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READING MISCUE INVENTORY AND ITS POSSIBLE USES WITH HEBREW INSTRUCTION AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE FOR READERS IN A HEBREW DAY SCHOOL

The Reading Miscue Inventory (RMI) is a means to evaluate an individual's weaknesses and strengths in the reading process. From the Reading Miscue Inventory, a teacher is able to develop strategy lessons to help the student improve in areas that s/he is weak. It is suggested that the Reading Miscue Inventory would be useful within Jewish day schools for Hebrew reading instruction of English speaking students. It is further suggested that the Reading Miscue Inventory would provide educators with information about students learning to read Hebrew and English. Taking into account the background of the students, the interrelationship of Hebrew and English and the students' interaction with Hebrew as an oral and written language, educators will be able to improve their reading instruction.

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READING MISCUE INVENTORY
AND
ITS POSSIBLE USES WITH HEBREW INSTRUCTION
AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE
FOR
READERS IN A HEBREW DAY SCHOOL

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

General Background Information

Jewish education in the United States began with the earliest settlers--the Spanish and the Portuguese, and first consisted only of tutorial teaching. Slowly schools were established. In the first half of the nineteenth century, there were day schools and Sunday schools, with most training based around a Bar-Mitzvah education. In the 1880's, with a large number of Jews immigrating to the United States who wanted to maintain their culture, Hebrew schools and secular schools were established. World War II, large numbers of immigrants, and the establishment of Israel all had a positive influence on Jewish education in the United States. By February, 1974, eighty-two thousand children were enrolled in Jewish day schools. In 1974, there were two-hundred and forty-two elementary schools and one-hundred and forty high schools. (Hodes)

Today, the number of children enrolled in Jewish day schools is on the rise due to a combination of factors. For most of these children within day school settings, Hebrew is a second language or rather a foreign language for they will speak, read, write and hear Hebrew only during school hours and specific synagogue activities. This paper will deal with these children who on coming to Hebrew day schools are confronted with half of their day, for the most part, being conducted

in Hebrew. Specifically, this paper will delve into one part of learning a foreign language: children's acquisition of the ability to read Hebrew. Within this broad category, one system of analyzing children's reading will be explained with its possible uses in Hebrew, specifically with children learning Hebrew as a foreign language within the Hebrew day school.

Theoretical Base

Learning to read a foreign language is different than learning to read in a native language, yet, one is not in the situation of learning to read all over again. How an individual gains meaning from print in his/her native language is similar to the strategies s/he uses in reading a second or foreign language. Catherine Buck writes, "There is considerable evidence to demonstate that people learn to read only once, whatever the language of that first literacy may be." (p. 91) One must also consider that every language does have its specific reading strategies, but the basic process of gaining meaning from the graphic stimuli is the same in all languages.

Noam Chomsky divides language into two categories: (1) the physical aspect, which is derived from the surface structure and which includes sound waves and written marks, and (2) meaning, which is the deep structure and is the information gained from the surface structure. The link between the surface and the deep structure of language is syntax. The key, as stated by Noam Chomsky is, "Internalized lexicon and the graphic symbols, not grapheme-phoneme correspondences." (Kolers, p. 13)

We will start with the premise that reading is not a decoding process, but is is rather only "incidentally visual", and a complete "language process involving an interaction between language and thought." (Dubois, p. 4) The process does not involve automatic decoding but is continually testing hypotheses. Reading can be seen as a process of sampling, predicting, testing, confirming and revising, using the least amount of information possible. Using one view of reading, developed by Kenneth S. Goodman, this paper will suggest that much can be gained by looking at children's strategies in the reading process. The four strategies are (1) the sampling of graphic, syntactic and semantic cues, (2) the predicting of structure and meaning based on the sampling cues, (3) testing the prediction, and (4) confirming and correcting, if necessary, the prediction. Kenneth Goodman further divides these four basic strategies to enable the teacher to focus on the reader's system of gaining meaning from the text. The nine strategies are: (1) scanning each line from right to left and moving down the page, (2) fixing and focusing on a line of print, (3) selecting the key cues that will be most productive in the information processing, (4) predicting on the basis of grammar and developing a sense of meaning, (5) forming by selection and prediction of perceptual images, (6) searching in one's memory for phonological, syntactic and semantic related cues, (7) tentative choosing or guessing on the minimal cues, (8) testing tentative semantic, syntactic and grapho-phoneme cues, and (9) regressing to correct errors as recognized. (K. Goodman, 1970a)

The major objective in reading is comprehension. Hodes states, "Language is what reading is all about. Reading is the receptive process and its goal is comprehension." (p. 47) In the words of Kenneth Goodman, "All else is either a skill to be used in achieving comprehension, a subcategory of comprehension or a use to be made of comprehension." (1970a, p. 28) To achieve comprehension, the reader uses three cue systems--grapho-phonic, syntactic and semantic information. Grapho-phonic is information gained from the graphic and phonological system of oral language, as well as the interrelationship between these systems. Syntactic is the information gained from the grammatical structure which a reader has when s/he is familiar with the language. Semantic is the information gained through experiential and conceptual background to gain meaning from the context. It has been suggested that the importance of graphic cues may be reduced when using all three systems. If the reader does not have the necessary knowledge for reading a specific piece of work, s/he will not be able to grasp the meaning.

The reader is translating print through his/her own experiences and cognitive understanding. Therefore, the reading process is viewed as a psycholinguistic process, a view reflecting the interrelationship of language and thought. Allouche writes, "The psycholinguistic view emphasizes the reader's language knowledge and worldly experience more than precision in identifying written symbols." (p. 3) Reading is viewed by the psycholinguist as written language which communicates meaning

to the reader. The psycholinguistic theory of reading further includes the following three major points: (1) the printed page as only a small part of the information that a reader needs to read, (2) comprehension as preceding identification of individual words, and (3) reading as not decoding spoken language but rather testing hypotheses. In K. Goodman's words, "The reader actively participates in the reconstruction of meaning." (1973a, p. 22) The reader brings to this process, his/her linguistic, experiential, and conceptual development. The students' reading skills can be improved through his/her "Control over language structure, broadened experiences and increased conceptual development." (K. Goodman, 1967, p. 130)

The question to be addressed is how does a child reading his/her native language, resemble or differ from a child learning to read a second or foreign language? Do the same features of the reading process and cue systems apply to Hebrew as to other languages? Granted all readers use the four strategies of the reading process, yet there are added variables when a child is reading a language based on another culture. Catherine Buck writes,

> The reader's conceptual development, as well as his personal preferences within the culture plays an important role in this model of reading, greatly influencing his [her] ability to sample, predict, and test. (p. 91)

Therefore, an English speaking child learning to read Hebrew will be using the same cues but perhaps will have different weaknesses because of the distinctivess in background and culture of the reader and the author. Perhaps, too, reading Hebrew

as a foreign language will be different than reading other foreign languages. This paper hopes to shed light on these questions and to give the teacher of Hebrew a better understanding of what is happening to the child reading a foreign language--the identical elements, the differences, and the native language interferences in the process.

Operational Definitions

Dominant language: mother tongue or native tongue of the language user; the first language acquired by an individual

Second language: language acquired at the same time as one's mother tongue or at a later period in the culture of that second language milieu

Foreign language: language learned in an unnatural environment in which there is no reinforcement from the cultural milieu

Bilingual: ability to speak and understand two languages

Linguistic performance: what one does with the language

Linguistic competence: a speaker's underlying grasp of language rules which enable him/her to generate sentences that s/he has never heard before

Literate: ability to read and write the language in question

Psycholinguistics: description of language based on psychological and linguistic fields of knowledge

Phonology: system of rules determining pronunciation of printed language

Semantics: meaning component of language

Syntax: set of rules that determine the relationship between sound and print

Miscue: observed response during oral reading that does not correspond with the expected response

Observed response: actual response of the reader as s/he orally processes material which either matches or does not match expected responses

Expected response: anticipated production of items as they exactly appear in print

Retelling task: unaided retelling and answering open ended questions concerning the story

Purpose

The purpose of this research is to delve into one approach to analyzing the reading of students and to apply the extensive research done in the field of reading miscue analysis to native English speakers learning Hebrew as a foreign language within a religious day school setting. There are a variety of techniques, some better than others, to help children increase their reading ability both in a native language and in a foreign language. Miscue analysis is the technique used for this study because its purpose is to help teachers improve their ability to observe a child's interaction--strengths and weaknesses--with the printed language while keeping in mind the child's cultural and experiential background. The final outcome could be improved teaching strategies of Hebrew reading instruction.

This paper will also analyze the differences in English

and Hebrew with the goal in mind of being cognizant of English language interference when a child is reading Hebrew. For example, an obvious difference is directionality of the two languages--the left to right English span and Hebrew's right to left span. Do problems arise in the oral reading of the child as a result of confusion of the scanning direction?

The major goal is to help the reader gain meaning from the text, using all the cues available to him/her with the least amount of effort. The major goal in most cases of teaching reading is meaning and comprehension. This, though, is not the case in many Hebrew afternoon schools where reading Hebrew is actually merely producing sounds based on graphic cues. Therefore, analyzing the possibilities of miscue analysis can only be done in a day school setting where the ending goal of the Hebrew language reading program is comprehension. Romirowsky states, "Our major goal in the teaching of Hebrew in our schools in this country is reading." (p. 5) If this is the case, a greater emphasis must be placed on the children's acquisition of reading skills that will enable them to attain a meaning base for Hebrew reading.

The major question that is being asked is how does a child's miscues affect his/her reading ability and how can the Hebrew teacher build a program for the child using the Reading Miscue Inventory. By analyzing the child's miscues the teacher will have insights into the general oral reading process, the child's reading strategies while processing the written material, and how the reader handles unfamiliar textual material.

The goal of this paper is seen as the first step in the process of describing possible oral reading miscues of English speaking children reading Hebrew, to determine the relationship of these miscues to reading comprehension, and to identify reading miscues that reflect English language interference. It is hoped that the values of the Reading Miscue Inventory in analyzing children's reading in English and as used in other language studies will be seen as an asset to Hebrew day schools for use as a diagnostic and prescriptive instrument.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In studying children reading a foreign language, it is possible to take what we know of native language learning and apply this knowledge to foreign language learning realizing that specific differences emerge in "language competence, memory span and native language influence." (Yorio, p. 107) Sarah Lopez showed,

> These factors may affect the reader's ability to sample, predict and confirm his [her] hypotheses in reading, but do not necessarily cause him [her] to abandon such strategies. (p. 736)

Foreign and Second Language Instruction

The same reading strategies used by a native reader may cause difficulties for a non-native reader. For example, the reader may have trouble knowing what to sample from the print. S/he may not be able to predict the structure and/or meaning of the new language. Testing, in the sense of knowing what makes sense or sounds like the language being read, may cause added difficulties. Confirming the correctness of the language may be a problem because the reader makes wrong confirmations or is unable to make confirmations as the language is still too new. Finally, the reader may not know s/he made a miscue or how to correct this miscue.

A major problem for second language readers is control over the grammar system. Therefore, most educators agree that

the first step to reading a foreign language is familiarity with the oral level--listening and speaking--of the language. The reader must have the syntactic and the semantic elements on the oral level in order to gain the ability to comprehend written language rather than to merely call out letters, sounds, and words.

Catherine Buck suggests that learning to read for the foreign language learner is more than new sounds, new graphic shapes and their relationship. Rather, reading and accompanying problems are also the result of what the individual is bringing to the foreign language process, unfamiliarity and interferences of the individual's native language with the foreign language and the reader's interaction with the psycholinguistic process.

The problems in learning to read a second language or a foreign language are numerous. Languages have varied systems of writing. For example, Chinese has an ideographic writing system and must be read from top to bottom; Hebrew has a system in which vowels are normally not represented and is read from right to left; and English includes vowels and consonants, and is read from left to right.

The writing system can be divided into three divisions--the reader's input, the author's input and the reading process itself. The reader's input includes his/her control of the syntax and the vocabulary. Also involved are the reader's personal experiences within his/her own culture as well as the student's conceptual ability. If for example the reader is

unfamiliar with the graphophonic cues of a language, there can be confusion as in the case of an English speaker learning Hebrew when s/he is not familiar with the letters and the directionality. There also my be difficulties with the syntactic cues such as word order and inflections. Interpreting the semantic cues causes another problem. It is possible that a reader may understand all of the lexical items but may not be able to put all of the components together. For example, the reader may find that certain words have various meanings dependent on its place in the sentence and its context. The same word or phrase may have contrasting connotations when translated into another language, as well; for example, the humor being different from language to language. Another possibility is that the reader may be able to make sense of the literal meaning of a passage but not understand the author's point of view.

Kenneth Goodman states, "The essential characteristics of the reading process are universal." (1970b, p. 100) Therefore, when analyzing foreign language readers, the same psycholinguistic theories can be used. The foreign language reader samples the graphic, syntactic, and semantic aspects but does not always know where the greatest amount of information is to be found. Native language readers use cues interdependently and may use the syntactic and semantic cues so extensively that the graphic cues are used only minimally.

Frank Smith in a 1971 study (Allouche, p. 15) shows that a slow or cautious reader, either reading his/her native language or a foreign language, who exclusively pays attention

to the graphic information may lose information and show a loss of comprehension because of an inability to integrate the material at a fast enough speed so that it is not lost from short term memory. Since it takes a fourth of a second to process information into sensory storage, short term memory can hold only four or five separate items. Therefore large units of information, rather than letters, must be processed so that the semantic and syntactic information is not lost to the reader. Prediction is an important aspect of this "chunking" process. A fluent reader pays minimal attention to the graphics of print because of physical limitations.

A reader predicts, but may not be able to guess the structure or the meaning, or may resort to his/her own native language. The reader therefore needs familiarity with the grammatical patterns so s/he can indeed predict what may appear on the printed page.

> Students who are asked too early in their learning of English will be unable to predict at all, or will wrongly predict due to native language interference, or will learn to chant orally words they get no sense from. (K. Goodman, 1973b, p. 95)

Readers also test what they read, but foreign language readers may not recognize whether their reading sounds like the language being read or the written code makes sense. To confirm what is being read, the reader must focus on comprehending the written words. Unless a reader is strengthened in his/her comprehension ability, s/he may incorrectly confirm out of unfamiliarity and/or as a result of native language interference. The new reader of a foreign language may incorrectly work out a

problem with the text or not know how to go about correcting this problem.

The importance of the semantic process of reading was shown in a study by Kolers in 1966 when bilingual subjects were asked to read passages in French and English. At the conclusion of the reading, the readers were able to tell what they had read but not whether English or French was used to tell a specific fact. Therefore, the conclusion was made that reading is more of a semantic than a graphic process.

Hebrew Language Reading

Listening and reading, and their interrelationship is recognized by most educators. Eliezer Ehrmann states in relationship to Hebrew reading for English speakers, "Reading is a frustrating exercise unless considerable oral ability has been previously acquired." (p. 37) Leah Romirowsky agrees with the majority of educators that a substantial oral Hebrew base must come before reading or children will be "deciphering" rather than reading. Before a beginning student reads a story, s/he must have related associations and/or personal experiences to relate to this print. The vocabulary must first be known in an oral context.

According to Rosen and Nudelman, children need to understand and speak Hebrew before attempting to read Hebrew. They thereby propose the aural-oral approach. They believe that one year of intensive oral instruction is a prerequisite to reading. (Mann, p. 17) They further define the need for a

listening vocabulary to be between 600-1000 words and a sight and meaning vocabulary to be at a minimum of 75-100 words in order for the children to be ready to read. Despite defining a minimum sight word vocabulary, Rosen and Nudelman feel that children are being overly trained in phonics and sight recognition. They should rather be trained in using contextual clues, dictionary skills, and the structural analysis of words.

A few studies have been done in connection with orthography and the line of direction. The significant cues for Hebrew are on the bottom of a line of print while for English they are on the top. Native English readers therefore usually perceive Hebrew supra-linear vowels before sublinear vowels. Hebrew readers are also right primacy while English readers are left primacy. Therefore, specific miscues by English speakers of Hebrew texts may very well result from a left primacy.

Hebrew studies based on psycholinguistics have been descriptive and have dealt primarily with native Hebrew speakers. These studies are supportive of English reading research. In 1973, Venezsky did a study on one hundred and thirty Israeli elementary school children. He concludes,

> Letter-sound ability appears to be a good predictor of later reading success when children have just mastered the basic mechanics of the reading process; however, when the beginning phase is ended, the predictive power of letter-sound ability decreases. (p. 9)

Venezsky believes that the reason for this change is due to the growing importance of syntactic and semantic factors rather than reliance on letter-sound relationships. The results of Venezsky's study concerning Hebrew letter-sound correspondence

and reading ability are supported by previous studies that he conducted in English and Finnish. These studies show that the correlations are moderate and that other variables must be accounted for in different reading abilities. Venezsky also concludes in his Hebrew study that Israeli children concentrated more on the context and word shape when reading unvocalized Hebrew texts in contrast to vocalized texts.

Amir-Coffin in a 1975 study writes that since Hebrew is a consonatal alphabet, the context in addition to control of the vocabulary and grammatical knowledge becomes of primary importance. She also found that college students studying Hebrew could gain full use of the context by scanning the material. This became an aid to the larger structure and to comprehension. Coffin and Schramin in a 1971 study conclude that a variety of exercises in grammar are necessary for the development of reading cues.

Catherine Buck emphasizes that the teacher has the responsibility to be cognizant of the students' cultural backgrounds when teaching a foreign language. Teachers must always be aware that reading includes the graphic, syntactic and semantic abilities, and one cannot assume that a problem is due to only one of these systems. Catherine Buck writes positively of students' problems learning to read a foreign language. She states, "A students's reading difficulties are evidence that he [she] is an effective user of another language." (p. 96) While being sensitive to a child's knowledge of a native writing, grammar, and semantic system, a teacher must also be aware of differences in the new language being learned.

Miscue Analysis Research

Diagnosis, as an aid to reading instruction, is of primary importance in developing an understanding of the reader and his/her use of reading strategies. The Reading Miscue Inventory (RMI) is a diagnostic and evaluative tool which aids the teacher in recognizing a student's miscues.

> Deviations in oral reading are called miscues to suggest that they are not random errors but, in fact, are cued by the thought and language of the reader in his [her] encounter with the written material. (Y. Goodman and Burke, 1972, p. 5)

Miscue analysis compares expected oral responses to observed responses. Using miscue analysis, the teacher is able to observe the interactive process of the reader with the written language.

The RMI helps the teacher in examining why a reader makes certain miscues, and how and what strategies to provide in order to increase the student's proficiency with the written code. The teacher gains specific information from the student's reading profile to provide a personalized reading program. The RMI is based on the assumption that the reading program's goal is to enable students to understand what they read, enjoy reading, and to want to read independently.

Miscue analysis enables the teacher to qualitatively analyze and to assess the reader's use of the cuing systems. The number of miscues that a reader makes is unimportant, but rather the essence of miscue analysis is how the reader uses the graphic, syntactic and semantic cues, and how s/he self-

corrects. Whether reading correctly or making miscues, readers use the same processes and cues.

Added to the reader's linguistic background, miscue analysis takes account of the student's conceptual level and previous experiences. The three cuing systems should always be at work, but the goal is to have a skillful reader who is able to reduce the visual information yet still gain meaning from the text. All readers, even proficient readers, make miscues when reading orally. As a reader gains confidence, s/he will guess more, make stronger predictions, and be able to process more contextual clues.

The four basic assumptions of the RMI are: 1) all readers bring an oral language system to the reading process, 2) all readers bring a sum total of past experiences to the reading process, 3) the written material represents the author's past experiences and language patterns, and 4) reading is the active language process involving the constant interaction between reader and text. (Y. Goodman and Burke, 1972, p. 10) Miscue analysis is based on a psycholinguistic view of reading which sees language as an active process.

Miscue analysis was used as a research tool in the early 1960's. Studies have analyzed miscues in relation to style, difficulty of print, age, proficiency and ethnic background of the reader. Case studies and longitudinal research have been conducted. Studies using the Goodman Taxonomy of Reading Miscues in English have also included analysis of the following relationships: the number of miscues to comprehension

and to recall, miscues in the beginning and the conclusion of a story, prior conceptual knowledge of oral miscues to silent reading, purposeful reading to the quality of miscues, and low proficiency to high proficiency readers processing language. A number of studies have compared children with different dialects reading standard English and non-standard English texts. Researchers have also observed children who are perceptually handicapped.

Miscue Analysis Using Second and Foreign Language Readers

The Reading Miscue Inventory (RMI) is flexible enough to work with non-native English speakers and languages other than English. The number of studies in other languages is increasing and comparisons are being done. There is ample proof that first-language readers reading a second language begin to guess more, make stronger predictions, and gain more contextual clues as they gain confidence. Romatowski also reconfirmed a conclusion reached with English speakers reading their native language: the number of miscues produced by bilingual children has no direct relationship to comprehension. Rather, cues to the children's comprehension ability could be observed by examining the quality of the miscues and their retelling.

As mentioned previously, all readers produce miscues based upon the same criteria. Second-language and foreign-language readers, will produce additional miscues because of the differences in what the reader brings to the process, because of his/her unfamiliarity with the cues or interferences with the native language, and finally because the interaction

of these psycholinguistic processes is what reading is all about.

Most of the research dealing with second language learners and foreign language learners was based on methodological and linguistic concerns rather than the process as a whole. There has been very little research in this area on a theoretical or applied level. The studies that have been done using the psycholinguistic phenomenon as a base seem to support native language research.

A number of studies conclude that native language reading instruction should come prior to second language instruction. Phyllis Hodes, though, states, "Significant conclusions cannot be reached from these observations. Moreover, they may balance out with time." (p. 52) More research needs to be done in this area.

There are numerous studies in miscue analysis in the area of bilingual and foreign language reading. A number of the relevant studies will be mentioned. Edward Allen in a 1976 study researched French as a foreign language using third year high school students. He concludes that foreign language reading using the miscue inventory confirms that the same reading strategies are at work as in first language reading. Allen makes the following implications for instruction. The goal in reading instruction is meaning. Therefore, students should be asked to predict and anticipate what will follow and to find contextual clues for unknown words. Students should be provided with predictable, semantic patterns. Finally, asking

students to read orally what they have not prepared is counter-productive because they will pay attention to the sound/symbol relationship rather than to the meaning. Biemiller in a 1970 study using beginning foreign language readers also found similar phases in reading development. These students used context and more graphic information than skilled readers.

Catherine Buck studied non-native speakers of English leaning to read English as a second language. She found that the acquisition of this new language involved more than new graphic shapes and/or directionality. Again, she found the reader's input, the author's input and the reading process to be involved with language control. Cultural expectations were found to affect foreign language reading and the miscues produced. She concludes that sampling, predicting, testing, confirming and correcting are all different when a reader is unfamiliar with the language and the culture.

Diane Dubois conducted a two-year longitudinal study of Navajo second language learners reading English. She used miscue analysis and personal interviews in conducting her research. The differences in the cultural aspects are of extreme importance in this study for the students had not chosen to assimilate but were rather forced to study in boarding schools. The children produced second language-involved miscues throughout the study. When the stories being read related to the children's background, they produced more second language-involved miscues. Diane Dubois suggests that the greater number of second language influenced miscues in the culturally

relevant material may be due to feeling freer with the language when reading material that is meaningful to their lives. She suggests that more research is needed in this area. Dubois found that the children understood culturally relevant stories better than basal readers as evidenced by miscues per hundred words, by mean comprehension scores, and by retelling rates. She concludes that the children must know that reading needs to make sense and this must be the goal of the program. She writes,

> If the only concept that Navajo children have regarding the reading process is that the purpose of reading is to produce acceptable English words, then this researcher believes that the acquisition of English literacy has no value to these people. (p. 262)

Goodman and Goodman studied four second-language groups learning to read English. All the groups were within the United States and each used English differently within their culture. The groups included Texas-Spanish, Arabic, Navajo, and Hawaiian-Samoan. All the children learned some control of English and some ability to read. Between the different cultural groups, there were sharp distinctions in the way the children read a second language. Within all of the cultural groups, there was evidence in the students' reading of first language and transitional forms of English. The researchers state, "As with our dialect groups we must say that the single process by which meaning is constructed comes through clearly in these second language readers." (p. 6-2) Individual variations reflected the children's linguistic and cultural background, but these differences are "constrained by the realities of the process,

the psycholinguistic strategies and cue systems of reading." (Goodman and Goodman, p. 6-2)

All of the second and foreign language studies, despite their confirmations of native language, miscue analysis research, show evidence of the need for further investigation to understand foreign language and second language reading development.

Miscue Analysis in Yiddish and Hebrew

The research in miscue analysis in Yiddish and Hebrew is very limited, and therefore the two languages are being presented in the same section. Phyllis Hodes did a study of Yiddish-English bilingual children in 1976. The children involved in the study came from Hassidic backgrounds. Hodes found a questioning influence of one language on the other language. She found that the children's oral reading did not always give a true picture of how much children understood. She concluded that there was a relationship between the type of miscue and comprehension but that the quantity of miscues was not related to the amount of English instruction or to the comprehension scores. These results are in agreement with previous native and second language studies.

Since Yiddish has a higher sound to symbol relationship than English, Hodes found that Yiddish miscues were closer to the expected response. These results, though, show that the overuse of graphophonic strategies was not productive in terms of comprehension. She writes, "They felt no great need for their oral reading to sound like natural language." (p. 215) Hassidic training of children gives a low priority to reading

for meaning.

The study also showed, "No significant influence on reading efficiency because of an alphabetic or directional switch." (Hodes, p. 207) Once a child began reading, there was not a directional problem in either English or Yiddish. This is in agreement with Kenneth Goodman's research in which he states,

> Whether the graphic sequence is from left to right, right to left, or top to bottom would be of little consequence to the basic reading process...Readers can tolerate a great deal of irregularity, ambiguity and variability in orthography without the reading process suffering. (1970b, p. 108)

The absence of vowels in Yiddish had no significant carry-over to English reading. Kenneth Goodman writes concerning universals of the reading process: "Readers learn to rely more heavily on consonants...they use vowel letters only when other information is inadequate." (1970b, p. 109)

Most of the research in reading with languages of different alphabets have tended to deal with graphic symbols rather than processes leading to comprehension and higher cognitive processes which are being researched in native language reading. Edith Allouche researched miscue analysis in relation to the oral reading of vocalized and unvolcalized Hebrew texts to compare full and reduced graphic systems. She examined the graphic role in facilitating comprehension. Her comparative research was based on the reality that most of Hebrew adult reading, with the exception of the classical texts, is written without vowels.

For her study, she used second and fourth year students attending afternoon Hebrew school. Her hypothesis was that

by reducing the graphic display, the vocalization, students would have to rely more on syntactic and semantic cues. The culture and the students' lack of interaction with Hebrew outside of this supplementary, eight-hour per week school are of primary consideration in such a study.

Edith Allouche found that the children's ability to correct miscues was influenced by their foreign language vocabulary and their confidence in learning Hebrew. She suggests that the children's comprehension and grammatical strength were facilitated by vowels as a result of the children's attempts to correct themselves. She deduces that the ability to correct miscues leads to more effective reading strategies. Surprisingly, the second year students paid more attention to meaning, and gave more real word substitutions, semantic acceptability, and "no meaning" changes than the fourth year students. Allouche believes this phenomenon is due to a greater emphasis on fourth year students to produce clear, fluent reading in preparation for their Bar or Bat Mitzvah. Goodman and Burke refer to readers that read purely by graphonic cues as "word-bound" readers and clarify that this is especially common when reading in two languages. (1972, p. 11)

The study concludes that reducing the graphic display does not cause students to be more efficient in the use of the other cuing systems. Children reading vocalized texts did produce differences in the areas of correction, grammatical strength and comprehension. When reading unvocalized texts, children produced a greater number of miscues per one hundred words and

a greater graphophonic similarity. The study results, though, do not imply that the vocalized texts enable the students to be more effective readers but rather that the students are simply producing less miscues per hundred words.

The limitations in this research are numerous. The afternoon Hebrew school only meets eight hours per week, and of this time only sixty-five percent is spent on Hebrew instruction. Further, the sample size is small and the text material was not chosen randomly, and therefore, may not be applicable to other written material. Finally, the novelty of reading unvocalized Hebrew for the first time is limiting because the students did not have a chance to develop new strategies of reading the unvocalized material before the evaluation.

CHAPTER III

DIAGNOSTIC INSTRUMENT

The Reading Miscue Inventory (RMI) is an aid in helping the teacher examine why a reader produces specific miscues. It is an individualized examination of a child's oral reading miscues, focusing attention on the quality of a child's miscues rather than on the quantity of miscues that a child produces. Since the aim of the reading process is meaning, all of a reader's miscues are seen in the light of whether his/her miscues interfere or do not interfere with comprehension of the material. For example, a child who reads כהלי for כהל is producing a qualitatively different miscue than a child who reads לבני for ללמוה.

The RMI is appropriate for readers of all ages and can be used for specific children within a class or the entire group. The RMI takes approximately thirty minutes to administer and one hour to prepare the reader profile, with less time necessary as the teacher becomes more familiar with the technique. The teacher, therefore, must determine its best usage, considering his/her time in relation to all of the children. An alternative method of administering the RMI is to train an aide, a para-professional or a parent to give the RMI. The teacher can then interprete the reader profile and develop strategy lessons.

The selection that the child reads is usually from fifteen

to twenty minutes in length and should be a complete story. Fifteen minutes may be too long for a beginning reader of a foreign language; ten minutes may be a sufficient length. The reading material must be a story or article that the student has not previously seen. The material should have a theme and a plot and should be of interest to the reader. The reading material chosen must be difficult enough that the student produces at least twenty-five miscues but not so difficult that the reading is frustrating. The teacher should have a series of stories available so that s/he may give a reader another selection, either of more or less difficulty, if the reading is too challenging or not sufficiently difficult for the student.

During the session, the child reads from the text while the teacher reads from a "worksheet copy" in which the page number and the line number are indicated on the worksheet. For example, 0313 refers to the third page, thirteenth line. The original format of the text is used for the worksheet. The last line of a page in the text is separated from the next page on the worksheet by a horizontal line. There should be enough space between the lines to write in all miscues. The worksheet becomes the record of the child's miscues.

The student is told exactly what to expect before the session is to begin. The child is to read the entire story aloud. If a student has trouble with any words, s/he should do the best s/he can in figuring it out. If the student is unable to read a word, s/he may skip over the word and continue.

During the entire session a tape recorder is used so that after the session the teacher can refer back to the tape if s/he was unable to catch all of the miscues. The tape recording is an invaluable tool to relisten to any or parts of the child's reading and retelling.

When a student has completed the reading, s/he is asked to retell the story in his/her own words. The student should be informed of the retelling before s/he begins reading. The teacher may ask who, what, when, and why questions to bring out as much information from the student as possible. Again, no clues or hints should be given. The wording of the questions should be asked so that no clues are suggested but rather the students' words should be used. The purpose of the retelling is to gain insight into

> The reader's ability to interrelate, interprete, and draw conclusions from the content. Sometimes, too, the retelling score reveals aspects of the silent reading process that were not clearly evident in the oral reading. (Y. Goodman and Burke, 1972, p. 23)

An outline of the material must be prepared by the teacher in advance. The reading material can be divided into two types--story material and instructional material. (See Appendix III) Each have a slightly different format. The story material includes character analysis, events, plot, and theme, whereas the informational material is divided into specifics, generalizations and major concepts. A child can receive a maximum score of one hundred points which should be divided equally within the categories, i.e. specifics, generalizations and major concepts. The teacher's outline should be used as

a checklist while the child is retelling the story in his/her own words. (See Appendix IV) The teacher should not interrupt the retelling; questions should be asked after the child has given his/her version of the material. The questions, based on the teacher's outline, should be aimed at gathering information that the child has not already expressed or information that needs further explanation. The questions should be general in content, should not give specific information that has not already been expressed by the reader, and should retain any mispronunciations and altered names that the reader uses. Questions prepared ahead of time are also helpful, but again, should only be used if needed for clarification or information gathering. The teacher must be neutral in his/her response. The teacher should not acknowledge the correctness or incorrectness of a child's statement, but rather should consistently show interest in what the child has to say.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE READING MISCUE INVENTORY

In analyzing the Reading Miscue Inventory (RMI), the teacher is organizing the student's miscues--involvement with the semantic, grammar and graphic/sound symbols divided into twenty-eight distinct variables. The first twenty-five to fifty miscues produced by the student are numbered on the worksheet and analyzed. The number of the miscue and the corresponding text item or clause are recorded on a special code sheet. Each miscue is analyzed by nine different questions. The nine questions involve: 1) dialect, 2) intonation, 3) graphic similarity, 4) sound similarity, 5) grammatical function, 6) correction, 7) grammatical acceptability, 8) semantic acceptability, and 9) meaning change. Each word is broken down into three parts--beginning, middle and end. If two of the three parts of the miscue are similar, there is a high degree of similarity--Y for yes; if one of the three parts of the miscue is similar, there is some degree of similarity--P for partial; and if none of the parts are similar, there is no degree of similarity--N for no. The appropriate box is checked--Y, P or N on the worksheet. There are two additional columns which when computed give a comprehension relationship and a grammar-meaning relationship. (See Appendix V) The coding sheet is computed into percentages and placed on a bar graph to give a pictoral representation of the students' reading strengths

and weaknesses. (See Appendix VI) When used regularly, the reading profile clearly shows a student's progress.

The reading profile pattern becomes the basis for planning a reading program for an individual student. Strategy lessons are developed with the major goal being that a student must make sense of his/her reading.

The reading strategy lessons are divided into three main sections which together represent the reading process. These strategies are predicting, confirming, and comprehending, and are used by all students with different amounts of success based on their maturity. Predicting refers to the reader's selection of material from the three language systems and his/her predictions or guesses from the material that s/he selects. Confirming is the reader's decision to accept or not accept his/her predictions as correct. The reader is essentially asking him/herself if what s/he is reading is language and if it makes sense. When the reader regresses over a word, phrase or sentence that s/he has read, s/he is correcting him/herself which is a crucial part in learning to read and in gaining meaning from the print. A study done by Marie Clay (1966) of one hundred urban New Zealand children during their first year of school showed the importance of regression in beginning readers. Observing these children, it is written,

> She felt children needed to make errors and correct them. She hypothesized that in the process of correcting their own errors, children seemed gradually to become aware of what they were doing and to be able to verbalize it. (Weintraub, p. 67)

If a child is unable to confirm his/her hypothesis, the reader

must learn to rethink the problem, find additional cues within the context, continue reading to find further clues, or stop reading because the material does not offer sufficient clues. The third strategy, comprehending, is used by the reader to develop and integrate the meaning of the written language.

The strategy lessons developed by the teacher are built on the reader's strengths that s/he takes to the printed page--his/her ability to predict, confirm, and comprehend oral, written and pictorial language cues. The teacher must provide the reader with a variety of written, contextual situations in order for the student to make full use of all possible cues. The reader is also given specific strategy lessons to focus on weaker areas in which the reader needs to improve his/her ability to predict, confirm or comprehend the written page. These weaknesses may be the result of environment, culture, and/or language.

Children learning a foreign language will have specific difficulties, and the teacher must compensate for these lacks. Students must be provided with ample opportunities for exposure to many different situations and cultural ideas before they are expected to read the printed page. As soon as possible, the reader must have opportunities to read independently and silently. "Reading is a private, individual and independent process, not a team 'sport'. Only two people, the reader and the author, can participate..." (Y. Goodman, Burke and Sherman, 1974, p. 22) Students who are given a great many

opportunities to read, will be most likely to read well. All children need a variety and repeated verbal experiences to recognize new vocabulary and concepts as they are approached in their reading. In the case of foreign language readers, their need for vocabulary and concept development as well as verbal experiences will be greater than students reading their native language.

CHAPTER V

RECOMMENDATIONS TO HEBREW TEACHERS TEACHING NATIVE ENGLISH SPEAKERS

When a native English speaker confronts Hebrew, s/he will be confronted with a different culture and history which will have an effect on the individual's relationship to the new language. The children in Hebrew day schools come from varied backgrounds, yet the majority are third or fourth generation in the United States. For the most part, the children's Hebrew background consists of hearing prayers in Hebrew at the synagogue and at home, and perhaps knowing a few Hebrew songs. Many children will come to school without even this limited background.

In the United States, children are confronted with a monolingual culture. This may be changing in certain areas, for example, with the large influx of people from Mexico into California. For the most part, children are from a culture where English is not only sufficient but superior for all of their communication needs. Children in the United States simply do not need another language. Within Hebrew day schools, there are children from Iran, Israel, the Soviet Union, South American countries, and Morocco, but these bilingual children are the minority. The backdrop for teaching Hebrew in the average Hebrew day school is a total surrounding environment

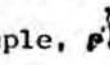
of English.

The Hebrew teacher must be aware of major differences in the languages that may cause the child problems. If the Hebrew-language teacher is cognizant of possible conflicts in the two languages, s/he will better understand the problems and be able to provide prior work in that area--whether relating to phonology, syntax, or comprehension.

Comprehension and understanding of the two cultures should not be a problem. Teachers do need, though, to be aware of both cultures in order to give students an understanding and awareness of the culture before they approach the written material.

Recommendations

Following is a short list of possible confusions that a beginning English speaking child of Hebrew may face. The teacher must not only be cognizant of these possible problems, but also must be prepared to integrate them into daily instruction, with special emphasis when teaching children to read.

1. Most obviously is the right to left progression of Hebrew in contrast to the left to right progression of English and the necessity for the eye to also go up and down in Hebrew: for example, 
2. Added to the thirty-one symbols in Hebrew, there are sixteen vocalization marks--seven long, five short, and four half-vowels. In modern Hebrew, there are certain vowels in some cases that have the same sound.

3. Two consonants can also have vowel sounds--"ו" and "י" as in "אור" and "קיר."
4. Out of twenty-two consonants in Hebrew, five have a different final form--ץ, ם, ף, ן and ך.
5. Many consonants have a similar shape--ח and ה, נ and ג, ר, ך, ד, ך and ו, צ and ע, ט and ם, ת and ת and ב.
6. There is no capitalization in Hebrew to give the child clues as to when one sentence begins or that a word is a proper noun.
7. A number of Hebrew consonants have the same sound-- and א, ו and ק, ת and ס and שׂ, while other Hebrew consonants are phonemically different depending on where they are place in a word-- בּ and ב, כּ and כ, and פּ and פ. Finally שׁ and שׂ are phonemically different depending upon the placement of the dot.
8. Certain Hebrew sounds are either not used in English or found in different places:

   "ר"--French or German uvullar trill, or Russian or Spanish fron trill,

   "ל"--as in "let, dental versus round sound like potato, and

   "ך", "כ", "ח"--as in Ba<u>ch</u>.
9. As in English, accents can change the meaning of a word. For example, חֶרֶשׁ (quietly) and חֵרֵשׁ (deaf), בִּירָה (beer) and בִּירָה (capital), and לִירוֹת (liras) and לִירוֹת (they shoot).
10. Hebrew orthography allows for two written forms:

a. "כתיב חסר" using vowels as in "קִבּוּץ" or "[illegible]", and

b. "כתיב מלא" using the letters "י" and "ו" as in "קיבוץ" or "[illegible]". For a non-native speaker, words without vowels may cause problems as in "כתב"--"כָּתַב" (he wrote), "כְּתָב" (handwriting) and "כַּתָּב" (reporter).

11. In Hebrew, unlike English, there are gender differences in nouns and pronouns (such as "this"--זה, זאת, אלה and אלו), plural and singular, and gender agreement in relation to nouns, verbs and adjectives.

12. The article "ה" has alternative pronunciations depending on the letter, and sometimes the combination of letter and vowel, following "ה".

13. Verbal forms are far more complex than in English. Every verb has a root and in modern Hebrew there are seven conjugation patterns--פָּעַל, נִפְעַל, פִּעֵל, פֻּעַל, הִפְעִיל, הֻפְעַל and הִתְפַּעֵל. There are four tenses in Hebrew--perfect, imperfect, active participle and imperative--and regular and irregular verbs.

14. Sentences in the present tense with a noun or an adjective used as a predicate do not take a "to be" verb as in English. For example, "שרה פקידה" is in English "Sarah is a clerk," or "הבית חדש" is translated "The house is new."

15. The particle "את" is used in a sentence involving "the" or "this" but not "a." For example: "הוא קורא ספר" (He reads <u>a</u> book.), הוא קורא את הספר (He reads <u>the</u>

book.) and . הוא קורא את הספר הזה (He reads this book).

16. Word order is different in Hebrew. For example, the noun precedes the adjective as in " בית גדול" (a big house).

17. There are five forms of the demonstrative pronoun which can be used as the subject of a sentence or as part of a phrase. For example-- זה הספר, זאת הבחורה, אלה הבנים, אלו הבחורות, זו הבחורה.

18. Since prepositions in Hebrew do not always correspond to the same English preposition and, therefore, are not translatable, prepositions must be taught with the verb in context of the sentence structure.

19. Negation can be divided into three categories:
    a. "לא" negates verbs, nouns, and adjectives,
    b. "אל" negates commands and instructions, and
    c. "אין" negates a סיגנון sentence in biblical Hebrew as in " אין הוא אומר אמת" and is found in "existential statements "in modern Hebrew as in " אין כסף".

20. Numbers are divided into ordinal and cardinal, and are further distinguished by masculine and feminine.

21. Letters in Hebrew can stand for numbers, as in י"ד בשבט meaning the fourteenth of Shevat.

22. Possessives can be attached to the noun as in "ספרי = הספר שלי" meaning "my book."

23. Similarly, the preposition "של" does not have to be used in the סמיכות form when there is a possessive relation as "בית - הורי = בית של הורי" meaning "my parents' house."

24. There are many Hebrew expressions that do not have an English alternative; for example "נשאר לי" (I have left), "מוצא חן בעיני" (it is pleasing to my eyes), or "בן כמה אתה?" (How old are you?).

25. Quanifiers can preceed or come after the noun as in "ילדים רבים" and "אנשים אחרים", or "כמה ספרים" and "הרבה סטודנטים."

26. The syntax of construct phrases differ from descriptive phrases; for example "עוגת תפוחים" (an apple cake) and "עוגה טעימה" (a tasty cake.)

This list is not meant to be exhaustive but merely a short introduction to differences in Hebrew and English phonology and syntax, and a major concern for Hebrew teachers teaching English speakers.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

Usefulness and Limitations

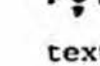
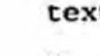
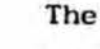
The Reading Miscue Inventory's (RMI) major value is as a tool in producing a clear profile of a student's strengths and weaknesses which are developed into a program to enable the student to become a more efficient reader. The instructional program is based on linguistically and psychologically sound terms.

The RMI is the basis for planning specific activities and strategies useful in the classroom. "Reading strategies are the natural ways by which readers process information when dealing with written language." (Watson, p. 103) The strategy lessons are an organization within the reading process which requires the students to use specific strategies that become a part of their long term memory. "Reading strategy lessons are planned reading situations in which the availability and use of selected reading strategies are high-lighted." (Y. Goodman and Burke, 1972, p. 97) These strategies revolve around strengthening a student's ability to predict, confirm, correct and integrate the meaning of the text.

Strategy lessons can be developed on all levels for proficient and less proficient readers. These strategies can be created for any language and for children reading their native language, a second language or a foreign language. Specific

strategies are useful for groups and other strategies must be developed for the individual needs of the student. The difference between reading strategies and reading skills is defined by Y. Goodman and Burke:

> Reading instruction which makes use of the interrelated language systems can be used to focus on reading strategies. Such instruction can be opposed to that which makes reading skills its focus. (1972, p. 95)

Therefore, a specific strategy is consciously placed within a natural reading system in which all three language systems and available cues are kept constant. For example, if a child was having trouble with function words, the cloze procedure would be used to encourage the child to make meaningful guesses for the provided blanks. If a child was overusing phonics and not paying attention to meaning, the child could be asked to retell stories or read to younger children. If a student was having problems with habitual associations such as  and  ,  and  , or  and  , these words would be placed in context of strong semantic and syntactic cues within a story. The teacher must be the moderator for too much emphasis on correcting miscues leads to exact reading--word by word. The result is that students see reading as an exact process rather than as a means to gain the author's meaning.

Indirectly, the miscue inventory also provides information about the written material. The educator or researcher is able to evaluate the selection of materials. For example, the story can be evaluated on what the author assumes the reader knows as far as conceptual development and concept-

carrying vocabulary. Perhaps relevant non-reading experiences such as class discussions and drama using the concept-carrying vocabulary needs to be provided. What does the written material add to the reader's knowledge? Are a few concepts developed in a variety of ways more useful than many concepts superficially developed? In analyzing the material, the educator should seek to minimize the difficulty of dialect differences. By supplementing the reading with other written information or oral presentations of the material, dialect or vocabulary difficulties can be lessened. For example, students reading Bialik may have trouble reading the Hebrew unless they are familiar with Ashkenzi Hebrew.

The greatest problem with the RMI is that it only analyzes the oral reading of students. Other problems relate to the time needed to administer the RMI and to evaluate a student. A teacher can handle this type of program only if s/he is able to work in an individualized, peer-teacher, or center type of classroom. The alternative is an aide or reading specialist who is able to administer the RMI.

Additional limitations of the RMI conducted in Hebrew are not based on intrinsic problems but rather on the limited research in this area. Children's reading of Hebrew has been analyzed to a certain extent but not in comparison to their English reading. A limited number of students have been analyzed who have read insufficient materials.

Another problem revolves around the retelling and the questions asked to the children at the end of their reading.

Edith Allouche conducted this part of her study in English. Paul Koler would support this technique for he writes, "Although students' comprehension was not affected whether the text was unilingual, alernating or mixed, their ability to read, to summarize and to talk freely was." (p. 376) He concludes, "Encoding and decoding of languages are not symmetrical operations." (p. 376) The researcher would thereby be adding variables to his/her study and the educator would be adding other components by expecting children to retell the written material in the second or foreign language. At the very least, this is something for educators to be aware of when conducting an RMI in a foreign language.

General Implications and Uses of the Reading Miscue Inventory in Hebrew Day School Instruction

The goal of Hebrew reading instruction is to enable students to develop the three reading processes--graphic, syntactic and semantic--necessary to become efficient readers. As educators, we must afford students the most natural and logical manner for grasping this foreign language. The necessity for learning Hebrew is not the question. Hebrew day schools are already an option to give Jewish youth a more consistent, practical and in-depth feeling of their religion, culture, history, traditions and language. Since Hebrew reading instruction is an established part of this process, teachers must not only know the most logical and efficient means of teaching Hebrew, the developmental level of his/her students, the cultural contasts of English with Hebrew, and a variety of means

to give students the necessary background and skills, but they must also know where each student stands in developing the reading processes towards becoming an efficient reader. From this knowledge, a teacher must develop a program of strategies specially designed for each student or possibly for a group of students.

The aim of the Reading Miscue Inventory (RMI) is to give teachers a categorizing system to pinpoint the strategies a specific child is using and not using. After analyzing the child's strengths and weaknesses, a program or strategy lessons can be developed. The goal of the RMI and of miscue research is to help students use their reading strategies most efficiently and to become skilled readers.

The RMI was originally developed for children learning to read English. Since that time, the RMI has been used in many other languages with native readers, second language readers, and foreign language readers.

The RMI is not presently being used in Hebrew instruction in the United States. Miscue analysis would not be useful in the supplementary Hebrew school where comprehension is not the aim. In contrast to afternoon Hebrew schools, one of the stated goals of Hebrew reading instruction in day schools is comprehension. Hebrew day schools use a variety of means to help students become proficient readers but the majority of these programs and techniques do not have a psycholinguistic base. As stated by Goodman and Goodman, "Motivation for literacy must be based on personal and social language functions.

Literacy needs to be an extension of language developing functions." (1978, p. 8-9) This is a necessity when planning a program for students.

Much can be learned from the universals in the reading process, whether native language, second language or foreign language instruction. A great deal is known specifically in the area of foreign language instruction. For example, it is believed by most educators that it is easier to learn to read a second language when an individual is literate in his/her native language. Little, though, has been done to delve into the area of Hebrew reading instruction. How miscues affect Hebrew comprehension and interferences as a result of native-English proficiency are areas that must be explored.

Educators will become more aware of the implications of Hebrew language instruction through proven research and practical means to make Hebrew reading experiences valid in the classroom. We know for example that Hebrew, like Yiddish, has a higher sound to symbol relationship than English, and yet the mere pronunciation of sounds and words says nothing of the child's understanding of the material.

The following recommendations for Hebrew foreign language instruction are a priority for a comprehension, goal-based program. The quest for gaining meaning from the text should be seen as a psycholinguistic reading process. A student must first have oral strength in his/her own native language. Second, the student must have comprehension of Hebrew print. Hebrew texts should be predictable syntactically and semantically.

The reading material should relate to students' life experiences, and students should be highly motivated to read the material. There should be a decreased emphasis on graphophonic correspondence and an increased emphasis on comprehension. Rather than being encouraged to be exact readers, students should be urged to guess and take chances. "Good" miscues should not be corrected(but this takes practice and understanding of miscue analysis). Educators must have a complete understanding of the grammar of Hebrew in comparison with English to know how the student is processing language and why the interferences occur. Miscues should not be viewed exclusively from a quantitative aspect, but rather the qualitative aspects of the miscues should be of prime importance. Retelling and questioning techniques can help a teacher gain a better understanding of miscues. Finally, educators have to understand the cultural influences of the United States, Judaism in the United States, English, and other cultural influences on the grasping of Hebrew.

These recommendations are fine, but added to this knowledge and understanding, educators must have the practical ability to complete a total Hebrew educational program. The background, the process, and the means to developing a program are within the structure of the miscue inventory. The rest is up to the teacher.

There is a definite need for future research in the area of Hebrew as a native language, second language, and a foreign language in terms of miscue analysis. These studies need to be done in terms of singular miscue inventory sessions as well

as longitudinal studies. It is necessary to observe children learning a written language with right to left scanning direction while their dominant language has a left to right scanning direction. There is a need to describe oral reading miscues of students reading a variety of Hebrew materials and the relationship of these miscues to reading comprehension. A study needs to be done comparing children reading meaningful versus non-meaningful Hebrew material. Students who have been in Israel and/or heard Hebrew frequently should be compared to those children unfamiliar with Hebrew. Research needs to be conducted which would analyze English language interference. Finally, a variety of strategy lessons that reflect students' Hebrew reading habits need to be designed for use in the Hebrew day school.

A great deal of the information presented in this paper is not new, and many educators have been using research and practical guidelines to teach foreign language, specifically Hebrew reading. Unfortunately, though, many Hebrew educators have made learning to read Hebrew a difficult chore. It is the responsibility of Hebrew educators to understand the nature of the reading process and the problems involved in foreign language reading so that they are flexible and resourceful in achieving their goal. It is our goal to help students acquire the reading strategies necessary to make Hebrew an informative, challenging, and enjoyable experience.

APPENDIX A

WORKSHEET COPY
HEBREW

הכן ההרוס

א.

1010 שתי צנרים באו מארץ קרה לארץ

2010 ישראל. היה זה בימי החרף. שם, בארץ

3010 הקרה, קר מאד בחרף. רוחות חזקות

4010 נושבות. שלג לבן יורד. לא כל הצפרים

5010 יכולות לשאת את הקר החזק. הרבה שהן

6010 עוזבות את הארץ הקרה לכל ימי החרף.

7010 הן עפות לשקועות יותר חמים.

ב.

8010 באו שתי הצפרים לארץ ישראל

9010 ושצאו, כי פה החרף איננו קר כל כך.

1020 פה טוב ונעים. אין שלג קר ולבן יורד.

2020 אין רוחות חזקות נושבות. פה יורד גשם

3020 טוב בחרף. העשב מחשמת. פרחים

4020 פורחים. עשב ירק צושח - ובשדות

5020 תולעים לרב.

6020 התחילו הצפרים לחפש שקום בשביל

7020 קן. הן חפשו וחפשו עד שמצאו שקום

8020 שתחת לגג של בית גבה.

APPENDIX B

CODED WORKSHEET COPY
ENGLISH

Jeanine Trotter
7 2nd grade

Fen

That's Just Fine--by Joan M. Lexau

0301 Long ago a little old lad- lady

0302 lived in a little old house.

0303 She worked hard at this and that

0304 and just got by.

0305 One night on the way home

0306 she saw a black pot.

0401 "Why, like look at the!"

0402 said the little old lady.

0403 "There is a fine black pot.

0404 It must have a hole in it

0405 if no one wants it.

0406 But I could put

0407 flowers in it,

0408 I could."

0409 So she went to pick it up

0410 to take it home.

0411 Then she saw that

0412 it was full of gold.

0413 "Why, that's just fine!"

0414 she said.

0501 "All night I can think about

0502 what I'll buy with this gold."

0503 She walked along

0504 and walked along.

APPENDIX C

STORY OUTLINE
HEBREW

ה ק ן ה ה ר ו ס

א. <u>אפיון הגבורים:</u>

1. שני צפורים - אמא צפור

אבא צפור

2. שני אפרוחים.

3. ילד שובב וחצוף.

4. ילד טוב.

ב. <u>התפתחות הדמויות:</u>

1. אמא ואבא צפורים עובדים קשה לבנות את הקן. אמא צפור מטילה ביצים ומחממת אותם בכנפיה. אבא צפור דואג לאוכל. שני הצפורים מטפלים באפרוחים, ושרים להם שירי ערש לפני השינה.

2. שני אפרוחים קטנים, שקר להם והם רועדים מקור, גרלים ולומדים לעוף לחפש תולעים.

3. הילד השובב והחצוף, מנסה לפגוע בקן ולהרסו.

4. הילד הטוב רוצה לעזור לצפורים ולבנות להם שובך חדש.

ג. <u>קצור העלילה:</u>

שתי צפורים באו מארץ קרה לא"י החמה יותר ללא שלג. הם חפשו מקום לקן ומצאו מקום טוב מתחת לגג בית גבוה. האם הטילה שתי ביצים ורגרה עליהן, והאב דאג לאוכל לאמא. עד שבוקר אחד התבקעו הביצים, ושני אפרוחים קטנים יצאו מתוכן. אמא צפור חממה אותם בכנפיה ואבא צפור הביא להם אוכל ושניהם שרו להם שירי ערש לפני השינה. במשך הזמן גדלו האפרוחים והחלו לעוף. יום אחד חזרו ומצאו

APPENDIX D

CODED RETELLING SCORE
ENGLISH

Jeanine's Retelling Score for That's Just Fine

Character Analysis:

Recall	10 ~~15~~	Development	~~15~~ 5
5 little old woman		old and poor	
5 wants to become a queen and a fine lady		wears shawl, bonnet, long skirt	
		2½ kind (nice), accepting, positive character	
		2½ walking in forest	

Theme: Tells of an old woman with a positive attitude who makes the best of every situation even when she is dissapointed. Jeanine thinks woman becomes angry when contents of pot changes

20 0

Plot: 10 An old woman finds a pot--the contents of which changes as she takes it home. The story deals with her feelings as she watches the the contents of the pot change.

20 10

Events:

3 An old lady finds a black pot while walking through the woods. She thinks to herself that she will use it for flowers. (She says she will take it home) She sits down to rest because the pot was heavy.

4 Looks into pot and the empty pot has turned to gold. She thinks to herself that she will use the gold to live like a queen, buy a house, and not work.

As she walks, she looks into the pot and now finds it filled with silver. She says to herself that it's o.k. and she will use the silver to be a fine lady, and buy fine things to wear and not work so hard.

1 After a short time, she finds the pot filled with iron. (Jeanine knows pot changes to something else but doesn't know what) She says to herself that now no one will steal from her and she can get a little money from the iron to buy shoes.

After walking awhile, she finds only a stone in the pot.

4 As she arrives to her hut, a cow jumps out of the pot and the the pot disappears. (She says when she comes out of) The cow also disappears.

She says to herself that it's fine and she was lucky to have seen a fairy cow and she will never forget the experience.

APPENDIX E

CODING SHEET

Reader Jeanine (Page 1) Date 1/23/75 Selection That's Jwl F

Miscue Number	Reader	Text	DIALECT 1	INTONATION 2	GRAPHIC SIMILARITY 3 Y	P	N
301-1	—	lady					
303-2	work-ed	worked	Y		✓		
303-3	her	hard			✓		
303-4	tine	This			✓		
304-5	het	by				✓	
305-6	on	one			✓		
401-7	like	look			✓		
401-8	the	that				✓	
403-9	the	is					✓
403-10	thing	fine				✓	
407-11	—	flowers					
409-12	want	went			✓		
409-13	pack	pick			✓		
410-14	that	take					✓
411-15	was	saw			✓		
412-16	tell	full			✓		
413-17	$ fin	fine			✓		
503-18	wished	walked			✓		
604-19	oh	—					
604-20	—	anymore					
703-21	and	in					✓
707-22	that	that's	Y		✓		
801-23	could	gold			✓		
801-24	—	would					
801-25	mush	more				✓	
		COLUMN TOTAL					
		PERCENTAGE					
		QUESTION TOTAL					

Teacher Dorey Brandt   Class Aud.(K,1,2) School Highland

Coding Sheet

Sound Similarity 4			Grammatical Function 5			Correction 6	Grammatical Acceptability 7	Semantic Acceptability 8	Meaning Change 9	Comprehension			Grammatical Relationships			
Y	P	N	Y	P	N					No Loss	Partial Loss	Loss	Strength	Partial Strength	Weakness	Overcorrection
						N	N	N	Y			✓			✓	
✓			✓			N	Y	Y	N	✓			✓			
✓					✓	P	P	P	Y			✓			✓	
✓			✓			Y	P	P	P	✓			✓			
	✓				✓	Y	N	N	Y	✓			✓			
		✓			✓	Y	N	N	Y	✓			✓			
✓			✓			N	N	N	Y			✓			✓	
	✓		✓			Y	N	N	Y	✓			✓			
		✓			✓	N	Y	P	N	✓				✓		
		✓			✓	P	Y	P	P		✓			✓		
						N	N	N	Y			✓			✓	
✓			✓			N	P	P	P		✓				✓	
✓			✓			N	P	P	P		✓				✓	
		✓			✓	Y	N	N	Y	✓			✓			
		✓	✓			Y	P	P	Y	✓			✓			
✓					✓	P	N	N	N		✓				✓	
✓			✓			N	Y	N	Y			✓		✓		
✓			✓			N	Y	P	Y			✓		✓		
						N	Y	Y	N	✓			✓			
						N	Y	Y	N	✓			✓			
		✓			✓	Y	N	N	Y	✓			✓			
✓			✓			N	N	N	N	✓					✓	
	✓				✓	Y	N	N	Y	✓			✓			
						N	N	N	P			✓			✓	
	✓				✓	N	N	N	Y			✓			✓	
						COLUMN TOTAL										
						PERCENTAGE										
						PATTERN TOTAL										

32

APPENDIX F

GRAPH OF READER PROFILE

COMPREHENSION PATTERN

Percent of relationships of No Comprehension Loss to Partial Comprehension Loss to Comprehension Loss

Reader's Use of Reading Strategies:

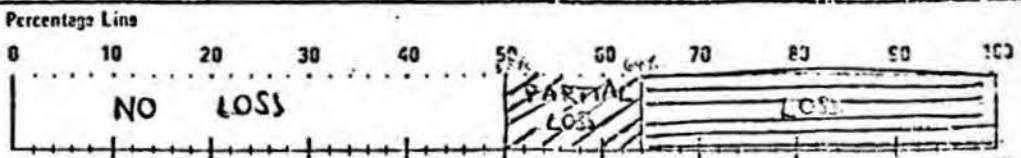
Highly Effective ☐
Moderately Effective ☒ (comprehension pattern & retelling score)
Some Effective ☒
Ineffective ☐

SOUND/GRAPHIC RELATIONSHIPS

Sound			Graphic		
High	Some	None	High	Some	None

Repeated and Multiple Miscues

	Text	Frequency of Miscue Occurrence	Frequency of Text Item Occurrence	Occurrence of Correction
the	this	3	4	3
walked	walked	2	8	5
fine	fine	2	10	5
walked	walked	2	8	5
fine	fine	1	10	5
fine	fine	1	10	5
iron	iron	4	7	0
iron	iron	1	7	0
full	full	1	4	(1) on 4
fine	fine	1	10	(2) on 7 with self
full	full	1	4	2
pr	pr	3	4	(3) on 3 with self
irca	irca	2	5	0



RETELLING SCORE 37%

GRAMMATICAL RELATIONSHIPS

Function			Relationship			
Identical	Indeterminate	different	Strength	Partial Strength	Weakness	Overcorrectio

Reader	Text	Frequency of Miscue Occurrence	Frequency of Text Item Occurrence	Occurrence of Correction
single	stone	1	7	0
	stone	6	7	0
We	Well	1	6	✓ on 2nd
Wall	Well	4	6	✓ on 2nd
that	that's	4	7	✓ on 2nd, correct on 3
mush	much	2	2	0
	once	2	2	✓ C
on	no	2	16	✓ on 4, correct on 16
every	ever	2	2	0

Reader Profile

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