finally, consideration was given to the

possibility that children younger than the subjects identified in the study might be nervous about being taped when reading, especially if reading strategies were only beginning to be established. This might be heightened for younger children if the research were being carried out by a stranger.

In the matching, two year groups were identified. Firstly, children in their M1 or J2 years, that is the first year at a Middle School or second year at a Junior School, and aged between 8.0 years and 8.11 years. Secondly, children in their M3 or J4 years, that is in the third year in a Middle School or last year in the Junior School, and aged between 10.0 years and 10.11 years.

With regard to the older group, Lunzer and Gardner (1979) found that a minimal amount of reading is achieved in the classroom at secondary level. This is to be deplored, but even if reading is minimal in the classroom, outside reading, for example for homework and revision, is certainly needed if there is to be adequate progression. As this second group was approaching secondary entrance, a high level of reading skills might be expected by secondary school staff. Some importance, therefore, might be attached to research into reading with this age group. The data might show monolingual and bilingual children gaining parity with each other. If miscues were identified that showed statistically significant differences, then these might be qualitatively different to any identified in the first group.

3.3.4 Reading Age

The pairs were matched for their reading ages on the Schonell Graded Word Reading Test (Appendix F). A word recognition test reflects the mastery of a particular reading skill, that is the ability to decode sight words. The look/say approach to the teaching of reading and also the teaching of phonics facilitates rapid decoding. A combination of these methods is now part of the accepted approach to the teaching of reading in many schools. Success with these methods can result in high scores on the SGWRT.

However, the dependence of some schools on the SGWRT as a measure of reading ability (Bullock, 1975) may no longer be acceptable. The Bullock Report stated that it was the most widely used test of reading. Vincent and Cresswell (1975) reiterated this stating that "Burt, Vernon and Schonell Graded Word Reading Tests are still the most frequently used reading tests." They also found that word reading tests can correlate with and "give similar results to more elaborate and seemingly searching tests." Such a test, however, might be less than appropriate for the second language learner still in the process of mastering syntax and concepts in a second language.

It was hypothesised that this research might add to the evidence concerning the lack of wisdom involved in using this test, especially with second language learners. Raban (1983) indicates the drawbacks of the test. "Reading accurately lists of unrelated words is not the

same at all as simultaneously identifying and anticipating printed word strings which constitute written English, neither does accuracy necessarily imply an understanding of what is read." However she also states that results may be similar to "those obtained by more complicated forms of reading assessment." Like Raban, Ingham (1982) also expresses reservations about the test's usefulness, that is "in view of the limited reading attainment it covers and its age." It was hypothesised that even if a match was established between pairs on the test, an analysis of the actual readings of monolingual and bilingual children would show both qualitative and quantitative differences in the variables. It was also considered that differences in word recognition levels, for example the differences between more able and less able readers identified on a word recognition, might also be associated with differences in the miscue patterns made when reading.

Stoker (1970) found that in one school "an Asian child of six with a reading age of twelve according to the Schonell Reading Test was found to comprehend almost nothing." Brown (1979) stated that "the ESL child may have memorised, in some cases, the first three books of a reading scheme and can select words on request without any idea of what they mean." Raban (1983) also stated that "while pupils score well on a word recognition test, they fail to make progress in reading because they do not make use of syntactic and semantic cues as shown on a test of continuous prose with deletions." Reference has

already been made to the comments of Goodman (1978), Du Bois (1979), Ulijn (1980) and Ellis (1980) on the way in which bilingual children may be able to read words in a second language without fully understanding the text (1.7). This identification of words without fully understanding the concepts behind them may be part of the progression in learning to read a second language. Research that analyses reading in greater detail across two age groups and across a range of reading ability might give further evidence of this progression.

3.4 Comments on the matching of the subjects

The headmasters of the appropriate schools were approached at the beginning of the summer term, 1983. First visits to the schools were made shortly afterwards to explain the research and to make an initial identification of the children. In the case of one school, the initial matching was done using the subjective assessment of staff. In the other three schools, standardised tests were already in use and the results of these were used initially for identifying the children. The standardised tests were the Daniels and Diack Test, the Schonell Graded Word Reading Test and the Richmond Reading Test.

During subsequent visits to the schools, the SGWRT was administered individually to about 120 children who appeared to be suitable for matching. The test itself is administered on an individual basis. The child reads the words printed on the card and is then credited with all the words read correctly. Testing goes on until ten consecutive words cannot be read. The test gives an assessment of the child's ability in terms of a

reading age, that is a given reading age signifies that the child is able to read the same number of words as the average child at that age.

The children were informed about the study and asked if they would like to participate. Without exception they were keen to do so. From these children, 82 were eventually selected as being the closest match, making 41 pairs altogether. The matched pairs are tabulated in 3.3.

The closest match achieved for chronological age between any two children was ten months. However, the children were still within the same year group. In matching for reading ages, the biggest spread across any one pair was five months. Where there was a choice of making either the chronological ages or reading ages a better match, priority was given to the reading ages as this was considered to be of greater relevance to the study. A review of the chronological and reading ages showed that, of the forty-one pairs, twenty-eight pairs showed reading ages below the chronological ages for both children in the pair. However, only thirteen pairs had reading ages that were the same as or were higher than their chronological ages.

CHAPTER 4

THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY - DATA COLLECTION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter identifies the instruments from which the variables listed in Chapter 3 were obtained and describes how the data was collected. Each instrument is considered in turn and its relevancy in the study is explained. This means that the criteria for identifying the instruments is detailed, the material is identified and some explanation is given about how the instruments were applied to the subjects. This involved carrying out a pilot study to establish the readability level of each passage in order to match the texts to the reading ages of the children. The variables and the instruments used with each set of variables are tabulated below.

TABLE 7

SUMMARY OF VARIABLES AND INSTRUMENTS

Variables to be examined	Instruments
Miscues in reading	8 stories matched to the reading ages of the subjects
Story variables identified in the retelling of the stories	8 stories matched to the reading ages of the subjects
Comprehension skills	8 comprehension tests on the 8 stories
Comprehension skills	GAP Test
Attitude to reading	Ewing's Attitude to Reading Measurement

4.2 Background to the instruments used to identify the miscue variables

The analysis of miscues in reading began with the studies of Kenneth Goodman who saw reading as a language process and also a psycholinguistic process as "there is an essential interaction between language and thought in reading" (Goodman, 1978), with readers focussing on constructing meaning. This means that "the reader, a language user, reconstructs as best he can a message which has been encoded by a writer as a graphic display" (Gollasch, 1982).

In doing this two things are involved for the reader. Firstly, if the primary aim is to get to the meaning of what has been read, the reader will be using a certain set of strategies. These strategies are listed by Goodman as those of sampling, predicting, confirming and correcting (Gollasch, 1982). A reader will use sampling strategies to review the visual input on the page, prediction strategies to anticipate what will come next, confirmation strategies to verify the word is correct and lastly correction strategies to correct an error of which the reader becomes aware during reading. In using these strategies, the more proficient reader may change words round, use synonyms and omit words, but ultimately meaning will be retained. The reader will simply be reprocessing the text into his own words.

Secondly through the reading miscues made, the reader will be demonstrating the extent of his/her linguistic knowledge. Readers will use graphic information, that is visual input from the print, along with syntactic and semantic knowledge to comprehend what is being read. Goodman and Goodman (1977) state that "all three systems are used in an integrated fashion." The

more proficient readers will be using all their available linguistic knowledge to reach meaning as economically as possible. In fact "the child concentrates his total prior experience and learning on the task, drawing on his experiences and the concepts he has attained as well as the language competence he has achieved."

In the 1970s, Goodman extended the knowledge gained from his previous research to "Americans who speak a language other than English before entering school" (1978). He wished to gain an insight into how learners became literate in a second language, by providing an in-depth description of reading among speakers of English as a second language. He felt there might be some differential in predicting syntactic patterns and in control over concepts. There might also be greater dependency on graphophonic cueing for the second language learner, to compensate for any lack of control over syntactic patterns and concepts. If children interact with what they see on the printed page, optimise their graphophonic, syntactic and semantic knowledge in order to construct meaning with the minimum of effort, then this is likely to be done more readily when reading in a first than in a second language. When reading in a second language, children may have less facility with processing syntactical structures and concepts. Much will ultimately depend on their familiarity with the second language and whether or not they have previously encountered the concepts used in the text.

Throughout his work, Goodman emphasised the usefulness of the system of miscue analysis in the classroom. He indicated that

"this knowledge can form the basis for more effective reading instruction" (Gollasch, 1982). Any miscues made will be diagnostically useful for the class teacher as they will help to indicate the extent to which children are using graphophonic, syntactic and semantic knowledge. Teachers can then identify areas where children need help to become more effective readers. This can best be done by identifying the acceptability or unacceptability of an error in reading. If the error is acceptable and there is no change in the meaning of the text, then it is of little importance in any diagnosis. If the error is unacceptable, then a useful analysis might reveal a linguistic cause. The reader may then benefit from further instruction.

Biemuller (1970), tracing the reading development of six to seven year olds, also concluded that "miscue analysis was a powerful diagnostic tool for the assessment of reading". Having isolated the stages that children pass through when learning to read, he suggested that slower readers overuse graphic information. Pumfrey (1977) also suggested that miscue analysis might be used as an indication of progress in reading. Southgate et al (1982) found that "mature reading involves sampling of the text on three levels of language, graphophonic, syntactic and semantic" and that "the reader will use the expectations of the text to achieve understanding as economically as possible."

Except for Ellis (1980), who analysed the reading miscues of twelve Asian children aged 7.2 to 11.2 years with a reading age of 7.4 to 8.5 years, there appears to be no analysis of the

reading miscues of bilingual children in Britain. It was against this background of prior work into the miscues the children make when reading that the instruments for the study were selected. The following section is concerned with the identification of the stories that the children read.

4.3 Criteria for the identification of the stories

The criteria for the identification of the stories had to be carefully defined. Passages had to be suitable for use in a multi-cultural society, which meant that some guidelines had to be established for the identification of any racism in the material. The passages also had to be complete units semantically and had to be sufficiently long to provide adequate syntactic and semantic cueing for the children. They also had to be matched to the reading ages of the children so that they would both record error data and not discourage the children.

Authorities (Hicks, 1980, Klein, 1981, Preiswork, 1981, and Twitchin and Demuth, 1985) have written guidelines for assessing racism in books. Klein (1981) states that "neither reading nor writing takes place in a cultural vacuum." Print is likely to shape children's attitudes towards the world and they may be influenced by outdated and biased views. Children need to see other cultures accurately portrayed, and prejudice and stereotyping, therefore, need to be identified. Children may often accept unquestioningly the judgements and attitudes of authors, and these can then build up and remain in the children's minds. Hicks (1981) points out that "children develop their ideas about race at a very early age", that they therefore need to have

unbiased objective information about the situation in their society and that material needs to be examined for both ethnocentric and racist bias. Preiswork (1981) states that racist children's books "help to reinforce ideas and attitudes which kept the imperial tradition and ideas alive." Twitchin and Demuth (1985) report on "the damaging effect" that negative attitudes have on children so that they may even lead to "a period of rejecting what they are." The criteria used for identifying racism in books had already been used by the researcher in a previous project. A copy of this is included in Appendix G and this was the criteria that as far as possible was used in the present study.

A second criterion for the stories was that the material had to be semantically complete units. Semantically complete units were taken as being stories with a beginning, middle and ending. Most primary aged children are accustomed to literature presented in this way, either through their readers or library books, or from stories told in class. Goodman (1978) also recommended that if the passages to be read are fiction, they should have a complete theme, story or plot. The passages had to be sufficiently long for adequate syntactic and semantic cueing for the children. This meant that the children had to be given sufficient information to be able to use prediction strategies. Authorities were consulted to establish a suitable length for the passages. Goodman (1978) quoted Menorsky's research (1971) which suggested that the quality of miscues change as the reader progresses past the initial portion of the text. Miscues produced in the first 200 words of the text produce a different reader profile. After that, there is an

increase in semantic and syntactic acceptability with an accompanying drop in graphic and phonemic similarity in the miscues. Goodman also considered that a text should generate a minimum of fifty miscues during a reading session, lasting between twenty and forty minutes. Too few miscues would provide insufficient evidence of how the reader was processing the text. Material should be read in one session and an acceptable time for primary readers to complete the passage might be twenty minutes. A passage of about 500 words would also enable the reader to become accustomed to the author's way of writing and to the information being presented in the passage.

Two other authorities worked with shorter passages. Christie (1981) investigated the miscue patterns of 120 low and high ability readers to analyse qualitatively the percentage of miscues that were graphically similar, acceptable in context and contextually unacceptable. The passages used in this research were approximately 300 words in length. Arnold (1982) recommended a passage that generated at least twenty-five miscues and was between 150 and 300 words in length. This was indicated as being a suitable length for teachers working in the classroom. However, the researcher found that most short stories at the required reading level were 500+ words in length. The criteria established, therefore, was that the semantically complete units should be about 500+ words in length. Another recommendation of Goodman was that the readings should not exceed twenty minutes for primary school children. During the pilot study, the readings were timed and none of them exceeded twenty minutes.

Finally, the stories had to be graded to the reading ages of the children. The material had to be such that, from the readings, error data could be obtained without the children being discouraged by the number of miscues they were making. Thompson (1984) indicates that analysis studies are in fact rare where the selected stories have been "adjusted to each progress group in such a way that high and low progress groups are reading with the same proportion of total errors." Instead previous comparisons have given high progress readers reading material that was somewhat easier for them than it was for low progress readers.

Grading the stories to the reading ages of the children involved establishing the readability of the passages. Harrison (1980) views readability as "the need to predict in a reliable way how a particular set of readers would be likely to cope with a certain book." However, the fact that one group of children with a particular reading age can read a book at "instructional level" (Bullock, 1975), with one error in twenty words, may not always be a reliable factor in measuring the difficulty of a text. Breadth of vocabulary, the level of familiarity with both oral and written language, prior experience and knowledge will all affect how they perform. Aspects of text difficulty, such as legibility of the print, the illustrations and vocabulary will all have a bearing. Of these, Harrison indicates that vocabulary is the "surest, single predictor of text difficulty", and may therefore be considered the most important factor in establishing the readability of a text. Vocabulary may be measured by word length, that is the number of letters or syllables per word, and by word frequency, that is how

frequently a word occurs in ordinary usage assuming that a longer word is likely to occur less frequently than a short one. Syntactic complexity must also be considered a factor in assessing readability, as "the more complex a passage is in terms of its sentence structure the harder it will be to comprehend" (Harrison, 1980). Several clauses in a sentence and a many worded sentence will both make a sentence more difficult to understand.

One way to establish the readability of a text is to use a formula. A readability formula helps to match the text to the reader and increase the probability that children will be able to understand what is in that particular text. A formula may use measurements of word frequency, word length and sentence length to predict difficulty. Harrison (1980) points out, however, that there is no perfect correlation between formula measures and actual difficulty. In view of this, a readability formula, in conjunction with a pilot study described later in this chapter, were used to match texts and reading ages.

To be effective, a formula must be valid, reliable and straight forward to apply. Lunzer and Gardner (1979) found that the Dale Chall formula had the highest validity with a correlation of .77 with pooled teacher judgements. With over thirty rules, however, for deciding whether or not a specific word is to be regarded as "familiar", this formula can be lengthy to apply. The Fry Readability Graph was chosen for the present research. The results on the graph can be rapidly grasped visually. The Fry Graph correlates .85 with the Dale-Chall formula and had already been used in previous research into miscue analysis. Christie and Alonso (1980) used it with the Spache and

Dale-Chall readability formulae to find the effects of passage difficulty on primary grade children's oral reading error patterns.

Fry (1977) states that the Readability Graph's contribution seems to be "simplicity of use without sacrificing much if any accuracy." It also has the advantage of being effective in age level prediction from infants to top secondary. Harrison (1980) considered that the best formula without a word list was the Flesch formula and the Fry Graph correlated .95 with Flesch. The Flesch formula was unsuitable for this study, as the lowest reading age level is ten years. Finally the graph is easy and rapid to administer. Klare (1974), on readability studies, wrote "there is little to be gained from choosing a highly complex formula. A simple 2-variable formula should be sufficient, especially if one of the variables is a word or semantic variable and the other is a sentence or syntactic variable."

In the Fry Graph, the prediction of readability is based on two factors, the counting of the average number of syllables per 100 words and secondly the average number of sentences per 100 words. The two averages are then plotted onto a graph to obtain the reading age of the text. A copy of the Graph is included in Appendix H.

In order to achieve an even closer matching of the children to the text, a pilot study was used in which certain stories were read by children not included in the research, to establish whether the grades given to the texts on the Fry Graph did indeed match up to the level of passage difficulty, as evidenced by the errors the children made. Before the pilot study can be

described, and using the criteria listed above, some reference needs to be made to the eight stories that were chosen.

4.4 The Stories

The identification of the eight stories was more difficult and the resulting stories less ideal than was originally anticipated. The Language Development Centre at the Sheffield City Polytechnic and the Sheffield Schools Library were used to locate the material. The criteria established (4.3) made choice restrictive, and ideally a longer period was needed to sift through the available material. As it was, half a term of the time set aside for the research was used to identify the stories. Initially, the possibility of using one of the reading schemes was given consideration but this was later discounted. All the schools had a range of reading schemes and none could be identified that was not partly or wholly in use in at least one of the schools. It was hypothesised the children might be familiar with the text and that some learning might have taken place prior to the research. One exception was a story from the reading scheme "Story Chest", which was not at the time in use in any of the schools. This section identifies the stories and how they were graded for reading ages on the Fry Graph.

The reading ages of the children taking part in the study ranged from 6.10 to 12.0 years on the Schonell Graded Word Reading Test. The materials were identified firstly for suitability as to length, then for their anti-racist content and lastly for their reading age on the Fry Readability Graph. It was decided to select eight stories, two at each of grade levels 2, 3 and 4, one of each being easier and the other more difficult, one at

grade 5 and the last at grade 6 on the Fry Graph. The curve on the graph represents a normal text. Points above the curve or towards the top right hand of the quadrant represent passages of higher than average difficulty while points below the curve represent easier passages. The grade numbers on the Fry Graph can be confusing and 5 has to be added onto the grades to convert them to an age equivalent.

No record was kept of the stories that were reviewed and rejected. The stories were narrowed down to twenty at the end of the half-term set aside for their identification. When tested on the Fry Graph these were reduced to eight, the rest being held on one side in case the eight did not fulfil the criteria used in the pilot study. The eight stories are listed in Appendix I.

4.5 The pilot study

To further refine the matching of the texts to the reading ages of the children, a pilot study was set up. This was intended to establish whether or not the grades given to the texts on the Fry Graph did indeed provide the necessary criteria of passage difficulty for the children. Previous research appeared to offer little guidance about matching a text's readability to the child. Thompson (1984), researching into the significance of a child's self-corrections while reading, reports that in previous studies "difficulty levels of texts for high and low progress groups have not been adequately matched" and that "where such matching was attempted the degree of matching achieved could not be established as the proportions of total errors were not reported." Christie and Alonso (1980) minimised the variables by assigning each group "a passage with a readability level that

roughly corresponded with the student's basal reader placement." However this does not take into account the fact that some teachers may have placed their students at the wrong level.

The pilot study was carried out in one of the schools involved in the research. Twelve children, including monolinguals and bilinguals who were not involved in the research, were selected. Of these, six children in the first group had reading ages between 8.0 and 8.6 years on the Schonell Graded Word Reading Test and six had reading ages of between 9.6 and 10.0 years. Fry (1965) had used an informal reading inventory in which the child was required to be able to pronounce nineteen out of twenty words. From this, he had formulated his graph. A similar informal reading inventory was used with the children. Substitutions and non-responses were recorded as these were the words that had either not been pronounced by the child or had been pronounced incorrectly.

After analysis, Story 3, "The Monkeys and the Moon" (1979), correlated most closely with the readings of Group 1. A perfect match was not expected, but with 556 words in the text the researcher was looking for approximately 27 errors per reading, averaged out across the six readers. This allowed for one error in twenty words. Altogether there was an average of 25 errors, the errors for each child being 36, 24, 18, 27, 14, 33, totalling 152. The text for Story 6, "The Fire Myth" (1981), seemed to correlate most closely with the criteria established by Fry with regard to Group 2. With 757 words in the text, the researcher was looking for an average of 37 errors. The errors

for each child were 40, 39, 22, 20, 38, 16, totalling 175 with an average of 29. The match was less close than with Group 1 but the discrepancy gave the advantage to the children as the material appeared easier. This would give additional motivation. Fry (1977) also indicated that an exact match would be difficult. Prose samples contain a good deal of variability as "writers have different amounts of variability or consistency in writing on grade level."

The pilot study seemed to confirm that the two passages had been assigned to the correct reading ages of the children. There was insufficient time to assess all the passages in this way, but in view of the results of the pilot study, it was decided to accept the placings of the other six texts. It was accepted that the Fry Graph was effective in predicting the readability of a text and that the stories, already graded on the graph to the reading ages of the children, would be sufficiently motivating for the children. At the same time the stories would give sufficient miscues for the data to be provided. Appendix J shows the number of pairs matched to each passage and the grade level of each passage according to the Fry Graph.

4.6 Comments on the choice of stories

All the passages were between 450 and 950 words in length and all were fiction. They were short stories except for Stories 7 and 8 (Appendix I) which were extracts from longer books. Each passage was a complete semantic unit. This fulfilled the criteria for length and the fact that each story should have a beginning, middle and ending. The criteria, however, for

identifying non-racist material was only partially fulfilled. During the 1980s, multi-cultural and anti-racist material has become increasingly available though there are still formidable gaps, for example in the field of junior/middle school fiction. It could be considered a weakness of the research that some of the stories, while not actually denigrating other cultural groups, did portray an exclusively Eurocentric perspective, therefore making them racist by omission.

The researcher failed to find short stories that positively portrayed the culture of Pakistan and that also fulfilled the criteria for length and readability. There was a resort to animal stories, for example "The Strong Little Bird", "The Monkeys and the Moon" and "The Bridge of Crocodiles", and to legends, for example "The Fire Myth", to provide some neutral ground that would be suitable for both groups of children. The search for material must reflect the problems faced by staff in schools in locating suitable material for reading. The script of each story is to be found in Appendix K.

4.7 The recording of the readings

Recording on tape was initially attempted in the classroom but classroom activities were noisy and a distraction for the candidates. The resulting tapes were unsatisfactory. In each school, therefore, a small room was used for the taping. The children had already met the researcher during an initial interview and during the administration of the Schonell Test. Thereafter, about one hour was allowed with each child for the

taping of the story, the retelling and for answers on the comprehension tests.

Instructions, prior to the taping, were kept to a minimum. The children were asked to read the story. They were told that it was not a test but that the reading would be taped for some work that the researcher was doing. They were also asked to try to remember what they were reading so that they could tell the story afterwards and answer some questions. During the taping, prompting by the researcher was kept to a minimum and only used if the child came to a complete halt. Subsequently the tapes were analysed and transcribed for the miscues listed in 2.2.3. The method of marking is recorded in Appendix L.

Substitutions were given a phonetic transcription using Ladefoged's phonetic symbols (1975) (Appendix M). Crystal (1971) defines a phonetic transcription as "an attempt to make a permanent and unambiguous record of what goes on in our speech." Usual alphabets are insufficient to do this task precisely. In order to record speech sounds accurately, therefore, some form of notation is necessary. In this study, a phonetic transcription was used to provide a standardisation of pronunciation for the purpose of obtaining the data.

4.8 The retelling of the stories

The methodology for the retelling of the stories had to be established and adhered to. Goodman (1978) formulated "Guide Questions" that were used to help his team of researchers. Such questions were intended to encourage children to continue with and to develop what they had already said. The "Guide

Questions" were open-ended and the questioner had to avoid giving information about the story through the questions. Goodman indicated the amount of time expended on this area of the research. It appeared that discussion meetings often resulted in the re-writing of the "Guide Questions". However, open-ended questions may have helped reluctant children who were unforthcoming in the retelling. Even though children may be asked to tell as much as they can remember of the story, several may be content with a summary and be less willing to expand on what they have already read than others. The degree, therefore, to which subjects are willing to express all they have understood or remember may considerably affect the retelling. Some may be more willing to take risks, may be more extrovert, or in the case of monolingual children, compared with bilingual children, may have a better grasp of concepts, as they are operating in their first language.

Ultimately, the open-ended questions were excluded as an instrument in the retelling. In the main, this was because Goodman had found it a lengthy process to set up these questions. The researcher was also reluctant to jeopardise the research by possibly imparting information about the story to one child and not to another.

A weakness of the study would seem to be the fact that the bilingual children were required to retell the story and also to answer the questions to the comprehension tests in their second language. They might not be able to express themselves as clearly as they wished to do so in a second language. They might also have understood more than they were able to indicate

in a second language and they might have found the experience demotivating.

4.9 The comprehension tests

The type of comprehension test chosen for the study was a multiple choice comprehension test. Several authorities appear to favour this type of test. Vincent and Cresswell (1976) identified a multiple choice test as a test where "the correct answer has to be chosen from a finite set of alternatives" and as a test which "leaves little room for doubt about rightness or wrongness". Gibson and Levin (1978) suggested that questions based on a text previously studied can be in the form of either sentences to be completed or multiple choice questions. Kendall et al (1980) considered that multiple choice tests were easier for the child than recall of what has been read or a cloze test. Lunzer and Gardner (1979) used multiple choice tests as part of the research (2.4.1). Arnold (1982) used a multiple choice comprehension test after a child had read a story, differentiating in the test between literal and inferential levels of comprehension. However Berkoff (1979) does point out the weaknesses of multiple choice tests in that "the questions impose an organisation on the reader so that he is prevented from doing what the normal reader is doing all the time - reorganising the material in his mind, in his own way as he reads and after he reads". Too many items of choice might also make some of the choices wildly implausible, which might in turn reduce the choice in the test and its capacity. Vorhaus (1984) also points out that second language learners bring different background experiences, interests, attitudes and values to the task. This

will affect test results and place bilingual children at a disadvantage. In addition if questions are phrased in the mother tongue, it might show bilingual children more successfully processing the text, than with questions phrased in a second language.

A multiple choice comprehension test was set for each story (Appendix C). It was considered this would help to complement the recall of the story. During the retelling, no open-ended questions had been asked of the children. It was hypothesised that some children, especially the shyer children and some bilingual children, might not have been given the opportunity to show their full capabilities in the retelling and may have recalled less than they actually knew. They may have been unwilling to talk, may have felt inadequate, or may have had problems putting the retelling into words. The structuring of a multiple choice comprehension test, where the answers are already framed, might obviate these disadvantages.

The multiple choice tests were based on those compiled by Lunzer and Gardner (1979) as part of their research with 10-11 year olds in Nottingham (2.4.1). The test for each story followed a similar pattern. The questions were asked orally and a circle placed next to the answer that each child gave. The questions were answered after the reading and the retelling.

4.10 Cloze procedure and the GAP Test as a measurement of comprehension

Cloze procedure, introduced by Taylor (1953), is a technique by means of which words in the text are deleted, usually at every fifth, seventh or tenth word and the reader is required to

provide a word for the space. It can be used diagnostically to examine oral miscues in reading. Moyle (1972) indicated the basis for cloze, "It is a technique based on the human tendency to complete any incomplete pattern or sequence." It is therefore necessary to search the surrounding context for clues. The skills necessary for success in cloze procedure stem from the same "psycholinguistic theory of reading" that is used in miscue analysis. The reader needs to be able to predict what is to come next, to be able to use prior knowledge to confirm decisions and to be able to read on and then judge which word is missing. For similar reasons, Jongasma (1971) claimed that it might be a valid test of reading comprehension for "non-native speakers". As early as 1959, Carroll had suggested the possibility of using cloze as a reading comprehension measure for foreign language learners.

Hunter-Grundin (1979) indicated "that it is a practical proposition in terms of teacher involvement and time consumption." Neville and Pugh (1982), in research with the GAP test, suggested that "the cloze technique, when the children discuss and argue about their errors, is useful" because "when an error is obviously meaningless in terms of following text, this can be pointed out and discussed." Moyle (1972) also felt that by such discussions, a teacher can observe the language and grammatical facility of his pupils, and can study the strategies they employ for attacking new words. Southgate et al (1981) examined the strategies used by seven to nine year olds to find out the missing words in a cloze passage. As with other authorities, emphasis was placed on the need for prediction skills and also the use of "all available cues linked with analogies made

through knowledge of language patterns." The cloze experiment was used "to find out how far the children were successful when forced into using syntactical and semantic cues." In the findings, the second years performed better than the first years, mature readers used both syntactic and semantic cueing, whereas less mature readers used syntactic cues. In addition, "looking ahead for cues was less in evidence than using only the preceding text", and it was suggested that the reader was more likely to respond automatically to phrases that had been assimilated through "frequent encounters". They distinguished between function words that link the text together and content words that convey most of the meaning. Most function words appear in the first 100 words of Keywords to Literacy (1962) and they found that high scores were more likely in the functionally correct category because "if the reader is aware of the correct syntactical patterns, choice will be more limited." Obviously, there are fewer viable alternatives with function words. It would seem, therefore, that for the less able reader, there might be "a lack of relevant experience rather than a deficiency in reading skill or cognitive reasoning."

It may be possible, therefore, for teachers to build up profiles of their pupils from analysing responses pupils give in a cloze test. Raban (1983) indicates that cloze tests "do appear to reflect more of the reading behaviour teachers may wish to assess" and agrees with Southgate that they do reflect the use the reader is beginning to make of syntactical and semantic cues. The GAP Test also has the advantage of being easy to administer as it can be given to a group of pupils at the same time. Raban also suggests that other responses might be

accepted, apart from the ones listed in the test, in order to find out if the child is reading for meaning.

Some doubt was thrown on the use of cloze tests for ESL students by Propst and Baldauf (1979). Working with American Samoan students, they used three modified cloze tests with grades 3, 4 and 5 ESL students and found that "there is little evidence to support the use of the conventional cloze procedure for reading achievement tests for ESL students in lower and middle elementary grades." In Britain, Robinson (1980) used the GAP Test with ESL students. However, Robinson was concerned with the test as a measurement of reading performance rather than as a means of analysing the reader's linguistic use of the text. The research was concerned with analysing the social background data of the children in relation to their reading performance.

The GAP Test (Appendix D) is a comprehension test that leaves a blank for the children to construct their own response. In the test, words have been deleted at random from given passages and these words have to be replaced. The GAP Test was administered on later visits to the schools. It was administered to small groups of 4-6 children, and was followed by the children completing the Attitudes to Reading Measurement.

4.11 Attitudes to Reading Measurement

Ewing (1981) states that an attitude to reading measurement should be both simple to administer and score, reliable in statistical terms and valid as an assessment. It should also be capable of being used by teachers for "an objective assessment of individual pupil attitudes, or to compare groups within a

class or classes within a school, as a basis for intervention and improvement." As with miscue analysis, therefore, an attitude to reading measurement can be used to provide the teacher with an individual's profile, so that teaching can be guided to effect a change in attitude.

Taylor and Hegarty (1985) state that "Relatively few investigations have been conducted into ethnic minority pupils' attitudes to school. Those that have taken place have tended to focus on pupils of secondary age." It could be hypothesised that the attitude of bilingual children reading in a second language may be different from monolingual children reading in their first language. Hicks (1981) states that "Many societies, and Britain is no exception, tend to view the world in an ethnocentric way." In schools, existing prejudices may be perpetuated by books and other materials and by a monocultural curriculum. Books for example, that do not relate to the culture and origins of ethnic groups, that reflect a different culture and even stereotype people from other cultures may be demotivating to bilingual children (Klein, 1982). This may well affect attitudes. The underperformance of Pakistani pupils in reading suggested by some research (1.4) may also affect attitudes, especially if children are aware of their placement in class and find their own culture and language held in little importance.

Ewing's ATR2 Global Attitude to Reading (Appendix E) was chosen as a measurement. It was chosen because it was a recent attitudes to reading measurement and appeared to be fairly simple to administer. It was a briefer global measurement

compared with the longer situational measurement compiled by Ewing. The global measurement was considered more appropriate as "the situational measures were constructed in order to assess attitudes with reference to specific reading situations viewed from specific perspectives." Situations included "Reading my own jotters or notes for revision tests or exams" and "Reading school books at home for homework", that is situations which primary school children would be unlikely to have experienced. The global measurement, on the other hand, was intended to assess a more broad generalised attitude to reading. It would appear that both measurements produce similar results. Ewing states that "the correlation co-efficients appear to support the hypothesis of a common underlying trait being assessed by both the specific cultural measures and the general global measures." Ewing also found that, among the children aged eight to sixteen years that he used in his research, "reading achievement scores correlate moderately well with attitude scores as measured on the Edinburgh Reading Tests."

The attitude measurement was administered after the GAP Test to small groups of 4-6 children. The instructions were given according to "the administration schedule", except that the children were not required to resolve the statements on the first page which were not concerned with the attitudes to reading measurement. The test was administered in small groups in order to make sure that each child had understood the questions and the way in which the differentials on the scale operated.

4.12 Summary

This chapter has described both the way in which the data was collected and the instruments used for the collection of the data. The collection of the data for the miscue variables involved the identification of eight stories that the pupils were required to read. These stories were graded to the reading ages of the children using two instruments, the Fry Readability Graph and a pilot study that further refined the matching of the stories to the reading ages of the children. The stories and the retelling were taped. The tapes were then analysed using a defined system of marking for the miscue variables and Ladefoged's Phonetic Symbols (1975) for the marking of the substitutions. The type of reading comprehension test selected was a multiple choice test. The questions for the eight tests were drawn up by the researcher based on each of the eight stories. They were designed to test word meaning, literal and inferential comprehension and the child's ability to order facts in a story. For the retelling of the story, the methodology was established. The possibility of using open-ended questions was rejected. The method of administration of the GAP Test and the Attitude to Reading Measurement has been explained.

A weakness of the study was the fact that the bilingual children were required to retell the story and answer the comprehension test questions in their second language. They could be placed at a disadvantage for several reasons. They might have difficulties expressing themselves in a second language and they might be demotivated by not being able to use their second language. They might, in their first language, have been able to show they had understood more than they could demonstrate in a second language.

CHAPTER 5

DATA ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the groupings of the subjects for the purpose of analysing the data and with the statistical procedures used to make the analyses. Forty-one pairs of English and Pakistani children were matched for school, sex, chronological ages and reading ages. The design of the study required the English monolingual subjects to read in English. The bilingual subjects read in a second language, that is in English. It was hypothesised that with some variation in the groupings, there might be differentials when the data was analysed. The variables remained the same for each grouping as did the instruments and the method of collection of the data.

It was hypothesised there might be differences in the data for subjects grouped for chronological ages and subjects grouped for reading ages. Younger readers might return different sets of data from older readers. More able readers might show different sets of data from less able readers. There might also be differentials between Muslim girls and Muslim boys.

This chapter justifies the reasons for the different groupings and tabulates the final groupings for analysis. It describes how the scores of the matched pairs were statistically analysed.

5.2 Groupings for analysis

Matching monolingual and bilingual children for a comparison of reading miscues, when the bilingual children are reading in

a second language, may be seen as being culturally biased against the second language learners, particularly when there is a paucity of suitable reading material. However, for the majority of second language learners taught in the main by monolingual teachers, miscue analysis provides one of the better methods of identifying areas where appropriate teaching may improve reading ability. In comparing them with monolingual readers, areas may be diagnosed where there is any departure from the norm, where help can be provided and where new approaches might be undertaken. The children need not be labelled, as with standardised tests, with reading ages which are quite inappropriate, especially if they are still in the process of learning a second language. In this section the ways in which the children were grouped for analysis are defined and justification for the groupings are given.

TABLE 8

IDENTIFICATION OF THE GROUPINGS FOR ANALYSIS

Criteria	Description
Chronological ages	8.0 - 8.11 years 10.0 - 10.11 years
Reading ages	Less able readers * More able readers *
Sex	Bilingual boys and girls

* Describes the readers when reading ages are compared with chronological ages (see 5.2.2).

5.2.1 Grouping for chronological ages

The initial matching included the criterion of chronological age (3.3.3) and the reasons for this have been identified. Such matching might give some indication of any differentials between the two groups at a particular age (in this study, at eight and ten years of age). It might show if there were any increase in parity in the variables as children get older. On the other hand, it might also be hypothesised that the monolingual readers may not be standing still waiting for the bilingual readers to catch up.

Younger bilingual children might also record a greater number of reading miscues, possibly of a negative nature, for example non-responses and unacceptable substitutions, while they were still learning English. Scores on the retellings of the story, the comprehension tests and the GAP test might show differences in the variables especially in comprehension skills. There might also be a predominance of acceptable phonological errors but more unacceptable semantic substitutions among younger bilingual children (Ellis, 1980). There is some indication that as children get older and length of stay in the UK increases, there is growing parity between English and Asian children (Mabey, 1981) so it was hypothesised that there might be less differences of statistical significance between the matched pairs in the older age group.

TABLE 9

MATCHING OF PAIRS FOR CHRONOLOGICAL AGES

	8.0 - 8.11 years	10.0 - 10.11 years
English	20	21
Pakistani	20	21
Number of matched pairs	20	21

The details of this matching are tabulated in Tables 5 and 6, (3.3).

5.2.2 Grouping for reading ages

The pairs were also grouped for less able and more able readers as follows:-

TABLE 10

MATCHING OF PAIRS FOR READING AGES

	Less able readers	More able readers
English	17	13
Pakistani	17	13
Number of pairs	17	13

It was hypothesised that different sets of variables might show statistical significance if the competency of the readers were a criterion. There might, for example, be a higher incidence of unacceptable miscues and also substitutions that were phonetically acceptable and semantically unacceptable among the less able bilingual readers. A similar pattern might be repeated by younger

readers. Southgate et al (1981) indicated that the strategies adopted by children develop with age, younger children using visual/auditory matching methods rather than conceptual clues. With the more able readers, these differentials might no longer be significant as bilingual children reach parity in oral language skills with monolingual readers. Ellis (1980) also found that better Asian readers could decode at the semantic level and had fewer misreadings than less able readers.

On the other hand, it might be hypothesised that with less able readers all the subjects might still be at the decoding stage. The children might be mainly concerned with phonic analysis, with deciphering individual words and with concentrating on what Goodman (1976) calls "surface reproduction." In this case, the number of variables of statistical significance might be less. In the case of the more able bilingual readers, reaching parity with monolingual readers might depend on the stage they were at in mastering a second language. There might be statistically significant differences between bilingual and monolingual groups, if the more able bilingual readers had not yet fully systematised syntactic structures or were unfamiliar with some word meanings. This might be evident on the retelling of the story and in the comprehension and GAP tests. Some differentials might also be expected in the Attitudes to Reading measurement if, as Ewing (1981) indicated, there were some correlation between attitude and reading achievement scores (4.11).

From the matched pairs, therefore, one group of more able and one group of less able readers were identified. The less able readers were deemed to be those members of matched pairs who had reading ages on the Schonell Test at least a year behind their chronological ages. They numbered seventeen pairs. The reading ages varied between 6.10 years and 9.7 years. The wide range existed as it included both the children of 8+ years of age and those of 10+ years.

The more able readers were those who had reading ages on the Schonell Test equivalent to or above their chronological ages. They numbered thirteen pairs. The reading ages varied between 8.2 years and 12.0 years. Again the wide range existed as it included children from both chronological age groups. The criterion for "more able readers" was established by the subjects themselves, as only thirteen pairs were identified with reading ages equivalent to or above their chronological ages.

Eleven matched pairs remained with reading ages of less than a year below their chronological ages on the Schonell Test. They were included neither in the group of less able nor in the group of more able readers, as they did not fulfil the criteria. The criteria for the groupings for reading ages were established only after comparison of the reading and chronological ages. A younger child aged between 8.0 and 8.11 years, for example, might have a reading age in advance of its chronological age and be included among the more able

readers but still not have attained the reading age of a child between 10.0 and 10.11 years, who had a reading age equivalent to its chronological age. A summary of the matched pairs of less and more able readers is tabulated below.

TABLE 11SUMMARY OF MATCHED PAIRS OF LESS ABLE READERS

Pair No	Sex		School		Mother Tongue		Age (Yr.mth)		Reading Age (SGWRT)	
	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B
7	M	M	b	b	English	Punjabi	8.6	8.8	7.1	7.4
10	F	F	b	b	English	Punjabi	8.11	8.10	7.1	7.2
17	F	F	d	d	English	Punjabi	8.7	8.8	6.10	6.11
20	F	F	d	d	English	Punjabi	8.3	8.9	6.10	6.11
21	M	M	a	a	English	Punjabi	10.0	10.1	8.1	8.6
22	M	M	a	a	English	Punjabi	10.11	10.8	7.7	7.8
27	F	F	b	b	English	Punjabi	10.8	10.8	8.4	8.3
28	F	F	b	b	English	Punjabi	10.8	10.10	9.1	9.4
30	M	M	c	c	English	Punjabi	10.5	10.10	8.8	8.6
31	M	M	c	c	English	Punjabi	10.7	10.7	8.6	8.9
32	M	M	c	c	English	Punjabi	10.10	10.2	8.2	8.3
34	M	M	c	c	English	Punjabi	10.0	10.0	8.3	8.3
37	F	F	d	d	English	Punjabi	10.8	10.9	9.7	9.2
38	F	F	d	d	English	Punjabi	10.11	10.5	9.3	9.4
39	F	F	d	d	English	Punjabi	10.10	10.10	8.11	8.6
40	F	F	d	d	English	Punjabi	10.11	10.9	9.2	9.7
41	F	F	d	d	English	Punjabi	10.11	10.10	8.1	7.9

TABLE 12

SUMMARY OF MATCHED PAIRS OF MORE ABLE READERS

Pair No	Sex		School		Mother Tongue		Age (Yr.mth)		Reading Age (SGWRT)	
	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B
1	M	M	a	a	English	Punjabi	8.10	8.6	8.10	8.6
3	F	F	a	a	English	Punjabi	8.3	8.2	9.0	9.0
4	F	F	a	a	English	Punjabi	8.6	8.4	8.6	8.7
6	F	F	b	b	English	Punjabi	8.4	8.9	8.5	8.9
11	F	F	b	b	English	Punjabi	8.1	8.5	8.9	8.9
12	M	M	d	d	English	Punjabi	8.6	8.1	8.7	8.2
14	M	M	d	d	English	Punjabi	8.1	8.4	10.0	9.8
15	M	M	d	d	English	Punjabi	8.11	8.4	9.0	8.7
23	M	M	a	a	English	Punjabi	10.4	10.0	12.0	11.7
24	M	M	a	a	English	Punjabi	10.0	10.2	10.0	10.2
25	M	M	b	b	English	Punjabi	10.0	10.1	10.3	10.3
26	M	M	b	b	English	Punjabi	10.1	10.0	10.1	10.1
29	M	M	c	c	English	Punjabi	10.6	10.5	11.0	11.1

5.2.3 Grouping of bilingual girls and boys

TABLE 13

MATCHING OF PAIRS OF BILINGUAL GIRLS AND BOYS

No of Boys	11
No of Girls	11
No of matched pairs	11

Eleven matched pairs were identified from the Pakistani children for an analysis of the data of the readings and attitudes of bilingual girls and boys. Reference has been made (1.4) to the conflicting findings of research comparing the achievements of Asian boys and girls. Dosanjh (1969), Ashby, Morrison and Butcher (1975), Dickenson et al (1975), the ILEA Literacy Survey (1967-1976), Phillips (1979) and Allen and Smith (1975) indicated Asian girls, especially Muslims, scoring lower than Asian boys, while Verma and Bagley (1980) reported an opposite trend. It was hypothesised that matching bilingual boys and girls might show some statistically significant differences in the variables. For example, if Pakistani girls were under performing compared with boys or if parental attitudes towards their education differed, then the demotivation this might create could be reflected in the Attitude to Reading Measurement and in the number and variables of the miscues made when reading.

To obtain the eleven pairs, the matching within schools was sacrificed. However, the study has already stated (3.3.1) that there did not appear to be any great differences between the four schools in the teaching of oral language or reading. The bilingual population in the study also came originally from the same rural area near Mirpur in Pakistan and spoke the same language. The lack of matching within schools was not considered, therefore, to be a deterrent to this part of the

analysis. The children in this group were matched for language, as they all spoke Punjabi as their mother tongue, and for chronological ages and reading ages on the Schonell Test. The greatest gap between pairs in the chronological ages was ten months. The results are summarised below.

TABLE 14

SUMMARY OF MATCHED PAIRS OF BILINGUAL GIRLS AND BOYS

Pair No		School		Chronological Age		Reading Age (SGWRT)	
A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B
1	3	a	a	8.6	8.2	8.6	9.0
2	5	a	a	8.7	8.0	7.10	8.1
7	18	b	b	8.8	8.7	7.4	7.3
12	16	d	d	8.1	8.11	8.2	8.1
13	9	d	b	8.1	8.0	7.8	7.5
15	4	d	a	8.4	8.4	8.7	8.7
22	41	a	d	10.8	10.10	7.8	7.9
30	39	c	d	10.0	10.10	8.6	8.6
32	27	c	b	10.2	10.8	8.3	8.3
33	38	c	d	10.3	10.5	9.6	9.4
36	40	d	d	10.7	10.9	9.6	9.7

A = Male
B = Female

5.3 Statistical test used

The statistical test used for the analysis of the data was the Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Signed Ranks Test (Appendix N). The test was used because the research compared sets of matched pairs. It compared the scores obtained from two groups of subjects where "individual members of each group have been associated on the basis of relevant characteristics" (Startup and Whittaker, 1982). The test obtains a different score for each pair and is based on the hypothesis that the mean of differences in the population of pairs is zero. The test measures the difference between pairs in terms of both the direction and the size of the difference. This then determines whether or not the hypothesis can be rejected.

5.4 Summary

This chapter has explained how the data was analysed. It has given the reasons for grouping the subjects for chronological ages, reading ages and in the case of the bilingual children for pairs of boys and girls. The number of matched pairs in each group have been identified and the details of each matched pair tabulated. The statistical test used, the Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Signed Ranks Test, has been described and the justification given for its use.

THE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

The data to test the hypothesis was obtained from the scores on a number of reading related activities which included a miscue analysis of reading, an examination of the retelling of the story, a multiple choice comprehension test on the story, the GAP Test and an attitudes to reading measurement. The data included analyses for chronological ages, that is eight year olds and ten year olds, for reading ages, that is both more and less able readers, and for bilingual girls and boys. It was hypothesised that within these groups the scores might show statistically significant differences. Both the younger and less able bilingual readers might still be in the process of attaining parity in oral language skills in English with their peers, though with older and more able readers, any disparity might be less evident. There might also be differentials between bilingual girls and boys in a society where the roles of men and women are so different.

Even if the hypothesis were not supported across all the groups and for all the differentials, certain types of miscue might show differentials within certain groupings. Any results might indicate where teaching might be re-orientated to give improved help. They might also show developmental trends that might reassure staff about pupils' progression. Any patterning might help towards understanding the stage of learning the children were at. Bilingual children might be seen as making a valuable

linguistic contribution to the life of the school and to be at a predictable stage in their progression towards bilingualism.

The findings were recorded in 200 tables. Of these only twenty-five recorded statistically significant differences between the readings of monolingual and bilingual children. In seventeen instances, there was insufficient data to record any analysis. In this chapter, each variable is given separate consideration and the results of each are discussed. Each section is preceded by a summary table for that section.

TABLE 15DATA ANALYSIS OF THE MISCUES IN READING

Miscue	Type	Chronological Age		Reading Age		Sex
		8 yr olds	10 yr olds	Less able readers	More able readers	
Self-corrections	Total	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
	Acceptable	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
	Unacceptable	NS	NS	ID	ID	NS
Stress/ Intonation	Unacceptable	NS	NS	<u>S.05*</u>	NS	NS
Insertions	Total	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
	Acceptable	NS	NS	<u>S.05**</u>	NS	NS
	Unacceptable	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Omissions	Total	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
	Acceptable	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
	Unacceptable	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Non-responses	Unacceptable	NS	NS	<u>S.01*</u>	ID	ID
Reversals	Total	NS	NS	NS	ID	ID
	Acceptable	ID	ID	ID	ID	ID
	Unacceptable	ID	ID	ID	ID	ID
Multiple miscues	Total	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
	Acceptable	NS	NS	<u>S.01**</u>	NS	ID
	Unacceptable	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Hesitations	Total	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Repetitions	Total	NS	<u>S.02*</u>	NS	NS	NS

NS - Not statistically significant

ID - Insufficient data

* - Lower scores for monolingual readers

** - Lower scores for bilingual readers

6.3 Discussion of the results of the miscue variables (excluding substitutions)

Self-corrections

The findings for self-corrections showed nothing of statistical significance for any of the groups. With the less and more able readers, there was insufficient data for an analysis of the unacceptable self-corrections. Clay (1969) indicated that self-corrections developed at an early age and that the efficient use of self-correction strategies was linked to the early reading process. Weber (1970) and An (1977) indicated that proficient readers tended to correct a larger percentage of contextually unacceptable errors than less proficient readers. This suggests some kind of editing going on in the child's mind. Cohen (1975) also found that self-corrections increased substantially for good readers whereas the increase for poor readers was slight. On the other hand, Biemuller (1970) indicated that the use of self-corrections is an interim phase which disappears as reading becomes more skilful. Goodman (1978) indicated that second language readers showed a higher percentage of less effective self-corrections but this was not supported by the present research. This research would appear to support Thompson (1984) who stated that "at present no sound empirical work supports the claim that high progress readers are more discerning than low progress readers in the quality of the errors they selectively self-correct." He points out that previous comparisons have not matched the difficulty level of the text to the ability of the reader, therefore making the text easier for the more able reader. This might have affected the results in the research mentioned.

Stress and intonation miscues

Stress and intonation miscues were only recorded for their unacceptability, and their identification was governed by whether or not the observed response could be processed by the mother tongue speaker. The flat intonation of the skilled reader, rapidly processing the text, and the undue stresses placed on every syllable by the child anxious to please the listener were not recorded. Stress and intonation miscues were only recorded if they changed the meaning of the text. It had been hypothesised there might be differences in the stress and intonation patterns of bilingual and monolingual children. The former, while learning a second language, might be unaware of the conventions of punctuation and be unable to process unfamiliar syntactic structures. When the data was examined, there were no statistically significant differences between the pairs matched for chronological ages, the bilingual boys and girls and the more able readers. However for the group of less able readers, the monolingual readers recorded statistically less stress and intonation miscues (0.5 level) than the bilingual readers. The hypothesis was supported for this group.

Cummins (1982) has suggested up to seven years are needed for bilingual children, learning a second language, to reach the proficiency of monolingual children. In addition, Beardsmore (1982) states that "most language learners are at some stage on a continuum of language acquisition." The research would seem to support both these authorities. The less able bilingual readers, still in the process of acquiring a second language, have yet to reach parity with less able monolingual readers with

regard to their control over stress and intonation patterns. With more able monolingual and bilingual readers, there were no statistically significant differences, indicating that parity between the two groups was being attained. As Arnold (1982) says, "In order to put the correct stresses and vocal patterning into an oral reading, the deep structure must be appreciated." As there was no differential between the matched pairs of more able readers for stress and intonation miscues, there is some surface indication that deeper understanding of the text was being achieved.

Insertions

The only group that recorded data for insertions that was statistically significant (.05 level) was the less able readers. Here the bilingual children made statistically significant less acceptable insertions (.05 level) than the monolingual children. With this group the hypothesis was supported. Goodman (1978) indicates that insertions "often fit the semantic and syntactic context" and that they are often function words. Perera (1984) states that such words can "often be omitted from telegrams or newspaper headlines with little loss of meaning". Arnold (1982) also states that insertions are the types of errors which a mature reader will often make and that they "will most likely be small words which do not alter the sense of the original." In the present research, the less able bilingual readers were making statistically significant less insertions that were acceptable than the monolingual readers, though the total number of insertions showed no statistical significance. As the pairs of more able readers showed no differentiation, it would suggest

that with increasing control over the second language, bilingual readers gain parity with monolingual readers.

Omissions

Arnold (1982) places omissions and insertions together as the "type of error which a mature reader will make." Southgate et al (1981) states that "omissions are often made by skilled readers who preserve the sense while subconsciously omitting unimportant words." If, however, a word is omitted because a beginning reader does not recognise it, then it indicates a negative strategy. The data showed no statistically significant differences between any of the groups for total number of omissions, and for acceptable and unacceptable omissions. The hypothesis with regard to omissions was not supported.

Non-responses

Arnold (1982) sees non-responses as a negative strategy as "the reader is unable to use any word-attack skills and waits (often anxiously) for prompting." As Southgate et al (1981) also point out, "it could indicate an over-dependence on the teacher", as it may indicate a child who prefers to sit back and wait to be prompted. It may even reflect a way of teaching, for if the child is used to being prompted quickly, waiting for an unknown word becomes a habit. As the non-responses were unacceptable in total context and reflected a negative strategy, they were analysed for their number only. The analyses showed no statistically significant difference for chronological ages, for sex and for the more able readers. However, with the less able readers, the monolingual children scored significantly less non-responses than the bilingual children and the hypothesis was

supported (0.1 level). This followed a similar pattern to the data for insertions and stress and intonation miscues, where there were statistically significant differences between the less able monolingual and bilingual readers. As there were no statistically significant differences with the more able readers, then with this group bilingual readers appeared to be reaching parity with their monolingual peers.

Reversals

The reversals only totalled twenty-six. Therefore, there was only sufficient data to record analyses for the total number of reversals for the chronological age groups and for the less able readers. There were no statistically significant differences for any of these groups. The small number of reversals in this study reflects the work of Arnold (1982) who stated that "they are not found frequently in beginning readers." Goodman (1978) also indicated that they rarely exceed 1% of the total number of miscues made when reading. The hypothesis was not supported for reversal miscues.

Multiple miscues

The data showed no statistically significant differences for the total number of miscues, and for acceptable or unacceptable multiple miscues in both the chronological age groups and in the bilingual pairs grouped for sex. However, though the data for the total number of miscues and for the unacceptable miscues showed no differentials with matched pairs among the less and more able readers, the less able bilingual readers recorded a statistically significant smaller number of acceptable multiple miscues than the monolingual readers (.01 level). The

hypothesis was supported for this group. This differential was not evident with the more able readers. The pattern established with the stress and intonation miscues, the insertions and non-responses appeared to be maintained with the multiple miscues. It could have indicated the less able bilingual readers still on the continuum of acquiring oral language and reading skills in English.

Hesitations

Arnold (1982) indicates that both hesitations and repetitions "show styles of reading rather than strategies." However, "'Hesitators' are often less aware of meaning than 'repeaters', and may be anxious to get every word right." Southgate et al (1981) also found a high correlation between hesitations and non-responses and suggested that both these miscues "indicate a reader lacking in word recognition skills." However in this study, though the data for non-responses for less able readers had shown bilingual children recording a statistically significant greater number of non-responses, the analyses of hesitations for all the groups showed nothing of statistical significance. The hypothesis, therefore, was not supported for hesitations.

Repetitions

There are indications (Arnold, 1982) that repetition is a more successful strategy than hesitation. Repetitions may occur "in order to keep the flow of language going", while the reader is thinking about the next word. Of interest, in the context of this study, is the other purpose for which repetitions might be used. A child, in repeating a word, might want "to verify for

himself that he is right." In this case, the word might be new or unexpected in context, and might show a reader "anxious to derive meaning from the text." When the data was analysed, only one group recorded a statistically significant result. The older monolingual children (10.0 - 10.11 years) recorded statistically significant less repetitions than older bilingual children (.02 level). The hypothesis therefore was supported with this group but the analyses for the remaining groups recorded nothing of statistical significance. This may indicate older bilingual children showing an awareness of words new or unexpected in context and repeating them in order to derive meaning from the text. It could indicate this group trying to keep the flow of reading going and be the outward sign that they are using confirmation strategies to verify that they are right.

6.4 Substitution variables - the results

TABLE 16

DATA ANALYSIS OF THE SUBSTITUTIONS

Type of substitution	Chronological Age		Reading Age		Sex
	8 yr olds	10 yr olds	Less able readers	More able readers	
Total number	NS	<u>S.05*</u>	NS	NS	NS
Acceptable graphophonic	<u>S.02*</u>	<u>S.05*</u>	<u>S.05*</u>	NS	NS
Unacceptable graphophonic	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Acceptable syntactic	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Unacceptable syntactic	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Acceptable semantic	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Unacceptable semantic	NS	<u>S.02*</u>	<u>S.05*</u>	NS	NS

* - Lower scores for monolingual readers

6.5 Discussion of the results of the substitution variables

Southgate et al (1981) stated that "this type of miscue can yield more diagnostic information than any other, because of the inferences to be made about the levels of language in use." Substitutions can give some indication of the child's prior knowledge of phonics and syntax and the extent to which semantic constraints are being used. There is also some suggestion (Southgate et al, 1981) that younger children tended "to substitute words which bore a sight/sound relationship to the original but did not make sense." On the other hand, older children used syntactic and semantic cues more often and more efficiently. Christie (1981) also indicated the trend for contextually acceptable miscues to increase with grade level, with a corresponding decrease of graphic similarity. Goodman (1978) states that "there is a slightly greater tendency for second language readers to come closer graphically and phonemically when they miscue." Ellis (1980) also found that less able ESL Asian readers resorted frequently to phonic strategies and tried to identify words from graphic information.

These trends appeared to be replicated in the present study. In the analysis of the acceptable graphophonic substitutions, both the younger and older monolingual children (.02 and .05 level respectively) and the less able monolingual readers (.05 level) recorded statistically significant less acceptable graphophonic substitutions than the bilingual children. This could indicate either that the bilingual children had a greater grasp of phonic skills or that they were more dependent on graphophonic analysis for the identification of unknown words. In the analysis of the total number of substitutions, the only analysis of statistical

significance (.05 level) was in the older age group where the monolingual readers recorded less substitutions than the bilingual readers. The analysis of syntactic substitutions, both acceptable and unacceptable, revealed nothing of statistical significance. This might suggest that bilingual children are coping with the syntactic demands of the text. Ulijn (1980) indicated that, when reading "a foreign technical text", second language readers were frequently hindered by various content words, whereas syntactic function words hindered them to a much lesser degree. This would seem to be supported by the present study.

In the analyses of semantic substitutions, none of the tables of acceptable semantic substitutions recorded statistically significant data. However, in the analysis of unacceptable semantic substitutions older monolingual children and the less able monolingual readers recorded statistically significant less unacceptable semantic substitutions than the bilingual children (.02 and .05 level respectively). The fact that there was no differential among the younger children (8.0 - 8.11 years) is difficult to explain. It could have been that at this age, both monolingual and bilingual children were struggling to process the text, and prediction and confirmation strategies were not being used effectively by either group. No differentials were evident for the more able readers, indicating again that monolingual and bilingual readers were attaining parity. Southgate et al (1981) found that "younger children used visual/auditory matching methods rather than exploiting contextual clues, whereas older children achieve a more balanced use of language levels." This trend would seem to be replicated in the present

study and also to include certain bilingual groups still on the continuum of acquiring language skills in English. However, the data for the more able readers returned nothing of statistical significance, suggesting that as reading skills are acquired, the performance of Asian and English children are similar.

6.6 The recall of the story - the results

TABLE 17

DATA ANALYSIS OF THE RECALL OF THE STORY

The story components	Chronological Age		Reading Age		Sex
	8 yr olds	10 yr olds	Less able readers	More able readers	
The plot	<u>S.05**</u>	NS	NS	NS	NS
The main events	<u>S.05**</u>	NS	NS	NS	NS
Characters	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Details	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Misconceptions	<u>S.01*</u>	<u>S.01*</u>	<u>S.01*</u>	<u>S.01*</u>	NS

* - Lower scores for monolingual readers
 ** - Lower scores for bilingual readers

6.7 Discussion of the results for the recall of the story

Both the extent of the recall of the story and the multiple choice comprehension tests were intended as measurements of comprehension. Kendall et al (1980) examined comprehension scores obtained from using multiple choice tests, cloze and recall. The results indicated that the multiple choice tests were easier than the tests using recall and cloze. It was hypothesised, therefore, that the retelling of the story might show greater differentials than the multiple choice tests.

With either the retelling of the story or the multiple choice comprehension tests, the data for the older and more able readers might show no statistical significance as bilingual readers reached proficiency with monolingual readers.

The data examined for the recall of the story included recall of the story plot, the recall of the main events, of details and of character attributes, as well as misconceptions about the story that were evident in the retelling. In the recall of the story plot and of the main events, the younger bilingual children recorded statistically significant lower scores (.05 level). The data for the other groups showed nothing of statistical significance. The data for the recall of details and character attributes showed no statistical significance for any of the groups. However analysis of the misconceptions showed both younger and older, less and more able readers among the monolingual children recording statistically significant less misconceptions (.01 level) during the retelling of the story.

It would appear that there is no differential in the ability of both the bilingual and monolingual readers to conceptualise and recall the characters in a story and the details of the story. With the recall of the story plot, and the main events, the younger bilingual children scored statistically significant less marks (.05 level) than the monolingual children. As this group would still be extending oral language skills in English, this result might have been anticipated. However, with the older bilingual children these differentials were no longer evident, suggesting that their recall and conceptualisation of the

story plot and the main events had reached the same level as that of the monolingual children.

6.8 The misconceptions in the retelling of the story

The analyses of the misconceptions made in the retelling of the story have been considered separately. This was the only variable where both older and younger monolingual children and less and more able monolingual readers recorded less marks than bilingual children. The statistical significance of the difference was at the .01 level for each of the four groups. There were no differentials for bilingual girls and boys. As four of the five groups recorded data of statistical significance, a descriptive framework of the misconceptions made by all the children was identified. It was felt that imposing some order on the type of misconception might provide a useful taxonomy for class teachers and indicate where misunderstandings might arise.

Nuttall (1982) gave some indication of words that a second language learner might find difficult. She lists idioms, metaphors, homonyms, synonyms, hyponyms and antonyms. However, Crystal (1971) suggests standard procedures to be followed in analysing language should include attention to its phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. As the analysis proceeded, it became evident that although the misconceptions were concerned with words and phrases, they could be placed within Crystal's classification. The latter could also be related to Goodman's analysis of miscues in reading. The misconceptions made in the retelling were therefore ordered for their graphophonic, syntactic and semantic relationships. Details and examples are given in the classification below.

Classification of misconceptions made in the retelling of the story

A Grapho-phonetic

- 1 Processing of the initial phoneme or initial and end phonemes to make another English word, eg "stricter" for "stronger", "guards" for "guides". ("The Story of Titus")
- 2 Processing of the initial phoneme or initial and end phonemes to make a nonsense word, eg "salamon" for "salmon". ("The Wicked Witch Yamauba")

B Syntactic

- 1 Substitution of one preposition for another, eg "She put a rope in the elephant" ("in" was substituted for "round"). ("The Strong Little Bird")
- 2 Substitution of one part of speech for another, such as nouns for adjectives, eg "rice and cakes" for "rice cakes". ("The Wicked Witch Yamauba")
- 3 Pronoun switching where there was mainly some confusion between "he", "she" and "it", eg "She gave him one" for "He gave her one".
- 4 Substitution of the plural for the singular form and the reverse, eg "crocodile" for "crocodiles". ("A Bridge of Crocodiles")

C Semantic

- 1 Embellishment of the text in which additional facts which could not be inferred are introduced into the story.
- 2 Use of hyponyms in which a word with a more specific meaning is replaced by a word with a more general meaning, eg "animal" for "spider" ("The Fire Myth").

- 3 Transference of attributes where one character is given the attributes of another character in the story.
- 4 Substitutions within a related conceptual area, eg "river" for "pool" ("A Bridge of Crocodiles").
- 5 Enlivening of inanimate objects which are treated as live objects, sometimes with human attributes, eg "The fire was naughty" ("The Fire Myth").
- 6 Speech transference where the remarks of one person are attributed to another.
- 7 Switching of affirmative and negative forms of the verb.
- 8 Over-dependence on pictures accompanying the text where the pictures are misinterpreted. ("The Strong Little Bird")
- 9 Invention where the child makes up a completely different story.
- 10 Exaggeration of the text, eg "annoyed" becomes "crazy".

It would seem that misconceptions may provide information about the way in which reading is being processed. Misconceptions will be made if students are unable to understand a word, if they are unaware of the second meaning it may have, or be unable to process an idiomatic expression not previously heard. The reader's background and experience will be related to what is being read. Any concepts not fully developed, whether in a first or second language, may become evident in the retelling, as accurate surface pronunciation when reading may not always reflect the extent to which the text is being understood. Unacceptable substitutions made when reading may also result in misconceptions.

In such cases, appropriate action may be undertaken during a reading lesson. The opportunity may be taken of not only correcting an error made during the reading, but also of explaining and extending a concept and of cross referencing ideas in the text. This provides a chance of developing both reading and oral language skills.

Finally, attention needs to be drawn to the fact that retelling the story in a second language does put the bilingual child at a grave disadvantage. Processing of the text may in fact have taken place, but having to explain the text in a second language may considerably restrict what the child is able to say. As the monolingual teacher only has this surface retelling to assess, the abilities of the bilingual child may be under-estimated. The bilingual teacher, listening to a retelling in the home language, may record a quite different assessment of the retelling.

6.9 The comprehension tests - the results

TABLE 18

DATA ANALYSIS OF THE COMPREHENSION TESTS

Comprehension Test components	Chronological Age		Reading Age		Sex
	8 yr olds	10 yr olds	Less able readers	More able readers	
Word meanings	<u>S.01*</u>	NS	<u>S.01*</u>	NS	NS
Figures of speech	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Literal comprehension	<u>S.02*</u>	NS	<u>S.01*</u>	NS	NS
Inferential comprehension	<u>S.05*</u>	<u>S.05*</u>	<u>S.05*</u>	NS	NS
Ordering	NS	NS	NS	NS	<u>S.05**</u>

* - Lower scores for bilingual readers

** - Lower scores for bilingual boys

6.10 Discussion of the results of the comprehension test

These tests were used with the retelling of the story as a measurement of comprehension. Those children who found the retelling of the story difficult might record higher scores in a test where the answers were already framed for them. The scores for the interpretation of more difficult expressions recorded nothing of statistical significance. Possibly all the groups were struggling to gain meaning from these expressions. In the classroom, such lexical items are best dealt with individually, as they occur in speech or reading, and discussed with the children.

In analysing the data for the ordering or sequencing of the facts in the story, the only group recording statistically significant differences were the bilingual boys and girls, where the Pakistani boys recorded lower scores than the girls (.05 level). Throughout the study, this was the only analysis where a difference of statistical significance was recorded between bilingual boys and girls. This group was the smallest (eleven matched pairs) and as there were no other variables of statistical significance in this group, this exception might have little import without further research.

The data analysis for word meanings showed both the younger and less able bilingual readers scoring less than the monolingual readers. Again, it would suggest that, as they get older and as reading improves, bilingual readers reach the norms of monolingual readers. Similar patterns appeared for literal comprehension, where the younger bilingual readers recorded statistically significant lower scores (.02 level) than the

monolingual readers. The less able bilingual readers also scored less at the .01 level of statistical significance.

The data for inferential comprehension showed both younger and older bilingual readers recording statistically significant lower scores than the monolingual readers (.01 and .05 level respectively), and the less able readers recording similar results at the .05 level of statistical significance. However, there were no statistically significant differences between the scores of the more able readers. Therefore, in an analysis of the data for inferential comprehension, it would seem as if the more able bilingual readers gain parity with the monolingual readers. According to Lunzer and Gardner (1979) inferential comprehension is "to penetrate beyond the verbal forms of the text to the underlying ideas, to compare these with what one already knows and also with one another, to pick out what is essential and new." An analysis of the data would suggest that among the more able readers, both bilinguals and monolinguals are achieving this.

6.11 GAP Test - the results

TABLE 19

DATA ANALYSIS OF THE GAP TEST

Test variables	Chronological Age		Reading Age		Sex
	8 yr olds	10 yr olds	Less able readers	More able readers	
Global scores	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Acceptable syntatic subs	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Unaccept syntatic subs	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Acceptable semantic subs	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Unaccept semantic subs	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS

6.12 The discussion of the results of the GAP Test

In the analyses of both the global scores and of the acceptable and unacceptable semantic substitutions, the data for the GAP Test showed no differentials of statistical significance for any of the groups. It was selected as a measurement as it reflects the same psycholinguistic theory of reading as miscue analysis. It was anticipated there might be some similarity in the differentials between the test and the analysis of the substitution miscues in reading. Davies (1982), referring to the work of Oller and Conrad (1972), points out that, used with ESL students, cloze correlates highly with standardised language proficiency tests. Raban (1983) states that such a test appears "to reflect more of the reading behaviour teachers may wish to assess." It is also "an indication of the pupil's ability to use semantic and syntactic cues creatively." If this is the case there would appear to be no differentials in this study between bilingual and monolingual children.

Perhaps more pertinently for the class teacher of bilingual students, Studdert (1980) sees cloze as a "type of group activity of great benefit to a child whose mother tongue is not English." Discussion of context and vocabulary can extend understanding in a second language and as a group activity it may, therefore, have greater relevance to bilingual students than as a method of assessment.

6.13 The Attitude to Reading Measurement - the results

TABLE 20

DATA ANALYSIS OF THE ATTITUDE TO READING MEASUREMENT

	Chronological Age		Reading Age		Sex
	8 yr olds	10 yr olds	Less able readers	More able readers	
Attitude to Reading	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS

6.14 Data analysis of the Attitude to Reading Measurement

None of the data for any of the groups showed statistical significance. Tomlinson (1983) stated that "there is some evidence that processes of stereotyping and lowered teacher expectations do operate as far as ethnic minority children are concerned." She quotes research by Noor and Khalsa (1978) where "a thousand Asian parents surveyed in Wolverhampton in 1978 blamed factors within schools for their children's under-achievement." It would seem that if teachers hold stereotyped views and have low expectations of children, then this may affect the children's work and attitudes.

However, whether or not any of the staff held stereotyped views, the bilingual children's attitude to reading did not seem to have been affected, as there were no differentials in the variables for bilingual and monolingual children. Having to read in a language other than their own might also have affected attitudes but this was not supported in this study. Lastly in the analysis of bilingual boys' and girls' attitudes

to reading, it was hypothesised that parental differences in attitude towards the education of boys and girls and indications that Pakistani girls may be performing less well in schools than boys might affect children's attitudes. However this was not reflected in the data.

6.15 General comments on the results

Two hundred variables were identified for analysis. Of these, seventeen variables recorded insufficient data for analyses to be made. These included the unacceptable self-corrections for the less and more able readers, the non-responses for the more able readers and for the group of bilingual girls and boys, the total number of reversals for the more able readers and for the bilingual group, and the acceptable multiple miscues for the bilingual group. Insufficient data was obtained for two reasons. In some cases a large number of pairs recorded the same number of errors and therefore could not be given a "d" ranking. This resulted in insufficient pairs from which to obtain data. Secondly, the number of miscues generated was sometimes small. This occurred with unacceptable self-corrections, non-responses and reversals. The number of unacceptable self-corrections was only forty for all the matched pairs, and the number of non-responses only twenty-eight for the more able readers and thirty-seven for the bilingual group of boys and girls. The total number of reversals was only twenty-five. Obtaining data in such cases was not possible.

Eleven variables in the miscue analysis of reading, including the substitutions, recorded data of statistical significance. Among the less able readers, the data showed statistically significant less unacceptable stress and intonation errors for the less able monolingual readers (.05 level) and less of the non-responses (.01 level) for the same group. The less able bilingual readers recorded statistically significant less of the acceptable multiple miscues (.01 level) and of the acceptable insertions (.05 level). The older monolingual readers recorded statistically significant less repetitions (.02 level). This would suggest the less able bilingual readers still in the process of acquiring oral language skills in English, which they could then transfer to their reading. As the data for the more able readers showed no statistical significance, then this might suggest that the bilingual children were achieving parity with their monolingual peers.

In the analysis of the substitutions, the monolingual children in the older age group recorded a statistically significant smaller number of substitutions (.05 level). The monolingual children in the younger and older age groups and also among the less able readers recorded less acceptable graphophonic substitutions (.02, .05 and .05 levels respectively) than the bilingual readers. This could indicate bilingual children either having a greater control of phonic skills or having a greater dependency on phonics for the interpretation of the text compared with monolinguals. Monolingual children also recorded statistically significant less of the unacceptable semantic substitutions in both the older age group (.02 level) and the group of less able readers (.05 level). This might indicate the

need for the extension of oral language support for certain groups of bilingual pupils and for continued help with conceptual development in a second language. It could also indicate the value that community language teaching might have in helping with concepts.

The analysis of the data for both the retelling of the story and the comprehension tests indicated that younger bilingual readers scored statistically significant less marks when recalling the story plot (.05 level) and main events of a story (.05 level) and on questions on word meanings (.01 level) and literal comprehension (.02 level) and inferential comprehension (.05 level). Less able bilingual readers scored statistically significant less marks on the questions on word meanings (.01 level), literal comprehension (.01 level) and inferential comprehension (.05 level). There would seem to be a tendency among the younger and less able bilingual readers for reduced conceptualisation of what had been read compared with monolingual readers. This is hardly surprising as they are reading in a second language. However, no differences of statistical significance were recorded for the group of more able readers except for misconceptions.

One variable that gave cause for concern was that of the misconceptions made during the retelling of the story. In all groups the monolingual pupils recorded statistically significant less misconceptions than bilingual pupils (.01 level). An analysis has been made of these misconceptions and could provide a useful reference for future teaching.

The findings must be seen as being tentative and there is a need for the study to be replicated with other groups of bilingual children. However the findings do seem to replicate the work of some authorities. Goodman (1978), in his work on the miscue variables of bilingual children, found that "there is a slightly greater tendency for second language readers to come closer graphically and phonetically when they miscue." However he also identified progression in reading stating that "if they speak English fluently they will act like native speakers in reading English" and that "as they become bilingual, readers will show this in their reading as they do in their speech." A similar progression has been indicated in this study. The more able bilingual readers, for example, recorded only one variable, the misconceptions made when retelling the story, where the data recorded statistically significant differences.

Ellis (1980), analysing the miscues in the reading of twelve Asian children aged 7.2 to 11.2 years with a reading age of 7.4 to 8.5 years, also identified "the more able readers" as being able to "decode at the semantic level", whereas "the less able readers" tried to identify words from graphic information. This also was supported by the present research, where bilingual subjects in both age groups and among the less able readers recorded statistically significant more acceptable graphophonic substitutions than the monolingual subjects. However, there were no differentials between the more able bilingual and monolingual readers at the semantic level.

Some research and statements by authorities were not always replicated in this study. Robinson's research (1980), which

analysed the social background of ethnic minority children with respect to reading performance, suggested that parents of Pakistani children in the north of England, who might be of low socio-economic status and speak little English, might have children underperforming in schools. This was supported for some of the differentials already listed, as some of the data for both the chronological age groups and for the less able bilingual readers indicated that the bilingual children had not reached parity with their monolingual peers. However, with the more able readers, any differences in performance were only apparent in the misconceptions made when retelling the story. As literacy skills are gained in a second language, it would seem as if parity between bilingual and monolingual readers is reached. Authorities have suggested that there might be differentials in attitudes between bilingual and monolingual children and between Muslim boys and girls (1.4). However when the attitude to reading variables were examined, no differentials were found.

THE CONCLUSIONS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter attempts to identify some of the factors arising from the findings and to make recommendations directly related to the findings that might be relevant to the teaching of bilingual children. Such suggestions might help to enhance teaching and be of some assistance to teachers. The findings must be seen as being tentative. Edwards (1983) indicates that "studies which focus specifically on the reading behaviour of children in a second language are rare." Therefore, there is a need for continued research in this area. There is also a need for the replication of this research with a similar group of bilingual children as it may have the value of enhancing these findings. The study might also be replicated with other groups of bilingual children to establish whether there might be differentials between children speaking different languages, and of different cultures and their monolingual peers. Any suggestions and advice for teachers cannot be dogmatic but can only be offered as a guide, based on the analysis of the data in this study.

What have the findings tentatively indicated? The research did suggest some disruption to comprehension, when bilingual children read in a second language. (This was also supported by a smaller study by the present researcher (1983)). These findings with some of the groups identified in the research were hardly surprising. Bilingual children, reading in a second

language, need to come to terms with concepts that may be alien. They will show varying degrees of control of the second language and this will be reflected in how they read. The research seemed to suggest the need for more help with concepts in a second language, especially among the younger and less able readers. Except in the area of misconceptions made when retelling the story, this need did not extend to the more able bilingual readers. However in this latter group, the research only analysed the data from thirteen matched pairs, so the research in this area might benefit from replication.

The research also seemed to indicate the need for continued and possibly increased help for some groups of bilingual children. Some disquiet was felt that certain differentials in reading variables still existed among the readers in the last year at junior school. It might have been expected that younger bilingual readers, in their fifth year at school, were recording statistically significant lower scores on tests of word meanings and literal and inferential comprehension, and on the recall of the plot and main events in the retelling of the story. However, older bilingual readers, some of whom were preparing to transfer to comprehensive school the following year, also recorded lower scores that were statistically significant for unacceptable semantic miscues and for literal and inferential comprehension.

When ethnic minority children enter school, their monolingual peers will not be standing still but will continue to make academic progress. It is important, however, that bilingual children should reach parity with their peers as soon as

possible. Several courses of action might be considered. If it is available, continued additional help from qualified teachers will be essential. Bilingual teachers will also have an important role to play, as they can relate to both the language and the culture of the children. They can help with motivation and can relate the concepts of the children's first language to learning a second language. With monolingual teachers, communication may be less adequate. Children may have understood more than they can reveal to their teachers and they may be demotivated by having to communicate all the time in a second language. Some attention will be given in this chapter to the position of community language teaching in schools with some indication of its usefulness in helping with concepts.

Mention has already been made of the dependency of reading skills on oral language (1.6). The importance of the needs of bilingual children being met within the mainstream classroom has been emphasised by authorities (Swann, 1985, and Taylor and Hegarty, 1985). If bilingual children are to be supported in the mainstream classroom, then second language teaching can no longer remain a specialised skill in the hands of a few teachers. All mainstream teachers need to be able to teach English as a second language and to be aware of a taxonomy that allows for progression in learning a second language, across all areas of the curriculum. At the same time, appropriate teaching methods need to be established. Some indication as to how this might be achieved will be given in this chapter.

The data recorded depressed concepts in reading, especially for younger and less able bilingual readers compared with their monolingual peers. Reading material that is attractive, portrays the child's culture in a positive light and material that is written in the child's own language as well as English might improve motivation and help with concepts. Alternative approaches to the assessment of reading, apart from standardised testing, might also help teachers to identify the progression the children are making and might be used to monitor children's reading. Appropriate reading material and a method of assessing reading apart from standardised testing are discussed later.

Finally, some mention must be made of the limitations of this research. The research was carried out by a monolingual working with a group of bilingual children. The research, therefore, was limited by a lack of linguistic and cultural communication between the researcher and the children. The most appropriate person to carry out research with bilinguals is another bilingual, able to relate to the subjects both culturally and linguistically. If this were the case, the data returned might be different. A bilingual might identify more closely the extent to which the bilingual children have conceptualised the text by using the bilingual's first language. Within these limitations, this chapter attempts to make some tentative suggestions, arising from the findings, that might enhance the teaching of bilingual children.

7.2 Community language teaching and fostering linguistic awareness

The findings indicated both the need for the extension of concepts in a second language for some groups of bilingual children and also the need to try to improve on the rate at which the bilingual subjects were reaching parity with monolingual subjects in reading in a second language. An under researched area immediately related to this is that of community language (mother tongue) teaching in schools. Community language teaching could assist with the extension of concepts in the bilingual's first language and help with the transference of concepts from one language to another. It could also provide increased motivation through the recognition and use of the child's first language.

The Swann Report (1985) discusses "mother tongue teaching." It distinguishes the different forms of "mother tongue provision". Firstly "bilingual education" is "the structuring of a school's work to allow for the use of a pupil's mother tongue as a medium of instruction alongside English." Secondly "mother tongue maintenance is "the development of a pupil's fluency in his or her mother tongue as an integral part of a primary school's curriculum." This allows for the timetabling of a set number of hours for its teaching. Lastly, "mother tongue teaching" is "the teaching of the languages of ethnic minority communities as part of the modern languages curriculum of secondary schools." The report does not support the arguments for bilingual teaching except in the context of modern language teaching in the secondary schools. However, the Report does support the need for a bilingual resource in schools who would "help with the transitional needs of non-English speaking children starting

school" and who would "explain the educational concepts in a child's mother tongue."

Marland (1985), however, strongly supports bilingual education so that "community language teaching can take place alongside the continuing class-teacher curriculum." There should be teaching through the mother tongue when the pupil has only a limited knowledge of English and also later in order to extend the mother tongue. Bilingual staffing, he states, is also needed for pastoral care and should be based on the needs of the language patterns of the school population. Canada, USA, Sweden, Belgium, Bavaria, France and Denmark are quoted (Marland, 1985) as countries where community language teaching has been successfully implemented. For most European countries, this is also in line with the EEC Directive (1977) for mother tongue teaching for children of minority ethnic groups.

It may be argued that success in other countries will not necessarily equate with similar results in England, but tentative research in this area in the UK has been encouraging. Fitzpatrick and Rees (1980), reported on the Mother Tongue and English Teaching in Bradford Project, which studied the effects on non-English speaking Punjabi five-year olds of teaching the children partly in Punjabi during their first year at school. It indicated that the children's general educational performance was better than a control group taught only in English. In Bedford (Tosi, 1984), a small project investigated the implications of teaching Punjabi-speaking children aged five to eight years in Punjabi for one hour a day over a four year period.

The findings were that there had been no hindrance to progress in English, that the mother tongue had been maintained and that the children had gained in motivation and confidence. They also had an increased sense of cultural identity and had integrated more easily into school.

If the performance of bilingual children may be enhanced by community language teaching, then there is clearly a need for further research. This was indicated by the Bullock Committee (1975) who recommended that "there should be further research into the teaching of their own language to children of immigrant communities and into the various aspects of bilingualism." Little and Lilley (1981) in a School's Council Report urged: "Initiation of work to assess the benefits and practical difficulties in providing (i) teaching of minority ethnic groups' languages in schools, (ii) teaching other subjects in minority ethnic groups' mother tongues, (iii) support for language teaching organised by the minority ethnic group communities." Taylor and Hegarty (1985) also indicated the need for such projects to continue locally.

In those schools where community language teaching will not be available, the monolingual teacher needs to be aware of ways in which concepts might be extended and motivation enhanced. The promotion of the children's own languages and dialects can be a great help. For example, in the multicultural classroom, linguistic skills can be helped by labels and by pupils' work written in their own language as well as English and by the availability of bilingual books and tapes.

Further promotion of concepts can also be helped by a programme of linguistic awareness as part of the school's curriculum. This is an approach that still needs to be researched but its methodology would seem to offer new possibilities. Ideas for this approach are to be found in "Modern Languages in the Curriculum" (Hawkins, 1981) and "Spoken and Written Language (Hawkins, 1983), "The Languages Book" (Raleigh, 1981), "Language and Languages" (Strange, 1982) and "The Children's Language Project", funded by the Schools Council and the Commission of the European Communities (Houlton, 1984). They all contain lively teaching ideas, some for use by teachers, some by the children. All of them might increase a child's awareness of language structures and concepts. Staff should also be encouraged to use the linguistic resources they have among the languages and dialects of their own children. Some of the ideas are incorporated into a scheme for developing linguistic awareness in Appendix O.

7.3 Teaching English as a second language

The analysis of the data indicated differentials in the conceptualising of the text when monolingual and bilingual children were reading. The dependency of reading on oral language skills has already been referred to (1.6). Reading may well reflect the level of second language acquisition that bilingual children have reached. Concepts that have been mastered orally will be understood when a child reads. The meaning of new concepts encountered while reading might be guessed at with differing levels of success. It is important, therefore, that there should be clear directives about the teaching of English as a

second language across the curriculum, so that mainstream staff can be helped towards developing concepts in a second language. This section outlines a taxonomy for teaching English as a second language across the curriculum and suggests a methodology for appropriate teaching.

One of the main recommendations of the Bullock Report (1975) was for a language policy in each school, that would be "across various aspects of the curriculum." The Swann Report (1985) endorsed this. "We fully support the principles and objectives of language across the curriculum as important to the education of all pupils in schools and of particular relevance to the needs of ethnic minority pupils." The Bullock Report (1975) listed some of the uses of language across the curriculum that are essential in any child's language development. Joan Tough has expanded this further in her work with English children (1977) and more recently with bilingual children (1985) noting the way in which children talk, the way they use language and some of the strategies they employ. Tough (1985) states that, "For all children in the primary school, talking provides the most immediate and versatile means of communication and dialogue ... provides the most effective means of developing and ensuring understanding and learning", and that "reading and writing must take place in the context of talk."

The taxonomy that has been listed for teaching English as a second language (Appendix P) owes much to the work of Joan Tough. Illustrations have been given to show the structures and vocabulary that might go with each usage. For many teachers, such examples might be easier to process than the names of verb

tenses, parts of speech and the components of a sentence. In use, the framework has to be flexible with regard to the order in which the structures and vocabulary are mastered. Although the usages of language have been numbered, the numbering does not necessarily indicate an order of acquisition. Depending on the language arising from the topic in hand, a school visit or the practical activities being undertaken by a particular class, a child may master some structures and vocabulary that are less frequently used at an earlier stage than might be expected.

The framework needs to be used within the context of as many practical activities as possible, so that the pupil learns a second language by seeing the language being demonstrated. There needs to be frequent interaction between pupils and staff, and between monolingual and bilingual pupils. Such lessons as PE, science (if accompanied by practical work), cookery, needlework, art, CDT, and practical mathematics seem to offer ideal opportunities for extending language. School visits also give first hand experience of language, as do artefacts and natural history materials, provided that these are not discussed in isolation from their natural surroundings. Language may also be enhanced by using pictures and picture books, though care needs to be taken that pictures do not lead to any misunderstanding if there has been no actual experience of what is in the picture.

Opportunities need to be given for repetition, in order to fully establish concepts. Initially the child should not be presented with too much to learn, and the input needs to be controlled according to the child's need. The help of a Child Care

Assistant or another member of staff or parental involvement can give individualised input and help, motivation and confidence. Placing a child next to another pupil, who can translate when necessary, is of great help in explaining concepts, though care needs to be taken that the same bilingual pupil is not always given this task. Placing a child near to the teacher also means that there is the minimum of classroom interference as the pupil listens, and as new concepts are expanded.

The Schools Council Project, "Language in the Multi-Cultural Primary Classroom" (1983) suggests approaches for developing the language and concepts of both bilingual and monolingual children in the mainstream classroom. Teachers in Bradford, Haringey, Cardiff and Inner London were involved in this action research project, in which the cultural experiences of children were explored and their different contributions used, to develop ways of enriching the curriculum. Their suggestions have been published in a series of broadsheets available to schools. They include the development of drama from mime to the use of speech, the development of fairy stories in more than one language and collaborative activities, for example learning languages and dialects from each other, and learning to read and write different number systems. Suggestions are made for the introduction of bilingual books and bilingual labels around the classroom. It also describes different methods of recording information which do not require a lot of writing, for example the use of matrices. It includes suggestions for the development of concepts and areas of language that might be neglected in schools, for example the language used for playing card and

board games. The whole project reflects an awareness of the necessity to devise new strategies to support continuing needs within the multi-cultural school, including the enhancing of language for bilingual children.

It is appropriate to include in this section some recent approaches incorporated into such schemes as "The World Studies Project" (1985) and the "Themework Project" developed in Birmingham (1986). The effect of these new approaches in schools are too recent to have been researched. However, among other things, they would seem to encourage the development of concepts through a wide range of topics and to encourage oral interaction and co-operative work between children. Such approaches might help to close the differences in the variables observed in the data in Chapter 6. It is suggested that research into the new approaches and their effect on children's learning might prove beneficial.

Taylor and Hegarty (1985) suggest that "Co-operative learning tasks, involving the direct experience of different racial groups and sexes working together, may be a way in which to promote greater understanding." If children are engaged together in the skills of finding out, critically assessing, changing ideas and recording information in a variety of ways, then language is greatly enhanced for all the pupils and improved attitudes can be generated. However, without guidance, children cannot be expected to engage in co-operative tasks of discussion and exchange of ideas. Opportunities need to be provided for pupils to talk together. It may best be done in

pairs or small groups when quieter class members have a chance to air their views.

If children work together, they need to listen and by listening to their peers as well as staff, concepts can be enhanced. Some useful activities for helping listening skills are outlined in "Themework" (McFarlane et al, 1986). These activities include passing whispers round a circle, use of a magic microphone where only one person can speak, story-telling where each pupil takes turns to make a contribution, listening for a pen being dropped on a desk, and the paraphrasing of what has already been said.

Other activities, to help both conceptual and co-operative development, are listed in The World Studies Schools Council Project (1985). In a section called "Getting on with Others" a range of strategies have been outlined that help children to develop concepts. These are supported by a range of practical activities for use in the classroom. The strategies include affirmation strategies to help children appreciate positive attitudes, co-operative strategies to help children to work together, communication strategies so that children improve their skills of expression and listening, and also analyse the barriers to effective communication. These strategies are accompanied by many games and activities that are designed to foster social skills and would help with the development of concepts and language skills.

The Teachers' Handbook in The World Studies Project (1985) offers a framework for curriculum planning, including objectives, concepts and strategies. These begin with the pupil and

then try to develop their interest in the outside world, and the changes that are taking place. The objectives include not only the acquisition of knowledge but also the development of attitudes and skills. Some of the basic skills that the project focuses on are listed at the beginning. It states that "World Studies contributes to language proficiency and numeracy by offering a context which stimulates pupils' interest and involvement." For the development of concepts it also states that "In terms first of content there is an inexhaustible supply of interesting subject matter, about ourselves, about the lifestyles of other people, about events in the news, our hopes for the future." It also offers a choice of methods for the teaching of "language work with approaches that require active involvement on the part of the children." This is also helped as the global links that are the essence of the project can often be related to the pupil's own immediate circumstances and environment. The handbook also states that World Studies can help with the development of reading ability as "a conscious effort is made to introduce children to books from, and books about, peoples and cultures other than their own, as well as those concerning contemporary issues." It also indicates that "this can also lead to an awareness of the nature of bias - both racist and sexist - in teaching materials and elsewhere."

Themes and topics may be developed by individual classes, by teachers working together across a year group or by a school based theme. Planning however is needed to ensure that the same themes are not repeated and that concepts are being developed progressively throughout the children's time in school. Some of

the subjects chosen may be very broad, in which case, groups may look at different aspects of the same topic with a view to recording and then sharing the ideas and concepts as the work progresses.

7.4 Reading material

The data analysis suggested some disruption to the reading comprehension of bilingual children. The data focussed particularly on the younger and less able bilingual readers. It would seem as if some attention to reading materials might help to motivate the children. Firstly, bilingual books can be a means of helping with concepts, especially if they can be read with a bilingual teacher or taken home. Secondly, they can also be a means of increasing motivation in reading. Reading material needs to relate to the culture of the children, to present other cultures in a positive light, and to be free of racial bias.

Ingham (1985), in a project based at Middlesex Polytechnic, examined the reading interests and habits of children in an urban multi-cultural community, concentrating on the three London boroughs of Haringey, Enfield and Barnet. She points out the "need for language and reading materials suited to children of different cultural backgrounds." The research highlights the dissatisfaction with existing materials, produced by white middle-class people, and the unease that exists with regard to the content, language and illustrations. There is a "need for attractive and enjoyable narrative materials which would reflect and cater for the culturally and linguistically diverse composition of our society, a diversity which is reflected in so many of our classrooms."

The primary materials produced were "dual language materials" with the emphasis on quality of production, as imported books in the mother tongue tend to be of "relatively poor quality." Traditional folk tales, old people's remembrances, anecdotes, jokes, nursery rhymes and playground chants, and children's stories of accounts of their life in this country were looked for. After trying these out with children, the best of them were published. Ultimately the 6,000 copies of the first story, "The Tiger and the Woodpecker" (1984) published in Bengali, Greek, Gujarati, Hindi, Punjabi, Turkish and Urdu alongside an English translation sold out almost immediately.

The success of the research project depended on co-operation between school and community, between school and the home and on the resources available in the communities. The project identified the irrelevant and inappropriate materials that children were being asked to use and the success of the project was the result of the identification of "community-derived materials" that could be included in the resources available to schools. There would seem to be an increasing need for such reading materials within the multi-cultural school, a need to which publishers are being slow to respond. It would seem that such materials would provide an added dimension to reading motivation, would help to enhance concepts and increase status for the languages concerned.

7.5 Helping children to read in a second language

The analysis of the data suggested bilingual readers might make a statistically significant greater number of graphophonic

miscues than monolingual readers. With the older readers and also the group of less able readers, the analysis of the data for substitutions, the retelling of the story and the comprehension tests indicated that in a semantic interpretation of the text, the monolingual children were more successful than the bilingual readers. This was not evident among the more able readers. However, teaching needs to be orientated towards all children achieving their full potential and a situation cannot be acceptable where certain members of one ethnic group appear to be underperforming. The priority must be to see all children, whatever their ethnicity, reach their full potential on transference to secondary school and to make sure that they can cope with the literacy demands that will be placed upon them. In this chapter, some indication has already been given as to how this might be achieved. Some direct reading intervention, that would help with the extension of syntactical and semantical concepts would be appropriate. The following might usefully be incorporated into classroom teaching.

Cloze procedure

This is an exercise where missing words in a text have to be provided by the children. This is most useful when accompanied by oral discussion either between small groups of monolingual and bilingual children or between staff and children. When setting the exercise a word can be regularly omitted, for example every tenth word. Alternatively, if syntactical needs are identified, then either prepositions, conjunctions or other parts of speech can be omitted. As an exercise on its own it is negative. It needs to be accompanied by oral discussion, by an

examination of the text that precedes and succeeds the missing word and by reflection on the most suitable substitute. Cloze procedure teaches the reader to scan backwards and forwards for information. This is a skill that is difficult to teach but cloze passages can make a valuable contribution and make the experience enjoyable.

Prior discussion of the text

Children can be placed in a threatening situation when, after the reading of a story, they are required to answer questions. Attention may have strayed during the reading of the story and they may have been given no guidelines on which to focus. If, before reading, children are given an introduction to the text, some indication of what the story might be about and one or more questions on which to focus, then this can help with identifying the relevant facts. It helps to alleviate the threatening situation and assists with the differentiation of more important and less important information. Some prior discussion can also take place of words or concepts that have not been previously encountered or that might have more than one meaning. Indicating the meaning of prefixes and suffixes and pointing out the root of a word can help pupils to extend concepts both in reading and oral language.

Use of cassette players

Cassette players have the value of being simple enough for the children to use and can be a useful addition to teaching reading. Older bilingual children and parents can be involved in translating stories that can be taped in two languages. If

these cassettes are also accompanied by the text in two languages, they can help with the extension of concepts and can also be highly motivating. As such material is scarce, both the stories and cassettes may have to be prepared with bilingual parents, teachers and children working co-operatively together. Cassettes have the advantage that they can be played repeatedly. Repetition of the language on the cassette and also repetition of language structures within a story can help children to memorise chunks of language so that they become part of the children's prior knowledge. They become part of the children's language routine and help them towards increased fluency.

Assessment of reading

This study has offered tentative advice to teachers about ways of helping bilingual pupils. An analysis of reading miscues might be used to assess both language and reading. Goodman (1978) suggests that by using miscues in reading, teachers can identify the stage their pupils are at in acquiring English. Syntactic errors made in reading might be replicated in their use of oral language. If concepts have not been grasped, this might be revealed in unacceptable semantic substitutions, when they are reading. Progression in second language learning might therefore be monitored through the miscues made when reading.

In the same way, reading progression might also be monitored by the analysis of miscues made when reading. Taylor and Hegarty (1985) criticised the suitability of tests for ethnic minority pupils; "An Asian pupil may lack the fluency in standard English required by a test, so that the test score will be more likely to reflect lack of linguistic than intellectual ability

and may be hampered by lack of experience of the kind of cultural knowledge required to answer test questions." An informal assessment of reading miscues might be used with children perhaps once or twice a year. The material the children are required to read needs to be at the readability level of each child. The analysis, especially of the substitutions, should give some indication of semantic needs. The substitution miscues can also show if concepts have been understood. A retelling of the story, especially if there is some intervention by the teacher with open-ended questions, should indicate whether the story has been processed. Such an informal assessment may indicate areas where concepts need to be explained and expanded, and where further teaching is appropriate.

7.6 Further Research

It would seem as if the present research might benefit from replication in order to verify the findings. Further research might also consider the role of bilingual education in primary schools. It might consider whether the progression of bilingual children in schools will be better achieved by establishing community language teaching as the medium of instruction alongside English. In this context, research might also consider whether reading instruction should be initiated in the home language, in English or in both.

Other research also needs to focus on finding alternative ways of assessing the reading of bilingual children apart from standardised tests. A study might also be made of the results

of assessments made by bilingual staff and those made by monolingual staff in order to ascertain if there are any differentials. Research also needs to be mounted to consider the progress of specific groups of Asian pupils. Taylor and Hegarty (1985) identify certain groups, for example Mirpuri Muslims, as having more specific needs in schools than others and further studies might identify where these needs are and where help can be directed. The involvement of bilingual parents in the life of the school and the effect this might have on the children's progress might also be examined.

Language is a key area for further development. There might be some point studying the influence of a particular community language on the miscues made when children read and defining the miscue variables that might be expected from the children as they gain proficiency in English. It might be possible to establish relationships between the home language and any disruption to syntax or concepts in the second language. Language research might also be mounted to consider the effect of some of the new approaches, such as the World Studies Project (1985) and a programme of linguistic awareness, on progression in learning a second language.

7.7 Summary

The research highlighted some disruption to comprehension when reading, especially among younger and also less able bilingual readers, and also to a lesser extent among readers in the last year of the junior school. While it could be accepted that this was part of their progression towards acquiring proficiency in

English, some concern was felt for the length of time over which the differentials in the variables between bilingual and monolingual children seemed to exist. This chapter, therefore, has examined some of the points arising from the findings and has tried to make recommendations related to the findings that might help in the teaching of bilingual children.

It seemed as if certain courses of action could be directly related to these findings. Continued additional teaching support would be needed, more especially from bilingual teachers who would be able to help both oral language and reading, through the medium of the community language. However, most bilingual children are taught by monolingual teachers. Approaches, therefore, need to be formulated by means of which monolingual teachers might help bilingual children. As the children from language centres are now in the mainstream, it is also important for all teachers to be aware of any methodology that might advance the progression of bilingual children in the mainstream curriculum.

Because of the dependency of reading on oral language, many of the suggested approaches focussed as much on oral language as on reading. The approaches that were appraised were a taxonomy for teaching English as a second language across the curriculum, a programme for developing linguistic awareness and the teaching methods and ideas contained in the Schools Council Project, "Language in the Multi-Cultural Primary Classroom" (1983) and in the World Studies Project (1985). It would seem that any of them might enhance concepts and reading skills.

The chapter then considered, more specifically, the type of reading material that might increase motivation for bilingual children and that might enhance concepts encountered in reading. The most acceptable material would be bilingual books that would have the text of the community language and English running alongside each other. Unfortunately such material is still in short supply. Some suggestions were also made to help with the teaching of reading to bilingual pupils. These included the use of cloze procedures, prior discussion of the text and some advice on assessing reading that might supplement or replace standardised tests.

Finally, the chapter focussed on areas for further research, including a replication of the present study, a consideration of the place of bilingual education in schools, and alternative methods of monitoring reading. It emphasised the importance of identifying the needs of specific groups of bilingual children. Further research might also focus on the influence of new methodologies in teaching, for example the World Studies Project and a programme of linguistic awareness, and the effect they might have on the development of language concepts and reading skills.

APPENDIX A

SERCH - SHEFFIELD EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, CURRENT HIGHLIGHTS 5
(SEPTEMBER 1983)

READING IN A SECOND LANGUAGE
A STUDY OF CONCEPTUAL PROBLEMS

Beryl Davis
Sheffield Teachers' Task Force (ESL)

Introduction

While authorities such as Bullock (1975), Brown (1979) and Ellis (1980) state that second language learners may experience difficulty in reading extensively and at a reasonable speed, and that conceptual problems may be a barrier to comprehension, there is still need for research into how reading problems for second language learners may be resolved. Clearly, learning to read must be dependent on the skill in spoken language which the reader already possesses, but the strange morphology and syntax of a second language may pose prediction problems for the beginning reader. As the child gets older, reading becomes primarily concept-oriented. It follows, therefore, that if the reading material contains concepts that have not been understood or that are totally alien, then there will be an apparent lack of comprehension. Students to whom this may be applicable are those who have to learn a second language on admission to school and who return to another language and culture after school. They may not be lacking in conceptual skills, but concepts mastered in a first language may not necessarily be of use in the school situation; there may be a new set of concepts for the children to cope with, and the translation of a concept from one language to another may not always have taken place. This study, therefore, sets out to test the

hypothesis that scores on reading comprehension tests obtained from second language learners are significantly depressed by problems involving concepts.

Design of the Study

The study was conducted in two schools in Sheffield with twenty-four Pakistani children, aged between seven and nine years. The children spoke Punjabi at home and had either been born in Pakistan or had holidays of more than six months there since starting school. The children were matched in pairs for age, school, sex and scores on the Schonell Graded Word Reading Test and on a Reading Comprehension Test designed as part of the study. The test was based on the Young Group Reading Test (2nd edition, 1980), a sentence completion test with a choice of words for the answer. The limitations of this type of vocabulary test are that it tends to associate poor comprehension with an impoverished knowledge of word meanings and, while going some way towards analysing comprehension at a literal level, as defined in the Bullock Report (1975), tests neither evaluative nor inferential reading comprehension. It did, however, provide an opportunity to include items that might be problematical for second language readers such as homonyms, synonyms, words that were morphologically closely related and vocabulary of specifically English things. The test contained forty sentences for completion and was initially tried out on a small group of children not involved in the study. As these children had finished the test within twenty minutes, this was set as the time limit of the test.

At the start of the study, a member of each matched pair was randomly assigned to one of two groups. The first group (A) became the Experimental Group and the second group (B) became the Control Group.

Both groups were tested on the Reading Comprehension Test. The concepts in the test were then discussed with Group A for half an hour per week over a period of seven weeks. To control for a possible 'Hawthorne Effect', other concepts were discussed with Group B for a similar period, at the same time ensuring that there would be no confusion with the concepts included in the test. At the end of this period, the Experimental and Control Groups were re-tested. The data was then analysed, using the Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Signed Ranks Test.

Conclusion

The findings supported the hypothesis that scores on reading comprehension tests are significantly depressed by problems involving concepts. The pre-test results indicated that there was no significant difference between the scores of the two groups. After discussion of the concepts with Group A, the post-test results showed that all the children in Group A improved significantly on their previous performance. Three of the children in Control Group B recorded a slightly lower score in the post-test and generally performed worse.

The results supported the findings of previous studies (Wildman and Kling, 1979) that improving background information may improve reading, especially for second language learners. It was not intended to compare the reading comprehension of the mother tongue speakers and second language learners in the school, but the teaching of concepts may have resulted in improved reading comprehension scores for the English children. The findings could indicate the need to place second language learners in a great variety of language situations, with a range of audiences and materials and use the environment

outside school in order that new concepts are experienced at first hand and, therefore, more readily retained. If concepts were fully developed in a first language through mother tongue teaching, they would more readily transfer to a second language.

The study could also indicate the need for teachers to be aware of the fact that apparently fluent second language readers may not be fully comprehending what is read and of the necessity, therefore, to provide second language learners with reading material, the concepts of which are already largely understood or can be comprehended with simple explanations. In this way, giving the reader material at his level, makes reading functional and relevant and increases motivation. At the same time comprehension may be improved if the material can be related to the child's experiences, values and culture. Here, although the number of books that may be relevant to ethnic minority children are increasing, there is still a shortage of graded reading material, unless staff are prepared to undertake the time-consuming task of making their own. An alternative is to take care to choose reading material where the activities in the stories are of relevance to all readers, irrespective of culture.

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The study reported above was undertaken as a part-requirement for the award of the Sheffield City Polytechnic Diploma in the Teaching of Reading.

APPENDIX B

THE VARIABLES FOR THE RETELLING OF THE STORY

Story 1 - The Strong Little Bird

The plot of the story

- 1 The elephant and crocodile played tricks on the bird.
- 2 This made her angry.
- 3 She tied them together with a rope.
- 4 They pulled against each other.
- 5 They thought it was the bird who was so strong.
- 6 They promised they would never annoy her again.

The main events

- 1 There was a bird with a nest.
- 2 Two things made her angry: the elephant who shook her nest and the crocodile making the water muddy.
- 3 The bird asked them to stop.
- 4 They would not stop.
- 5 The bird thought.
- 6 She said she would show them how strong she was.
- 7 She got hold of a rope.
- 8 She tied one end to the crocodile and the other to the elephant.
- 9 She said she would pull them out of the river.
- 10 She called "Pull".
- 11 The elephant pulled.
- 12 The crocodile pulled.
- 13 They could not move.
- 14 They said "You are too strong".
- 15 The little bird told them to stop pulling.
- 16 The crocodile said he would not make the water muddy.
- 17 The elephant said he would not shake the nest.
- 18 The little bird took the rope off them.

List of characters and character attributes

Bird - little, had a nest with five blue eggs, clever.

Elephant - laughed at the bird, strong.

Crocodile - lived in the river, laughed at the bird.

Story 2 - The Wicked Witch Yamauba

The plot of the story

- 1 The witch said she would eat the boy.
- 2 The boy gave her his salmon and the bullocks to stop her.
- 3 The witch chased him among the fishermen and reedcutters.
- 4 The boy hid in the witch's cottage.
- 5 He nailed the witch in the box.
- 6 He took all her treasures.

The main events

- 1 The boy took a cart of salmon to market.
- 2 He met a witch.
- 3 She wanted the salmon.
- 4 The boy gave her the salmon.
- 5 Then he gave her his bullocks.
- 6 He did not want to be eaten by the witch.
- 7 He hid with the fishermen.
- 8 The witch asked them where the boy was.
- 9 They did not know.
- 10 While the witch was looking under the boats, the boy escaped.
- 11 He hid with the reedcutters.
- 12 The witch asked where he was.
- 13 The reedcutters did not know.
- 14 The boy escaped to the witch's cottage.
- 15 The boy hid.
- 16 The witch returned and made some cakes.
- 17 She fell asleep.
- 18 The boy ate the rice cakes.
- 19 He told the witch the fire had eaten the rice cakes.
- 20 The boy nailed the witch into the box while she slept.
- 21 He took all her treasures.

List of characters and character attributes

The boy - frightened of the witch, little, plump, clever (by inference).

The witch - named Yamauba, wicked.

The fishermen.

The reedcutters.

Story 3 - The Monkeys and the Moon

The plot of the story

- 1 The monkeys saw the moon reflected in the well.
- 2 They tried to get it out.
- 3 The monkeys fell into the well.
- 4 When they got out they could still see the moon in the well.
- 5 They decided it must find its own way out.

The main events

- 1 There was a rich man.
- 2 The monkeys played all day in his park.
- 3 They slept at night.
- 4 One night they could not sleep.
- 5 They saw the moon in the well.
- 6 They thought it had fallen in.
- 7 They made a monkey rope to save the moon.
- 8 The monkeys hung onto each others tails.
- 9 The bottom monkey touched the water.
- 10 The moon disappeared.
- 11 Then the branch broke.
- 12 The monkeys fell into the water.
- 13 They got out of the well.
- 14 They discovered the moon was still in the water.
- 15 They decided the moon must find its own way out.
- 16 It was none of their business anyway.

List of characters and character attributes

The man - rich, lived in India, had a beautiful park, with deer and monkeys in the park.

The monkeys - ate fruit and nuts, played, lived in a troop, noisy, rather silly (by inference).

The chief monkey - the leader, has the same attributes as the monkeys.

The moon - regarded as a person by the monkeys.

Story 4 - The Story of Titus

The plot of the story

- 1 The farmer and his dog were on the mountain.
- 2 It started to snow.
- 3 The dog rescued Daniel from the snow.
- 4 Daniel had to leave the dog in the cave.
- 5 He went to get help.
- 6 The dog was rescued.

The main events

- 1 Daniel and Titus went up the mountain.
- 2 Snow started to fall.
- 3 The snow slid down the mountain.
- 4 It missed Titus.
- 5 Daniel was buried in the snow.
- 6 He was saved by the dog.
- 7 They reached a steep slope.
- 8 Daniel could get down.
- 9 The dog could not manage it.
- 10 Daniel found a cave.
- 11 He told Titus to stay there.
- 12 The guides took Daniel home.
- 13 He asked them to go back for his dog.
- 14 They had to wait three days for the snow to stop.
- 15 They found Titus.
- 16 The dog was happy to see Daniel.

List of characters and character attributes

Daniel - a sheep farmer, young, a mountaineer, devoted to his dog.

Titus - a white mountain dog, knew how to dig people out of the snow, devoted to Daniel.

The guides - two.

Story 5 - A Bridge of Crocodiles

The plot of the story

- 1 The mouse deer tricked the crocodiles into lining up.
- 2 He crossed the river on their heads.
- 3 The crocodiles decided to teach him a lesson.
- 4 They refused to let him drink.
- 5 He got caught by one of the crocodiles.
- 6 The mouse deer tricked him and escaped.
- 7 He never tricked the crocodiles again.

The main events

- 1 Salam, the mouse deer, wanted to eat the fruit across the river.
- 2 He could not swim.
- 3 He made the crocodiles line up across the river.
- 4 He hopped across on their heads.
- 5 The crocodiles were angry as they had been made to look foolish.
- 6 They would not let Salam drink.
- 7 Salam began to feel thirsty.
- 8 He knew of a pool in the forest.
- 9 He found a crocodile there.
- 10 He tried to reach the water.
- 11 The crocodile caught him by the leg.
- 12 Salam splashed a stick in the water.
- 13 He said it was his leg.
- 14 The crocodile seized the stick.
- 15 He let go of Salam.
- 16 Salam escaped.
- 17 He never played tricks on the crocodiles again.

List of characters and character attributes

The mouse deer - Salam, pretty, soft brown eyes, silky light brown fur, quick, small, clever (by inference).

Crocodiles - many of them, the mouse deer made them angry with his tricks.

Story 6 - The Fire Myth

The plot of the story

- 1 There was a storm in Deep Valley.
- 2 A tree was set on fire.
- 3 The spider told the animals it would keep them warm.
- 4 Two of the animals tried to get the fire but failed.
- 5 The spider succeeded in bringing back the fire.
- 6 Since then the fire has never gone out.

The main events

- 1 There was storm in Deep Valley.
- 2 The sycamore tree was set on fire.
- 3 The falcon saw the fire.
- 4 He told the others about it.
- 5 The spider said it would keep them warm.
- 6 He wanted to go and get it.
- 7 The owl said she would go instead.
- 8 She got her feathers singed.
- 9 The rattlesnake went.
- 10 He came back with a burned skin.
- 11 The spider went to get the fire.
- 12 He took with him a bundle and some threads.
- 13 He wrapped up the ember.
- 14 He took it home.
- 15 He told the animals they would have to feed the fire.
- 16 The hamster was worried about the food for the fire.
- 17 The spider said it would need wood and bark.
- 18 The squirrel kept feeding the fire.
- 19 Since then the fire has never gone out.

List of characters and character attributes

Spider - special powers, crooked legs.

Rattlesnake - tough skin.

Falcon.

Owl.

Hamster.

Squirrel.

Story 7 - Danny Champion of the World

The plot of the story

- 1 Danny sat in the car waiting to see if the other car would return.
- 2 He drove along the track into the wood.
- 3 He got out of the car.
- 4 It was frightening in the wood.
- 5 He shouted for his father.
- 6 He heard a voice and followed it.
- 7 He found his father in the pit.

The main events

- 1 The boy sat in the car.
- 2 He heard the other car go past.
- 3 He waited to see if it would come back.
- 4 He started the car again.
- 5 He drove onto the track.
- 6 He reached the wood.
- 7 He got out of the car.
- 8 Taking a torch, he went to look for his father.
- 9 He entered the wood.
- 10 He was very frightened.
- 11 He called for his father several times.
- 12 He heard a voice.
- 13 He moved towards it.
- 14 It was his father.
- 15 His father told him to approach slowly.
- 16 He saw the pit.
- 17 His father was in the pit.

List of characters and character attributes

Danny - small boy, wished to avoid the man in the other car, could drive a car, frightened of the wood, devoted to his father and brave (by inference).

His father - loved Danny (by inference).

Man in the other motor car.

The keepers - lived or worked in the wood.

Story 8 - Form of Things Unknown

The plot of the story

- 1 Jenkin landed on the moon.
- 2 He found three strange objects.
- 3 He tripped over a radio of early design.
- 4 He thought he was looking at the statues of three spacemen.
- 5 He prepared to send a message back to earth.
6. A human head appeared behind him.
- 7 Its hair was moving though there was no wind.
- 8 He turned to look at the head.

The main events

- 1 Jenkin had landed on the moon.
- 2 He was alone.
- 3 He saw three strange things.
- 4 They were the height of a man.
- 5 They had a globe in place of a head.
- 6 Jenkin rushed at them and hit them.
- 7 They made no noise.
- 8 Jenkin tripped over a radio of earlier design.
- 9 It had belonged to other spacemen.
- 10 He thought he was looking at the statues of three spacemen.
- 11 They were turning to look behind.
- 12 This meant there might be inhabitants on the moon.
- 13 Jenkins prepared to send a message to Earth.
- 14 The shadow of a human head appeared behind him.
- 15 Its hair was swaying in the wind.
- 16 There was no wind on the moon.
- 17 He turned to look behind at the head.
- 18 He looked into her eyes.

List of characters and character attributes

Jenkin - spaceman, newly arrived on the moon, frightened, searching for earlier spacemen.

Woodford, Fox and Trevor - earlier spacemen, their statues were on the moon, they had been turned into statues (by inference).

Inhabitants of the moon - they were clever artists if they had made the statues.

The head - a woman's head, a mass of hair.

APPENDIX C

COMPREHENSION TEST QUESTIONS

Comprehension Test 1 - The Strong Little Bird

- 1 Which has the nearest meaning to:-
 - (i) Forest - a small wood, a few bushes, a great number of tall trees.
 - (ii) Surprised - amazed, silly, happy.
 - (iii) Shake - ran around, push and pull, jump on.
- 2 Which has the nearest meaning to:-
 - (i) Flew - was ill, moved with wings, ran away.
 - (ii) Cross - sign, wrong, angry.
 - (iii) More - again, anchor, grassland.
- 3 How many eggs did the little bird lay? Six, five, three, four.
- 4 Who walked by the little bird's tree each day? Elephant, animals, crocodile, birds.
- 5 Who did the little bird find in the river? Fish, elephant, crocodile, snake.
- 6 Why did the little bird fly down to the river? To have a swim, to see the crocodile, to get some water, to find the elephant.
- 7 What did the little bird find in the water? Water, mud, food, branches.
- 8 What did the elephant do when he was asked to stop shaking the nest? Walk away, go down to the river, stop shaking the nest, laugh.
- 9 What did the crocodile do when he was asked to stop making the water muddy? Walk away, laugh, go down to the river, stop making the water muddy.
- 10 Who thought hard in the story? Elephant, crocodile, bird, baby birds.
- 11 What did the little bird put round the elephant and the crocodile? Chain, rope, collar, harness.
- 12 At the end of the story, what did the little bird fly back to? Nest, elephant, forest, river.

- 13 Which has the nearest meaning?
- (i) From this day on - last week, in future, yesterday.
 - (ii) Right at the top - in the trunk, among the roots, on the branches.
 - (iii) Before long - long ago, soon, now.
- 14 Why did the little bird make her nest at the top of the tree? She liked the view, it was warm, she was away from enemies.
- 15 What made the little bird cross? The hot weather, mud in the river, tying the rope to the elephant.
- 16 How could the little bird show how strong she was? By playing a trick on the crocodile and elephant, by sitting on her nest, by flying down to the river.
- 17 How long did it take the bird to think up the trick? A week, several days, a day.
- 18 To what did the bird tie the rope? Two trees, the crocodile and the elephant, the elephant and a tree.
- 19 Which is the main idea of the story?
- (i) The crocodile made the water muddy.
 - (ii) The bird had some eggs in her nest.
 - (iii) The bird stopped the elephant and crocodile from playing tricks on her.
 - (iv) The bird tied the rope to the elephant and the crocodile.
- 20 Put these events into the right order:-
- (i) The elephant shook the tree.
 - (ii) The little bird laid her eggs in the nest.
 - (iii) The crocodile made the river muddy.
 - (iv) The bird tied a rope to the crocodile and the elephant.
 - (v) The bird flew back to her nest.
 - (vi) The elephant and the crocodile said the bird was strong.

Comprehension Test 2 - The Wicked Witch Yamauba

- 1 Which has the nearest meaning to:-
 - (i) Plump - thin, small, fat.
 - (ii) Rascal - idiot, scamp, child.
 - (iii) Poked - pulled, picked up, pierced.
- 2 Which has the nearest meaning to:-
 - (i) Pass - die, travel by, paper.
 - (ii) Hide - keep out of sight, animal skin, hut.
 - (iii) Reeds - trees, shed, water plants.
- 3 What was the cart full of? Fish, reeds, sand, mats.
- 4 Where had the boy been in his bullock cart? To his house, to market, to the fishermen, to the cottage.
- 5 What did the boy do while Yamauba was looking for him under the boat? Get away, stay where he was, go to Yamauba's cottage, hide in the reeds.
- 6 Where did the reedcutters hide the boy? Under the boats, in the cart, under the reeds, in a hut.
- 7 Where did the boy hide in the cottage? On the roof, behind the door, in the wooden box, under the roof.
- 8 How did Yamauba feel when she came into the cottage? Tired, surprised, happy, angry.
- 9 How did the boy feel when he saw the rice cakes? Sleepy, hungry, wide awake, frightened.
- 10 What did the boy poke the rice cakes with? Finger, straw, fork, stick.
- 11 What did the boy use to fasten down the lid of the box? Knife, screwdriver, hammer and nails, string.
- 12 Who stayed in the box? Treasure, witch, boy, hammer and nails.
- 13 Which has the nearest meaning?
 - (i) Hand him over - help him up, put him in prison, give him up.
 - (ii) No one would dream of doing that - no one was dreaming, no one would do that, no one was asleep.
 - (iii) Eat you, hair and all - eat only your hair, eat everything except your hair, eat all of you.

- 14 Why were the fishermen frightened? - They were telling lies, they were afraid of the boy, they thought they might lose their fish, they thought the witch would eat them.
- 15 Which of the following did Yamauba catch? - Reedcutters, boy, salmon, bullocks.
- 16 What was Yamauba doing while the boy was eating rice cakes? - Shouting, looking for someone, talking to the fishermen, sleeping.
- 17 Who answered Yamauba when she tried to find out where the rice cakes were? - Fishermen, fire, rice cakes, boy.
- 18 What does the story suggest the witch is doing now? - She is dead, she is alive and in the box, she has escaped, she is looking for her treasure.
- 19 Which is the main idea of the story?
- (i) People were frightened of the witch.
 - (ii) The boy hid from the witch.
 - (iii) The boy captured the witch.
 - (iv) The witch was looking for the boy.
 - (v) The boy ate the rice cakes.
- 20 Put these events in the correct order:-
- (i) The reedcutters hid the boy under the reeds.
 - (ii) The boy hid in Yamauba's cottage.
 - (iii) The boy passed the witch's house each day.
 - (iv) The boy nailed the witch into the box.
 - (v) The fishermen hid the boy.
 - (vi) The boy ate the rice cakes.

Comprehension Test 3 - The Monkeys and the Moon

- 1 Which has the nearest meaning?
 - (i) Surprise - happiness, amazement, fear.
 - (ii) Scampered - jumped, walked, ran.
 - (iii) Spluttering - spitting, swimming, shouting.

- 2 Which has the nearest meaning?
 - (i) Branch - part of a shop, part of a family, part of a tree.
 - (ii) Herd - a number of animals, a number of people, listened.
 - (iii) Well - fit and healthy, a place for water, staircase.

- 3 Where did the rich man live? Park, India, garden, wood.

- 4 What did the monkeys eat? Leaves, grass, nuts and fruit, anything they could find.

- 5 What did the monkeys do at night? Sleep, play together, move about in the trees, eat.

- 6 What did the monkeys do one night when they could not sleep? Kept quiet, began to play, watched the moon, ate some fruit.

- 7 What did the monkeys think they saw in the well? Shining water, their own faces, black hole, the moon.

- 8 How many of the monkeys agreed to save the moon? All of them, five, one, none of them.

- 9 What did the bottom monkey dip into the water? Hand, claw, finger, paw.

- 10 What was the first thing that happened as the bottom monkey was searching for the moon? They all got wet, the branch broke, they fell into the well, they lost the moon.

- 11 What did the youngest monkey say to the moon? "Oh, well!", "Silly, silly, silly moon!", "Stupid moon!", "There it is again".

- 12 Who was wearing his wisest look? All the monkeys, the moon, the youngest monkey, the chief monkey.

- 13 Which has the nearest meaning?
 - (i) As plain to see as ever - quite clear, difficult to see, ugly.
 - (ii) None of our business - important to us, stupid, nothing to do with us.
 - (iii) Wearing his wisest look - being very intelligent, looking clever, nothing to do with us.

- 14 What did the monkeys think the moon was? Stone, alive, dead, monkey.
- 15 At what time of day did most of the events in the story take place? During the day, at night, in the evening, at dawn.
- 16 What was it called when the monkeys held onto each other's tails? Scampering, a monkey rope, a game, hanging.
- 17 What could the monkeys see when they looked into the well? Shining water, picture of the moon, their own reflections, the moon's reflection.
- 18 Whom do you think is the silliest in the story? Chief monkey, all the monkeys, moon, owner of the park.
- 19 Which is the main idea of the story?
- (i) The monkeys lived in a park in India.
 - (ii) The monkeys saw the moon in the well.
 - (iii) The monkeys liked playing and eating best of all.
 - (iv) There was no moon in the well for the monkeys to reach.
 - (v) The monkeys fell into the well.
- 20 Put these events into the right order:-
- (i) The lowest monkey tried to pick up the moon.
 - (ii) The monkeys made a rope of monkeys.
 - (iii) Some monkeys lived in the garden of a rich man.
 - (iv) The monkeys could not find the moon.
 - (v) The monkeys fell into the well.
 - (vi) The monkeys saw the moon in the well.

Comprehension Test 4 - The Story of Titus

- 1 Which has the nearest meaning?
 - (i) Bounding - running, leaping, walking.
 - (ii) Rumble - cracking, screeching, thundering.
 - (iii) Trudged - walked slowly, marched, climbed.

- 2 Which has the nearest meaning?
 - (i) Guides - girls, mountain climbers, soldiers.
 - (ii) Nails - metal spikes, finger nails, claws.
 - (iii) Deer - a likeable person, something expensive, animal.

- 3 Where did Daniel live? England, Switzerland, France, Germany.

- 4 What did he do for a living? Farmer, dairy farmer, mountaineer, sheep farmer.

- 5 What was Daniel hoping to find on the mountainside? Deer, animals, snow, guides.

- 6 What made Daniel look up the mountain? His dog, rumbling sound, moving snow, sight of deer.

- 7 What did the dog dig with? Feet, nose, teeth, paws.

- 8 How did Daniel get down the mountain? Sliding, using his hands, using the nails on his boots, using his heels.

- 9 Why couldn't Titus get down the mountain? He could not grip, it was too steep, it was covered with snow, he was frightened.

- 10 Where did Daniel leave Titus? In the snow, in a cage, in a cave, with the two guides.

- 11 What was the cave like? Very big, too small, just big enough, very deep.

- 12 Who found Daniel on the mountain? Guides, Titus, guiders, no one.

- 13 Which has the nearest meaning?
 - (i) A vast white blanket - white rocks, snow, ice.
 - (ii) Completely buried - unconscious, killed, hidden under the snow.
 - (iii) Flakes - hailstones, snowflakes, cornflakes.

- 14 How did the dog know where to find Daniel? He could smell Daniel, he had last seen him in that place, he could see his face, he could see his hands.

- 15 Why did Daniel leave Titus in the cave? Titus had been hurt, Titus could not get down the mountain, Titus was lost, Daniel did not want Titus.
- 16 How long did the guides wait before they went to find Titus? Short time, three days, two days and two nights, a week.
- 17 How was Titus when Daniel found him? Asleep, cold and hungry, cross, he had disappeared.
- 18 How did Titus know that Daniel would come back? He trusted him, he had been lost and found before, he had seen the guides, he did not know.
- 19 Which is the main idea of the story?
- (i) There was a snowstorm.
 - (ii) Titus dug Daniel out of the snow.
 - (iii) Titus and Daniel got lost.
 - (iv) Titus and Daniel saved each other.
 - (v) Daniel rescued Titus from the mountain.
- 20 Put these events into the right order:-
- (i) Daniel and the two guides found Titus.
 - (ii) Titus saved Daniel's life.
 - (iii) Daniel and Titus were looking for deer.
 - (iv) Daniel told Titus to wait for him in the cave.
 - (v) Daniel and Titus were caught in a snowstorm.
 - (vi) Daniel was buried in the snow.

Comprehension Test 5 - A Bridge of Crocodiles

- 1 Which has the nearest meaning?
 - (i) Unusual - unimportant, wonderful, uncommon.
 - (ii) Teasing - pushing, making fun of, amusing.
 - (iii) Nervous - happy, worried, sad.

- 2 Which has the nearest meaning?
 - (i) Shoot - gunfire, young plant, photograph.
 - (ii) Tails - part of an animal, lies, stories.
 - (iii) Bank - place for money, mass of cloud, slope.

- 3 What kind of animals lived in Malaya? Beautiful, unusual, shy, ugly.

- 4 Who was Salam? Deer, mouse that looked like a deer, mouse deer, antelope.

- 5 What did Salam see on the other side of the river? Crocodiles, king, bamboo shoots, fruit.

- 6 How did Salam cross the river? On stepping stones, on the heads of the crocodiles, by using a bridge, by swimming.

- 7 What was hidden in the depth of the forest? Pool, fruit, crocodile, ferns.

- 8 When the crocodile by the pool did not move, was he - asleep, wide awake, lazy, half-asleep.

- 9 What did Salam splash in the water? Stick, his head, bamboo shoot, his leg.

- 10 What did Salam do when the crocodile let go of his leg? Run away, went back in the water, looked for more adventures, climbed back quickly.

- 11 Why did Salam move to a different part of the forest? He wanted a drink, he had a broken leg, the crocodiles did not know him, he was looking for food.

- 12 Why did Salam begin to feel thirsty? Because of the climate, the river was dry, he was laughing, he knew of a quiet pool.

- 13 Which has the nearest meaning?
 - (i) Far-off times - not very long ago, a long time ago, last year.
 - (ii) Steely jaws - grey mouth, very strong mouth, mouth with teeth of steel.
 - (iii) Learned his lesson - got what he deserved, had a lot to learn, knew nothing.

- 14 Where did Salam live? Burma, Malaya, Africa, China.
- 15 Which of the following words describe Salam? Medium-sized, pretty, black, a mouse.
- 16 On which occasion did Salam make the crocodiles look foolish? When he had an idea, when he hopped across the crocodiles, when he found the pool, when he ate the juicy fruit.
- 17 How were the crocodiles going to punish Salam? Make him die of starvation, make him die of thirst, take away the delicious fruit, be angry with him.
- 18 How did Salam trick the crocodile at the end of the story? He climbed up a bamboo shoot, he splashed about in the water, he made the crocodile think the stick was Salam's leg, he escaped from the crocodiles.
- 19 What is the main idea of the story?
- (i) Salam was a mouse deer.
 - (ii) The crocodiles helped Salam across the river.
 - (iii) Salam found a crocodile across the pool.
 - (iv) Salam stopped playing tricks on the crocodiles.
 - (v) Salam was thirsty.
 - (vi) The crocodiles caught Salam.
- 20 Put these events into the right order:-
- (i) Salam never teased the crocodiles again.
 - (ii) The mouse deer wanted the delicious fruit.
 - (iii) The crocodile caught Salam by the leg.
 - (iv) Salam hopped across the river on the backs of the crocodiles.
 - (v) Salam teased the crocodiles.
 - (vi) Salam found a crocodile across the pool.

Comprehension Test 6 - The Fire Myth

- 1 Which has the nearest meaning?
 - (i) Defied - feared, took no notice of, wanted.
 - (ii) Infuriated - hurried, pleased, angered.
 - (iii) Ashamed - sorry, disturbed, annoyed.

- 2 Which has the nearest meaning?
 - (i) Crooked - dishonest, like a stick, twisted.
 - (ii) Column - part of a newspaper, upright, piece of rock.
 - (iii) Bark - outer part of a tree, a ship, cry of an animal.

- 3 Where was the dreadful storm? Distant Valley, Dark Valley, Deep Valley, Deep Vale.

- 4 Which tree was struck by the fire? Oak, sycamore, chestnut, birch.

- 5 How did the sycamore tree defy the storm? By having a fire, by standing still, by destroying things, by singing.

- 6 Who flew into the air and shouted "Fire"? Owl, blackbird, falcon, sparrow.

- 7 What made the journey difficult for the spider? His legs were crooked, he was tired, he did not have a tough skin, he could not fly.

- 8 What happened to the owl when she went to get the fire? She was hot, her feathers were singed, she turned red, her skin was burned.

- 9 Why did the rattlesnake think he could get the fire? He could move quickly, he was poisonous, he was the strongest, he had a tough skin.

- 10 Why was the hamster worried? He was frightened of the fire, he thought it would need a lot of wood, he thought the fire would eat their food, he thought it would go out.

- 11 Which tree gave bark to keep the fire burning? Birch, beech, sycamore, elm.

- 12 Who feeds the fire in the daytime? Rattlesnake, squirrel, spider, falcon.

- 13 Which has the nearest meaning?
 - (i) As long as a bear's sleep - a week, several months, a year.
 - (ii) Heart of the sycamore - centre, roots, branches.
 - (iii) Chased away the cold - had a cold, hunted, made it warmer.

- 14 How do we know the spider had seen a fire before? He offered to go and fetch it, he was able to say what it could do, he was friendly with the fire, it had made his legs crooked.
- 15 How many animals and birds are there in the story? Four, five, seven, nine.
- 16 How did the spider carry the ember from the fire? Inside a web, in a sack, in a bag, on his head.
- 17 Why was the spider's prize so precious? It had taken the spider a long time to get it, it would keep them warm, it was difficult to find, it was really gold.
- 18 How would they keep the fire from going out? By fanning it, with matches, by using wet wood, by using bark.
- 19 Which is the main idea of the story?
- (i) Deep Valley was cold.
 - (ii) The sycamore tree sang a song.
 - (iii) The fire came to Deep Valley.
 - (iv) The owl's feathers were burned.
 - (v) The spider went on a journey.
 - (vi) The animals could feed the fire.
- 20 Put these events into the right order:-
- (i) The spider collected the fire in his bundle.
 - (ii) The fire has never gone out.
 - (iii) A storm attacked Deep Valley.
 - (iv) The owl tried to get a burning branch.
 - (v) The sycamore tree was burned.
 - (vi) The squirrel fed the fire.

Comprehension Test 7 - Danny, the Champion of the World

- 1 Which has the nearest meaning?
 - (i) Gigantic - gloomy, huge, frightening.
 - (ii) Overwhelming - heavy, annoying, overpowering.
 - (iii) Roosting - nesting, flying, resting.

- 2 Which has the nearest meaning?
 - (i) Track - path, footmarks, tyre marks.
 - (ii) Crest - wave, head, ridge.
 - (iii) Right - on one side, fair, deep.

- 3 How was the boy sitting inside the car? Upright, quietly, crouched, timidly.

- 4 Why did the boy wait for a long time? For his father, for the other car to go past, he was frightened, he had seen a ghost.

- 5 What divided the wood from the track? Trees, road, hedge, wood.

- 6 How did Danny get through the hedge? Over a stile, through a gate, squeezed through, climbed over the top.

- 7 Why did Danny think something in the car had been broken? The car was rattling, he had driven the car onto a track, he had crashed the car, the other car had bumped into him.

- 8 As he drove along, what could the boy see on his right? Black creature, car, wood, track.

- 9 What could Danny see when he got inside the wood? The branches of the trees, nothing at all, the stars, a patch of sky.

- 10 Why did Danny want to give up? It seemed hopeless looking for his dad, he was frightened, it was very dark, the trees were close together.

- 11 Why were Danny's legs shaking? He was scared, he was excited, he was tired, he had lost his torch.

- 12 As Danny ran toward the voice, what was the wood like? The trees were close together, the wood was very dark, the wood was silent, the trees were far apart.

- 13 Which has the nearest meaning?
 - (i) Small hours of the night - midnight, one or two o'clock in the morning, dawn.
 - (ii) I froze - I was very cold, I turned to stone, I stood still.
 - (iii) As deep as death - no noise at all, empty, dead, in a hole.

- 14 Why might the man in the other car think he had seen a ghost? Danny had turned very white, he was driving a white car, Danny's car had disappeared, there were ghosts in the wood.
- 15 Why did the boy drive slowly when he started the car again? He was afraid of what he might find in the wood, the track was rough, he could not see, he was looking for his father.
- 16 When did the events in the story take place? In the evening, in winter, at night, on a moonlit night.
- 17 Why did Danny's voice go trembly? He was desperate, he was afraid of the keepers, he was being chased by the police, he was cold.
- 18 Why did Danny's father tell him to stop? There were tree roots, there was a coalmine, there was a trap, there were animals.
- 19 Which is the main idea of the story?
- (i) Danny was escaping from the car.
 - (ii) Danny was very frightened.
 - (iii) He was being chased by the keepers.
 - (iv) He was looking for his father.
 - (v) He was lost in the wood.
 - (vi) It was a dark night.
- 20 Put these events into the right order:-
- (i) Danny found it was very dark in the wood.
 - (ii) Danny drove along a rough track.
 - (iii) He heard the motor car go past.
 - (iv) He switched on his torch.
 - (v) He found his father in the pit.
 - (vi) He saw Hazell's wood.

Comprehension Test 8 - Form of Things Unknown

- 1 Which has the nearest meaning?
 - (i) Opaque - opal, clear, cannot be seen through.
 - (ii) Instantaneous - cruel, immediate, unacceptable.
 - (iii) Recoiled - rose up, retreated, moved sideways.

- 2 Which has the nearest meaning?
 - (i) Globes - vegetables, planets, spheres.
 - (ii) Utter - speak, complete, lie.
 - (iii) Pose - photograph, position, suggestion.

- 3 How long had Jenkin been alone on the moon? 30 minutes, 65 minutes, 35 minutes, 45 minutes.

- 4 What height were the three strange things? Four metres, height of a man, six metres, height of an ape.

- 5 What did Jenkin think was useless on the moon? Hands, ears, eyes, legs.

- 6 What did Jenkin trip over? TV set, video, radio, telephone.

- 7 To whom might the radio have belonged? Trevor, Woodford, Jenkin, Fox.

- 8 What was the first thing Jenkin did when he saw the strange objects? Knocked them on the head, fell down, ran away, sprang on them.

- 9 Where were the three strange objects looking? Sideways, forwards, backwards, upwards.

- 10 Why was Jenkin taking great leaps? He was enjoying lunar gravitation, that was the way he always walked, he was happy, he wanted to fix his set.

- 11 Where was Jenkin standing after he had fixed his set? Near the three strange objects, with his back to the sun, facing the sun, with his back to his spaceship.

- 12 What could Jenkin see behind his own shadow? A real human head, another shadow, a mass of hair, the wind.

- 13 Which has the nearest meaning?
 - (i) Like Belisha beacons - like a traffic crossing, like traffic wardens, like lollipop ladies.

 - (ii) Utter monstrosity - a monster, something horrible, something too big to see.

 - (iii) The truth dawned - it was dawn on the moon, it became clear, he told the truth.

- 14 Why did Jenkin spring upon the three statues? They moved, he knew who they were, he felt both brave and frightened, he hated them.
- 15 When Jenkin found the transmission set, what did he think? The three spacemen were still alive, he was looking at the statues of Trevor, Woodford and Fox, men lived on the moon, there were artists on the moon.
- 16 How did the direction in which the statues were looking connect with the end of the story? There is no connection, Jenkin and the statues were looking back at something, Jenkin and the statues were looking sideways, they were looking in different directions.
- 17 What do you really think happened to Trevor, Fox and Woodford? They had disappeared, they had returned to earth, they had been turned to stone, they had been captured.
- 18 What was so unusual about the head? It was a human head, it had thick hair, it made a shadow, the hair was moving but there was no wind.
- 19 What is the main idea of the story?
- (i) Jenkin managed to land on the moon.
 - (ii) There were three stone statues on the moon.
 - (iii) There was a strange head on the moon.
 - (iv) The three spacemen had been turned into stone.
 - (v) There was no noise on the moon.
 - (vi) There was a transmission set on the moon.
- 20 Put these events into the right order:-
- (i) The hair on the head was blowing about even though there was no wind.
 - (ii) Jenkin saw three strange things on the moon.
 - (iii) He saw a human head behind him.
 - (iv) Jenkin found a transmission set.
 - (v) The three things looked like statues of spacemen.
 - (vi) Jenkin had been thirty-five minutes on the moon.

GAP

READING COMPREHENSION

J. McLEOD

FORM R

DO NOT TURN OVER THE PAGE TILL YOU ARE TOLD

A big dog sat by his kennel. He had.....big bone
in his mouth. A little.....sat by his kennel. He had a
.....bone in his mouth.

NAME.....

SCHOOL.....

GRADE.....TODAY'S DATE.....



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HEINEMANN EDUCATIONAL BOOKS LTD

48 CHARLES STREET, LONDON W1X 8AH

ISBN 0 435 80580 0

Tom went to the airport with his mother. There.....
big jet planes at the airport. "Will.....be a jet pilot
when you grow.....?" mother asked Tom. "No," said
Tom. "When.....am a big man, I will be.....
space man."

When you put a lump of sugar into your tea,.....
can feel it at the bottom of the.....with your spoon.
After you have stirred.....for a time, it seems to
.....disappeared. Of course it is in the tea.
can taste it. But you cannot find......

Long ago in the land of Sweden there was little girl who sang. She sang with the as they chirped in the hedges. She with the wind as it sighed in trees. She sang in time with own footsteps as she skipped along the country lanes.

Once there was a king who had three sons. was called Hussein, one was called Ali and third son was called Ahmed. The also had a niece who lived them in the palace. She was a very beautiful and all three of the king's fell in love with her.

When an atomic bomb explodes, the energy released is tremendous that in a fraction of a, a few pounds of uranium can give enough heat to destroy a city. If a method be devised for obtaining this wonderful store energy in a steady stream instead one devastating explosion, atomic power could become of the greatest forces for peace instead the most dreaded weapon for war.

TURN OVER

The machine technology is wasteful of human resources some ways, but it is far more wastefulnational resources. The same efficiency that enables our machines to turn out vast amounts goods enables them to tear fuels metal ores out of the earth, to slash the forests and to gouge and waste the soil a truly alarming rate.

The first bicycles to appear on the road caused much sensation as the first cars. Horsemen for years thought of the highway as own special property. When cyclists came along challenge them, they did not like it.

Juvenile delinquency in London is very largely a mode week-end dissipation. So long as there neither school nor work, mischief fills the empty hours. Many of the transgressions, it is true trifling, such as playing games at prohibited or in prohibited places.

LOOK OVER YOUR WORK TILL TIME IS UP

APPENDIX E

THE ATTITUDE TO READING MEASUREMENT

Section 2

There are 18 sentences listed below. Read each sentence carefully, and when you have read it show us how much you agree or disagree with that sentence by putting a tick in the box which is right for you.

	1	2	3	4	5
	definitely disagree	probably disagree	not sure	probably agree	definitely agree
1 I wish we had more television programmes at school instead of books.					
2 Most books are too long for me.					
3 I like talking to my friends about books I've been reading.					
4 I would be disappointed if I got a book or a book token as a present.					
5 I can understand things better when they are written down.					
6 If I got the chance I would spend a lot of my spare time reading.					
7 I am glad I learned to read.					
8 Reading is something I only do at school.					
9 It is difficult when you have a lot to read for your school work.					
10 There are lots of books that I feel I would like to read.					
11 The more pictures a book has, the better it is.					
12 I like to get books out of the library (class or school or public).					
13 I would like to have more time at school set aside for reading.					
14 People who spend a lot of their spare time reading miss a lot of fun.					
15 There is too much reading to do in school.					
16 Reading is boring unless you want to find out something.					
17 Reading books is the best way to learn things.					
18 I would like to have a bigger selection of books to read for school work.					

APPENDIX F

THE SCHONELL GRADED WORD READING TEST

tree	little	milk	egg	book
school	sit	frog	playing	bun
flower	road	clock	train	light
picture	think	summer	people	something
dream	downstairs	biscuit	shepherd	thirsty
crowd	sandwich	beginning	postage	island
saucer	angel	ceiling	appeared	gnome
canary	attractive	imagine	nephew	gradually
smoulder	applaud	disposal	nourished	diseased
university	orchestra	knowledge	audience	situated
physics	campaign	choir	intercede	fascinate
forfeit	siege	recent	plausible	prophecy
colonel	soloist	systematic	slovenly	classification
genuine	institution	pivot	conscience	heroic
pneumonia	preliminary	antique	susceptible	enigma
oblivion	scintillate	satirical	sabre	beguile
terrestrial	belligerent	adamant	sepulchre	statistics
miscellaneous	procrastinate	tyrannical	evangelical	grotesque
ineradicable	judicature	preferential	homonym	fictitious
rescind	metamorphosis	somnambulist	bibliography	idiosyncrasy

INSTRUCTIONS FOR ADMINISTERING THIS TEST

The Test should be given in a friendly atmosphere in which the child is thoroughly at ease. It should not take place within the hearing of other children.

Younger children or weaker readers should start the test at the beginning. Better readers can start at a later group of ten words. If any word is failed, however, the preceding group of ten words is given until all ten are read correctly. Credit is then given for all words preceding this point. Testing is discontinued when ten consecutive words are failed. The reading age for the total number of words correctly read is given in the table.

The temptation to help the child should be resisted. He should not, for example, be asked to repeat a word he has almost but not quite pronounced correctly nor should he be given any clues as to how to attack a particular word.

Credit should not be given unless the word is clearly correct, e.g. 'flowers' for 'flower' is incorrect as is 'postage' when the last syllable is pronounced as the word 'age'.

Revised Norms (1971) for Schonell, Graded Word Reading Test

established by Geoffrey Bookbinder, based on the testing of 10000 children in Salford and adjusted to the national norm. See Schonell and Goodacre, *The Psychology and Teaching of Reading* (5th edition. Oliver & Boyd 1974), pp 216-7.

No. of words read correctly	R.A. Yrs Mths	No. of words read correctly	R.A. Yrs Mths	No. of words read correctly	R.A. Yrs Mths
0-1	6.0 minus	33	8.3	61	10.4
2	6.0	34	8.4	62	10.5
3	6.2	35	8.5	63	10.6
4	6.4	36-37	8.6	64	10.7
5	6.5	38	8.7	65	10.8
6	6.6	39	8.8	66	10.9
7-8	6.7	40	8.9	67	10.10
9	6.8	41	8.10	68	11.0
10	6.9	42	8.11	69	11.1
11-12	6.10	43	9.0	70	11.3
13-14	6.11	44	9.1	71	11.4
15	7.0	45	9.2	72	11.5
16	7.1	46	9.3	73	11.6
17-18	7.2	47	9.4	74	11.8*
19	7.3	48	9.5	75	11.10
20-21	7.4	49-50	9.6	76	12.0
22-23	7.5	51	9.7	77	12.1
24	7.6	52	9.8	78	12.2
25-26	7.7	53	9.9	79	12.3
27	7.8	54	9.10	80	12.4
28	7.9	55	9.11	81	12.5
29	7.10	56	10.0	82	12.6
30	8.0	57-58	10.1	83 +	12.6 +
31	8.1	59	10.2		
32	8.2	60	10.3		

*Revised reading ages beyond 11.6 have been extrapolated from the 7-11½ year age population.

SCHONELL: GRADED WORD READING TEST

ISBN 0 05 000407 7

Instructions and details of interpretation for this test are to be found in
"READING TESTS: HANDBOOK OF INSTRUCTIONS"

ISBN 0 05 000413 1

OLIVER AND BOYD
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APPENDIX G

RACISM IN BOOKS

Some notes compiled by Beryl Davis
Sheffield ESL - Task Force Jan 83

Racial bias in books needs to be identified if books are to be assessed for suitability for the multi-cultural classroom. The inclusion of any of the following in a book indicates racial bias.

- 1 The stereotype of any ethnic group whether in pictures or in print especially if one group is generally portrayed as being inferior to another.
- 2 Derisive or even derogatory terminology used in referring to any ethnic group.
- 3 Patronising and paternalistic portrayals of people, groups or countries.
- 4 Caricaturing of dialects.
- 5 Destruction through print of the self-images that ethnic groups may have of themselves.
- 6 Character portrayals with whom none of the children from that particular ethnic group are able to identify.
- 7 Books that present the background of people and countries from the point of view of another ethnic group, rather than that of the people who live there.
- 8 Characters from any ethnic group that are consistently portrayed as negative, indecisive, villainous, ugly, stupid, etc.
- 9 The portrayal of only one group as being normal and taking part in everyday pursuits.
- 10 Distortion and exaggeration of the appearance and characteristics of any ethnic group.
- 11 Portrayal of important customs and ceremonies as exotica.
- 12 Representation of one group so that it appears to be in a servile position to another.
- 13 Inadequate information about values and beliefs that may influence the behaviour of any ethnic group.
- 14 Representation of the condition of success as being the assimilation of the values of another ethnic group, which may be regarded as superior.

- 15 Inadequate portrayal of different kinds of family relationships.
- 16 Heroes and heroines inadequately represented among some ethnic groups.

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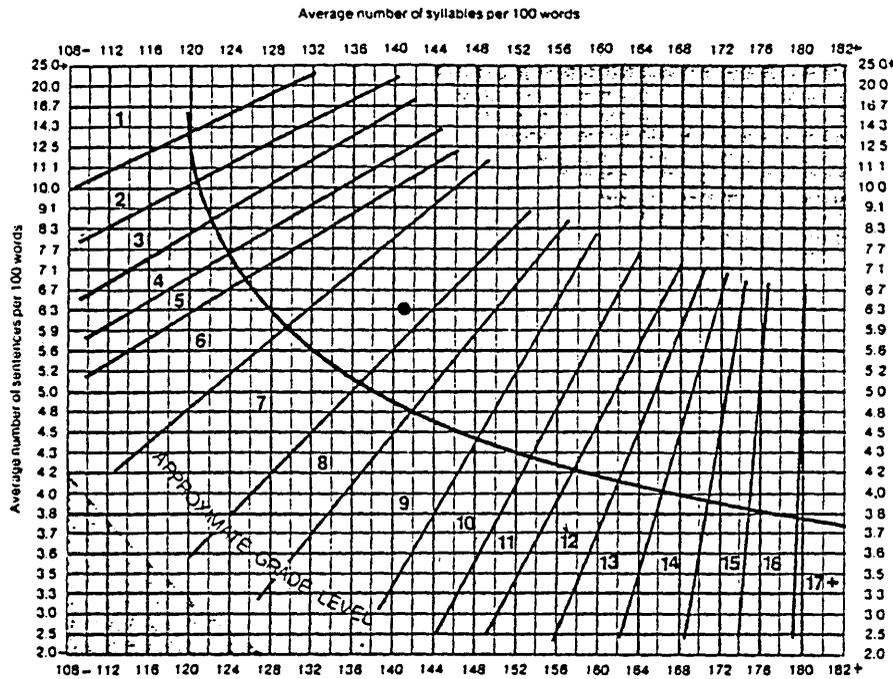
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PREISWORK, R (ed) (1981) The slant of the Pen : Racism in Children's Books, Geneva: World Council of Churches.

Figure 2

GRAPH FOR ESTIMATING READABILITY — EXTENDED

by Edward Fry, Rutgers University Reading Center, New Brunswick, N.J. 08904



Expanded Directions for Working Readability Graph

1. Randomly select three (3) sample passages and count out exactly 100 words each, beginning with the beginning of a sentence. Do not count proper nouns, initializations, and numerals.
2. Count the number of sentences in the hundred words, estimating length of the fraction of the last sentence to the nearest one-tenth.
3. Count the total number of syllables in the 100-word passage. If you don't have a hand counter available, an easy way is to simply put a mark above every syllable over one in each word, then when you get to the end of the passage, count the number of marks and add 100. Small calculators can also be used as counters by pushing numeral 1, then push the + sign for each word or syllable when counting.
4. Enter graph with *average* sentence length and *average* number of syllables; plot dot where the two lines intersect. Area where dot is plotted will give you the approximate grade level.
5. If a great deal of variability is found in syllable count or sentence count, putting more samples into the average is desirable.
6. A word is defined as a group of symbols with a space on either side; thus, *Joe*, *IRA*, *1945*, and *&* are each one word.
7. A syllable is defined as a phonetic syllable. Generally, there are as many syllables as vowel sounds. For example, *stopped* is one syllable and *wanted* is two syllables. When counting syllables for numerals and initializations, count one syllable for each symbol. For example, *1945* is four syllables, *IRA* is three syllables, and *&* is one syllable.

Note: This "extended graph" does not outmode or render the earlier (1968) version inoperative or inaccurate; it is an extension. (REPRODUCTION PERMITTED—NO COPYRIGHT)

N.B. Add 5 to turn US grade level into age equivalent

APPENDIX I

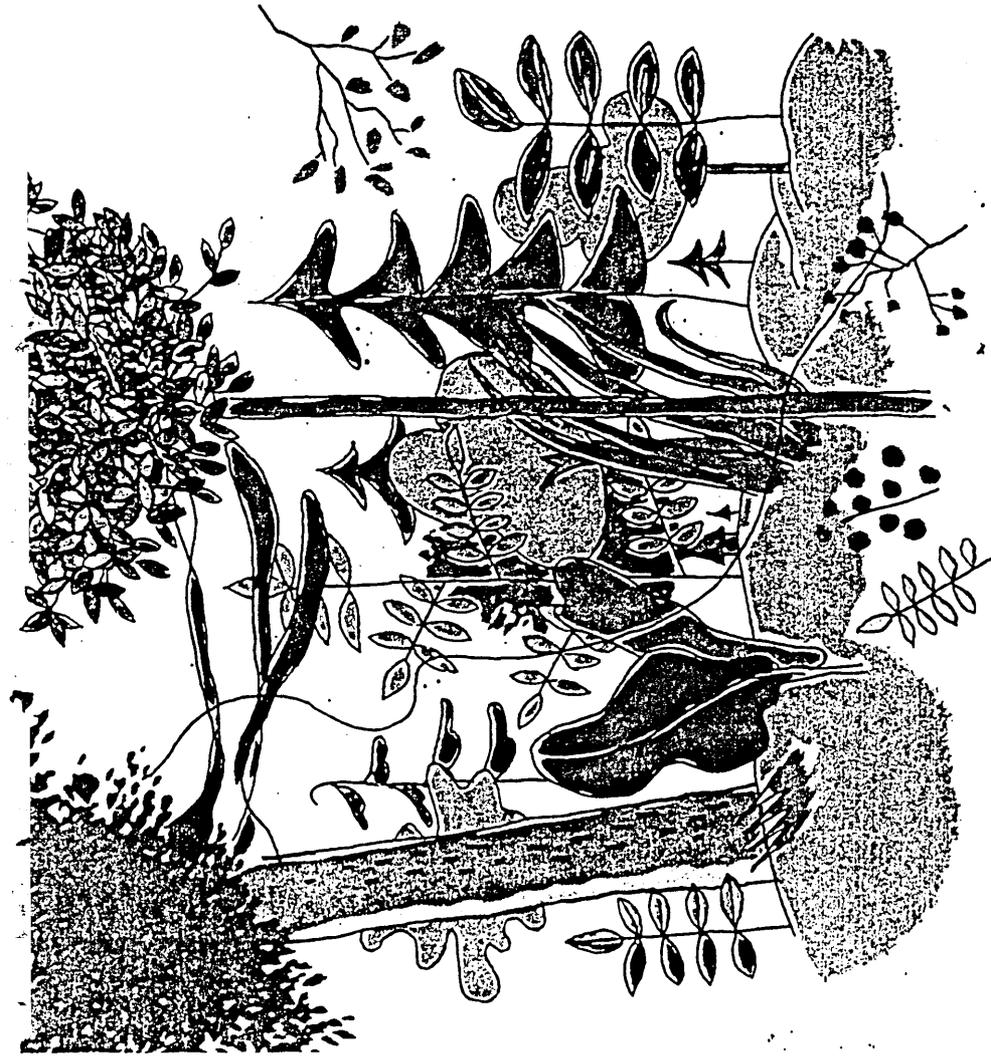
THE EIGHT STORIES

- 1 MURRAY, P AND SINCLAIR, A (1977) The Strong Little Bird, New Story Books, Welwyn: James Nisbet and Co.
- 2 MELSER, J (1981) More! More! More! Story Chest, Stage 7, Leeds: Arnold.
- 3 GRAY, P (1979) The Monkeys and the Moon, Whizz Bang Books, London: Longman.
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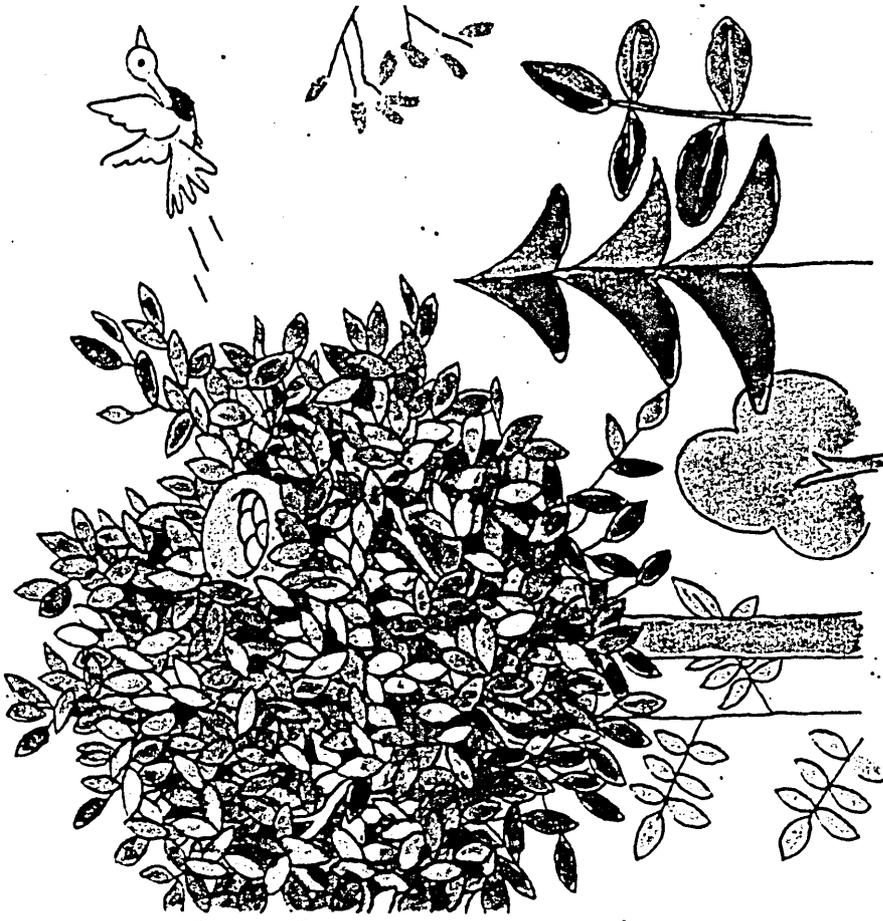
APPENDIX J

GRADE LEVELS (FRY GRAPH) OF EACH STORY AND
THE NUMBER OF PAIRS MATCHED TO EACH STORY

Story Number	Grade Level (Fry Graph)	No of pairs per story
1	2	7
2	2 (difficult)	3
3	3	6
4	3 (difficult)	6
5	4	6
6	4 (difficult)	6
7	5	5
8	6	2



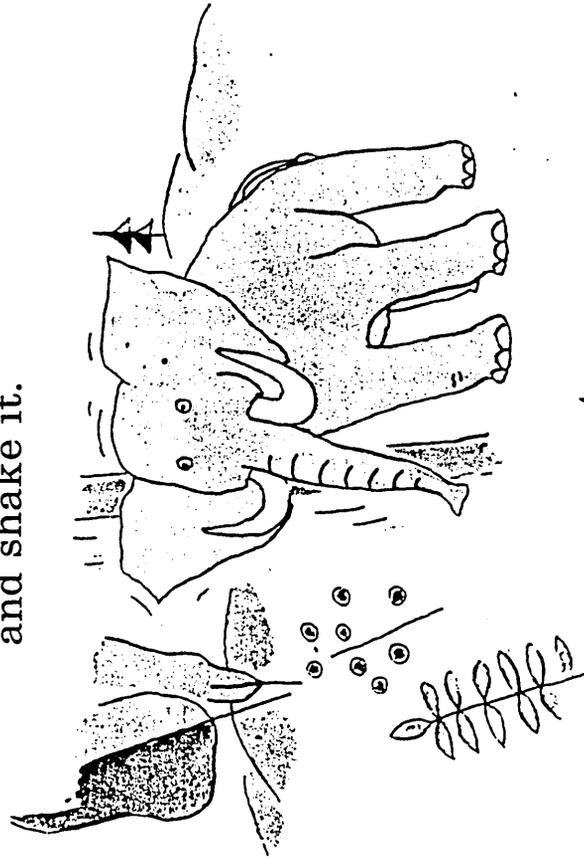
A little bird
lived in the forest.
She made her nest
right at the top
of a very tall tree.



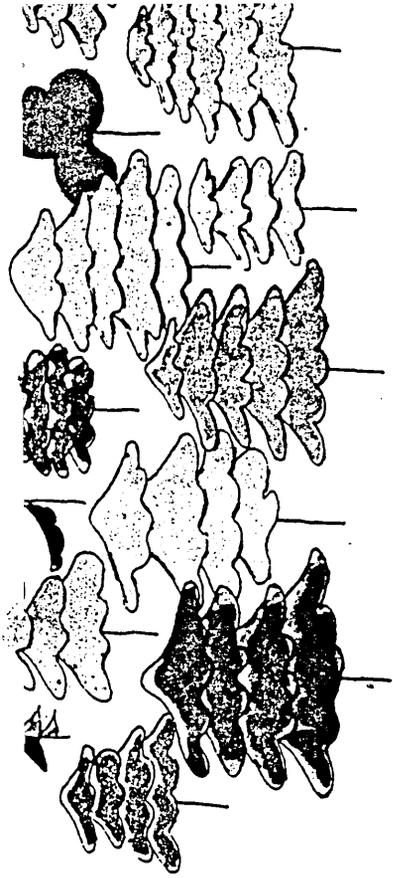
Before long she had
five blue eggs
to sit on.
She sat on them all day,
and left them only
to get some water.



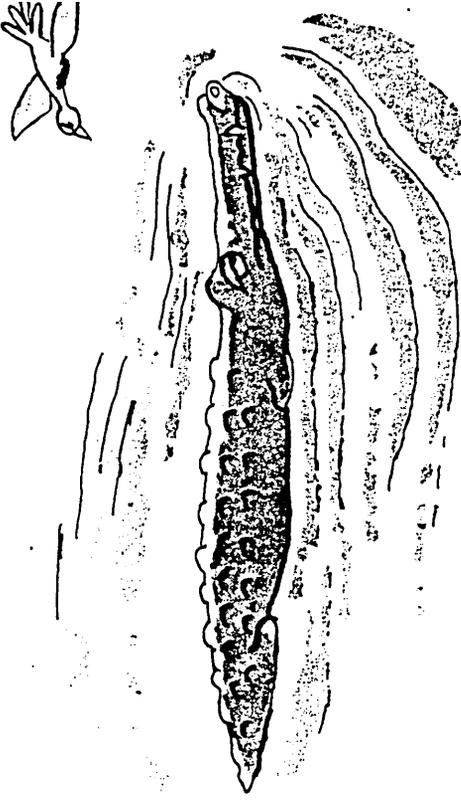
The little bird was happy.
But there were two things
that made her cross.
Each day the elephant
would walk by her tree
and shake it.



4



And each day
when she flew down
for her water,
she would find the crocodile
in the river,
and the water
full of mud.

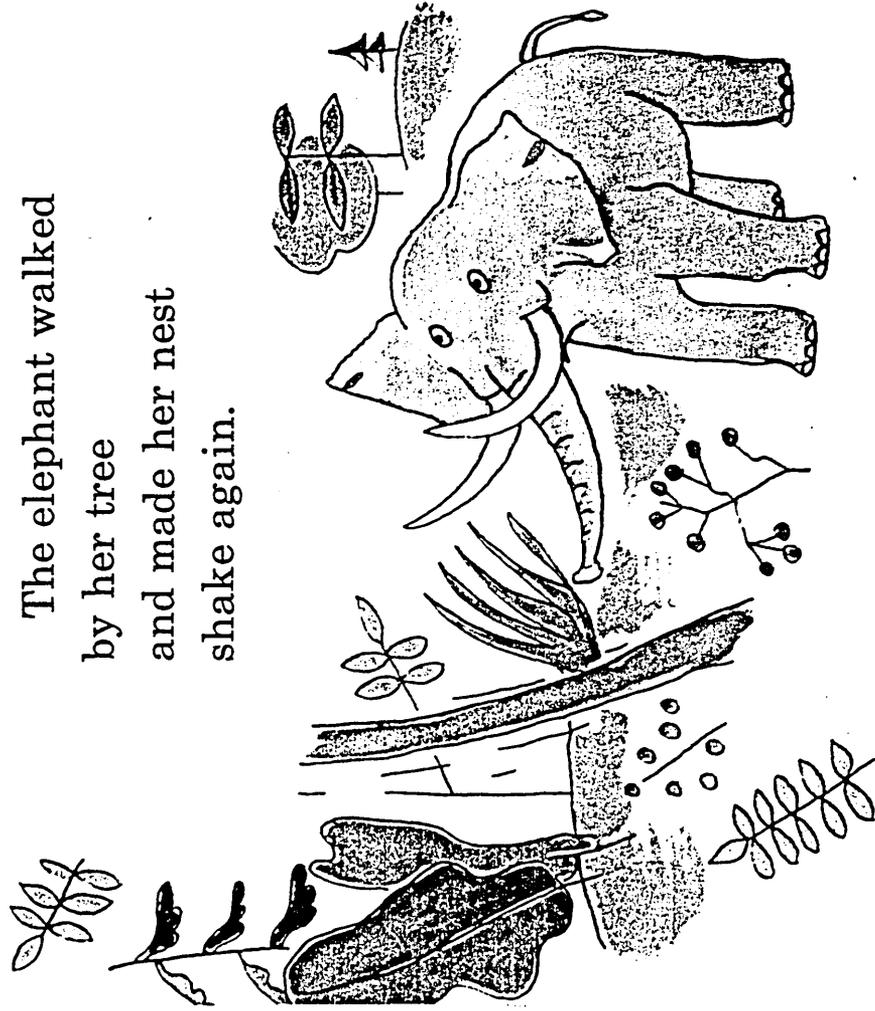


5



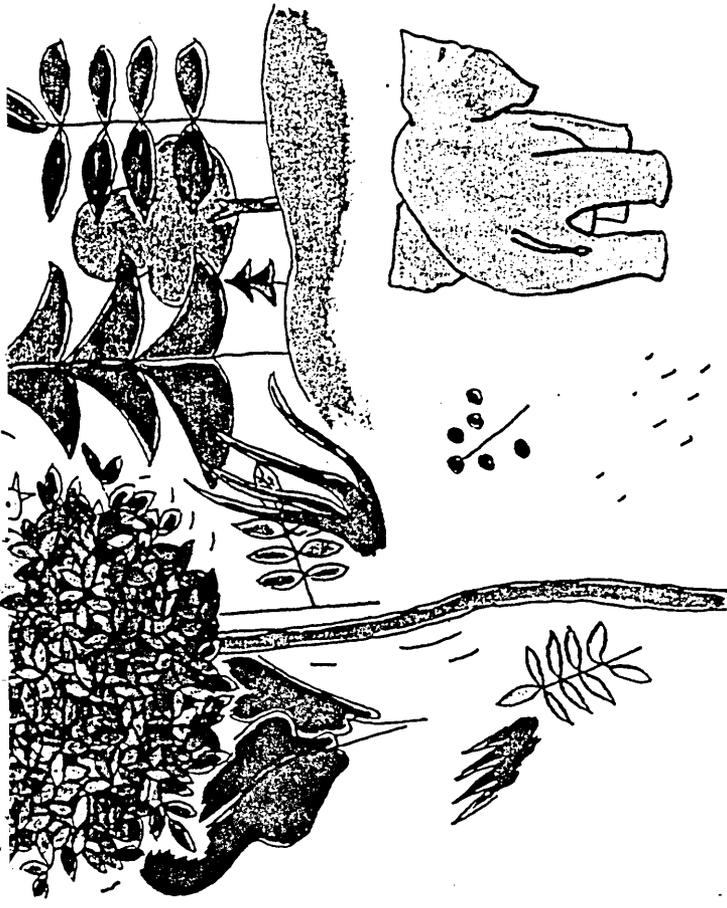
One morning,
the little bird
was as cross
as could be.

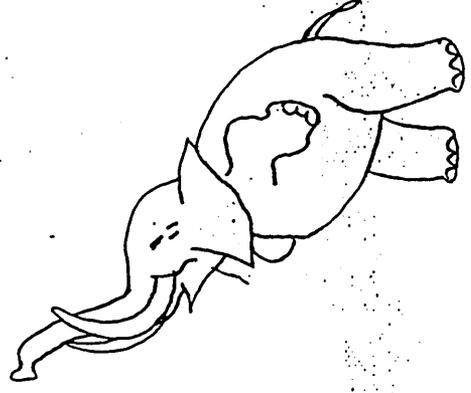
The elephant walked
by her tree
and made her nest
shake again.



“This is too bad,”
the little bird
shouted after him.

“Here I sit,
day after day,
and you come and
shake my nest.
This must stop at once!”



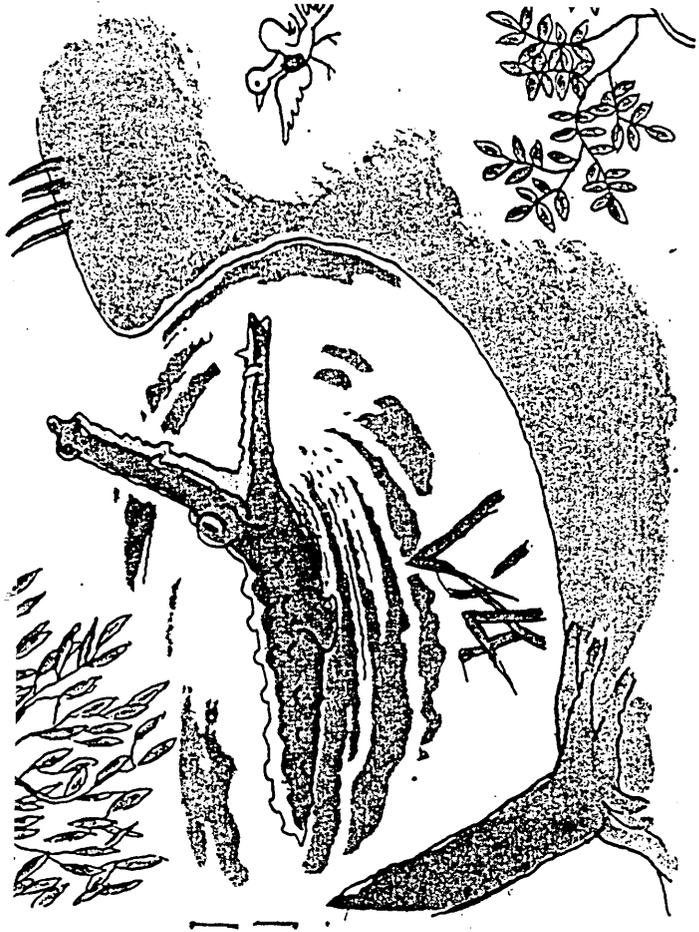
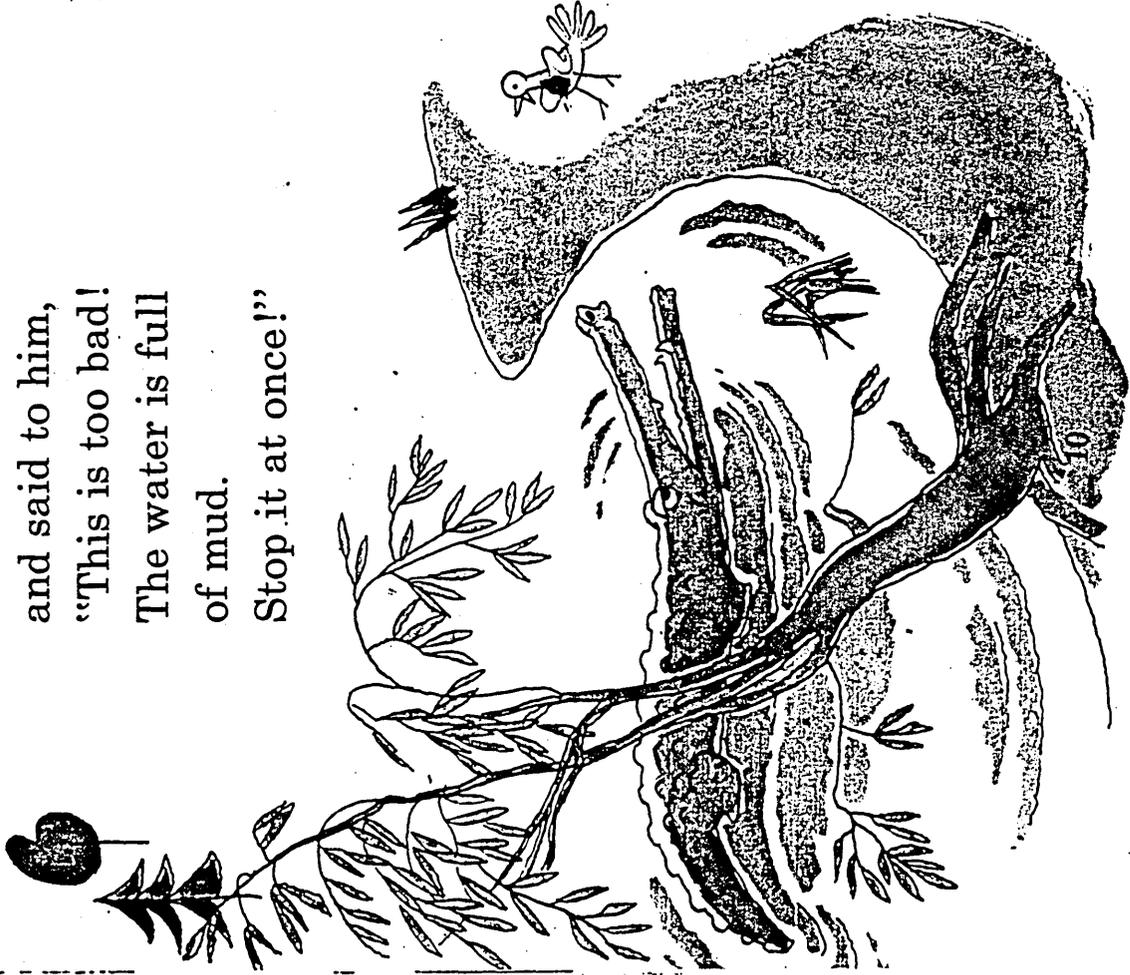


The elephant laughed.
“How can you stop me?”
he asked.
“If you shake my nest
once more,” said the bird,
“you will see
how strong I am.”

The elephant only laughed
as he walked away.

The little bird
was hot and cross.
“I must go and get
some water,”
she said to herself.
And she flew off
to the river.

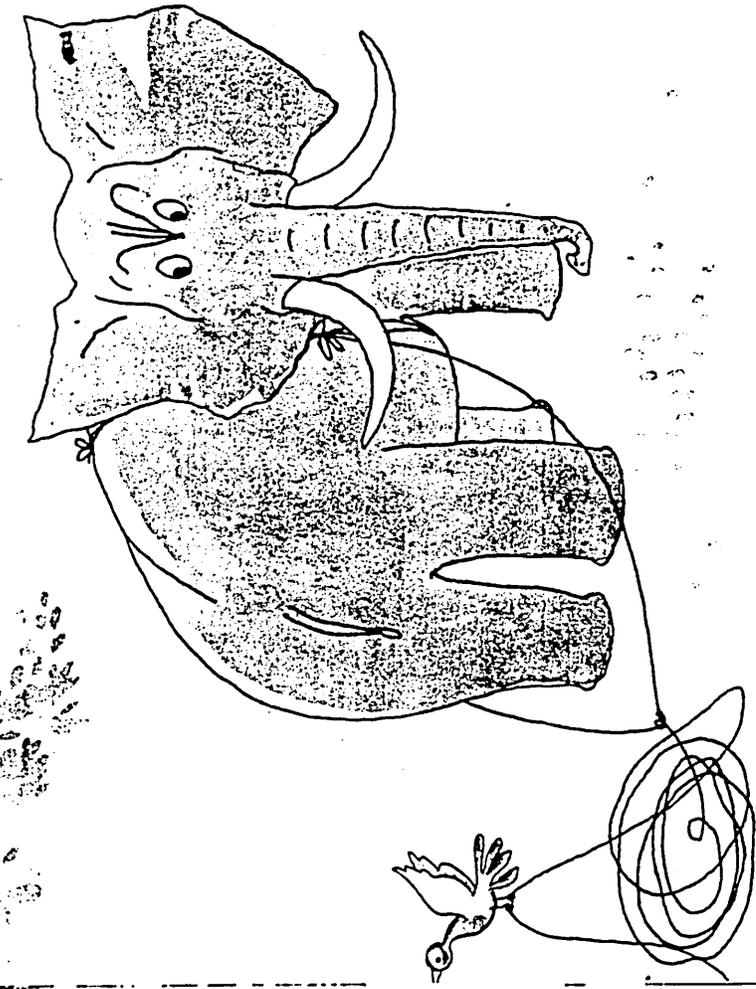
The water was
full of mud.
The little bird
saw the crocodile
and said to him,
"This is too bad!
The water is full
of mud.
Stop it at once!"



"Are you talking to me?"
said the crocodile.

"Yes," said the bird.
"You must stop this,
or I shall pull you
out of the water."

The crocodile could not
say anything to this.
He was laughing too much.



“Now I’ll show you
how strong I am,”
said the bird.
“Wait until I call.
Then pull as hard as you can.”
The elephant was so surprised
that he said nothing.
The bird took
the end of the rope
and flew off to the river.

The little bird thought hard.
Next day she knew
what to do.

When the elephant
made her nest shake,
she flew down
and put a rope round him.



At the river, she found
the water full of mud.

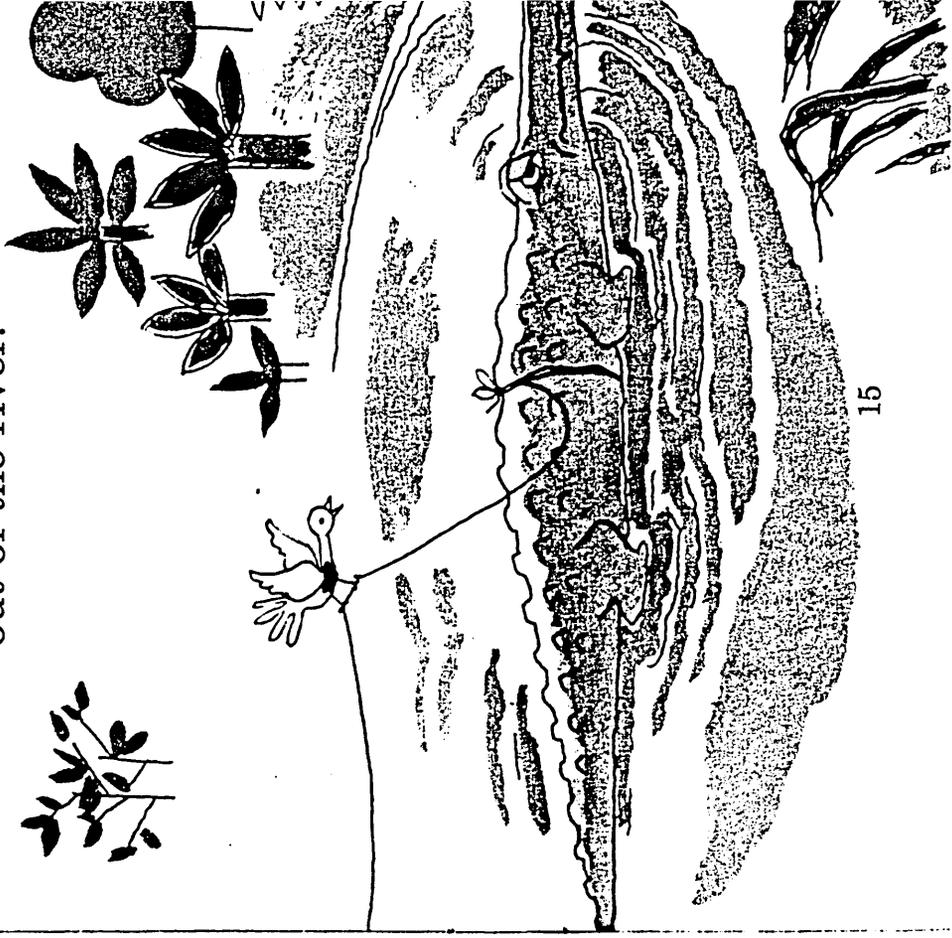
The crocodile looked up
at her and said,
“Well, what are you
going to do now?”
And he laughed.



14

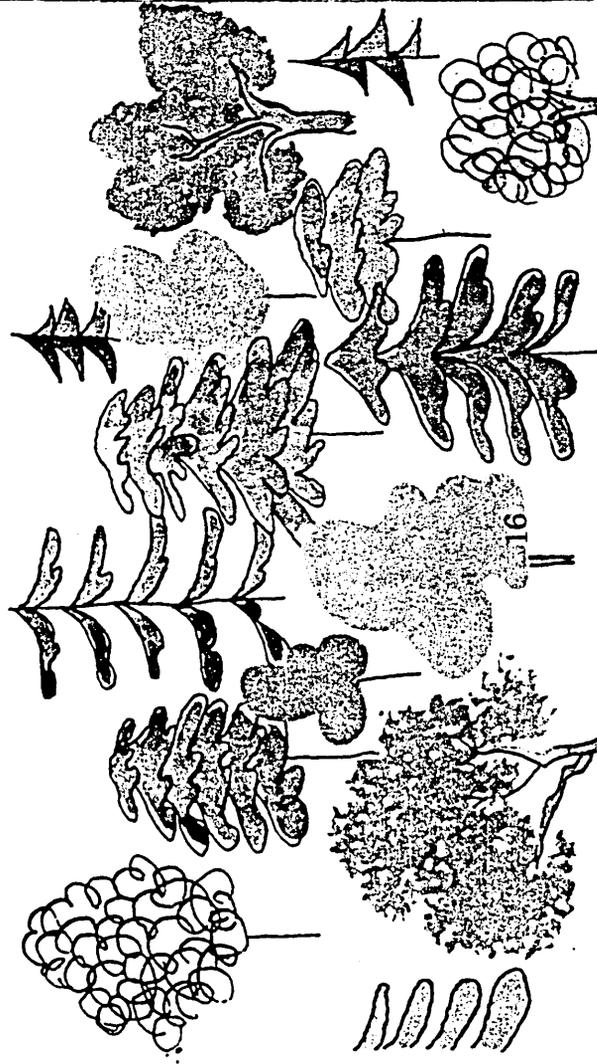
The little bird
put the rope
round the crocodile.

“Now,” she said.
“I’ll show you
how strong I am.
I will pull you
out of the river.”

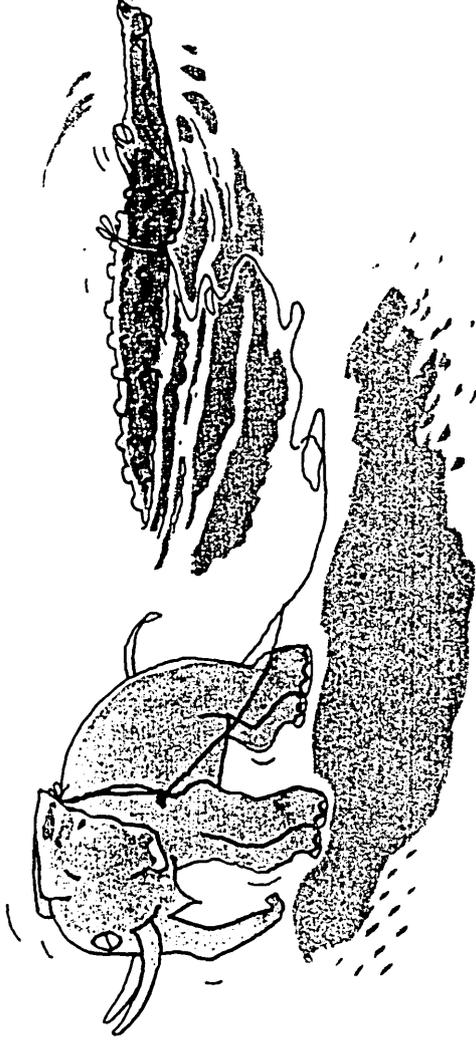


15

“I’ll fly to the other end
of the rope,”
the little bird went on.
“When I call out,
pull as hard as you can.”
And off she flew.



The little bird
sat up in a tree
so that she could see
both ends of the rope.
Then she called, “Pull!”
The elephant pulled,
and the crocodile pulled,

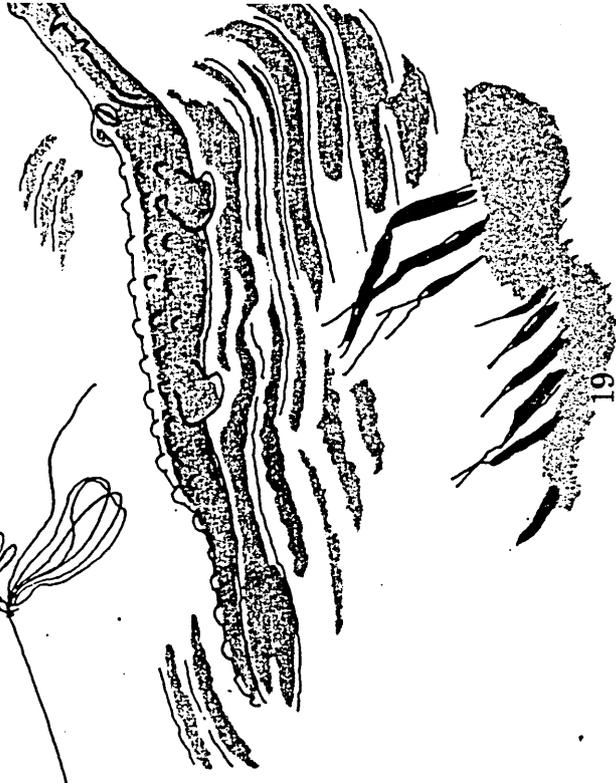
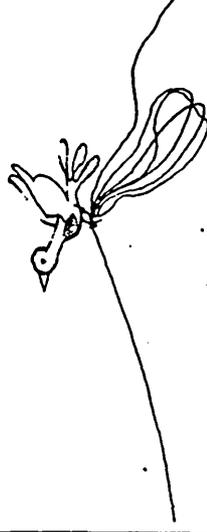


The bird flew to the river.
The crocodile said,
"From this day on,
you will not find the water
full of mud."

The bird took the rope
off the crocodile
and flew to the elephant.

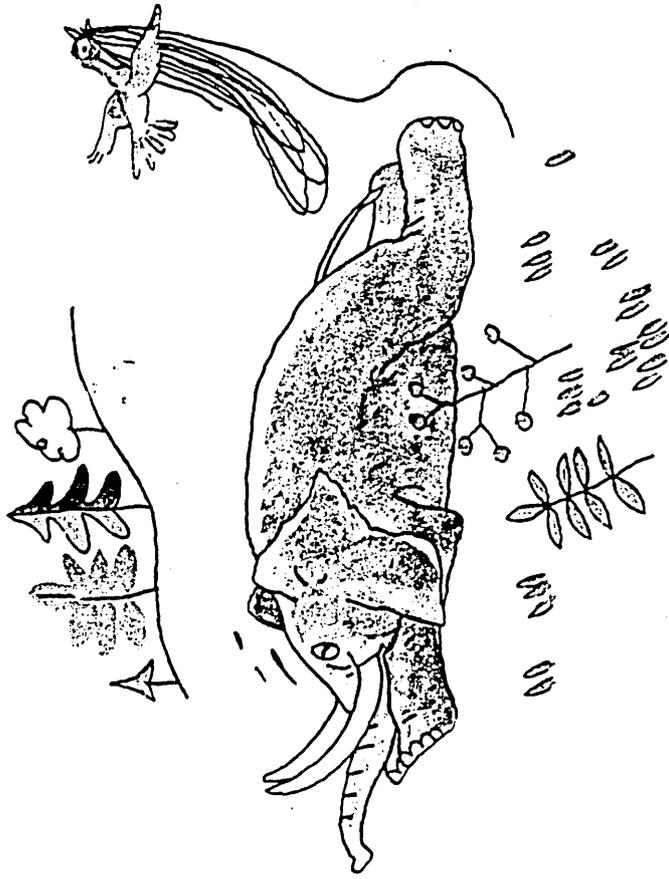
The elephant pulled
as hard as he could.
and so did the crocodile.
But they could not move
one step.

At last they both said,
"You are too strong."
And the little bird said,
"Then stop pulling."



The elephant said,
“I will never shake
your nest again.
You are much too strong.”

So she took the rope
off the elephant
and flew back to her nest.
And there she sat
and laughed to herself.

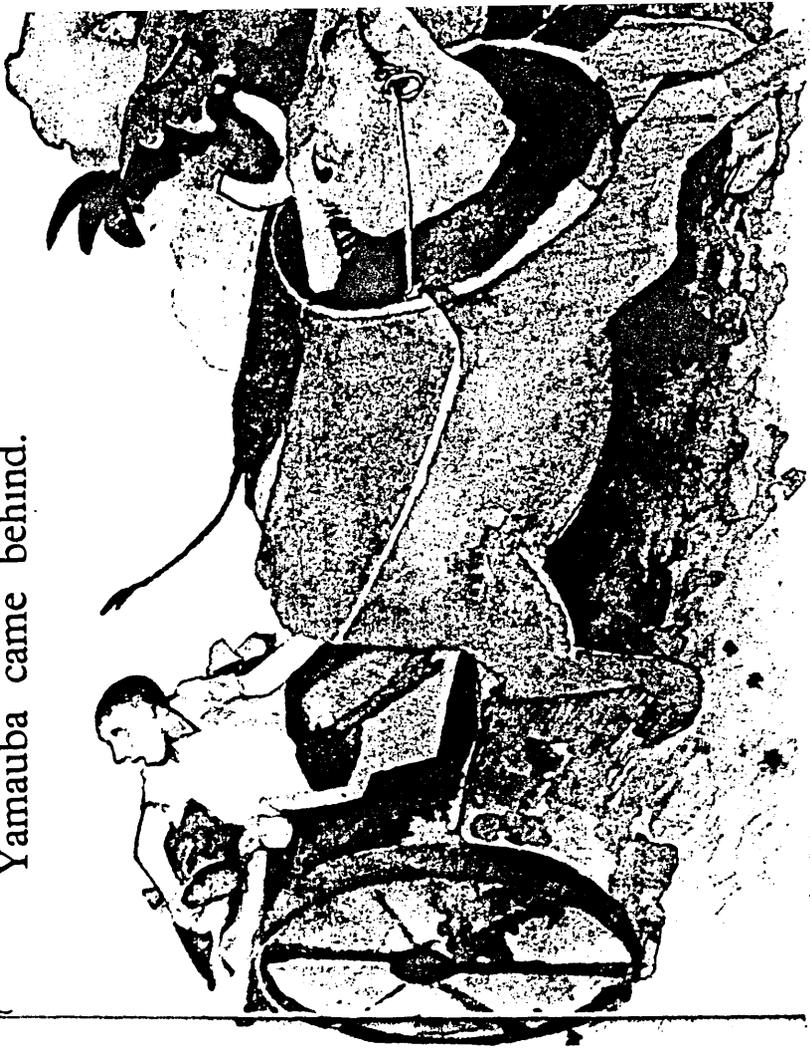


n as . u soon e wite_ was _e..h
him again.

“Another salmon, little boy, another salmon, you nice, plump little boy, or I eat you, hair and all.”

So the boy threw her another salmon, the another, and another. And so it went on. No matter how many salmon the witch ate, she still came back again, with, “More salmon more salmon, more, more, more!”

Soon, all the salmon were gone, but still Yamauba came behind.



One day, a boy was coming home from market on his bullock cart. His cart was full of salmon.

On the way, he had to pass the place where the wicked witch, Yamauba, lay in wait for people. He was frightened, and made his bullocks go as fast as they could.

The boy heard footsteps behind him. He looked round. It was Yamauba.

“Ho, little boy! Yes, you, little boy,” cried the witch. “Give me a salmon, or I’ll eat you, hair and all.”

I'll eat you, hair and all."

The boy didn't want to give the witch a bullock, but he let one go, and went on fast with the other. It was not long before Yamauba had eaten the bullock, and was back again for the other one. The little boy let it go, too, and then he had to run. He ran and ran, and at last he came to some fishermen.

"Hide me, brothers," he cried out. "Please hide me."



just in time, too. For, just then, Yamauba came running up.

"Ho there, you fishermen. I'm looking for a plump little boy who came running this way. Come on, where is he? You must have seen him. Tell me, or I'll eat you, hair and all."

The fishermen were frightened, but one of them said, "We haven't seen anyone, but you can look under the boats, if you like."

And she did. But, while she was looking under one boat, the boy crept out from under another, and got away.



to some reed-cutters.

"Hide me, brothers. Please hide me," the boy cried.

The reed-cutters hid him under the reeds, but only just in time. Yamauba came running up.



plump little boy? Hand him over, or I'll e you, hair and all."

"We haven't seen anyone," said one of th frightened reed-cutters. "But you can loc under the reeds, if you like."

While she was looking, the boy crept awa again.

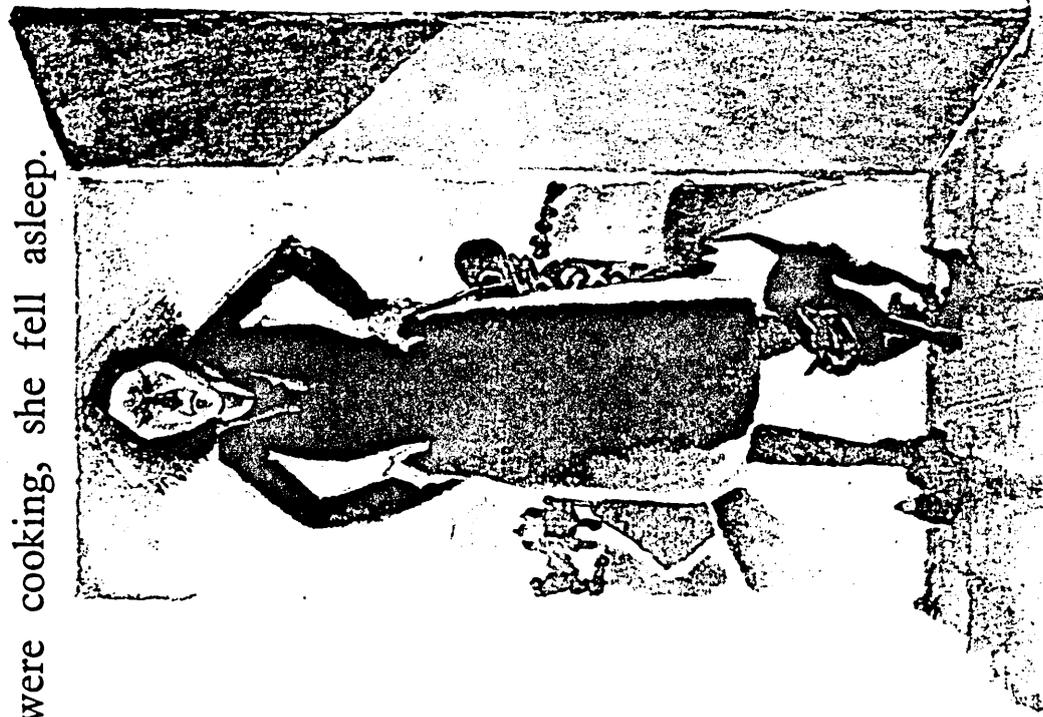


more. Then he saw a cottage, and he ran in and hid under the roof.

But it was Yamauba's cottage! In she came, and she was angry.

"Just wait until I get my hands on that little rascal," she said.

Then she made some rice cakes, but, while they were cooking, she fell asleep.



the rice cakes, he began to feel hungry. So he pulled a long piece of straw from the roof, and poked it into one of the rice cakes. Then he pulled it up again, and ate the cake.

He ate one cake, and then another, and another, until they were all gone.



cakes, then?"

"Only me, the little fire," answered the boy, in a very soft voice.

"What a day this has been," said the witch. "First the boy, now the fire. Oh well, I think I'll go to bed. Yes, I'll get into my old wooden box and go to sleep."

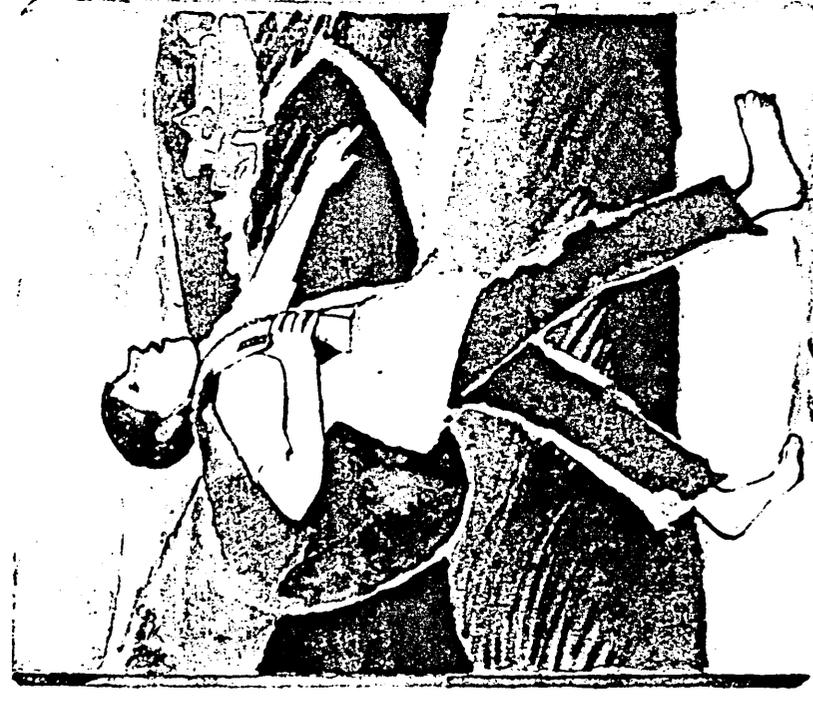
So Yamauba lay down and shut the lid. Soon she was snoring.



... r. e c i m e . . . own as ast as . . . could. He took a hammer and nails, an nailed down the lid of the box.

Then he took all Yamauba's treasure, an set off for home.

Yamauba stayed in the box. And unles someone has let her out — and no on would dream of doing that — she must sti be there, to this very day, hammering awa at the sides with her fists.





Once upon a time in India there was a rich man. He had a beautiful park. In it there was a fine wood with many trees and bushes. There was a garden in it too. In the wood lived a herd of deer.



In the trees there was a troop of monkeys. All day long they were busy, moving about in the trees. Sometimes they looked for juicy fruit and crunchy nuts. At other times, and that was most of the time, they played together.



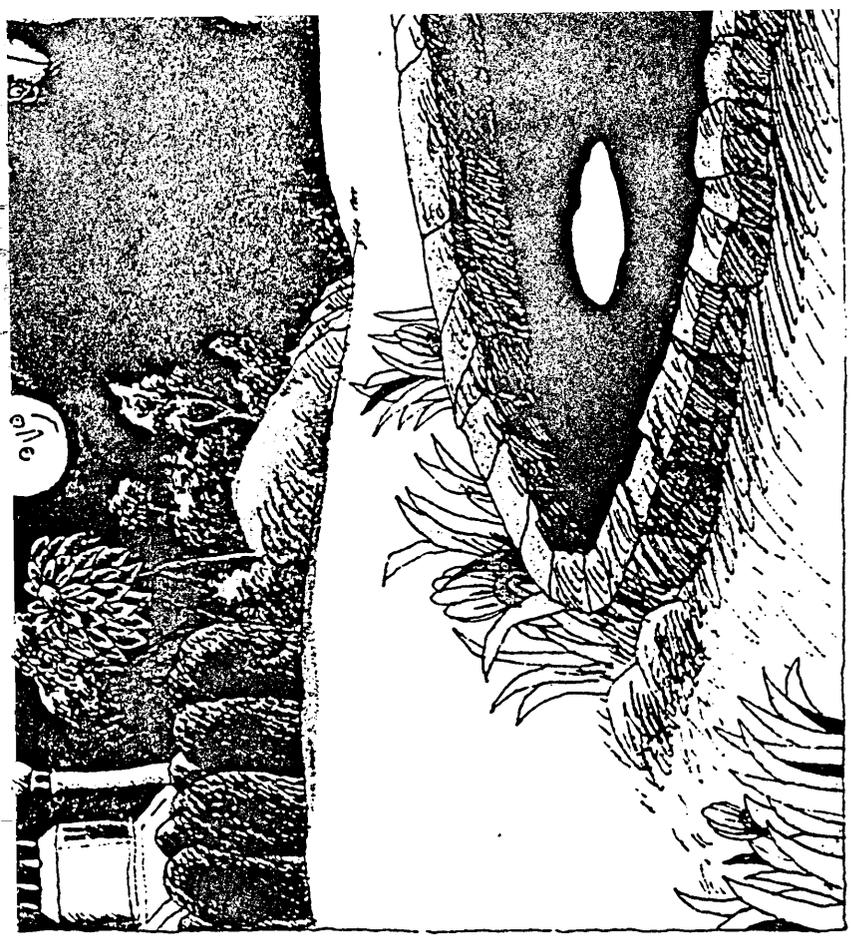
They played games like 'Tag' and 'Hide and Seek' and 'King of the Castle', high up in the branches. They also made up new games to play. They were good at making up games.



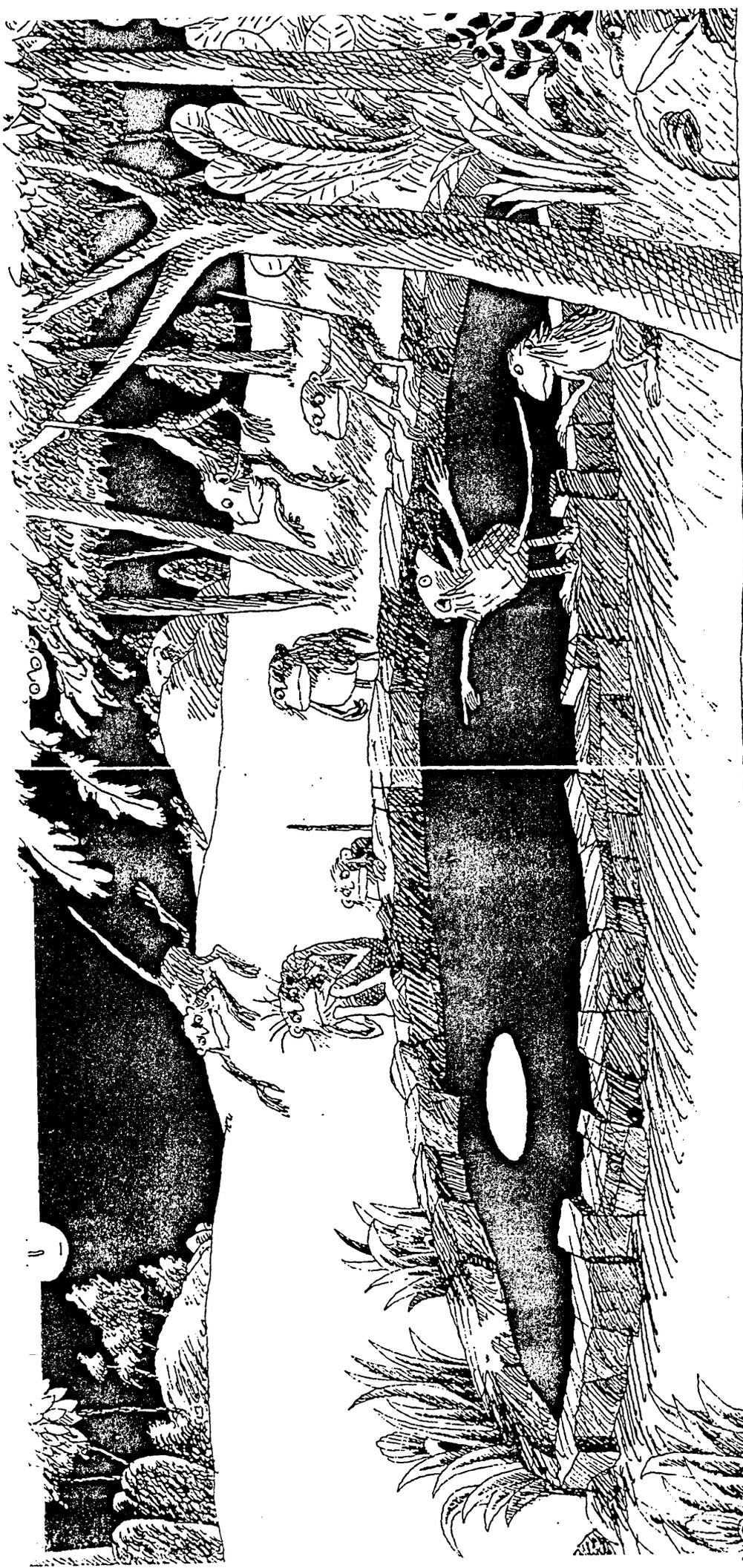
Then at night they slept.



But one night
the monkeys could not sleep,
so they began to play.
They chased each other
from tree to tree.
Then they made up a new game.
It was called 'Chase my tail'.



They enjoyed it
and made a lot of noise
trying to catch each other's tail.
Then, suddenly, one of the monkeys
stopped and looked down.
He saw the moon shining
in the smooth water of the well below.



“Look!” he called to the others.

“The moon has fallen into the well!”

“Oh dear, oh dear,”

all the monkeys said in surprise.

“Oh dear, oh dear.

How the world has no moon.”

“Why don’t we try to pull it out?”
said one of them.

“Yes, yes!” agreed all the monkeys.

“Yes, yes! Let’s save the moon!”



Then they all began to think
of a way to save the moon.
Soon they had a good plan.
Their plan was to make a monkey rope.
They made it like this.
The first monkey
held the branch of a tree
just above the well.

o



The second monkey
held the first monkey's tail.
The third monkey in his turn
held the tail of the second monkey.
Then the fourth, then the fifth,
until they were all hanging
on to one another.



Then the bottom monkey
dipped his paw into the water
to pick up the moon.
As soon as he did so,
the face of the moon disappeared.
Again and again
he searched in the water with his paw,
but he could not find the moon.
At that very moment
there was the sound of a loud crack
from the branch above.

:2



Then, as the lowest monkey
was searching in the water
for the missing moon,
the branch broke!
They all fell into the well!
What a screeching, splashing
and spluttering there was
before they all got out again!



Then, dripping wet, they all looked over the edge of the well into the water. It was smooth again and there was the moon's face looking at them, as plain to see as ever. 'There it is again!' they all shouted.

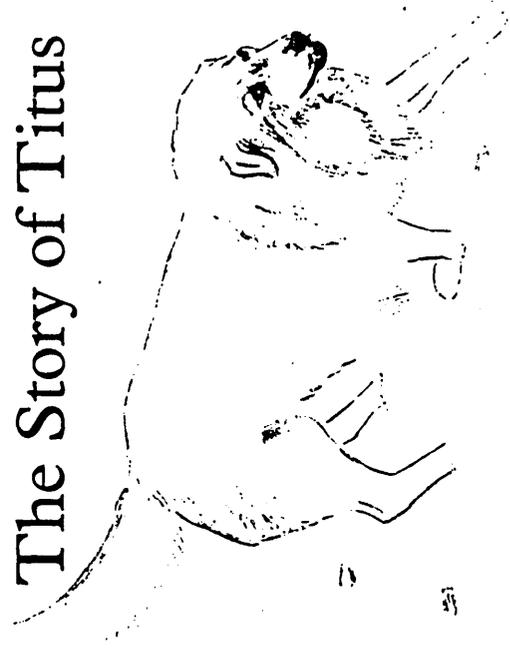


The youngest monkey shook the water out of his fur and said, "Stupid moon!" The others said, "Silly, silly, silly moon!"



Then the chief monkey wearing his wisest look, said, "Oh, well, come on. Let us go back to our game. If the silly moon found its own way into the well, let it find its own way out!" "Yes, yes!" they all agreed. "After all," he added, as he scampered up the tree with the others, "it is none of our business!"

The Story of Titus



High in the French mountains lived a young sheep farmer named Daniel. He had a beautiful white mountain dog called Titus.

One winter's day Daniel went up the mountainside to see if he could find any deer. Titus went bounding on ahead, ruffling the soft snow.

They went happily on for a few hours, then a strong wind blew up. The sky darkened and snow began to fall. The flakes came down faster and faster.

'Come back Titus!' called Daniel. 'It's time to go home.'

Daniel turned and began to go down the nearest path. It led round under a steep cliff.



Suddenly there was a rumble from above. Daniel looked up. He saw a huge pile of snow sliding down the mountain. Before he could move the snow knocked him over. He was completely buried.

Luckily the snow missed Titus. As soon as it had settled Titus ran to the spot where he had last seen Daniel. He began to dig. His paws worked faster and faster. At last, he uncovered one of Daniel's hands, then the other, and then his face. Titus was so happy that he licked Daniel's face. They both went on digging at the snow until Daniel was able to get clear.

'Oh! good dog, Titus, good dog. You saved my life,' said Daniel. He patted the dog's head again and again.

'Wuff,' said Titus, 'wuff, wuff.'

They trudged on again through the terrible deep snow. It was falling thicker than ever now. It covered the mountain like a vast white blanket. At last Daniel and Titus came to a steep rock slope which they had to go down. It was covered with ice. Daniel could get down using his hands and the nails on his boots. But Titus could not grip at all with his paws. Daniel did not know what



to do. Suddenly he saw a little cave in the rock. He went to take a closer look. It would be just big enough.

'Here, Titus,' he said, pointing to the cave. 'Stay there, Titus, and wait for me.'

Daniel climbed down the icy rock face and down the mountain. Just as his strength was giving out two guides found him. They carried him home.



'You must go back for Titus,' he told them. 'He saved my life.'

'The snow is falling too thickly on the mountain now,' they replied. 'We must wait until it stops.'

They waited for a day and still it snowed.

They waited for a night and still it snowed.

They waited for another day and another night. On the third day the snow stopped. It was a bright, clear day.

Daniel set off with the guides to find Titus.

If Titus didn't obey me and stay in the cave, thought Daniel, he may be anywhere, lost in the snow.

The men climbed up and up. At last they drew near to the cave. Daniel was leading the way and reached it first. There was Titus. He was very cold, very tired and very hungry. But he was still waiting where he had been told to stay.



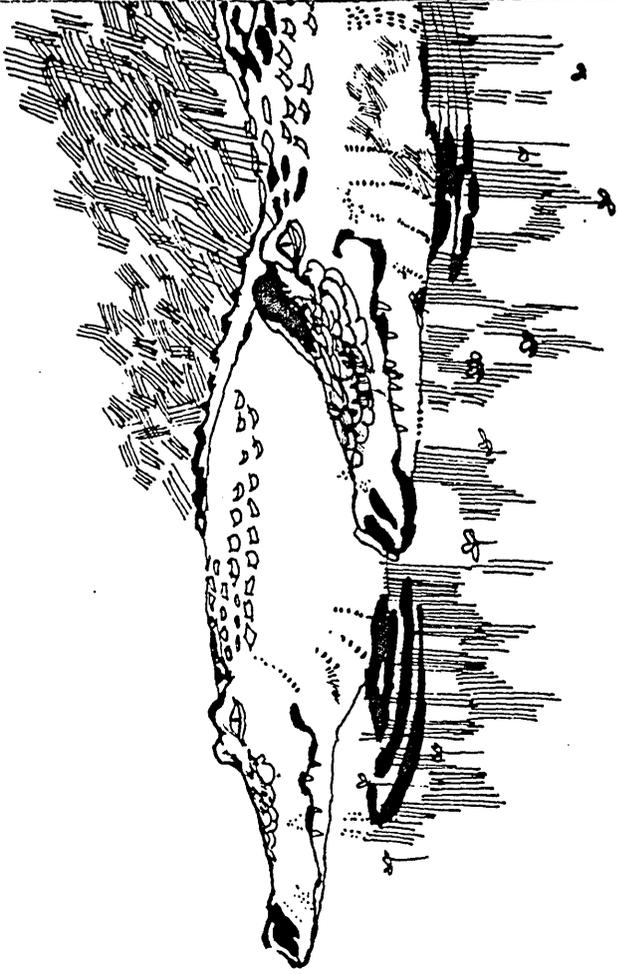
How happy he was to see Daniel!
'Thank you,' he seemed to say as he
barked and wagged his tail. 'I knew all
the time that you would come back.'



In the country of Malaya there are many strange and unusual animals. One of the prettiest is the mouse deer. It has this name because, although it looks like a deer, it is little bigger than a mouse. Because it is so small, it has to be very quick and clever to escape from the fierce animals of the forest.

The children of Malaya are told this story about Salam, a mouse deer who lived there in far-off times.

Salam was very pretty, with soft brown eyes, and silky light brown fur. One day, as he was running along the forest track, he saw some delicious fruit growing on the other side of the river.

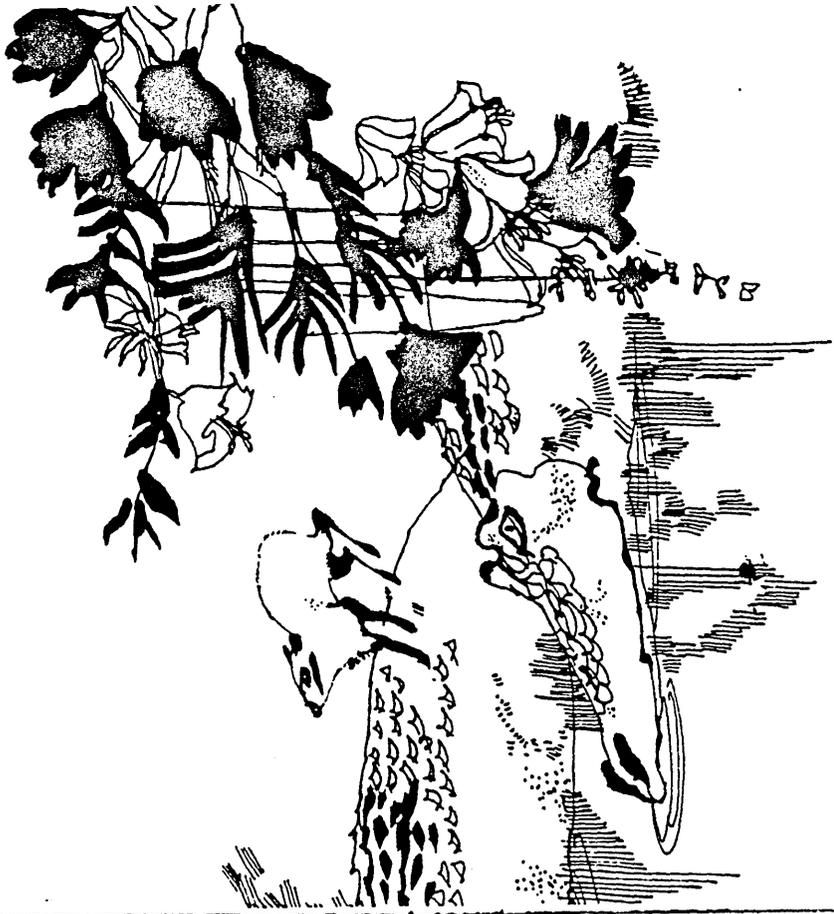


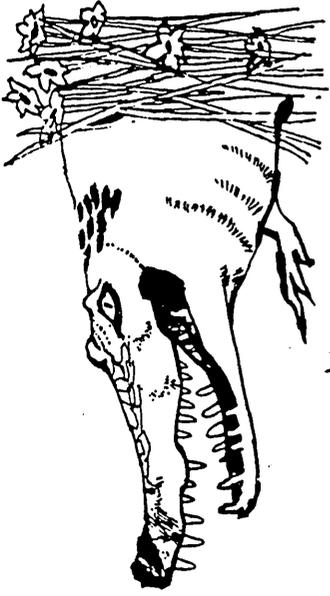
Salam, 'but I dare not swim across the river because of the crocodiles.'

Then a clever idea came to him.

'I will make the crocodiles build a bridge for me,' he thought. So he stood up on a high bank above the river and shouted as loud as he could. 'The king has ordered me to tell him how many animals are living in the forest now. I have to begin with the crocodiles. Put your heads out of the water and keep quite still while I count you.'

Then, as the crocodiles lined up, he began to hop across from one crocodile to the next.





As he landed on each head he called out:

'One! Two! Three! Four!' until he had landed safe and sound upon the other side—using the crocodiles as stepping-stones.

But then he was not quite so clever as he might have been. Instead of keeping quiet about the trick he had played on the crocodiles, he could not resist teasing them.

'You silly animals,' he called out, 'I only wanted to get to this side of the river to eat this delicious fruit.' And with these words he began to gobble up the juicy fruit.

The crocodiles were very angry at being made to look so foolish. They determined to teach Salam a lesson when they caught him.

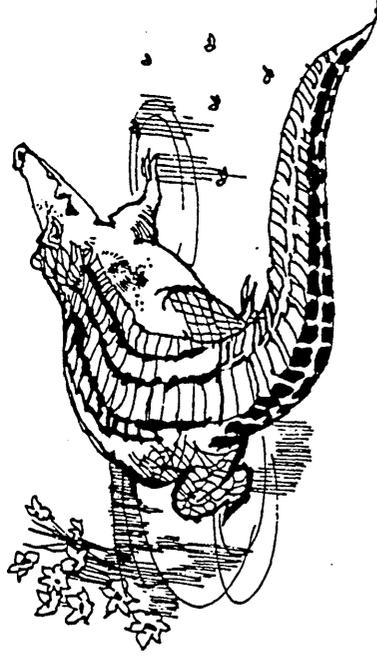
'We will not let you drink any more water from our pools or rivers,' they said. 'Wherever you go a crocodile will be lying in wait for you. We shall tell all our uncles and our brothers and our cousins to catch you. When you bend down to drink we shall bite you with our cruel jaws. When you pass by we shall knock you into the river with our horny tails. You will die of thirst!'

At first Salam just laughed. He had eaten all the juicy fruit and was not at all thirsty. But after a time he began to wish he had not been so naughty. In the hot climate of Malaya he soon began to feel very thirsty indeed.

As he drew close to the river, a great crocodile rose from the water and glared at him. Salam noticed what a lot of sharp teeth he had! 'No water for you, my fine little fellow. We shall teach you to play tricks on the crocodile family,' said the crocodile, snapping his jaws. Salam began to feel really frightened and moved away from the river.

He knew of a quiet pool hidden in the depths of the forest. The water there was clear and sweet, with ferns growing all round it, right up to the water's edge. Salam hoped that he could drink there.

He crept quietly through the forest and parted the ferns. But to his surprise he saw a huge crocodile stretched out right across the pool. Salam watched him for a moment and he never moved.

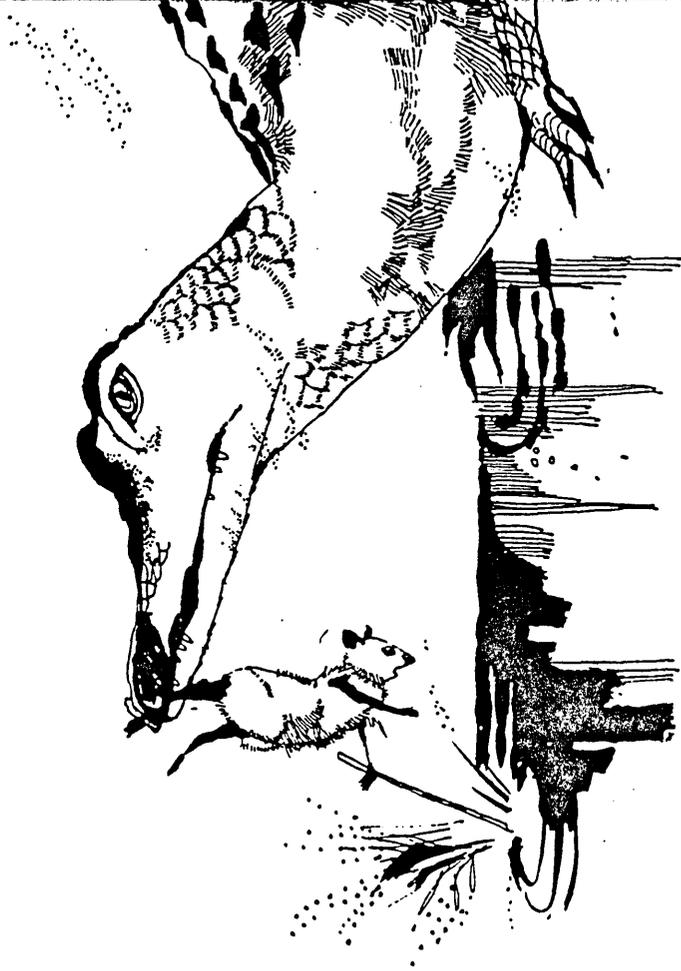


...e must be asleep,' whispered Salam to himself. But he was not, the crocodile had one eye half open, and he was very much awake!

Salam climbed up a bamboo shoot, which bent slowly over until he could reach the water. He had just begun to drink, when SNAP! the crocodile's steely jaws caught poor Salam by the leg.

The crocodile held tight and his teeth hurt Salam very much. But Salam kept his head and did not cry out. Instead he picked a bamboo shoot and splashed it about in the water by the crocodile's head.

'You are silly!' he shouted, 'you are only biting a stick. Can't you see my leg making all those splashes?'

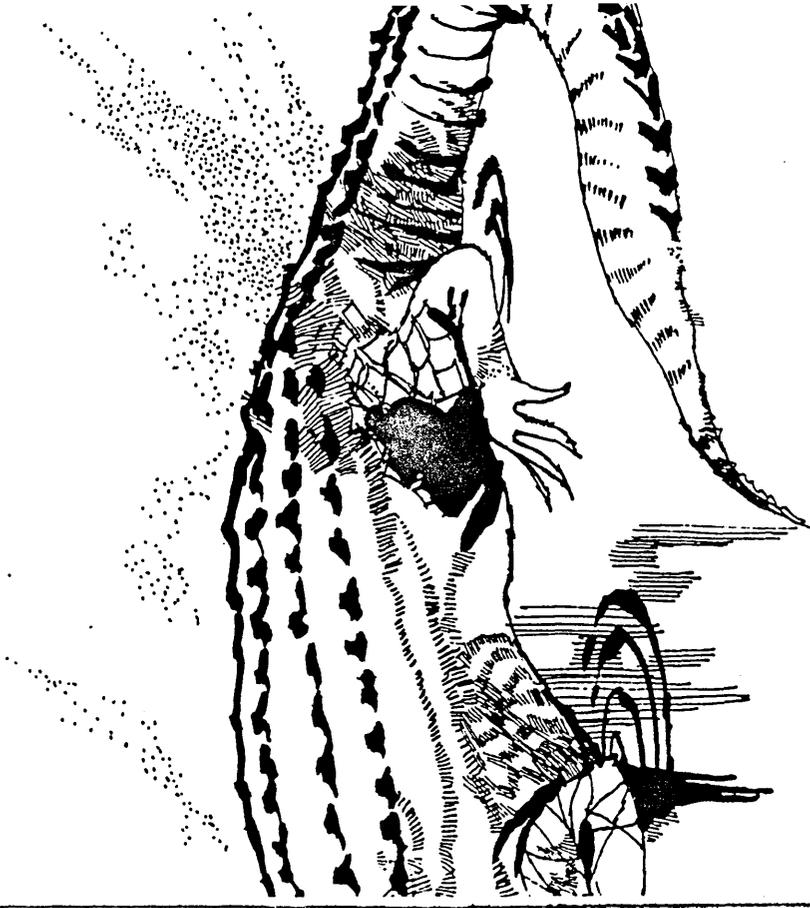


The crocodile was rather stupid and did not want to be made to look foolish a second time. He let go of Salam's leg and seized the stick.

Salam climbed back as quickly as he could, thankful to have escaped from the crocodile's jaws, even though his leg hurt horribly.

After this adventure Salam had learned his lesson. He knew, now, what could happen when you played tricks on your elders and betters!

He moved away to a different part of the forest where the crocodiles did not know him. He played no more silly pranks on them, but always treated them politely. Ever afterwards he felt a little nervous when he bent down to have a drink!



The Fire Myth: A Cherokee Indian Legend

The Sun's rays spread all over the Indian country but not to Deep Valley. There it was always winter and all the animals were at the mercy of the storms which raged. Only the bear was happy there.

One night a dreadful storm attacked Deep Valley. Trees were uprooted, rocks shattered and everything was destroyed. Yet on a small island in the Great Water there stood a single sycamore tree. It defied the storm and even sang a song about summer. This infuriated the storm. 'I'll kill you,' shouted the thunder and it struck the heart of the sycamore with its fire. Even then the sycamore sang on. But when morning came and the angry storm passed on, the tree sang no more. Its trunk and branches were on fire. A blue column of smoke rose into the heavens.

The animals in Deep Valley noticed the smoke. The falcon flew high into the air and called down to the others 'Fire! There's a fire on the island!' 'What does fire look like?' asked the others.

'It's red and yellow and it sings,' answered the falcon. 'But that's all that I know.'

'Fire is our friend,' said the spider. 'If we bring it here it will keep us warm. Shall I go and fetch it?'

'What, you?' laughed the owl. 'Your legs are so crooked it would take you as long as a bear's sleep to go there and return. I shall go myself.' She fluttered her wings and made off towards the island. She reached the island



and found a burning branch. She picked it up but quickly dropped it and cried out in pain. She had singed her feathers. Back she flew to Deep Valley and sat ashamed on a rock. 'The fire doesn't want anything to do with us. It didn't even speak to me and nearly killed me,' she explained. 'I'll go. I've got a tough skin,' boasted the rattlesnake. But soon he too returned without the fire. 'It burned me all over,' he complained. 'It turned me red. No one will ever make it leave the island.'

'You have forgotten about me,' shouted the spider. 'I have special powers and I know how to handle it.' None of the other animals believed him, but no one laughed at him now.

The spider prepared for the job carefully. First, he fetched a huge bundle, tied it and flung it on his back. He set out on his journey which was difficult for him on his crooked legs. It took a long time but he did finally reach the island.

After a short rest he set to work. Out of his bundle he took a very long thread and wound it round and round a burning ember. As he did this he performed a magic spider dance to stop the fire from burning the thread. On and on he worked, winding more and more thread round his precious prize. When he had completely covered the ember, he put it in his bundle and set off on the return journey.

The animals gathered round as soon as he arrived home in Deep Valley. The spider unwrapped his precious booty and the others were thrilled and amazed. They started to crowd round the burning ember, but the

spider spoke angrily to them.

'The brave sycamore has sent us this friend to give us heat even in the hardest frosts. But we must look after him and feed him or he will grow cold.'

'I hope he won't eat too much,' said the hamster in a worried voice.

'Don't worry,' said the spider. 'He only needs dry wood to eat.'

'But the wood is all wet from the storm. How shall we feed him?' said the others.

'I'll give him some of my bark,' said the birch. 'That will burn even though it is wet.' The birch tossed down a large piece of white bark. The squirrel tore off a strip and held it against the ember. A yellow-red tongue of flame shot up, grew larger and larger and chased away the cold.

Since then the fire has never gone out. The squirrel feeds it in the daytime and at night the animals gather round and sing a song. You can also hear the flames singing this song if you listen very carefully.

'When the flames burn bright and clear,
We gather round and then we hear
The leaves singing their song without end;
That the warm, bright fire is always our
friend.'

American Indian Tales and Legends by Vladimir Hulpach

Appendix K

Passage 7

Danny, The Champion of the World

e rune .

I sat quiet as a mouse and waited. I waited for a long time. Then I heard the sound of the motor coming back again in my direction. It was making a terrific noise. He was going flat out. He whizzed past me like a rocket. The way he was gunning that motor told me he was a very angry man. He must have been a very puzzled man, too. Perhaps he was thinking he had seen a ghost. A ghost boy driving a ghost car.

I waited to see if he would come back again. He didn't come.

I switched on my lights.

I pressed the starter. She started at once.

But what about the wheels and the chassis? I felt sure something must have got broken when she jumped off the road on to the cart-track.

I put her into gear and very gently began to ease her forward. I listened carefully for horrid noises. There were none. I managed to get her off the grass and back on to the track.

I drove very slowly now. The track was extremely rough and rutted, and the slope was pretty steep. The little car bounced and bumped all over the place, but she kept going. Then at last, ahead of me and over to the right, looking like some gigantic black creature crouching on the crest of the hill, I saw Hazell's Wood.

Soon I was there. Immense trees rose up towards the sky all along the right-hand side of the track. I stopped the car. I switched off the motor and the lights. I got out, taking the torch with me.

the track. I squeezed my way through it and suddenly I was right inside the wood. When I looked up the trees had closed in above my head like a prison roof and I couldn't see the smallest patch of sky or a single star. I couldn't see anything at all. The darkness was so solid around me I could almost touch it.

"Dad!" I called out. "Dad, are you there?"

My small high voice echoed through the forest and faded away. I listened for an answer, but none came.

The Pit

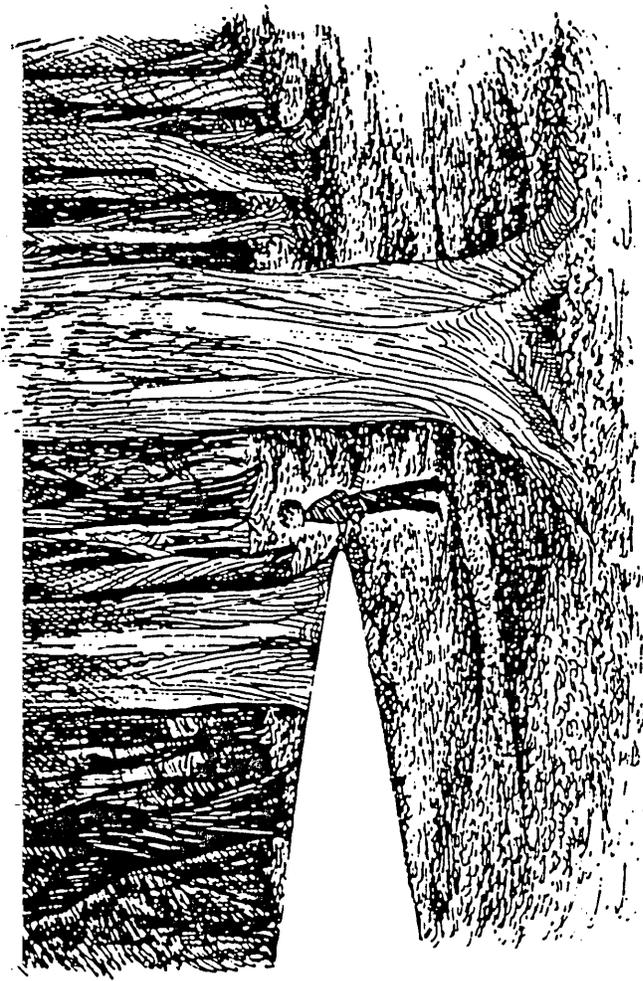
I cannot possibly describe to you what it felt like to be standing alone in the pitchy blackness of that silent wood in the small hours of the night. The sense of loneliness was overwhelming, the silence was as deep as death, and the only sounds were the ones I made myself. I tried to keep absolutely still for as long as possible to see if I could hear anything at all. I listened and listened. I held my breath and listened again. I had a queer feeling that the whole wood was listening with me, the trees and the bushes, the little animals hiding in the undergrowth and the birds roosting in the branches. All were listening. Even the silence was listening. Silence was listening to silence.

I switched on the torch. A brilliant beam of light reached out ahead of me like a long white arm. That was better. Now at any rate I could see where I was going.

The keepers would also see. But I didn't care about the keepers any more. The only person I cared about was my father. I wanted him back.

I kept the torch on and went deeper into the wood.

"Dad!" I shouted. "Dad! It's Danny! Are you there?"



I didn't know which direction I was going in. I just went on walking and calling out, walking and calling; and each time I called, I would stop and listen. But no answer came.

After a time, my voice began to go all trembly. I started to say silly things like, "Oh Dad, please tell me where you are! Please answer me! Please, oh please ..." And I knew that if I wasn't careful, the sheer hopelessness of it all would get the better of me and I would simply give up and lie down under the trees.

"Are you there, Dad? Are you there?" I shouted. "It's Danny!"

I stood still, listening, listening, and in the silence that followed, I heard or thought I heard the

I froze and kept listening.

Yes, there it was again.

I ran towards the sound. "Dad!" I shouted. "It's Danny! Where are you?"

I stopped again and listened.

This time the answer came just loud enough for me to hear the words. "I'm here!" the voice called out. "Over here!"

It was him!

I was so excited my legs began to get all shaky.

"Where are you, Danny?" my father called out.

"I'm here, Dad! I'm coming."

With the beam of the torch shining ahead of me, I ran towards the voice. The trees were bigger here and spaced farther apart. The ground was a carpet of brown leaves from last year and was good to run on. I didn't call out any more after that. I simply dashed ahead.

And all at once, his voice was right in front of me. "Stop, Danny, stop!" he shouted.

I stopped dead. I shone the torch over the ground. I couldn't see him.

"Where are you, Dad?"

"I'm down here. Come forward slowly. But be careful. Don't fall in."

I crept forward. Then I saw the pit. I went to the edge of it and shone the light downward and there was my father. He was sitting on the floor of the pit and he looked up into the light and said, "Hello, my marvelous darling. Thank you for coming."

FARMS OF THINGS KNOWING

This is an extract from the story by C. S. Lewis. Jenkin had come from earth to investigate the disappearance of a number of spacemen. He landed on the moon, like the missing spacemen, at Point 308. From there he began to hunt in ever wider circles.

He had now been alone on the Moon for perhaps thirty-five minutes. It was then that he noticed the three strange things.

The sun's rays were roughly at right angles to his line of sight, so that each of the things had a bright side and a dark side; for each dark side, shadows like Indian ink lay out on the rock. He thought they looked like Belisha beacons. Then he thought they looked like huge apes. They were about the height of a man. They were indeed like clumsily shaped men. Except – he resisted an impulse to vomit – that they had no heads.

They had something instead. They were (roughly) human up to their shoulders. Then, where the head should have been, there was utter monstrosity – a huge spherical block; opaque, featureless. And every one of them looked as if it had that moment stopped moving or were at that moment about to move.

Were they aware of him? What had they for senses? The opaque globes on their shoulders gave no hint.



There comes a moment in nightmare, or sometimes in real battle, when fear and courage both dictate the same course: to rush, planless, upon the thing you are afraid of. Jenkin sprang upon the nearest of the three abominations and rapped his gloved knuckles against its globular top.

Ach! – he'd forgotten. No noise. All the bombs in the world might burst here and make no noise. Ears are useless on the Moon.

He recoiled a step and next moment found himself sprawling on the ground. "This is how they all died," he thought.

But he was wrong. The figure above him had not stirred. He was quite undamaged. He got up again and saw what he had tripped over.

It was a purely terrestrial object. It was, in fact, a transmission set. Not exactly like his own, but an earlier and supposedly inferior model – the sort Fox would have had.

As the truth dawned on him an excitement very different from that of terror seized him. He looked at their mis-shaped bodies; then down at his own limbs. Of course; that was what one looked like in a space suit. On his own head there was a similar monstrous globe, but fortunately not an opaque one. He was looking at three statues of spacemen: at statues of Trevor, Woodford, and Fox.

But then the Moon must have inhabitants, and rational inhabitants; more than that, artists.

And what artists! You might quarrel with their taste, for no line anywhere in any of the three statues had any beauty. You could not say a word against their skill. Except for the head and face inside each headpiece, which obviously could not be attempted in such a medium, they were perfect. Photographic accuracy had never reached such a point on earth. And though they were faceless you could see from the set of their shoulders and indeed of their whole bodies, that a momentary pose had been exactly seized. Each was the statue of a man turning to look behind him. Months of work had doubtless gone to the carving of each; it caught that instantaneous gesture like a stone snapshot.



Jenkin's idea was not to send his message at once. Before anything happened to himself, Earth must hear this amazing news. He set off in great strides, and presently in leaps – now first enjoying lunar gravitation – for his ship and his own set. He was happy now. He had escaped his destiny. Petrified, eh? No more feelings? Feelings enough to last him forever.

He fixed the set so that he could stand with his back to the sun. He worked the gimmicks. "Jenkin, speaking from the Moon," he began.

His own huge black shadow lay out before him. There is no noise on the Moon. Up from behind the shoulders of his own shadow another shadow pushed its way along the dazzling rock. It was that of a human head. And what a head of hair. It was all rising, writhing – swaying in the wind perhaps. Very thick the hairs looked. Then as he turned in terror, there flashed through his mind the thought, "But there's no wind. No air. It can't be blowing about." His eyes met hers.

From Forms of Things Unknown by C. S. Lewis

For discussion

- 1 What was it about the three strange things that nearly made Jenkin sick?
- 2 Why did Jenkin rush upon the nearest of the three objects? Why was this action pointless?
- 3 When Jenkin fell what did he think was about to happen?
- 4 The finding of the radio set up two different trains of thought in Jenkin's mind. What were they?
- 5 Jenkin realised that the three objects were statues. How did this change his ideas about the moon?
- 6 What movement did each statue portray? How was this connected with the end of the story?
- 7 What do you think happened to Fox, Trevor and Woodford? Give reasons for what you say.
- 8 Who or what do you think was the being whose eyes met Jenkin's? What was so mysterious about her?
- 9 Do you think the three objects really were statues? What else could they be? Give reasons for what you say.
- 10 Imagine that the story continues after the words, "His eyes met hers". What do you think might happen next and how might the story end?

APPENDIX L

THE METHOD OF MARKING THE MISCUES IN READING

Miscue	Coding Symbol	Explanation
Non-response	The monkeys ate the juicy fruit. <u>-----</u>	Least positive of all the miscues. Reader is unable to use any of the cueing skills. Listener may have to provide the word.
Substitution	<p>traged He traged through the snow.</p> <p>The birds were sunty chirping in the wood.</p>	Another word or nonsense word is substituted for the one in the text. They can yield the most information about the reader's strategies.
Self-correction	<p>looking like some Ngentck 1.32.0nt 3gigantic black creature. i.in He went² into[✓] the house.</p>	Initially an error but right word is eventually provided. Acceptable when first error makes nonsense of text. "Over correction"-if original error was already effective and therefore less acceptable.
Insertion	<p>two The [^]guides found the dog.</p>	Words or phrases that the reader introduces into the text. In a mature reader insertions will be acceptable.
Omission	<p>The crocodile made the (river) muddy.</p> <p>The (boy's) father told the boy to hurry.</p>	Word or words missed out. Could indicate a beginning reader or a mature reader processing the text to his own language, or processing the text so rapidly that small words are omitted.

APPENDIX L (cont)

Miscue	Coding Symbol	Explanation
Reversal	In Deep Valley there was a fire. →	Moves a word or phrase backwards or forwards in the text. Rare in the beginning reader as they reflect some reading on. In an effective reader it indicates a re-encoding of the text.
Hesitation	The wicked witch asked where / the boy was.	Long pause before a word. A style of reading rather than an error. Beginner will be lacking in confidence and cueing skills. Mature reader may be trying to gain time while s/he processes the text.
Repetition	I <u>did not</u> go to the museum.	Also indicates a style of reading of Hesitation.
Intonation	You are going out?	Change in pitch that alters meaning.
Stress	That will burn even though it is wet.	Change in emphasis that alters meaning.
Multiple miscue	The spider went ^{out} to [^] collect the fire from the tree. He saw ^{that} his father was [^] at the bottom of lying [^] ⁱⁿ the pit.	Involves a string of words that contains more than one of the above miscues. Can lead to (1) total breakdown (2) reader attempting to gain meaning after one error (3) Re-processing of the text into the reader's own language structure.

APPENDIX M

LADEFOGED'S TRANSCRIPTIONS FOR VOWELS AND CONSONANTS

Symbols for transcribing contrasting vowels in English. Column 1 applies to most speakers of American English, Column 2 to most speakers of British English:

1	2					
i	i	heed	he	bead	heat	keyed
ɪ	ɪ	hid		bid	hit	kid
eɪ	eɪ	hayed	hay	bayed	hate	Cade
ɛ	ɛ	head		bed		
æ	æ	had		bad	hat	cad
ɑr	ɑ	hard		bard	heart	card
ɑ	ɑ	hod		bod	hot	cod
ɔ	ɔ	hawed	haw	bawd		cawed
o	o	hood				could
oo	oo	hoed	hoe	bode		code
u	u	who'd	who	bood	hoot	cood
ɔr	ɔ	herd	her	bird	hurt	curd
ʌ	ʌ	Hudd		bud	hut	cut
aɪ	aɪ	hide	high	bide	height	
ɑo	ɑo		how	bowed		cowed
ɔɪ	ɔɪ		(a)hoy	Boyd		
ɪr	ɪr		here	beard		
ɛr	ɛr		hair	bared		cared
aɪr	aɪr	hired	hire			

Note also

ju	ju	hued	hue	Bude		cued
----	----	------	-----	------	--	------

LADEFOGED'S TRANSCRIPTIONS FOR VOWELS AND CONSONANTS

Symbols for transcribing English consonants.

p	pie	pea	
t	tie	tea	
k	kye	key	
b	by	bee	
d	dye	D	
g	guy		
m	my	me	ram
n	nigh	knee	ran
ŋ			rang
f	fie	fee	
v	vie	V	
θ	thigh		
ð	thy	thee	
s	sigh	sea	
z		Z	mizzen
ʃ	shy	she	mission
ʒ			vision
l	lie	lee	
w	why	we	
r	rye	re	
j		ye	
h	high	he	

Note also the following:

tʃ	chi(me)	chea(p)
dʒ	ji(ve)	G

APPENDIX N

WILCOXON MATCHED PAIRS SIGNED RANKS TEST

N	Level of significance for one-tailed test		
	.025	.01	.005
	Level of significance for two-tailed test		
	.05	.02	.01
6	0	-	-
7	2	0	-
8	4	2	0
9	6	3	2
10	8	5	3
11	11	7	5
12	14	10	7
13	17	13	10
14	21	16	13
15	25	20	16
16	30	24	20
17	35	28	23
18	40	33	28
19	46	38	32
20	52	43	38
21	59	49	43
22	66	56	49
23	73	62	55
24	81	69	61
25	89	77	68

APPENDIX O

SUGGESTIONS FOR A SCHEME TO DEVELOP LINGUISTIC AWARENESS

1 What is language?

- a Begin with the ideas of the children. Have a "brain-stormer" with the children working in small groups to discuss what language is. Discuss the findings and collate them. Which ideas can be put together? What are the main headings?
- b Compile a web chart of the findings in 1a. Let the children, working in small groups, discuss and develop any aspects that interest them. Some subjects may be developed as outlined below. Drama as an activity may be incorporated into the themework.

2 How animals communicate

Listen to recordings. Study particular animals, for example the flight of bees, communication between dolphins, chimpanzees.

3 How we communicate

- a Uses of sign language. Identification of road and shop signs around school, extending to signs and symbols elsewhere.
- b Use of body language. How does it convey meaning? How do different cultures use body language? Study deaf and dumb alphabet and its sign language.
- c Use of codes - semaphor, morse, secret codes. Invent and send secret codes.
- d Communication through paintings and music. How we feel about them and why. Visit an art gallery. Paint a picture to music.
- e Transmitting messages - different ways in which messages might be transmitted without using spoken or written words.

4 Spoken language

- a Baby talk - how babies learn to speak. Differences between adults/babies talking. Make tapes of younger relatives and write down the findings.
- b The differences between listening and talking, receiving and giving information. Group activities can help to clarify this.

APPENDIX O (cont)

- c How do we make sounds? In small groups experiment with mirrors, gargle, hold the nose, make tongue and mouth movements to find out how we make sounds.
- d Using the different languages spoken in class, try to find out if there are certain sounds in some languages that are not in others. What sounds have the languages in class got in common?
- e How do we use spoken language? Divide into groups for drama sequences to show how spoken language can be formal or informal, kind or unkind. Write this up as short plays, or cartoon sequences.
- f Hurtful language, for example name calling. How do we feel about it?
- g What is standard English? What are accents and dialects? Use the children in class to find examples. What about accents and dialects in other parts of England? Through drama, let the class illustrate different ways and occasions for using standard English, and dialect. Record and read the plays/stories.
- h What languages are spoken in other parts of the world? How many and who speaks what? Identify the languages used in class and where they are spoken. In groups let the children teach each other greetings, numbers to 5 etc in the languages they know.
- i Identify the languages of any country the children might have been to on holiday. Record any results on charts, maps, graphs etc.
- j Are words used in one language identifiable in another? Make lists of these words and find their meaning in a dictionary. Why has this happened?
- k Tell the children one of the stories of how language originated, for example "The Tower of Babel" or the story of the Choctaw Indians. Record with pictures and writing. What do they think about these stories?
- l Identify the monolingual and bilingual children in the class. Can anyone speak three languages? The advantages of being multi-lingual. Find countries in the world where the people are bilingual. Are there reasons for this? Have some languages a greater status than others? Why?
- m "Language tasters" - use staff/child/parent expertise and any help available from the local comprehensive school to introduce a series of "language tasters" to the children.

The children might learn how to count to ten, ask someone's name, greet people or say goodbye. They might learn something connected with a relevant topic, for example they might learn to ask for a railway ticket in another language when studying a topic on transport.

5 Written language

- a Differences between spoken and written language. Let the children work in pairs to find as many differences as they can. Then collate all that has been found out.
- b Put the children in a role play situation so that one child has to write down the conversation of the other children. List the advantages and disadvantages of the written and spoken word.
- c What do we write? What are letters, words, sentences and paragraphs? How many can we find on a page, on five pages? Record on charts and graphs.
- d What relationship is there between letters and sounds? Can we make any rules? Let the children work some of them out.
- e How do people write in other languages? Can anyone in the class write another language? Identify any differences, such as right/left orientation, above or below the line, top of the page to the bottom, different letter formation, or different letters. Use of Braille.
- f Word order - are words put in different orders in different languages? Can the children give any examples from their own language? Can we make any rules about this? Is there any patterning?
- g How did people write in the past? Give examples of pictographic, cuneiform, hieroglyphic and alphabetic writing. In pairs, let the children invent their own method of written communication. Let them write out a code for it so that the rest of the class can decipher it afterwards.
- h Reading and writing for a purpose - different forms of writing - prose, poetry, fact, fiction, drama, jokes, poems, riddles, timetables, cartoon strips, advertisements. These can be discussed and attempts made to write in different ways with the children working in pairs.
- i Finding things out from writing - use of index, table of contents, encyclopaedias, timetables, dictionaries.

APPENDIX O (cont)

- j Writing in the twentieth century - use of "Factfile" on the computer to store information. Use of the word processor to write a story. Printing a newspaper on the computer. Let the children make use of these if available.

FRAMEWORK FOR LEARNING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

1 Use of language - self maintaining

a Identification of self

Who are you?	I'm
What's your name?	My name/It is
Is your name ?	Yes, it is/No it isn't
Are you ?	Yes I am.
Where do you live?	I live at
Do you live at ?	Yes/No.

Vocabulary: Questions - what? where? who? Pronoun - I,
Verb - to be.

b Referring to needs

What is it?	It's a
What do you want?	I want/don't want Please may I have?
Do you/Don't you want?	Yes/No. Can I please have that?

Vocabulary: around classroom, school and for personal
possessions; the articles, a, an, the; the negative
form of the verb.

It is better to teach the contracted form of the verb, eg
'it's and don't, as that is how most people speak. Then
draw attention to the extended form later.

Pronouns - this, that.

c Protection of self and self interests

Where are you?	I'm here.
What's the matter?	I need
Which do you like?	I like
Is this yours?	It's my book/mine.

Is this book yours? This/That is mine.

There it is. It's there.

How old are you? I'm

Vocabulary: commands as they are used by staff and around the school, eg come here, go away, stand still, line up, make a line, wash your hands, don't do that, bring a, fetch me the, Extension of vocabulary around school to the playground, and immediate school environment. Introduction to number and counting. Use of some and there. Pronoun - you.

d Justifying behaviour or claims

Where have you been? I've been

How are you? I'm better/sick.

Why did you do that? I was

Can you find? No I can't/Yes I can.

Where's your pencil? It's lost.

Have you lost a ruler? Yes/No.

Do you feel sick? Yes I do/No I don't.

Are you going home? Yes I am/No I'm not.
I'm right/wrong.

Why are you late? I was asleep.

Vocabulary: prepositions - at, in, on, into, up, down, under, over, in front, behind, through.

Adjectives - better, good, bad, sick, right, wrong.

Verbs - lose, find, take, give, write, read, make, point, do, go, come, talk, like, listen, walk, run, draw, open, close, sleep, wake.

Pronouns - these and those, he, she, it.

Question - How? Why?

e Judging Others

Is it/he/she? He/she/it's

Are they? Yes, they are

Is it his/hers/theirs? It is his/hers/theirs.

What are they doing? They are writing.

Whose are these/those?	They are theirs.
What are they?	They are
What has he/she made?	He/she has made
What have they painted?	They have painted
Do you like	Yes I do/No I don't.
	It's Samina's picture.

Vocabulary: for homes, shops and people's occupations.
Use of the possessive - Samina's picture.

Adjectives - small, big, tall, fat, thin, pretty, long, short.

f Asserting superiority of self and group

Who's got all the crayons?	We have.
Do you think you can	Yes, we can.
Are you all going to	Yes, we are.
How can we win that game?	We can
Please can we finish?	
Whose are these?	They are ours.
Whom do they belong to?	
Is ours better?	No it's not/Yes it is.
	I am better than you.
	I am taller but he is stronger.

Vocabulary: adjectives - opposites - fast/slow, old/young, heavy/light, wide/narrow, rough/smooth, hard/soft.

Comparative adjectives - fast/faster, slow/slower.

Conjunctions - and, but, then.

2 Use of language - directing

a Monitoring own actions

What are you doing?	I'm painting and drawing
Are you reading?	Yes I am/No, I'm not.
Where are you going?	I'm going to

Tell me what you're doing.

What's the picture you're painting.

Vocabulary: present continuous - I am reading, talking, writing, painting, drawing, running, shopping, hopping, swimming, helping, using, doing, going, sewing, cooking, finding.

Extension of vocabulary - I'm reading
I'm reading a book
I'm reading a book in the library.

b Directing the actions of self

Let me do that please.

May I do that please?

Please can I do that?

Can I do that?

I want to paint please.

Am I going to go

No you're not ... / Yes you are ...

Have I got to go

Yes you have.

Are you going up or down?

I am going down.

How are you going to make it?

With flour and water.

What are you going to do?

I'm going to ... and...

Can you do it by yourself?

I can do it by myself.

Where can you find

I can find it at home.

Vocabulary: adverbs of place - backwards, forwards, left, right, ahead, sideways.

Conjunction - "or".

Future tense - by using "going to".

Extension of vocabulary - especially in cooking and PE lessons.

c Directing the actions of others

Do/don't do that.

Come and get the ball.

Go and play with

What are they doing?

They are

What are they going to do?	They are going to
Are they going to	Yes they are/No they're not.
Who are they painting with?	They are painting by themselves.
Can they do it?	Yes they can/No they can't.
You can work together or do it by yourself.	

d Collaborating in the actions of others

What shall we do?	Let's play
What are we going to do?	We're going to
Shall we do it together?	Yes/No.
Are we all going to	Yes we are / No, we're not
Have we got any	Yes, we have.
How can we do that?	We can
Can we help	Yes, we can/no
Who did that?	We all did it.

Let's not do it on our own; let's make it together.

When can we go out? It's sunny and we can all go out now.

Vocabulary: verbs for decision making - plan, decide, agree, allow, let, think, make up your mind, all, all of us, together, altogether.

Vocabulary for weather.

Pronouns - we, they.

Question - When?

3 Use of language - reporting

a Labelling items

What is this/that/these/those

Some of these

A jar of

A pair of

Any kind of

A box of

A packet of	A bucket of
A bag of	A set of
What do you think it is?	I think it's a
What can you see?	I can see a
What have you got?	I've got
Are you sure it's	Yes, I am.

Vocabulary: extend to nouns through the curriculum including nouns expressing quantity, eg jar, packet, and also lists of things, eg pen, pencil, ruler and rubber.

b Referring to details

What colour is it?
How big is it?
What shape is it?
How heavy is it?
Describe the / What's it like?
Tell me something about
Tell me more about
You haven't told me enough about
Will it bounce/float/roll?
How does it move?

Vocabulary: adjectives for touch, size, colour, shape and weight and listing of adjectives.

Adverbs of manner - slowly, quickly.

c Referring to incidents

What did you do when?
Do you remember?
When you were with what did you do?
Where did they go on Monday?
What were you doing at six o'clock?
What happened after dinner?

Did you see what they were drawing?

What did they do wrong?

Vocabulary: days of the week and months of the year, telling the time.

Adverbs of time - presently, lately, eventually.

Verbs - Simple past tense - bought, climbed, ran etc.

Nouns - today, yesterday, last year, last month, the week before last, the day before yesterday, last night, this morning, this afternoon.

d Referring to sequence of events

What did you do next?	Next I
Then what happened?	Then it
What happened after that?	After that we
Then what?	Later he
What follows	Afterwards
Does this come next?	Yes, it does.
After that, where did you go?	We went
Before that, what	Before that he
	Lastly she

Vocabulary: at the beginning, to start with, finally, in the end, first, second, third, firstly, secondly, thirdly, in the first place, next time, next day, next week, three days ago, five weeks ago, six days since, one year after.

Vocabulary for simple sequencing.

e Making comparisons

Which one is big/bigger/biggest?

Which is the biggest?

Who is taller?

Which is the smallest shoe?

Which of these is the heavier?

Is there less/more in this box than that?

By how much/how many?

How much/many more do you need?

Is this heavier than that or not?

Can the man walk faster than the boy?

Vocabulary: comparison of adjectives - small, smaller, smallest - comparison of adverbs - slowly, more slowly, most slowly - comparisons for subject areas eg maths and science.

Tense - simple present - I need

f Recognising related aspects

Are they the same? Yes they seem to be.
Yes they are/No they're not.
They look the same.

Are they similar? They are because

Are they both from the same place?

Are they the same size? This is not the same as

Are these all alike?

What differences can you find? One is but the other is

What similarities are there? They are both

Should these go together? No, they are separate.

Can you distinguish between and

Do they belong to the same set? Neither belongs to the blue set because

Vocabulary: bigger than, smaller than.

Conjunctions: neither/nor, either/or, because.

g Extracting the central meaning

What does it mean?

What was the story about?

What's the main idea?

Is that the point?

What was the girl thinking?

Did it really seem as if

Children should be able to extract the main idea from a short story, comprehension exercise, topic work and science experiment.

h Reflecting on the meaning of experiences and feelings

Because happened she was miserable.

After she blamed her friends.

As he was hurt, they

Neither of us liked, as we

Before it was locked away, they could

Vocabulary: use of clauses to extend length of sentences.

4 Use of language - towards logical reasoning

a Explaining a process

How do you get to the fire station please?

How do you play this game?

How did he make this model?

Explain how you do this sum, please.

Tell me how you made these cakes.

What happens next?

What did you put into the bowl?

Can you describe how?

Did she do this because?

Vocabulary: across the curriculum.

b Recognising causes and dependent relationships

When the computer broke down, they had to

Can you give reasons for this?

Why did this happen?

After that, what could happen?

If, what will happen next?

Because you did that, you can't expect

It got broken because

If you started it, then you must finish it.

Vocabulary: future tenses. Practice with adjectival and adverbial clauses and phrases.

c Justifying judgements and actions

Why is this right/wrong?

Why did you decide to?

What reasons can you give for?

Why did you do that when you knew it was not yours?

What will you do if?

How will this work if?

How did you find the answer?

Can you tell me why you did that?

d Reflecting on events and drawing conclusions

What could you have done?

What would you have done?

When happened, what should you have done?

Where should it have been when?

Why shouldn't he do this if?

How could she find it if?

Vocabulary: the conditional tense - If I were

c Recognising principles

They may be wrong because

This is acceptable if

You can't have it because

It is better to do this because

Why do you think they did the right thing?

Vocabulary: for behavioural and moral issues and attitudes in school, in books, on television, etc.

5 Use of language - predicting

This includes forecasting of actions and details, forecasting a sequence of events, and forecasting problems and their solutions.

What would you do if

What will you have to do before you start?

Where are you going to be after that

How are they going to finish

Do you think we should

Does she feel they ought to

What choice have we got?

What do they need to do?

I think that maybe

Either we could or we could

If we wanted, we could and and

When we start to lose, I shall

I feel we ought to

We need to be able to

Vocabulary: use of auxiliary verbs, could, ought, should, might.

6 Use of language - projecting

Projecting into the experiences and feelings of others, and into situations never experienced.

What might happen if we can't find

As they are so happy, will they be able to

Where will they go when they leave home?

Do you think they might get lost if

What would you do if you lived in London?

If we don't go what will they think?

I think they like that book because

If I were rich like him I would

Because she is so old, I think she ought to

As he has so much spare time, he can

You have broken it, so you will have to

7 Use of language - imagining

Developing an imaginary situation based on real life, on fantasy and developing a story that might be a combination of both.

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