Research, Consultation, & Teaching Program
Research Report No. 11

RCTP

Case Studies in Reading and Writing Progress Monitoring

Gerald Tindal
Janie Shuey
University of Oregon

Katie Merchant
Santa Cruz (SELPA)

Published by
Research, Consultation, & Teaching Program
Behavioral Research and Teaching
College of Education
University of Oregon

Staff
Gerald Tindal, Program Director
Jerry Marr, Editor
Abe Deffenbaugh, Assistant Editor

Tindal, Gerald; Merchant, Katie; Shuey, Janie
Case Studies in Reading and Writing Progress Monitoring
Research Report No. 11

Project Editor: Abe Deffenbaugh
Layout: Abe Deffenbaugh
Cover design: George Beltran

Table of Contents

Figures

Tables

Introduction

In this series of case studies, teachers developed progress monitoring systems in reading and writing. The cases began with three monthly, full-day workshops that focused on establishing individually-referenced measurement systems. Emphasis was given to standardization of administration and scoring so that student performance data could be collected over an extended time, allowing *change over time* to become the primary metric for ascertaining the success of instructional programs. This approach bases all evaluative interpretations upon the changes *within* an individual from one data value to the next; a radically different approach than either of the other two approaches currently available using a criterion- or norm-referenced approach. In these latter two views, the standards for interpretation are, respectively, specific skill mastery within an explicit domain, and relative standing within a group of students. Neither view is truly consistent with the development of Individualized Educational Plans (IEPs), however, because of the lack of embedded goal-oriented standards. Although IEP goals can be written to improve in specific skills and to increase group standing, vindication for the goals is external to the measurement system. In contrast, the goals of an individual-referenced measurement system come from within the individual student's performance changes over time and can be both set and monitored continuously over time. To ensure that the outcomes from these successive measures are all comparable, three requirements must be met.

First, the sampling plan for generating measurement materials needs to be well defined and provide comparable (non lesson-based) tasks. In this series of cases, teachers describe a variety of tasks using materials that are not specific to an individual lesson, therefore providing data that helps them determine whether the cumulative effect of instruction is "taking" on an important and generic skill (such

as oral reading fluency or writing creative stories). Because these measurement tasks are not lesson-bound, we can be more certain that any improvement over time is a function of an improvement in the skill, not a result of immediate prompting or memory. This requirement comes very close to the current emphasis on outcome driven measurement programs that is making the scene in general education. In these cases, a number of different sampling plans are used in reading (oral fluency and retell writing).

The second requirement focuses on the manner in which measurement tasks are administered: They must be standardized within an individual student. This requirement again allows successive data points to be compared to each other. If the tasks are given in a different manner each time, it is difficult to determine whether change over time is a function of the administration procedures (e.g., more prompts are given like, "now, I want you to read faster than you did last time") or real improvement in the skill. This requirement does not apply across students; that is, a teacher may give the same kind of task (written expression) to two different students in two very different ways. Because the comparison is within a student over time, we never compare one student with the next and therefore do not need any standardization agreement between them. The cases presented in this research report provide a range of examples for administering classroom-based assessments.

Third, explicit scoring systems need to be developed so that performance can be summarized either quantitatively (representing a count of an objective feature of student performance) or qualitatively (representing a subjective judgment or reaction to some feature of student performance). All teachers in these cases consider both types of performance summaries; for some improvement is best captured as a quantitative score, while in others, the qualitative score best reflects the student's change over time.

In summary, this research report presents several examples of teacher-driven, classroom-based assessments. They are selected to reflect diversity: in sampling plans of materials, in student behavior, in administration, and finally, in scoring and reporting of change over time.

The first case presents a student who was assessed in oral reading performance using both a traditional curriculum-based measurement of oral reading fluency, as well as a more recently developed qualitative scale of reading prosody (voice inflection and expression). In both metrics, improvement was considerable.

In the second case, writing performance was measured over an extended time (two years), allowing teachers to begin each year with relevant performance from the previous year. Measurement and instruction were closely linked as well. The data in this case are represented in three ways: (a) as direct transcriptions of the student's actual writing, (b) with a qualitative scale of writing conventions, and (c) from a quantitative count of the number of words written.

The third case describes a study in comprehension. The teacher developed a retell task to measure understanding of materials. A number of different materials were presented to the student, allowing the teacher to better understand how well the student could transfer understanding across various media (books, films, short stories, etc.). Using both qualitative and quantitative scales, the teacher was able to document student improvement over the year.

With the relatively recent increase in attention to student thinking that has swept many educational reforms, the fourth case presents an interesting study in semantic mapping. Two phases of instruction were implemented, with qualitative and quantitative scoring systems used to document any differential effects. In the end, performance appears to improve when semantic maps are used; the

implication being that classroom assessment systems can help vindicate instructional programs.

The fifth case is framed around the concept of portfolios. The measurement systems presented in this research report can actually become incorporated into a portfolio; they are not "add-ons" which require more time and supplement the day-to-day performance indicators routinely collected. Rather they are simply better samples of student permanent products and can be collected systematically to be aggregated into a collective group and used to form a portfolio. While the actual student samples in this case present interesting clinical information into emerging writing skills, the outcome data are less certain, at least in the first year.

The real flexibility of classroom-based assessments can be seen in the sixth case. All measurement was conducted in Spanish with an Hispanic student in a bilingual reading program. Because the demand is for measurement systems to be culturally unbiased and sensitive to the ethnic and language base of the individual student, most published testing programs are considered inadequate. However, if the system is developed by the teacher and in response to the unique needs of the student, such measurement systems can not only be culturally sensitive but also reflect any changes in skill performance.

As mentioned earlier, the real advantage of individually referenced measurement programs is their use in setting goals, which is the focus of the seventh case study. In this case, several aspects of goal setting were presented and student performance data collected to ascertain discrepancies between the goals and the student's eventual performance. Clearly, improvement over time results, which allows the teacher to reconsider the goal and continue formatively evaluating instruction.

The eighth, and final case, summarizes the major advantage of classroom-based measurement: Data utilization and formative evaluation are built into the

system so that instructional programs are either vindicated or adjusted. Most IEPs represent record keeping for documentation, not measurement for accountability. However, by taking brief samples of student performance over time, teachers can ascertain the effects of their instruction and truly individualized educational plans. The IEP becomes a working document, not a record that is filed away.

In conclusion, these cases reflect the diversity of students and teachers in the classroom. No one measurement system is correct or immutable. Rather, they are all appropriate at some time, and can be useful in ensuring that instructional programs are efficient and effective.

A Case Study in Oral Fluency and Prosody

Within the current debate about how children learn to read there is a tendency toward polarity- the belief that one method is best for <u>all</u> children. Measurement practices which are sensitive to individual growth, however, typically reveal that effective instructional methods need to be individualized and can provide guidelines for formatively evaluating interventions. For such an outcome to be attained, though, the measurement methods chosen by the classroom teacher must be valid and reliable indicators of individual growth in reading. Additionally, the measures must be practical in time requirements and in ease of interpretation.

In this case study we found that oral reading fluency is a reliable and valid measure. This finding is not new. In fact, the results fit within the general nomological net that has been developing over the past decade. For example, Marston (1989) has summarized a considerable number of validation studies with oral reading fluency in which criterion measures have included teacher judgment, standardized, norm-referenced achievement tests, criterion-referenced basal tests, and various demographics of students (grades levels, classification, time of year in program, etc.). This finding, however, is not particular to the research group most responsible for studying curriculum-based measurement (Deno, 1985; Deno, Mirkin, & Chiang, 1983). In fact, Anderson, Wilkinson, and Mason (1991), write the following about oral reading fluency:

> It was group fluency that was most strongly related to outcome measures. This is surprising because the measures of fluency (individual as well as group) were psychometrically imperfect: The words were easy for the children, and the scores piled up at the top of the scale. In the current zeitgeist, comprehension is everything, so it will seem doubly surprising to some that an imperfect measure of fluency was a better predictor of a range of outcomes than was a psychometrically strong standardized comprehension measure. Perhaps the explanation is that

> children in highly fluent groups experience a smooth and continuous reading that promotes the development of a connected representation of the story. In contrast, children in the low-fluency groups experience frequent continuity-destroying pauses, false starts, mistakes, and backtracking that may undermine the formation of a coherent, connected story representation" (p. 439).

In essence, the high-fluency groups exhibit prosodic reading, in which the rhythm and flow of reading is highly influential in understanding written text. Extensive research supports the importance of decoding, fluency, and phonics skills in beginning reading (Adams, 1990); decoding is also a preskill to comprehension (Browder, & Lalli, 1991; Adams, 1990; Samuels, 1976, 1988).

Automaticity refers to the process by which reading becomes automatic and is assumed to work in the following manner. In the process of learning to read, at first decoding skills take all of the reader's concentration. As the decoding and word recognizing skills become more automatic, the reader can focus on comprehending what has been read. Samuels' concept of automaticity is that a fluent reader decodes words accurately and automatically. He states, "when a person is both accurate and automatic, the recognition task can be done quickly, easily, and with little effort or energy" (Samuels, 1988, p. 759). To measure automaticity, Samuels suggests listening to students read out loud. The automatic reader reads with expression and few hesitancies or pauses (Samuels, 1988, p. 760). The concept of automaticity explains the connection between decoding, fluency, prosody, and comprehension. Adams, 1990 states, "The importance of automaticity relates to the fact that the search for coherence requires active, thoughtful attention. Where a reader is instead wrestling with the resolution of any particular word, syllable, or letter of the text, comprehension is necessarily forfeited. For it to be recovered the phrase must be reread with fluency" (p. 413).

In the following case study, such relationships can be seen between the development of fluency and prosody. As indicated by Samuels, fluency, accuracy, and prosody lead to automaticity.

Study Overview

This study examined the relationship between the development of fluency and prosody in beginning reading. A quantitative measure of fluency and accuracy was obtained by counting the number of correct words read per minute during a timed passage reading. Reading expression and prosody were measured using a qualitative scale. This scale measured aspects of expression including appropriate flow and phrasing, attention to punctuation, and appropriate inflection.

Teacher and Student Demographics

Trained as a secondary English and arts teacher as well as a learning handicapped specialist, Ms. Redwood teaches in a mountainous school district which has implemented curriculum-based measurement techniques throughout their entire elementary and secondary programs. She has been involved in the whole language movement and has participated in specialized training in cognitive coaching, classroom management, self esteem building, basic practice model, and consultation/collaboration.

Trevor, the student in this study is in third grade and has received special services through the resource specialist program for the last two years. Within the areas of reading and language arts, currently he is functioning at a mid-second grade level. His mother reports that he is just beginning to use his reading skills functionally in gaining information from television and signs.

Instruction at the beginning of the year focused on the use of linguistic patterning for decoding purposes at a pre first grade level; however, within a four month period, Trevor was able to transition to core literature passages

making rapid gains. The use of sentence puzzles, self-created word banks, chart writing, closed writing activities, and story illustrations was also incorporated into the instructional techniques selected. Small group and independent reading and language arts activities were generally used in the hour and a half of daily specialized instruction.

<div align="center">Measures and Procedures</div>

Two measures of beginning reading were developed by the teacher. All reading passages were created from within the curriculum, though long range goal passages (stories they would eventually read during the year) were selected to avoid "teaching to the test" (Fuchs, 1986). The quantitative measure consisted of the oral reading fluency as described. In addition, a qualitative measure of prosody was operationalized for each student using a 1 to 5 scale (see Figure 1 for anchors to each value on the scale).

1
Reads single words.
No flow.
Choppy or telegraphic in form.

2
Some phrasing (2-3 words) which is not necessarily appropriate.

3
Pausing for ending punctuations, not necessarily inflection changes.

4
Most of the passage flows.
Beginning inflection for voice or meaning changes.
Appropriate ending pauses.

5
Flows.
Inflection for voice or meaning changes.
Appropriate end pauses.

Figure 1. Qualitative Scoring Rubrics for Prosody

During a 7-month period within the school year, the teacher collected reading samples approximately once per month, using standardized procedures that she had devised to both accommodate each individual student and yet provide comparability in their data. She met with one of the investigators monthly, bringing student performance data for review and analysis. She used the following procedures to administer reading measures.

<u>Procedures</u>

This test was individually administered with the student in isolation or in the classroom during oral reading.

• These materials were not used during student practice within instruction.

•The student was prepared appropriately, explaining the nature of the task (use of a stop watch, focus of passage content, etc.).

•The title was read if there was one.

•The directions were read verbatim for the first several administrations.

•When the student began reading, the stopwatch was started.

•When the student was finished, the score was written down, and quickly moved to the next reading task. This procedure was repeated until all reading tasks were completed.

•If comprehension questions or a retell procedure were used, the student was asked to turn the passage over or handed it to the teacher.

•The following specific directions were given to the student:

"When I say 'start,' begin reading at the top of this page. If you wait on a word too long, I'll tell you the word. Do not attempt to read as fast as you can. This is not a 'speed reading' test. Read at a comfortable rate. At the end of one minute, I'll say 'stop.'"

Results

The following graphs reflect outcomes from the two measures: (a) on the left graph, the number of words read correctly per minute are plotted, and (b) on the right graph, the ratings of reading prosody are displayed with a bar chart.
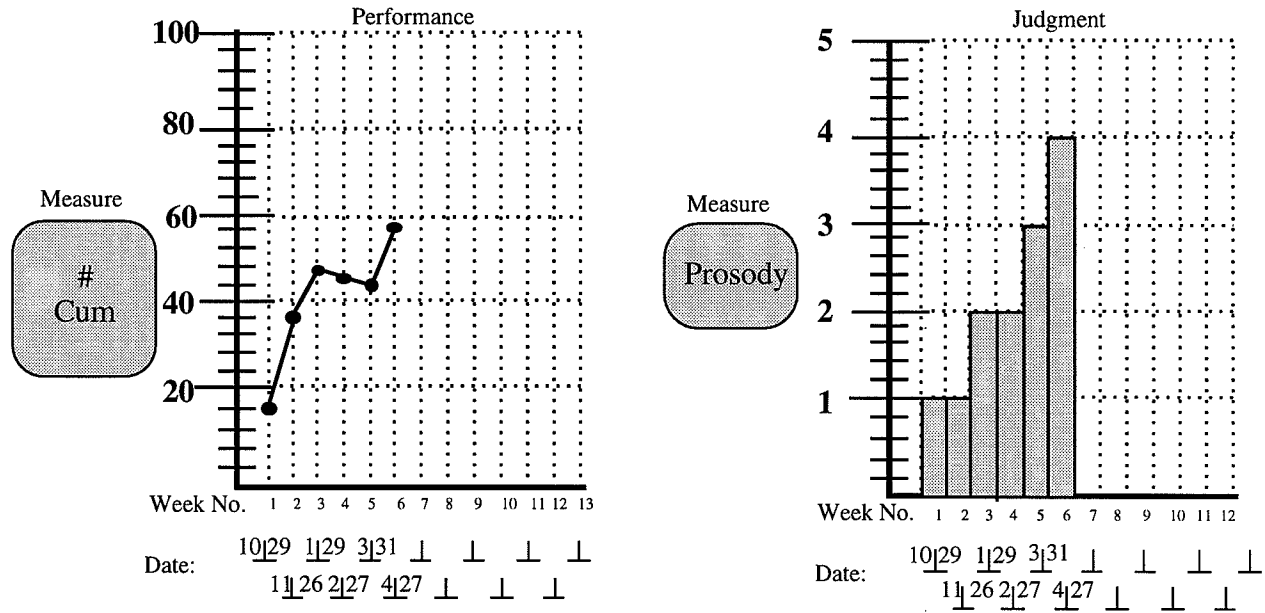
Figure 2. Graphic Representation of Trevor's Scoring

The student's performance on the number of words read per minute progressed from about 17 wpm at the beginning of November to 59 wpm near the end of April, which represents growth from approximately the late second grade level to the late third grade level (see Carnine, Silbert, & Kameenui, 1990, p. 249, for discussion on determining reading level). It would have been helpful if several samples had been taken early in the school year to get a baseline for student performance. The score of 17 wpm could have been the result of a performance lapse due to skill loss during the summer, a bad day for the student, or it could have been an accurate measure of the student's performance at the beginning of the year. Nevertheless, whether the first sample is considered, there was a definite trend toward greater reading fluency.

The graph depicting reading prosody also shows steady growth. Taken together, the two graphs demonstrate the parallel development of fluency and prosody in reading. As decoding becomes automatic, a student reads with more expression.

Discussion

This case study was implemented by a resource room teacher during regular instructional time. The reading samples used to test prosody and fluency were regular grade level reading materials- in this case they were selections from literature. The reading selections were based on local definitions of grade level materials and local grade level expectations for number of words read correctly per minute. The measures used were simple to administer and easy to score.

The reading samples were taken under standardized conditions. Each sample was administered using the same procedures including the one minute timing period. This timed reading by the resource room student could have been compared to the his IEP annual goals or to timed readings by regular education peers. The expectations cited in this case study could be replaced by either local or national grade level expectations (Hasbrouck & Tindal, 1991.)

To help standardize the assessment process, we have included two forms on the next two pages. In Figure 3, a number of decision steps are displayed in the form of a checklist so that the procedures for sampling materials and administering reading tasks are always done comparably throughout the year. By analyzing the decisions explicitly, others (parents, volunteers, educational assistants, etc.) can help develop and implement the measures. In Figure 4, explicit error correction procedures are displayed. By using unique markings for each type of error, teachers not only can reveal an overall change in rate correct, but also can use the data diagnostically and then track change in specific error types.

Fluency Checklist

Passage reflects? Circle one:

      (Narrative, fictional stories)

      Expository, nonfictional information

      Both, narrative and expository material

Background schema is assessed (i.e., What do you think this story is about?)?
Circle one:

    Yes (No)

Directions are clear and standardized for this student? Circle one:

    (Yes) No

Who reads the passage? Circle one:

    (Student)   Teacher

Scoring procedures have clear error types identified? Circle those that are used:

    (Substitutions)

    (Reversals)

    (Hesitations or Assists)

    (Omissions)

Prosodic features are assessed? Circle one:

    (Yes) No

Time is assessed? Circle one:

      Time is fixed at 1 minute?

      Amount of time to read is measured? Specify   _2 - 3 mins. on average_

Student's interest in the story is assessed (i.e. How interesting was this story?)? Circle one:

    Yes (No)

Student performance is summarized graphically? Circle one:

    (Yes) No

Figure 3. Fluency Checklist

Scoring

Quantitative Scoring Key

Omission: Draw a line through the work

He ~~had~~ lost.

Insertion/Addition: Insert a caret

had
I ∧ won

Substitution/Mispronunciation: Draw a line through word and note
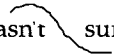
substitution above

party
A big ~~pantry~~

Repetitions: Underline the repeated word

The big party

Reversals: Use a ⌢‿ to denote reversals of word or letters.

He wasn't ⌢＼ sure

Self-correction: Write S.C. above the word that was self-corrected.

S.C.
spent

Teacher Given: Circle the word
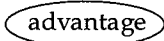
(advantage)

Figure 4. Quantitative Scoring Key

References

Adams, M. (1990). *Beginning to read.* Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.

Anderson, R. C., Wilkinson, I. A. G., & Mason, J. M. (1991). A microanalysis of the small-group, guided reading lesson: Effects of an emphasis on global story meaning. *Reading Research Quarterly, 26*(4), 417-441.

Browder, D. M., & Lalli, J. S. (1991). Review of research on sight word instruction. *Research in Developmental Disabilities, 12,* 203-228.

Carnine, D., Silbert, J., & Kameenui, E. (1990). *Direct Instruction Reading.* Columbus, OH: Merrill.

Deno, S., Mirkin, P., & Chiang, B. (1982). Identifying valid measures of reading. *Exceptional Children, 49*(1), 36-45.

Marston, D. (1989). A curriculum-based measurement approach to assessing academic performance: What is it and why do it. In *Curriculum-based measurement: Assessing special children,* (18-78).

McGee, L. M., & Lomax, R. G. (1990). On combining apples and oranges: A response to Stahl and Miller. *Review of Educational Research, 60*(1), 133-140.

Samuels, J. (1976). Automatic decoding and reading comprehension. *Language Arts, 53*(3), 323-325.

Samuels, J. (1988). Decoding and automaticity: Helping poor readers become automatic at word recognition. *The Reading Teacher,* 756-760.

Schickendanz, J. A. (1990). The jury is still out on the effects of whole language and language experience approaches for beginning reading: A critique of Stahl and Miller's study. *Review of Educational Research, 60*(1), 127-131.

Stahl, S. A. (1990). Riding the pendulum: A rejoinder to Schickendanz and McGee and Lomax. *Review of Educational Research, 60*(1), 141-151.

Tindal, G., & Marston, D. (Apr., 1992). *Technical adequacy of alternative whole language reading measures.* Paper presented at American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting. San Francisco, CA.

A Longitudinal Study of Progress Monitoring in Expressive Writing

A common theme in the literature on effective writing instruction is that for students to become better writers they must spend time writing. Another important principle is that writing skills develop within the context of real writing. Graham (1992) identifies three principles important to the development of skilled writers: (a) students must engage in "frequent and meaningful writing," (p. 137); (b) time must be allowed for "developing, embellishing, and refining," (p. 139); and (c) writing must take place in "a warm and supportive environment," (p. 142). Finally, students need direct instruction and feedback on their performance to develop good writing skills.

Within the debate about how skilled writers develop is the question of how to measure development. To evaluate instructional methods or to measure students' growth requires the use of standardized methods of measurement. Tindal and Parker (1991) identify criteria by which measurement methods can be evaluated: "(a) consistent administration and scoring; (b) capacity to discriminate among students in different instructional or skill groups or grades; (c) at least low-moderate relation to other accepted assessment methods; and (d) sensitivity to score improvement by students over the course of the year" (p. 211). These criteria imply measurement methods that are sensitive to individual differences as well as individual growth.

Measurement methods for writing can be quantitative or qualitative. Quantitative methods, such as scoring of countable indices, focus on objective indices. Qualitative methods such as holistic, analytic, or primary trait scoring require subjective, inferential judgments. Tindal and Parker (1991) suggest using both methods of measurement.

In their evaluation, multiple methods of measurement were used. The quantitative indices included, "(a) words written, (b) words spelled correctly, (c) words sequenced correctly, (d) number of incorrect word sequences, (e) total number of word sequences (correct and incorrect), and (f) percentage of correctly sequenced words" (p. 212). The qualitative indices included, "(a) story idea, (b) organization-cohesion, and (c) conventions mechanics" (p. 212). They (1991) found that while there was a trend toward growth from fall to spring, no single measure was adequate that reflected change for all students.

Linking Instruction With Assessment

The following two examples from current research on writing instruction addressed strategies for improving writing, including a look at the effectiveness of the strategies and the validity of measures used for documenting improvement. The first example measures writing products and the second example measures the writing process.

In a study by Graham, MacArthur, Schwartz, and Page-Voth (1992) writing instruction was provided to learning disabled fifth graders. The instructional focus was on teaching planning strategies to set product and process goals for writing. The instructor also taught a schema for writing complete essays and stories.

The measurement methods used for evaluating improvement in writing were closely tied to instructional goals and included the following.

1. One instructional goal was to increase the length of compositions; significant gains were made in the number of words written in compositions after instruction. The gains in length of compositions were maintained over time.

2. Another goal was for students to include all the elements of an essay and show an increase from baseline and post-instructional essays. Providing

instruction in the basic essay elements along with schema for remembering the elements dramatically improved inclusion of the elements.

3. For story writing, story grammar instruction was provided. A rating scale was used to judge the quality of story grammar elements used.

4. Quality of compositions was judged using a holistic rating scale. Quality improved following instruction.

5. The coherence of an essay was rated by counting the longest number of functional elements (premise, reasons and conclusion) that were consecutive and coherently ordered.

The authors found that setting goals and using the planning strategy improved students' compositions.

In a second study by Englert, Raphael, and Anderson (1992) students' metacognitive knowledge about the writing process was measured and then an examination completed on how knowledge of the writing process applied to writing performance.

Cognitive Strategy Instruction in Writing (CSIW) was used to teach learning disabled (LD) students and nonlearning disabled students (nonLD) in an experimental group; the control group received their regular writing instruction. An extensive interview was given to the control group at the beginning of the school year and to the experimental group at the end of the school year. The interview measured students' metacognitive (self-talk) writing strategies. The study did not examine individual growth but compared interview results from students who had CSIW instruction to interview results from similar students who had not had instruction.

The results of the interview comparison showed significant gains for both LD and nonLD students following instruction. There were no significant differences in metacognitive knowledge (self-talk about the writing process)

between LD and nonLD students who received coginitve strategy instruction. There were significant differences in metacognitve knowledge between LD and nonLD students in the control group.

Two measures were used to assess students' written compositions. A holistic rating scale was used to measure interest, clarity, and text structure. A primary trait score was used to assess the number of story or essay elements. Reading comprehension was assessed by having students read a passage and then write a retell of the passage.

Englert et al., found greater improvement in writing and reading comprehension for nonLD compared to LD students in the instructional group. However, when the performance of LD instructional group students was compared to the performance of nonLD control group students, dialogue instruction appeared to lessen the gap. Students who could describe the writing process could apply the process to improve their writing.

This research supports using both quantitative and qualitative measures to evaluate growth in students' writing ability. The authors (Graham, et al., 1992; Englert, et al., 1992) also suggest that dialogue during the writing process as well as an understanding of the writing process itself helps contribute to growth in students' writing ability.

The following case study embodies many of the features described in these two research studies: students discussed selections from literature to generate ideas for writing; they were prompted to plan their writing before they began writing; and writing samples were assessed using both qualitative and quantitative measures.

Summary of Study

A resource room teacher participated in a two year study measuring students' growth in reading fluency and prosody, story retell, and in writing.

The student in this example participated in the study in third and fourth grade. (The student was reading at the first grade level when he started third grade. By the end of fourth grade, he was reading grade level core literature.)

Instructional Strategies

Writing instruction was provided as part of a language arts and reading program to a group of students in the resource room. First, the teacher read a story to the children. Next, the students and teacher discussed the story and the story theme was used to generate writing ideas. The teacher then gave students a story starter and used a standardized procedure to administer the writing samples (see Figure 5). The students wrote their rough drafts during a ten minute timed period. Afterwards, they edited and corrected their own work. Then, the teacher edited the students' work and helped them expand their ideas. Finally, the students wrote final drafts of their stories, and accompanied them with art work, all of which was bound into individual books.

Additional Instructional Strategies: Grade 3

Students, in groups of two or individually, met twice weekly and used spelling lists with phonetic patterns. Personal attention with immediate feedback was used as motivation, as well as use of the computer and chalkboard. Additionally, the teacher asked the students to write dictated words on the chalkboard, paper, or the computer. The San Mateo Spelling materials were used. Students were also asked to spell words orally, and the computer game Spell-N-Time was used. In addition, students were asked to learn the parts of a paragraph using Project Write (chart showing introduction, details, and conclusions) for approximately fifteen minutes, twice weekly. Groups of 3-4 students offered feedback as well as the opportunity for oral reading.

Subsequent Instructional Strategies: Grade 4

Groups of three or four students met twice weekly, where they were read a short story. The theme of the story was the motivation for the writing assignment. Students were asked to practice their handwriting for 10 minutes weekly, in addition to their work in the regular classroom. Spelling was practiced for 20 minutes outside of the regular classroom. Stickers and spelling games were used as motivators.

Assessment of Writing

The teacher collected monthly writing samples for eight months during the school year. The following student's writing samples are the rough drafts from the ten minute timings across both grade levels. The asterisk (*) shows the three minute mark. All spelling and writing conventions have been left in the student's original form.

I want you to create a story. I will be handing out a lined paper with the beginning of a story written at the top. Please leave your pencils down and listen to me as I explain the task.

I am going to read the beginning of the story first and then I want you to compose a short story about what happens. You will have 30 seconds to think about the story that you plan to write and then you will have ten minutes to write it. Use your best and most creative writing: Try to write an original ending to the story that is well organized and uses your best sentences. If you do not know how to spell a word, spell it the best you can. Are there any questions?

Read the story starter and then say: "Do not begin writing yet. Take 30 seconds to plan your writing and when I say 'begin', start writing. If you use up the lined sheet, please turn it over and continue writing on the back. Begin." Start the stop watch and time their writing for 3 minutes.

After 3 minutes, say, "Everyone, stop writing. Please make a star after the last word you wrote. Now you have 7 more minutes to finish your story."

Figure 5. Directions for Administration of Written Expression

Student's Writing Samples: 3rd Grade

"Yesterday a monkey climbed through the window at school and..."

10/10/90
Pad with the PisI.
and pust a chrdom
dun the (*) tlit. and he
bluw uP The School.
and tuck er ting hom.
        The End

"Yesterday as I was cleaning under my bed, I found..."

12/11/90
and I fend a Goods
andm y kom ot of miy
 ded and way et me (*) and
miy mom and dad and du up
the hols ben lal ufthe fier
chuckS woter and tick lake
of the Ple's Gun and Seor muer
fier and had fun. The end perton
and and bu upMer has and
he pad the end

"Oozing under the door was a strange substance..."

<u>1/10/90</u>
it was smockand it Oosing
ot of the windw and I mom and
dad.And thay Sed yeS and i
opin the bur(*) and ter wust
nuth and then. I coSt the
bor and Smok canm ont of fum
under the bur and i opin the
buer and the Smock Stop and
I Saw a Smock belll
And i ran ot Sid and
coll the copS and thay
sed ume are cinting (*) no
i im not citing and the
smock belll walt ot sid
and ran after me and med
frenS With the Smock belll
and we plad the End

"I wish I were a giant living in a castle on a hill..."

<u>1/30/91</u>
and I wub Sut erdut
e and I will hat and
I will muf mi kasl
and thow It a way
and give it to you and
voy will demfren with me. (*)

"As the wind became stronger and stronger, our boat began to fill up with water..."

<u>2/28/91</u>
I wint to the Spev dot
and wint ho anl had fun
andI hat to Slep in
the dot andI wint hom
and on miy way Shak(*) and
they wus trud in pizze tow
and The wecolld the ples and
the Shre eatthe ple then we
colld the erfs and it eat erfvs
and There we colld the eme.The
a atll sip andthe arcath cere
and they cill the Shok
The End

*Martin Luther King, Jr. had a dream. Walter, in the story "Just A Dream," had a
    dream about the future. Pretend you are having a dream. What would your dream be
like?*

<u>2/12/91</u>
I had a brem thet mi
SiSter bu mi hedoof
and mi fred bu her hed
of. andI wu were mi
dlit pruf VeSt.(*) and I
Shot her

"When I hear a thunderstorm..."

<u>3/12/91</u>
andI run toLA and JP and
Irun Cf and the thunderStohem
is gon anISee tha I Im in
NY andrun Jp and LA and tim
hom(*)

"It rained and rained..."

<u>4/8/91</u>
andithelldand it stop andstopand
 Stop andis Strte to rained a gend
and it helld the End(*)
anditHell and rained anditis
time to Go play

"Saving the earth is not an easy job."

<u>4/25/91</u>
and the earth is clean
and Theearth is plut
andandand and peple weS
iher andand dunt rest.(*)

*Please write about a creature you might find living in a garden. "One day, I went
    outside to play. Guess what I saw?"*

<u>5/7/91</u>
I saw a crep Sel and I and
Iwit to SmoShit and cler it
and I ran iwto the Hos and
I wint to gitaand I stept
on it and it gru bigg andbiger
it to a git and I wit to get
andI cedtand (*) it did andIwas
hap and I had fun and mu fun
and it wus ded and that is lol
The ENd

Student's Writing Samples: 4th Grade

<u>10/8/91</u>
I would liektodo Spell(*)
and do Math andI hatSic and
 riting and teSt

<u>10/30/91</u>
Mr Maglot hep me in
Speeling read a Miy Mom
in Home Werk and you
and MSr Feter(*) and that it
and That oll and mr.ferrell as
you you you you you you
The End

<u>11/19/91</u>n.b.
In the morning I eta drefs
and wach /towertV thin et dres
and go owt to play and ith
I get lunch (*) and that
oll hoeoo thin I ge do Howewake(*)
 and paye otw Side it 5ooclek
and I go in Side it eta Biner
wach tV and go tb ded

12/18/91
    I will play Nintedo
an open pesed.
    Stan dy the fier
pas and play out
Side and Have fun
goto ded. (*) and go dack
to school and
do woke and that
all I do in crimes
    brack
into nenx
    gier
the end

2/18/92
I remenber when I got
Stuck in are cars therunck
I got skere de miy frend Mark
gave me a flash litghe.thend
In push a pess of medle
and it open.(*) the Truck

3/3/92
Me and Jimmy are
good friend we doth like
basedall and Nintodo we
like to play finll fanuse is
a good game we are far
we like to play the game
decues it the dest
game we have to play we
like to play lote of gams
(*) like footdall, BaseBall
and Ting like that
me and Jimmy play
Super morow BroS to
im the dest dut he
good to we like
the finl fanuce we got
under grond and that all
that we like to dow
My dest friend
Jimmy and Ryin

3/30/92
    If I was a annt Iwold
de scered decaus I im small
I fi I world go aat Side
I world de scerde de cus I
im small and pelple are mille
long if I was a gent I
word de Hape pelple will
run away from me and de
scerd to deth and It(*) word

5/6/92
I donT like to Read
decus im not good at
Reading I can read charper
Books I like the Read
ScRet Store to Tell in The
bark(*).The deSt Book iS The
best This is dom

---

n.b. Refers to written expression sample dated 11/19/91 where students heard a story called "Sarah Morton's Day" which is a story about a day in the life of a colonial girl. For the 10 minute written expression sample, we discussed what colonial children did during a typical day and compared to a modern day child's activities. Each child wrote about his or her own day.

<u>Scoring</u>

The teacher evaluated the writing samples using two measures. The quantitative measure was the total number of words written. A qualitative scale also was used to rate writing conventions (see Figure 6). The data from the measures are graphed for both third and fourth grade (Figure 7).

Writing Conventions

5
- sentence structure generally is accurate
- spelling does not hinder readability
- sometimes contains dialogue
- handwriting is legible
- punctuation does not effect readability too much
- word usage generally is correct (s,v,o / homophone / s-v agreement)

4
- sentence structure generally is accurate but not as good as a 5
- spelling does not hinder readability too much
- sometimes contains dialogue
- handwriting is legible
- punctuation does not effect readability too much
- word usage generally is correct (s,v,o / homophone / s-v agreement)

3
- sentence structure has a few problems
- spelling is somewhat of a problem
- may use dialogue but does not punctuate it correctly
- handwriting is legible
- punctuation is fair
- problems sometimes occur with word usage (s,v,o / homophone / s-v agreement)

2
- sentence structure makes story difficult to read
- spelling makes it difficult to read
- may use dialogue but does not punctuate it correctly
- handwriting is not very legible
- punctuation is inconsistent and problematic
- word usage is problematic (s,v,o /homophone/ s-v agreement)

1
- sentence structure is problematic
- spelling makes it extremely difficult to read
- handwriting is illegible, making it extremely difficult to decode
- punctuation is virtually nonexistent
- word usage is problematic (s,v,o / homophone / s-v agreement)

Figure 6.   Writing Conventions

Results

Grade 3

Performance

Measure
# of words written

Judgment

Measure
Writing Conventions

Grade 4

Performance

Measure
# of Words Written

Judgment

Measure
Writing Conventions
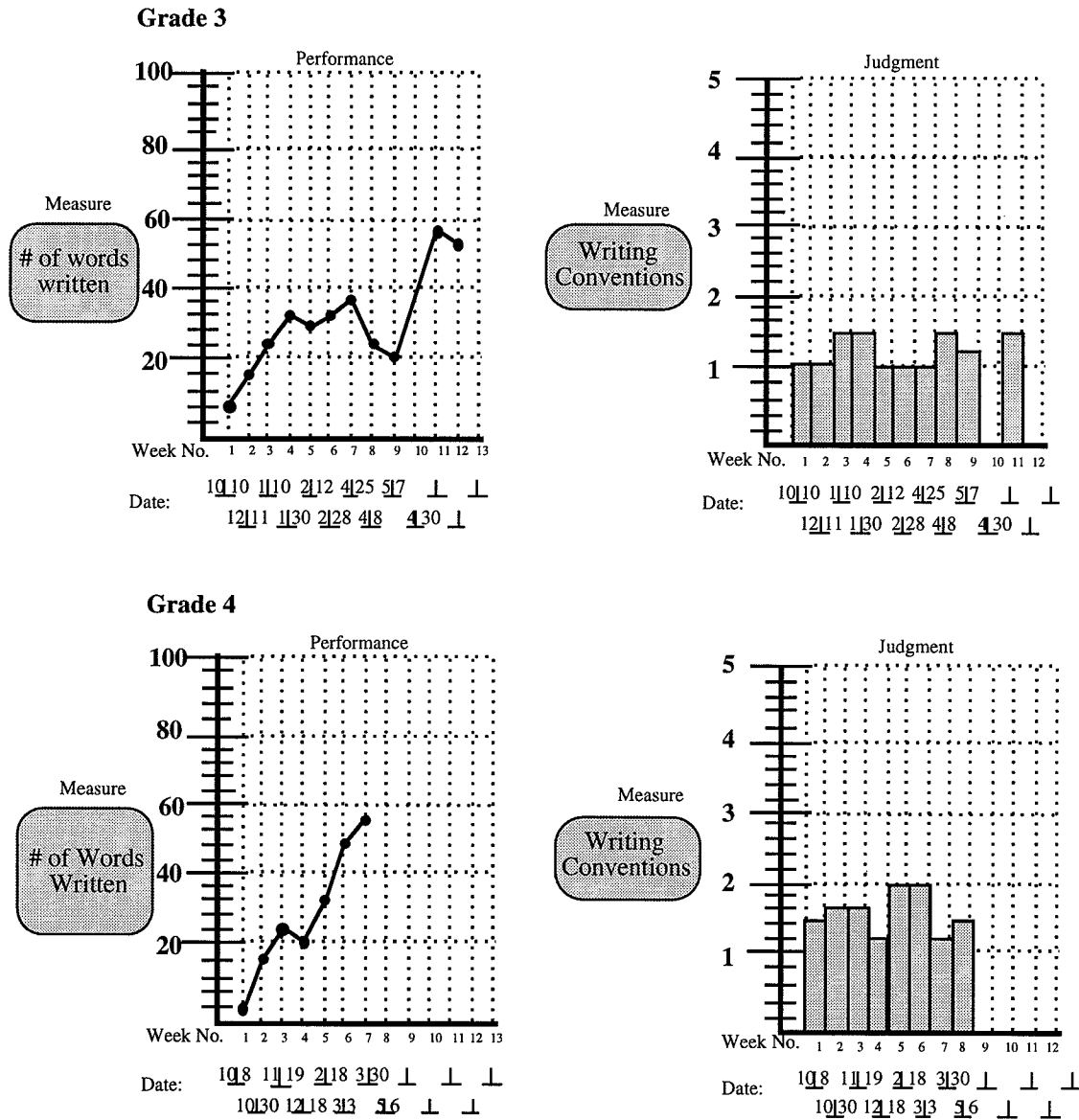
Figure 7. Graphic Representation of Ian's Scoring

During third grade, the number of words written in a story increased as the year progressed. However, at the beginning of fourth grade, the number of words dropped back to beginning of third grade level and then gradually increased as the year progressed. Although the qualitative scale used for writing conventions shows a slight improvement from third to fourth grade, the scale

does not show consistent growth over time. Neither measure used was sensitive enough to capture growth at the rate this student progressed.

Although the growth Ian showed over a two year period was disappointingly small, the assessment measures may not have captured the improvement that was made. A complicating factor was that Ian lost tremendous ground over the summer. No growth from the fall of 1990 to the fall of 1991 appeared in the total number of words written. However, if the percent of words spelled correctly was compared, there was a change from 53% in the fall of 1990 to 71% in the fall of 1991. The final paper (5/6/92) had 81% of the words spelled correctly.

The use of a qualitative scale for writing conventions gave little information on this particular student's growth. Punctuation was virtually nonexistent over the two year period. However, there was growth in readability and sentence structure which may have been shown if a more specific measure had been used (such as correct word sequences).

If the measures that were used had been sensitive to Ian's minute growth, the assessment could have been linked to instructional interventions. By closely monitoring his progress and adapting the instruction there consequently may have been more growth.

Discussion

The teacher in this case study provided writing instruction which met the criteria set forth by Graham (1992): Students engaged in "frequent and meaningful writing," (p. 137); they were allowed time for "developing, embellishing, and refining," (p. 139) and the writing took place in "a warm and supportive environment," (p. 142). The teacher also met Tindal and Parker's (1991) stipulations to use both qualitative and quantitative assessment methods.

One area that could have been improved was in evaluating the assessment measures for sensitivity to individual differences and individual growth. The methods used may have worked for students with higher performance levels but were not sensitive enough for the particular student in this case study. Two implications derived from this evaluation are that: Assessment must be fitted to the individual student to be linked to instructional planning for that student; and the goals of instruction must be clearly stated before decisions are made about what will be assessed.

References

Englert, C. S. (1992). Writing instruction from a socio-cultural perspective: The holistic, dialogue, and social enterprise of writing. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 25*(3), 153-172.

Englert, C. S., Raphael, T. E., & Anderson, L. M. (1992). Socially mediated instruction: Improving students' knowledge and talk about writing. *The Elementary School Journal, 92*(4), 414-449.

Graham, S. (1992). Helping student with LD progress as writers. *Intervention in School and Clinic, 27*(3), 134-144.

Graham, S., & Harris, K. R. (1989). Improving learning disabled students' skills at composing essays: Self-instructional strategy training. *Exceptional Children, 56*(3), 201-214.

Graham, S., MacArthur, C., Schwartz, S., & Page-Voth, V. (1992). Improving the compositions of students with learning disabilities using a strategy involving product and process goal setting. *Exceptional Children, 58*(4), 322-334.

Tindal, G., & Parker, R. (1991). Identifying Measures for evaluating written expression. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 6*, 211-218.

A Case Study in Written Story Retell

Story retells refer to the process of having students tell or write everything they remember after reading a story or hearing a story read to them. Story retells often are used to test comprehension. Retells show which ideas from the story are remembered and how students reconstruct what they have read. Retells also can reveal students' interactions with the text when students include original ideas and interpretations.

In addition to providing information to teachers about students' comprehension, story retells provide learning opportunities for students. In their research on story retelling and comprehension, Gambrell, Pfeiffer, and Wilson (1985) state "practice in verbal rehearsal of what has been read results in significant learning with respect to the comprehension and recall of discourse, and that what has been learned, as a result of practice in retelling, transfers to the reading of subsequent text (p. 220)." The authors also note a positive correlation between the use of story retelling and the ability to answer inferential questions about the text. Rather than viewing story retells as an end in themselves, retells can foster more complex thought processes. As students gain in the ability to retell stories, they can apply the information they recall to questions which require complex thinking processes.

Although story retelling involves reiteration or summarization of text, more complex processes such as evaluation, prediction, or application can be solicited by asking students specific open-ended questions about the text (see Tindal, Nolet, and Blake, 1993). For example, students can be

asked to give specific examples to support their ideas, or to make judgments about what they have read, or to predict what will occur next in a story.

Kletzien and Hushion (1992) provided a classroom-based example of how to teach students to apply complex thinking processes to analyze reading. Their classroom format involved a reading workshop in which the teacher provided short mini-lessons, after which students read silently for about 30 minutes, and then students wrote about what they had read in journals. Students' journal entries tended to rely on summarization or reiteration of the story. Kletzien and Hushion wanted students to expand their writing to reflect more complex thinking skills. The authors made a chart showing different thinking processes with graphic symbols for each process, and then posted the chart on the wall. The authors gave examples to demonstrate the different processes and then encouraged students to apply the processes to journal writing; they marked journal entries with the thought process symbols. In the end they found that students were able to use complex thought processes in the journals.

Although story retells are a valuable instructional and learning tool, they do not constitute a complete expressive writing program. In the following study, the teacher created an expressive writing program which successfully combined written story retells with other writing genres. In addition to story retells, students wrote retells of films, plays, descriptive pieces, autobiographical essays, research reports, and fiction.

Case Study Description

Students first read a story (or read a play or viewed a movie) with vocabulary instruction included as a prereading activity. Next students discussed the story as a group, in order to relate the literature to students' background knowledge and to facilitate comprehension. Finally, the teacher explained her expectations for the writing assignment and students discussed how the

assignment related to the story they had read. They were then given one hour to write.

In addition to reading and group discussion, specific writing skills instruction was provided including:

•Sentence structure instruction using PENS (Deschler writing strategy).

•Capitalization, organization, punctuation and spelling instruction using COPS (another Deschler writing strategy).

•Creative vocabulary generation using SYNECTICS (an Effective Model of Teaching from Joyce and Showers) to stimulate creativity in word usage.

•Story organization and structure instruction: character development; plot explanation sequencing, conflict, resolution, rising and falling action; setting; and vocabulary banks. SCOPE Literature Anthology and Core Literature Novels were used for instruction.

The teacher in this study had more than twenty years experience working with special needs children. She has taken workshops throughout her years of teaching and she incorporated a variety of instructional techniques into her teaching.

Angel, the student in this study is in ninth grade. She receives one hour of instruction in reading and writing in the resource room five days a week. She is classified Learning Disabled. Angel was tested using standardized tests in the eighth grade with the following results.

Woodcock Johnson 6/91

	Grade Equivalent Score	Standard Score
Reading	5.2	77
Math	5.2	75
Spelling	4.8	79

Table 1. Woodcock Johnson test scores.

Angel's writing samples are in the following boxes. Included are the student's title, the writing genre in parenthesis, and the date of writing. The writing samples preserve her original spelling, capitalization, and puncuation.

Student Samples

(Fictional Writing) 10/31/91

I'm in class and I hear and smell all different stuff. I can smell the sweet perfum on people that is floating in the air. I also smell the penut butter on my breath. I hear all kinds of different sounds such as the talk of different groups of people talking. The sound of cars going by. I can heaar the sound of grandma Bess' gum poping. I hear the door shutting, the sound of papper fliping back and forth I can see the mouths of people moving the whisper of grandma Bess talking to her self. Out-side the window I can see the bright light from the sun. I see the leaves on the trees barely moving as thier being blown by the soft wind.

The Fabric of My Life (Simile used basket of fabric) 11/18/91

My fabric means alot of things. For instance the blue back ground represents the sadness of my sisters dealth this year. The sadness of not being able to see my neice and nefew who are the children of my sister who died.

Another color in my piece of fabric is red. Red reprisents love for someone who is special or for someone close. Red reprisents love formy parents and maybe a guy i like. Ihave no idea if he likes me; i wish i did.

Their is another color that is special to me which is yellow. Yellow reprisents the sunnyday in my life. The sunnyday is when we moved into are own house. Yellow reprisents things that make me fill good such as being able to spendtime with my family.

Their are two more colors in my piece of fabric that i have fillings about. The first one is white. White reprisents calm, boring and happy parts of my life. I really fill calm when people talk about my sisters daelth. The boring part means more kickback and being able to just sit back and not have any worries.

The green reprisents the wierd and unique part of me. Sometimes i'm happy and sometimes I'm sad. I think that is the wierd part of me. The unique part of me is my cheerfulness and being short. I can undrestand when people talk to me. all of these colors repristen my life.

The Long Walk Home (Movie Retell) 12/2/91

My opinion of the movie is that the blacks were right to boycat. I also think that all blacks should stick up for their rights and they should be treated equally just like everybody else. It also was a good thing Mrs. Mariah Thompson did for the blacks. I think she felt that the blacks should be treated equally. The movie, to me, was verry interesting because I like reading and watching movies on how the blacks were treated back in the 1950's. The reason I like watching those kinds of movies is because I don't think it was right for the blacks to be treated like they were from some other world when they were just the same as every-one else; they should habe equal Right too.

I think there was alot of love in this movie, Such as the love Odessa felt for Mary Kathyrn and Mrs. Thompson. Odessa was also verry afecinate with her own children. There was also love for Odessa's children, the older sister and her brother.

There was alot of prejude in the movie such as Norman's brother who always was putting down the blacks and also Norman's mother who would talk aabout Odessa and the other blacker helper in front of them and wouldn't care how Odessa felt.

I also think that Norman wanted to do what was right for the blacks but he also felt that he should be against them because everybody else was.

Mrs. Thompson was doing a right thing by carpooling For the blacks since they couldn't ride the bus and it was kind of for some of them to walk to work.

I also felt sorry for Odessa's children because they were kind of stuck in the middle of everything, and they wanted thier mother (Odessa) to be agaainst the whites like thier father was.

My Thoughts About Pearl Harbor (Research Report) 12/16/91

My thought about Pearl Harbor are that there was alot of Bombing and Killings on everyone. there was traditles for the soldiers. They were probualy wondding if they would ever be going home and seeing thier family. In some places it was very molten from all the fires and explosives and also a lot of noise, memories, and sadness.

I think that some of the soliders felt honorable, and that they achived something. They felt happy that they were in something that would make them heros, They also felt scared about loosing thier lives and family, and for what they belived in. They also probualy felt exited and emotional. The men on the boats probualy would be felling scared that the enimes would sink the ships and would drownd. Some were furious about having to be in the war and not being able to be at home with thier family the women were also really acared for thier husband not coming home.

On the war path there was probualy alot carnage and obliteration and the soldiers weree crack men.

Christmas Vacation (Autobiographical Incident) 1/7/92

On Christmas vacation I stayed home on Christmas day with my parents. Later in the day my sister came over and she brought some gifts for my parents and I. We all had Christmas dinenr and watched movies. My neice stayed for a week. We didnt do anything special, because we all had the flu. Everytime she started feeling better I got sickeer, it was the other way around for me.

On New years eve I went to my sisters house and babysat for her. At 12:00 pm my cousin and I went outside and saw all the fire work and a big bomb with gun shots started going off. It was really dark across the street. I heard something running around in the rocks, it scared me really bad, Then it started growling so I ran inside.

The most enjoyable thing I did during winter break was stay at my sissters. My sousin and I went over to a couple of our friends house. We visited for a while, Then we all went out for pizza. My cousin friend is 17 and he drives and has his licences. We went out saturday since it was cruise night and we cruised untill 10:30 pm. They took us back home (to my sisters) I came home Sunday mornings early.

For my New Years resolutions I decided to go on a diet. Also not to eat as much as I usally do.

King (Movie Retell) 2/5/92

Martin L. King Jr. was a man who wanted equal rights along with equal opperunities, schools, Jobs, and education.

MLK had four skillfully tered children, two girls and two boys. He wanted his children to be judge by thier character, not thieer color of skin. Besides, his children being treated equally and judge right he wanted everyone to be treated equally no matter the color of thier skin, or race.

Martin L. King set a goal to go on a march peacefully with out any vilonce. He went to Preseeedent Johnson to ask if he would be able to go on the march, Johnson told him to go ahead. On the march a black man was payed by F.B.I. to inerupt the march.

Martin L. King was going back to mephis to march again sence the non-violence was on trile. People in mephis hated Bendit because he was on the Black people's side

While Martin L. King was in mephis a white lady was helping the Black people, by bringing them food and suplies. On night the white lady picked up a black college student who was exited about the march and was going with M.L.K. A car came up to the shite lady's car and started bumbing inot it. It came around to the side of the car and tried running it off the road. One of the white man pulled a gun out the window and shot the white lady, he wasnt sure if he had shot the balck collage student so he pulled oveer to check to see if he had. The black student wasn't dead so he pretended to act like he was.

Martin L King told Malcom x that he felt that Malcom x hated being black. Malcom x avercated vilonce, but on the other hand Martin L. King didn't avercated vilonce. Martin L. King was verry different from Malcom x. The way they were different was that malcom x was agreeable with the white man because he liked vilonce. Malcom x was terrififed with the white man that he agreed on anything they said, or what they wanted him to do.

Martin L King was staying in a apartment so that the people would leave his family alone. On night his wife corettea got a call and was told that martin Luther King had won the noble peace prize. It was midnight and Martin L. King was half a sleep when coreetta called and told him he had won the noble peace prize he thought he was dreaming. he hung up the phone and about five minutes later he called her back up and ask if she had just called and she said Yes I did he told her he thought he was dreaming.

A couple weeks later Martin L King was shot out side of his apartment in mephis. Martin wasnt dead untill they reached the hospital. Doctors couldnt help him one bit hes heart just stoped. Martins brother couldnt exept the fact that he was dead.

Martins L. Kings killer was found and is still alive and is in jail for life. Martins killers name is James Earl Ray.

Of Missing Persons (Read detective story, write fiction) 3/5/92

All my cases begin with a problem to be solved. In this case, Mrs. Carrosco came to me with a problem about her two year old daughter who was missing. It all started one Night about 2 weeks ago. Mrs. Carrosco got up to check on her daughter; she wasn't in her bed. Mrs. Carrosco went all over the house looking for her. she couldn't find heer for about two hours then she finally found heer in the laundry room. Well this morning Mrs. Carrosco's daughter was missing again. this morning she went to the laundry room to see if she could find her but this time she was know where in sight. Mrs. Carrosco went to everybody on her block to see if she could findher but No one had seen her. Mrs. Carrosco went to her grandmothers house but no one was there eiathier so she went back home and began look all over again. Then about 5:30 pm I got a call from heer she explained the whole setuation to me so I decided to go to her house and look for clues. I could only find two clues. the two clues were that the back door had a key stuck into the door the other clue was that Mrs. Carrosco's daughte's pajamas had been folded up and put on the bed neatly so I asked Mrs. Carrisci ud abyone besides her and her husband had had a key to thier huse. She told me that theeere was only one other person and that was her Grandmother. then we called he Grandmother but No one was there exept a message left on the answer machine say I went to the mall be back at 8:30 pm. so we went to the mall and in a tow store we found Mrs. Carrosco's Grandmother with her daughter.

Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde (Simile from movie) 3/18/92

I am like a River because I am sometimes clam and caring. I like to be admired around people. I like people to be around me and to sit and talk to me with care and understanding. I also like young children to look apon me with trust and someone they could talk to about anything and everything.

At times I am like a dirty River one, that is not so plesant to be around. I am angry or upset, but I dont fell like a dirty river because I am not in a good mood or I am dazzlingly dangerous. At times I am also mercifully violent.

I am also kike a respectfully annoying river because I am always worried if anyone is mad at I allways ask and try to find out things. At times I am dangerously seruris the way Im like is because I am being crazy but I'm also serious at the same time.

Some times I am in a sad mood and dont fell like showing my felling just like a river doesn't like showing it's rocks or the stuff under neath the blueish green water.

Romeo and Juliet (Read play, rewrote ending) 4/30/92

My Idea for an happy ending would be that Romeo came over to the tomb and he found Juliet lining there he thought she was dead and started to drink posin as Juilet starts waking up and she see's him falling dead. she draws his sabior. Just then he wakes up and thier eyes meet and the fall in love all over again. They go to Juliets father and Romeos father and tell them that they are married if there father dosent like it then they are going to run far away and live happily ever after and nevere see there parents again.

<u>Scoring</u>

The writing samples were scored by counting the total number of thought units and by using a holistic scale rating quality of content (a scale rating quality of syntax and grammar). Additional evaluative measures (used only for feedback to the student) included a sentence structure instruction success graph and a success graph for writing mechanics.

Results
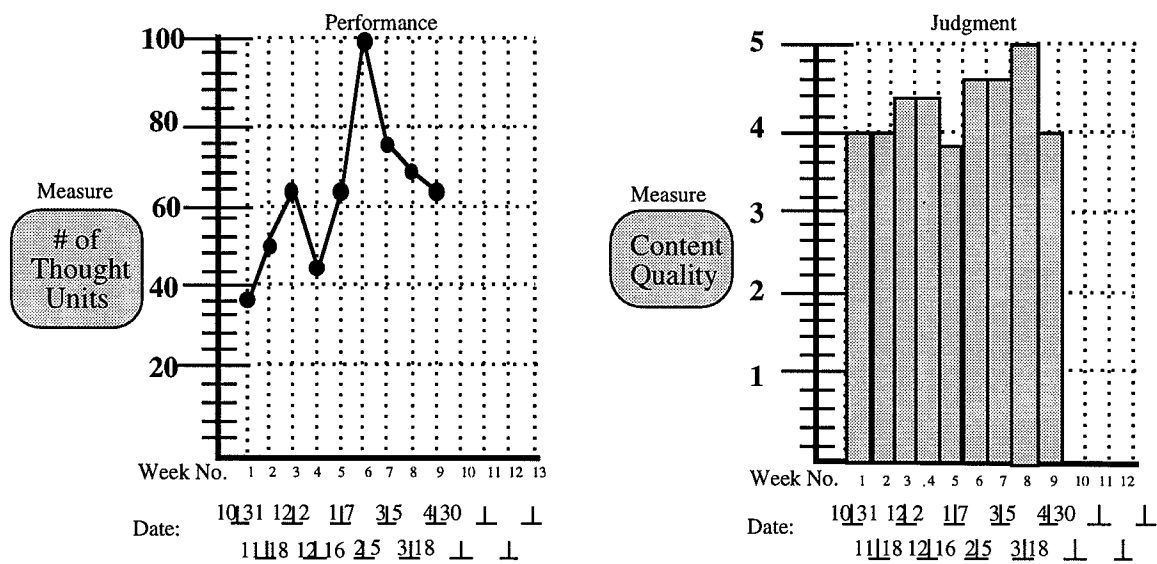
Figure 8. Graphic Representation of Angel's Scoring

Angel consistently wrote compositions with a greater number of thought units per story and higher content quality on the rating scale. Considering the wide variety of assignments which could have affected her interest level and the structure of the assignments which could have affected the way she interpreted the prompt, it is interesting that the trend was so marked.

Discussion

This case reflects how story retells can serve as aids to reading comprehension and as a means for teachers to evaluate students' recall and comprehension of written materials. In this case, the teacher integrated story

retells into a rich language arts instructional program which included a literature base, group discussion to aid comprehension and to integrate background knowledge, and specific writing instructional strategies.

References

Gambrell, L., Pfeiffer, W., & Wilson, R. (1985). The effects of retelling upon reading comprehension and recall of text information. *Journal of Educational Research, 78,* 216-220.

Kalmbach, J. (1986). Getting at the point of retellings. *Journal of Reading, 29*(4), 326-333.

Kletzien, S., & Hushion, B. (1992). Reading workshop: Reading, writing, thinking. *Journal of Reading, 35*(6), 444-451.

Smith, S., & Jakson, J. (1985). Assessing reading/learning skills with written retellings. *Journal of Reading, 28*(7), 622-31.

Young, P., & Bastianelli, C. (1990). Retelling comes to Chiloquin High. *Journal of Reading, 34*(3), 194-196.

The Effects of Semantic Maps on Expository Story Retells

Semantic maps provide a visual display of text structure, which range from informal to highly structured forms. For example, for an informal semantic map, the main idea or topic is written in the center of the page and circled. The supporting ideas or categories are written radiating around the main topic; further supporting facts or details are written under the appropriate categories. More complex maps, such as flow charts, can show causal relationships or other complex relationships between ideas.

Such semantic maps not only provide visual materials, but also can be used in interactive teaching. The teacher writes the semantic map on the blackboard or overhead, and either gives students blank semantic map forms to fill in or has students create their own semantic maps. Students participate by telling what they know about the topic, with their ideas written under the appropriate category. Students then can either write the information on their own semantic map or can be given a copy of the completed map.

The value of creating the map as a group process is that discussion is an important contributor to learning and comprehension. Students learn by making connections between newly introduced information and already learned information. When a new topic is introduced, students are asked to brainstorm about what they already know about the topic; then the teacher introduces new ideas from the material to be read. The relationship between the old and new ideas is discussed by the class.

Previewing important new concepts while connecting them to concepts already learned strengthens comprehension.

Semantic maps are a powerful aid in helping students comprehend what they read and in organizing the material to pick out relevant information. Semantic maps have applications for both reading and writing as well as content area subjects. Semantic maps can be used within a wide range of instructional activities, including vocabulary development. They also can be used as a prereading skill, a postreading skill, a study skills activity, and a prewriting activity (Heimlich, & Pittelman, 1986).

Vocabulary Development

When used for vocabulary development, the teacher writes the main topic of the chapter on the overhead and circles it. Students are asked to brainstorm words they already know about the topic; the teacher groups their words by category around the main topic. New words from the chapter are added to the categories, and their meanings are discussed with the students, a very important component in students learning new vocabulary. The discussion helps in retrieving already known material and in making new connections (see Englert [1992]; Heimlich & Pittelman [1986]).

In fact, Stahl and Vancil (1986) assert that it is the discussion, rather than the actual semantic map, that is the crucial element in vocabulary learning. For example, although a preliminary goal for using semantic maps may be teacher-directed vocabulary instruction, a more important long term goal may be student use of metacognitive skills to pick out unknown vocabulary words and either search for meaning within the context or check another source for meaning, if necessary. The teacher

uses semantic maps to teach comprehension and organizational skills, but the goal is for students to eventually use these skills independently.

Semantic maps also can be used as a wrap-around reading activity (completed before, during, and after reading): The purpose is to help students pick out the main ideas and supporting facts or details from their reading.

1. For a content area subject, the chapter title or main idea of the chapter is written and circled and then chapter subheadings are written to reflect important ideas or categories of information to be covered in the chapter.

2. Students can fill in the supporting facts or details as they read them or, as a postreading activity, after they read the chapter. After students have filled in their semantic maps, class discussion reinforces learning. This discussion also provides an opportunity for students to fill in any ideas they may have missed on their own.

3. The filled in semantic map can then be used to study for the chapter test.

Prewriting Activity

Another content application of semantic maps is as a prewriting activity for report writing. Semantic maps are used to decide what will be covered by the report. The map shows what is already known about the topic and what needs further research. The topic of the report is written, and then the main supporting ideas are written, then the supporting facts or details are listed under each category. For creative writing, a similar approach can be used. The student decides the topic to write about (main

topic), the main things to say about it (categories), and then fills in some details under each category.

For reading comprehension in basal readers or literature, the semantic map can be used to analyze the main ideas or events of the story. Several formats and content strctures can be used for the semantic map including analysis of story grammar elements such as main characters, setting, problems/attempts at resolution/outcomes, theme, and reactions to the story using (Idol, 1987) story retells or new endings to the story.

Caveats and Cautions

Semantic maps have such wide possibilities, both in form and in application, that it is easy to use them as ends in themselves. However, it is important to focus on long term goals such as improvement in comprehension and organization of materials. It also may be important to carefully plan the move from teacher-directed instruction to student independence, which can be facilitated using a model-lead-test paradigm (Engelmann & Carnine, 1982; Idol, 1987). Instruction begins with the teacher modeling how to create a semantic map and explicitly reflecting upon the thinking process. During the lead or guided practice phase, the teacher gradually encourages students to create the map. During the test phase, students complete the process independently.

Research on the Effectiveness of Semantic Mapping

Several research studies on the effectiveness of the semantic mapping instruction have been conducted. Peresich, Meadows, and Sinatra (1990) conducted a study in which semantic maps were used to improve reading comprehension, written communication, and theme writing skills for high school students in a rural district in Mississippi. Semantic mapping has been introduced in response to low scores on a state mandated skills test (Basic Skills Assessment Program in Reading, Written Communication, and Theme Writing). Almost half (47%) of the eleventh graders failed the Theme Writing portion in 1987. The district decided to use cognitive (semantic) mapping as a model to improve theme writing skills, and therefore provided teacher training in the process of using semantic mapping, computers, and software which modeled semantic mapping.

The results were that 99.5% of the eleventh grade students in 1988 and 100% in 1989, passed the theme writing portion of the standardized test. There also were dramatic improvements in the scores on the reading comprehension and written communication portions of the test (Peresich et al., 1990).

In this example, even though norm-referenced testing was used to measure progress, dramatic improvement followed the use of semantic mapping. The next example below used curriculum-based assessment in an experimental setting to measure the effectiveness of semantic mapping. In these two studies, Idol (1987a, 1987b) researched the effects of semantic maps on reading comprehension for skilled and unskilled readers and on comprehension in content texts for poor readers.

In the first study a multiple baseline design was used (the first group was in the baseline phase for four days, while the second group was lagged in the baseline phase for 8 days). Each group also acted as its own control group by comparing the intervention data to baseline data. The intervention was divided into five phases.

In the **baseline phase**, the teacher showed ten comprehension questions to the students. The teacher explained expectations for answering the questions and told students they would answer the questions after they read a story.

During the **intervention/model phase**, the teacher modeled how to complete a story map. Students participated in the process by presenting their ideas and then by filling in their own map. Without using their story maps, students individually answered comprehension questions.

During the **intervention/lead phase**, students read a story and either filled in their story map as they read or filled in the map after having read the story. Next, the teacher filled in a story map on an overhead, calling on students to give their responses. Finally, students answered comprehension questions without using their books or story maps.

In the **intervention/test phase**, students independently read a story and filled in a story map. Then, they answered the comprehension questions without using their books or story maps.

The final phase was **maintenance**. Students independently read stories and answered comprehension questions without using books or story maps. The rationale for the maintenance phase was that if students had used the story maps to organize the material to increase

comprehension, they would continue to mentally organize the material after they quit using story maps.

All students showed significant gains between the baseline phase and the test phase. While all students scored higher during the maintenance phase than during the baseline phase, results indicated that some students needed to spend more time on the lead phase. That is, some students needed more practice using semantic maps before they learned the organizational skills and were able to maintain the skills without the maps. Neverthless, comprehension improved after learning how to use semantic maps.

In the following case study, a teacher introduced semantic maps along with a self questioning technique, to an eighth grade study skills class. The goal in using semantic maps was for students to organize important information from a social studies text chapter and to use the information to write a story retell. The teacher used curriculum-based measures to evaluate the effectiveness of the instruction.

Summary of Study

The teacher in this study had seventeen years experience, teaching in a self-contained classroom for six years and teaching for ten years in a resource room. He had a Master's degree, specializing in teaching students with learning handicaps. The student, Maria (an eighth grader), had been identified as learning handicapped/learning disabled. She received resource room services for math and study skills. During the current study, she was mainstreamed in language arts. Maria's test scores for Woodcock-Johnson and the Stanford Achievement test were as follows.

Woodcock-Johnson   3/91

	Percentile
Reading	9
Written Language	13

Table 2. Woodcock Johnson scores for Maria.

Stanford Achievement   2/92

	Percentile
Reading	10
Language	12
Reading	14

Table 3. Stanford Achievement Scores for Maria.

Instructional Strategies

During this study, a number of different instructional strategies were implemented and are described below with the dates of their introduction.

2/28/92. The student read the passage "Early Writers," (all passages were selected from The American Nation, an eighth grade history text). This was the baseline phase, the student was given 10-20 minutes to read the passage and write a retell of the passage (without instruction on how to write the retell).

Maria earned extra credit points for RSP (Resource Specialist Program) as part of a motivational strategy for writing retells.

3/23/92. Maria was taught a self-questioning technique derived from an article on content reading from Teaching Exceptional Children (Spring, 1992). The student read the passage "The Plains Indians," and wrote a retell. She was given 10-20 minutes to read the passage and write the retell.

4/24/92. A mapping technique was introduced for note-taking while reading content material. The student read the passage, "Abraham Lincoln," and wrote a story map and a story retell. She was provided 15 to 25 minutes for this activity.

5/12/92. The student read "The Election of 1824." The student was given 15-25 minutes to read the story, write a story map, and write a story retell.

<u>Curriculum Materials and Retells</u>

On the following pages we have assembled: the first two passages that were read, along with the corresponding retells; and the last two passages, with the story maps and retells.

> **Early Writers**
> Washington Irving was the first American writer to become well known in Europe as well as America. Irving, a New Yorker, published his first works in the 1820's. His two most famous stories are "Rip Van Winkle" and "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow." The stories appeared in a collection of stories called The Sketch Book. Both take place in the Hudson River valley north of New York City.
> "Rip Van Winkle" is based on an old Dutch legend. Rip is a simple farmer in the days before the American Revolution. One day, he is put under a magic spell. He sleeps for 20 years. He awakes to find that his quiet village has changed into a bustling town. The town buzzes with talk about "right of citizens-elections-members of congress-Bunker Hill-heroes of seventy-six- and other words, which... bewildered Van Winkle." Readers appreciated the way Irving poked fun at Rip, who had slept through the entire American Revolution.

Washing Irving was one of the most well noun writer in Europe & in the United States. He wrote stories such as Rip Van Winkel, nd Sleepy Hollow. The story Rip Van Winkel was about a man which was put in a trance to sleep for 20 years when he wouk up he found that is little town was so big people were fighting over members of congress and other issues.

The Plains Indians

As many as 150,000 Indians lived on the plains in the mid-1800s. The Plains Indians included many different nations. Each nation had its own language. But they could talk to each other using sign language. Hand signals worked so well one trapper reported, that a "conversation is held for hours between two individuals who cannot understand each other's language.

The Plains Indians had different origins. Some nations, such as the Arikaras, had lived on the plains from Minnesota in the 1700s. Plains Indians had rich cultures. They had well-organized religions, made fine handicrafts, and created many poems.

Most of the Plains Indians had been farmers once. Indian men had also hunted buffalo on foot. During the 1700s, their life changed. They began to catch and tame wild horses that roamed the plains. the horses, called mustangs, grew up from horses that had escaped from Spanish settlers many years before.

The horse gave the Indians a new freedom. Indians could travel farther and faster. As a result, buffalo hunting became more important.

The plains Indians lived in the 1700's. They would hunt bafollow by feet. Then there were the sioux who lived in the mountains of Minnesota. The Indians were very skilled, artistic and also wrote poem Then they found the wild house called Satiou and the Indians, new way of hunting became easier & faster than before.

<u>**Abraham Lincoln**</u>

In 1858, the Illinois Senate race caught the attention of the whole nation. Senator Stephen Douglas was being challenged by Abraham Lincoln, a Republican. The race was important because most Americans thought that Douglas, a Democrat, would run for President in 1860.

Lincoln was a national figure like Douglas. But he was well known in Illinois as a successful lawyer and politician. Lincoln had spent eight years in the Illinois legislature and then served as a congressman from Illinois.

People liked Lincoln because he was "just folks." He enjoyed swapping stories. Lincoln was known as a good straightforward speaker. Even so, a listener once complained that he could not understand a speech of Lincoln's. "There are always some fleas a dog can't reach" was Lincoln's reply. Many people admire Lincoln for his honesty. Some called him Honest Abe.

Abraham Lincoln was born in the backwoods of Kentucky. Like many frontier people, his parents moved often in search of better land. They lived in Indiana and later in Illinois. Lincoln spent only a year in school as a child. But he taught himself to read and spent many hours reading by firelight.

After Lincoln left home, he set up a store in Illinois. He learned law on his own and began a career in politics. In 1858, Lincoln decided to run for the Senate because he strongly opposed the Kansas-Nebraska Act.
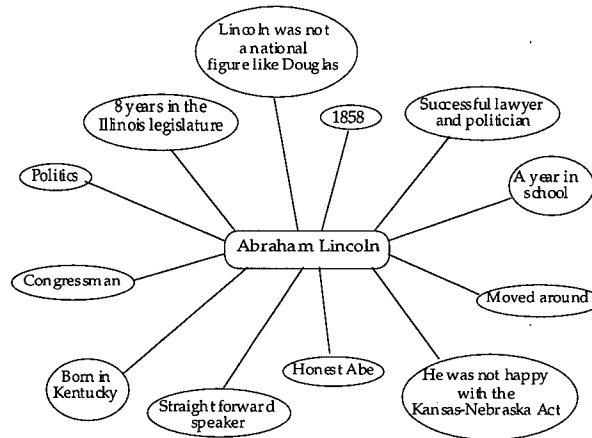
Abraham Lincoln

Abraham Lincoln was born in the back of Kentucky. He only stend a year in school. but he thout himself to read. and write As a kid his parants moved around alot looking for land. Lincoln was very honest, thats how he eard the name honest Abe. Lincoln was not a national figure like Douglas but he was a successful lawyer and politician/In 1858 Lincoln disided to run for senate because he didn't agree with the Kansas - Nabraska Act

---

The Election of 1824

In 1824, four men ran for President. All four were Republicans, but each drew support from different parts of the country. John Quincy Adams was most popular in the East. Henry Clay and Andrew Jackson had support in the West. William Crawford was favored in the South, but he was too ill to campaign much.

The candidates. John Quincy Adams of Massachusetts was the son of Abigail and John Adams, the second President. The younger Adams was a Harvard graduate and a talented diplomat. He helped end the War of 1812 and was Secretary of State under President James Monroe.

People admired Adams for his intelligence and strict morals. However, as a critic said, he was "hard as a piece of granite and cold as a lump of ice." This coldness kept him from being liked.

Henry Clay was Speaker of the House of Representatives. He was a skillful negotiator and helped work out important compromises in Congress. Clay was from Kentucky, a western state. But he was not nearly as popular as the other candidate from the West, Andrew Jackson.

To most Americans, Andrew Jackson was the hero of the Battle of New Orleans. He was also a fine example of a self-made man. He had risen from a poor boyhood to become a successful businessman. As a result, he won the support of self-made men everywhere; especially in the frontier areas of the West.

The map shows "The Election of 1824" at the center with connecting ovals:
- John Quincy Adams was popular in the East
- Henry Clay and Andrew Jackson West
- Son of the second president John Adams
- Intelligence and strict morals
- Clay was from Kentucky
- William Crawford South but he was too ill to campaign
- Andrew Jackson was a hero in the Battle of New Orleans
- He was poor but then successful

The Election of 1824

The election had four good men but they all had support from different states. John Quincy Adams was popular in the East. Hes father was the second presedent John Adams his yougher brother was gradute from Harverd. Henry Clay and Andrew Jackson had support in the west. William Crawford had his support from south but he was ill so he could not campain that much.

Scoring

Students' retells were scored using both a quantitative measure (counting thought units) and a qualitative measure (a rating scale). Thought units included relevant (story based) phrases that were generally grammatically correct (with a subject, verb, and object), with no regard given to spelling. The dimensions evaluated using the rating scale were, "analyzing, sequencing, attending to detail, [and] maintaining cohesion of information." The specific rubrics for the rating scale were as follows:

1. Not enough written to assess.

2. The main idea is barely present, selection is vague and ill defined. No details are present. Specific names are omitted. No sequence is present.

3. The main idea is almost present. Few details exist. Inaccuracies exist. Some names are included but not identified. Sequence is not clear.

4. The main idea is told. Significant details are missing. Names are included but identification is vague. Sequence generally follows historical chronology.

5. The main idea is told. Significant details are included. Names and identification are stated and clear. Sequence follows historical chronology.

Results
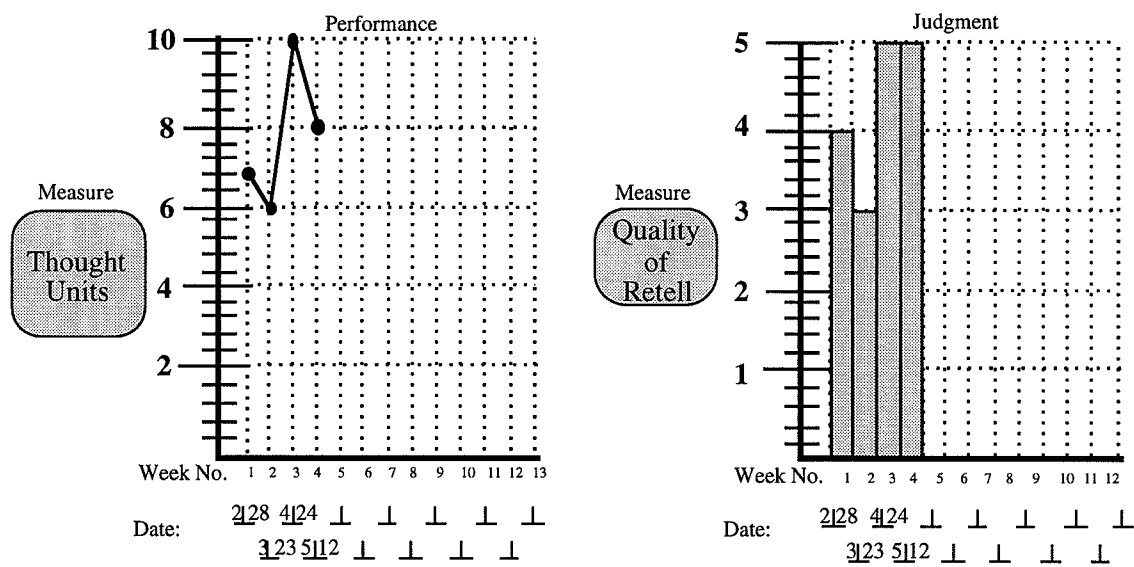
Figure 9. Graphic Representation of Maria's Scoring

The number of thought units and the qualitative rating for each retell are shown on the graphs above.

For both measures, the student's performance decreased after the self-questioning technique was introduced; however, performance increased for both retells after semantic mapping was introduced. This case study is consistent with previous research findings that support semantic maps as useful tools for content area text comprehension. The story retells written with semantic maps improved in quality– they included the main ideas and supporting facts from the text and presented the information in an organized fashion.

Discussion

Clearly, semantic maps may be important instructional and assessment tools. They also can be used in several different content applications, including reading, writing, and for content area subjects.

Semantic maps can be created as a group with group discussion providing the means to connect new ideas to background information. Individuals can create semantic maps to help organize their ideas for reports, creative writing, or study guides. Yet, semantic maps should be used to facilitate long-term goals.

References

Flood, J., & Lapp, D. (1988). Conceptual mapping strategies for

understanding information texts. *Reading Teacher, 41*(8), 780-783.

Heimlich, J. E., & Pittelman, S. D. (1986). *Semantic mapping: Classroom*

applications. IRA Service Bulletin, Wisconsin Center for Education

Research.

Idol, L. (1987a). Group story mapping: A comprehension strategy for both

skilled and unskilled readers. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 20*, 196-

205.

Idol, L. (1987b). A critical thinking map to improve content area

comprehension of poor readers. *Remedial and Special*

Education,(RASE), 8(4), 28-40.

Peresich, M. L., Meadows, J. D., & Sinatra, R. (1990). Content area cognitive

mapping for reading and writing proficiency. *Journal of Reading,,* 424-

432.

Reynolds, S. B., & Hart, J. (1990). Cognitive mapping and word processing:

Aids to story revision. *Journal of Exceptional Children, 58*(4), 273-279.

Sinatra, R. C., Berg, D., & Dunn, R. (1985). Semantic mapping improves

reading comprehension of learning disabled students. *Teaching*

Exceptional Children, 17(4), 310-314.

Sinatra, R. C., Stahl-Gremake, J., & Berg, D. N. (1984). Improving reading comprehension of disabled readers through semantic mapping. *Reading Teacher, 38*(1), 22-29.

Stahl, S. A., & Vancil, S. J. (1986). Discussion is what makes semantic maps work in vocabulary instruction. *The Reading Teacher, 40*(1), 62-67.

Validating Portfolio Assessments in Writing with Curriculum-Based Measurement

Gomez, Graue, and Bloch (1991) state that portfolio assessment developed as a result of two parallel movements: "a resurgence of calls for rethinking the general purposes, policies, and procedures of standardized testing; and... a series of conceptual shifts within the field of English language arts" (p. 620). The net effect is that The National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) has recently formulated a policy on assessment in English to diversify the items being measured by standardized tests, both in terms of instructional relevancy and cultural relevancy. Therefore, increasing attention is being given to classroom based assessment procedures as a way to test what was actually taught; portfolios, containing samples of students' work, are one form of classroom-based assessment.

Portfolios vary widely in their composition, in their application for evaluation of students' work, and in their use for planning instruction. Portfolios generally contain a sample of student work; additionally, however, portfolios may contain student evaluations of their learning process and teacher checklists or evaluations of students' progress toward goals. And not all portfolios are used for assessment only, portfolios also are used for instructional purposes. Portfolios may be used as a method of organizing or displaying students' work, or as a method of evaluating students' work informally.

The appeal of portfolio assessment is that it sounds simple, although, Nolet's (1993) description reflects its complexity, delineating the steps that are necessary for such assessment to take place:

> Minimally, valid portfolio assessment requires a teacher to clarify the goals of instruction in a particular skill or knowledge area, specify the various associated assessment domains, design tasks that representatively sample those domains,

administer the tasks reliably, and aggregate data obtained from disparate sources
to arrive at conclusions about student performance (p. 20).

For example, the contents of a portfolio for a language arts class would be
determined by the goals of instruction and how the domains are defined.
Whether spelling, reading, and expressive writing are viewed as separate
domains or aspects of one domain would determine the types of products
sampled. A representative sample would include tasks for each of the critical
aspects and dimensions of the domain.

When portfolios are used as an assessment method, issues of technical
adequacy (reliability and validity) need to be addressed. For example, although
the Vermont Portfolio Assessment program generated a wave of initial
enthusiasm and support, the results from the follow-up evaluation by the
National Center for Research on Education, Standards, and Student Testing
(CRESST) has led to a wiser and more cautious approach. They found that,
though the work samples in mathematics and writing were highly valued by
teachers and students, the reliability of their evaluations were precariously low
(.33 to .43), precluding any further analyses to ascertain validity (Koretz,
McCaffery, Klein, Bill, & Strecher, 1993).

The concept of reliable administration of tasks differentiates a work
sample from an assessment task. Work samples may vary widely– from rough
drafts to final copies and from samples written in short periods of time to
samples written over days or weeks. A reliably administered assessment task
implies conditions which are controlled and repeatable. In order to assess
performance for growth over time, the sample tasks must be comparable (i.e.,
reliably administered).

Even with controls and standardized administration, aggregating data
from samples in a portfolio is a very complex process. Portfolio samples are
often evaluated using holistic rating scales to make qualitative judgments, which

are based on an ordinal rating scale (for example, 4 or 5 is a high rating and 1 is a low rating, on any particular dimension). When several different qualities or domains are being rated using ordinal rating scales, it is inappropriate to add or average scores. Nolet (1993) cautions against creating a summary score for the portfolio based on widely varying sample items. He suggests that statements about the different domains sampled should be included in an evaluation: "The only summative evaluation that makes any sense is a rough estimate of the students' overall status ..." (p. 19).

Nolet (1993) also states that portfolios should not be used to make generalizations about program effectiveness or how students compare to their peers. "Perhaps the most viable use of portfolios is for making individual referenced decisions, i.e., the student's current performance is compared with her or his previous performance, and achievement is interpreted in terms of rate and level of progress" (p. 25). Valid interpretations about a student's performance can only be made if the portfolio is systematically designed to meet Nolet's minimal requirements.

A simpler approach is to use the portfolio as an instructional tool and to combine it with valid assessment measures. For example, Wesson and King (1993) describe a model in which curriculum-based measurement is included as part of the portfolio assessment process. The portfolio is used to evaluate a student's interests and to examine areas of strength and weakness, which, guides further instruction. Curriculum-based assessment, however, is used to evaluate the effectiveness of instruction for a particular student and to compare a student's performance to his or her previous performance or age-grade appropriate peers. An advantage of the method proposed by Wesson and King is that the data gained from curriculum-based measures can be used to check the validity of findings from evaluating the portfolio using other methods. In the

following case study, this type of portfolio assessment was used with specific measurement techniques.

A Case Study Using Portfolio Assessment

The teacher in this case study had more than twenty years teaching experience in both regular and special education. At the time of the study she was the resource room teacher in an elementary school.

The student in this study, Tim, received 2 hours and 15 minutes of reading and written language instruction daily in the resource room. He participated in the study during third and fourth grades.

Instructional Strategies

The resource room program combined reading from literature with a writers' workshop format. Students wrote daily, using one of three formats-written story retells, expressive writing using story starters, or self-generated writing journals. In fourth grade, percentage of words spelled correctly was also determined. In third grade, samples were taken from written story retells and from expressive writing. In addition to expressive writing samples, the portfolio contained a sentence structure instruction success graph and a success graph for writing mechanics.

Scoring

The assessments incorporated core literature, group discussion, and reliance on background knowledge to produce written expression work samples. Selections from the literature and subsequently the writing samples, reflected several different literary genres. All samples were collected in a portfolio and scored using a holistic rating scale and by counting the total number of thought units. The ratings anchors changed slightly between third and fourth grade to reflect the modifications in the instructional programs. Following are the rubrics used in each grade (Figure 10).

Written Expression: Grade 3

Writing conventions, organization, and cohesion, and story idea.

1

Punctuation and capitalization are virtually non-existent.
Spelling errors are gross and make story impossible to read.
Handwriting is illegible making story impossible to read.
Story is too short.
No plot, no developed characters.

2

Contains a few punctuation marks and capitals.
Spelling errors make story ver difficult to read.
Handwriting makes story very difficult to read.
Story is still too short but may have a plot.

3

May still lack capitals and periods, but they are used most of the time.
Several spelling errors, some may hinder readability.
Handwriting is legible, but slant style, spacing is inconsistent.
Length of story is acceptable.
Plot may exist but has too many disrupting events.

4

Capitals and periods are generally accurate.
Handwriting is becoming more consostent. and is legible.
Some evidence of a clear story line.
"Ands" & "Then" may be repetitively used at beginning of sentence.
Spelling does not hinder readability.
Story is long enough to have a beginning, middle and end.
Some use of descriptive words and/or dialogue.

Figure 10. Grade 3 Written Expression Anchor

Written Expression: Grade 4

Intelligibility; correct letter sequences-correctly spelled words, inventive spelling; legible writing-the child is able to read what they have written, teacher can read what they have written, punctuation, spacing.

1

Unrecognizable letters.
Random marks.
Child is unable to read what they have written.
No correct letter sequences.

2

1-2 correct letter sequences.
No inventive spelling.
Child cannot read what they have written.
Words are poorly spaced (jammed together).

3

Many correct letter sequences.
Use of inventive spelling.
Child can read back all or part of what they have written.
Teacher reads and inderstands very little of what is written.
A few simple words spelled correctly.
Some appropriate spacing is present.

4

Some identifiable, correctly spelled words.
Some inventive spelling.
Child can read all of what they have written.
Teacher reads and understands about half of story.
Most of words are spaced correctly.
Puncuation may be present.

5

80% correct spelling of words.
Complete understanding of the story.
Capitals used at beginning of sentence and with proper names.
Punctuation for sentences and some commas, quotation marks, and apostrophes.

Figure 11. Grade 4 Written Expression Anchor

In both grades, thought units included grammatically correct phrases (e.g. subject-verb-object); in fourth grade, percentage of words spelled correctly was also determined. In the following pages, the student's actual writing samples have been displayed. They were selected from the entire portfolio to reflect the beginning and end of each grade level.

11/5/90

a lonT trme aftr the
gacikipered a Batfl
has arived and He
goat on Him and He
rod of in to the sun
sat

12/10/90

the cat avitthe parrot
frsthnit wistheparrtn won it was
theparrot gat ate thecar atetheparrot and
500 caks

<u>3/12/91</u>

the old man pot a qdin
the nosppr it sid
wad a crming caming
sdb the ald man
the hekst monning
a stragr woked and
intdast him slf aad
cand aftdr he intdos
him slf the dld
man in fifid him
on Sat
a csus mprd he wod arag

10/1/91

Baliva part #-to AaStralia
Characters Lion, pirarah,
elephant, pandds, cheehtah,

fLinsaeLi, gostes, an with the

Storey, wonce Opatime
the ghosts kept ~~in~~ ostage
fLingSquelih
The

fLing SqueLi wasafresl
Because he couLdn'tfLy!

The Cheehtah tried to ~~git~~ the gost
catch

But he fLald. The pandd strid
Bat thayfLa l d. Sothe Storey will be
cintud

They want torale thstyiah

4/15/92

Mr. Lakly was buying
two jars of orange jose
in the grocery store.
He saw a sign. The grocer's
dog had given birth to two puppies.
They were for free! Mr. Lakely
got one and took it home because
Mr. Lakly, Mike Lakly and Mrs. Lakly
wont id catsdad The nex day
Catsdad sost bread so Catsdad
got Longer and Longer whad pot in font of the

fiere Place and he got smler and smler.

Results

The following graphs show data that were kept in addition to the student's writing portfolio. As mentioned earlier, different rating scales were used to measure writing conventions for the two years, though the number of thought units per writing sample were graphed for both third and fourth grades (see Figure 12). During fourth grade, the teacher also kept data for percentage of words spelled correctly.

Grade 3
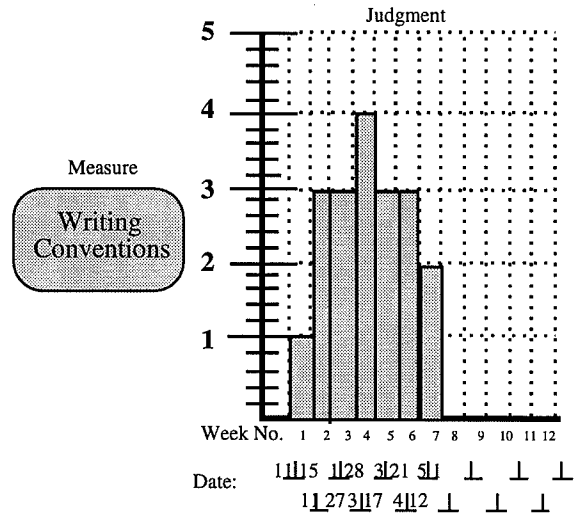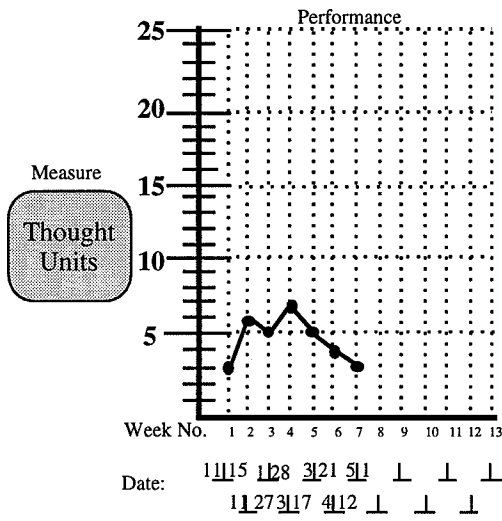
Grade 4
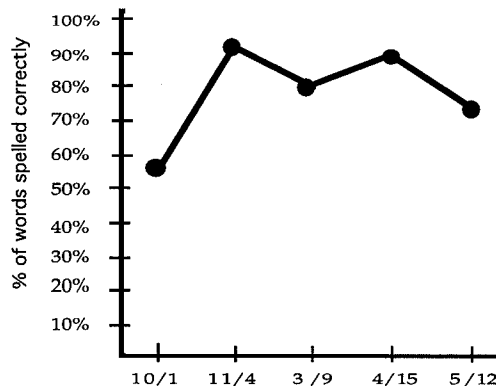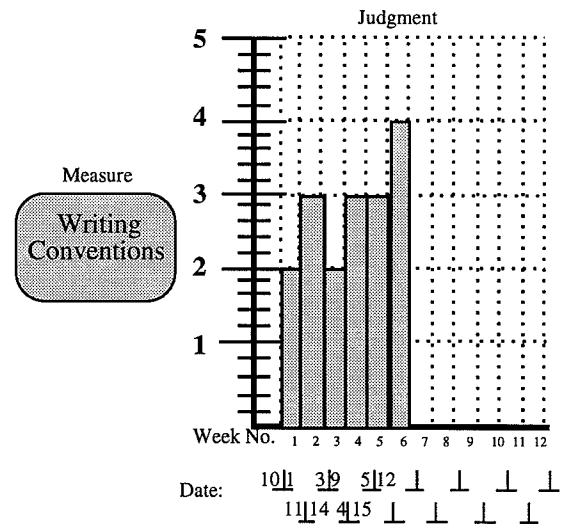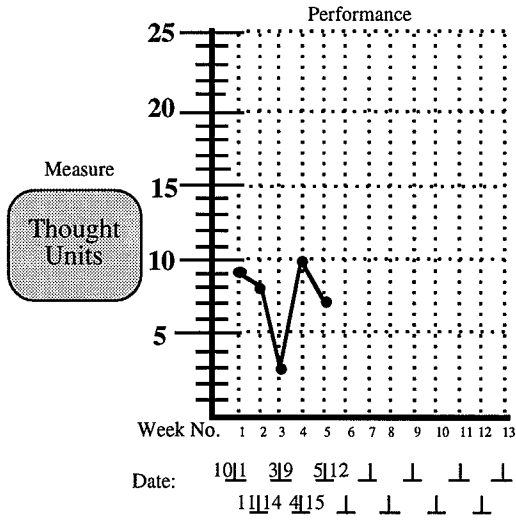
Figure 12. Graphic Representations of Tim's Scoring

In third grade (with samples taken from written story retells and from expressive writing), the data show improvement in the number of thought units and in the qualitative rating scale from November through January. There were no data for February or March; in April and May the student's performance/interest in writing dropped off.

In fourth grade, consistent progress is shown in the number of thought units used and in the quality of the story idea and writing conventions. Spelling scores for the five samples are 56%, 91%, 80%, 88%, and 77%.

Overall, the contrast between Tim's writing from early third grade to late fourth grade shows improvement in spelling and writing conventions as well as the quality and number of ideas expressed.

Discussion

Portfolios can be powerful instructional aids, with potential for motivation and informal evaluation. Looking at the writing samples in this case study it is possible to see improvement in readability and writing conventions; it is also obvious the samples get longer and tell more complete stories. Informally (looking at the samples), the student has shown growth. To evaluate how much the student has grown or how the student compares to grade level peers, however, it is necessary to use more formal (graphic) assessment results based on curriculum-based assessments.

As reflected in this case, portfolios used for assessment purposes should be thoughtfully designed: Goals for instruction and assessment should be clearly specified. In the end, all measures need to be reliable

comparable tasks and samples generated when the measure is repeated by the same teacher or by another scorer. Such assessment methods can then be evaluated to see if they measure what they to claim to measure.

References

Au, K., Scheu, J., Kawakami, A., & Herman, P. (1990). Assessment and accountability in a whole literacy curriculum. *The Reading Teacher*, 574-578.

Gomez, M., Graue, M. E., & Bloch, M. (1991). Reassessing portfolio assessment: Rhetoric and reality. *Language Arts, 68*, 620-628.

Koretz, D., McCaffrey, D., Klein, S., Bell, R., & Stecher, B. (1993). *The reliability of scores from the 1992 Vermont Portfolio Assessment Program.* Los Angeles, CA: UCLA National Center for Research on Evaluation, Standards, and Student Testing.

Linn, R., Baker, E., & Dunbar, S. (1991). Complex, performance-based assessment: Expectations and validation criteria. *Educational Researcher*, 15-21.

Nolet, V. (1993). Classroom-based measurement and portfolio assessment. *Diagnostique, 18*(1), 5-26.

Paris, S., Calfee, R., Filby, N., Hiebert, E., Pearson, P. D., Valencia, S., & Wolf, K. (1992). A framework for authentic literacy assessment. *The Reading Teacher, 46*(2), 88-98.

Teale, W. (1988). Developmentally appropriate assessment of reading and writing in the early childhood classroom. *The Elementary School Journal, 89*(2), 173-183.

Wesson, C., & King, R. (1993). The role of curriculum-based measurement in portfolio assessment. *Diagnostique, 18*(1), 27-38.
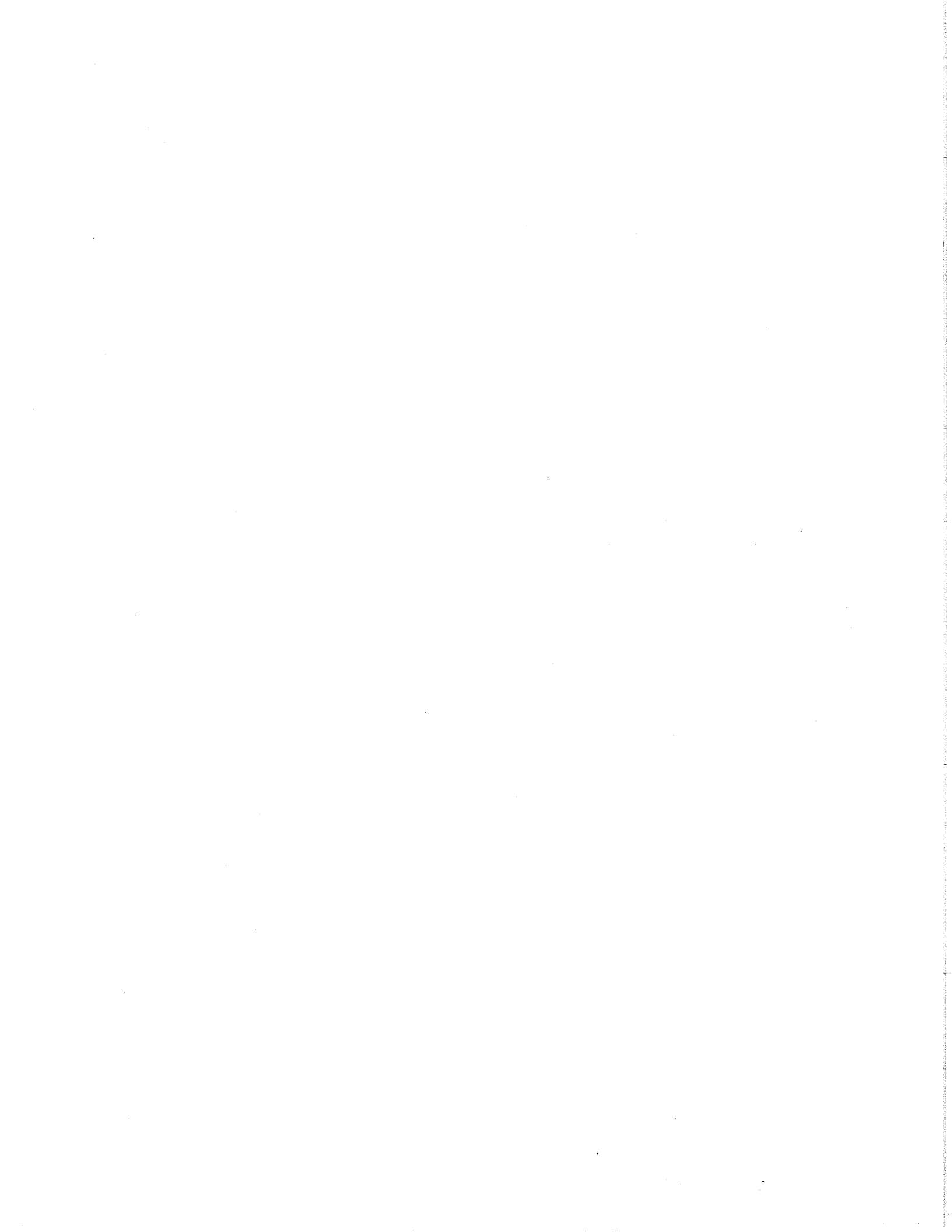
Progress Monitoring of
Bilingual Students

In the United States, historically it was a common practice to teach non-English speaking students in their native languages. Rising nationalism, culminating with World War I and World War II, lead to movements and legislation that required schools (both public and private) to provide instruction in English only (see Hernandez-Chavez, 1988, for a discussion of history of bilingual education). More recently, the political movement for bilingual education has grown out of the civil rights movement of the 1960s. The major force has been the Hispanic community, with members struggling to gain the right to bilingual education for their children (Hernadez-Chavez, 1988).

Thirty years later, the question of whether non-English speaking students should be taught in English or their native language is still an emotionally charged issue. Richard Rodriguez (1989) argues against bilingual education:

> There is no way for a child to use her family language in the classroom unless we diminish the notion of public school, unless we confuse the child utterly about what is expected of her. Bilingual classrooms imply we are going to expect less (p. 694).

And in contradiction, James Fallows (1986), in his article "Viva Bilingualism," responds to those who are against bilingualism, especially proponents of U.S. English when he states, "We don't need to declare English our official language, because it already is that—as no one knows better than the immigrants and their children" (p. 700).

Evaluating the Effectiveness of Bilingual Programs

The highly charged emotional discussion about bilingual education has fostered an environment in which it is difficult to determine which programs are most effective for non-English speaking students. Increasing funds have, as a result, been allocated to study what should be done. In this next section, we have

reviewed a study by Gertsen (1991) because it exemplifies other studies in this area and because it is broadly conceived and well-conducted. In the end, it provided an excellent introduction to a case study in which a special education teacher taught and assessed a student in Spanish.

Gersten (1991) compared two approaches to bilingual education that were practiced in El Paso in the 1984-85 school year, the transitional bilingual program and the bilingual immersion program. Transitional bilingual and bilingual immersion programs haveseveral elements in common:

- providing continuous comprehensible instruction
- nurturing both the child's self-esteem and respect for her or his native language and culture
- building upon the strength of the child's first language for certain aspects of cognitive development (Diaz, Moll, & Mehan, 1986; Moll, 1988; Moll, Estrada, Diaz, & Lopes, 1980). (as cited in Gersten, 1991, p. 11)

In the transitional bilingual program, core academic subjects are taught in Spanish. English is taught using English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) lessons. A traditional literacy approach is used with a Spanish basal reading program and students are gradually transitioned into English.

A problem with transitional bilingual programs is that transitional bilingual programs fail to make use of the English that students have acquired from their environments. In contrast, whole literacy programs take environmental language acquisition into consideration and bilingual immersion programs are specifically developed in response to these issues (Gersten, 1991).

In the bilingual immersion program described by Gersten, students were taught core academic subjects in English. Some time each day was reserved for

instruction in Spanish. The bilingual immersion program differed from traditional English immersion programs in several ways. The bilingual immersion program: (a) provided instruction in English that was meaningful and comprehensible; (b) used a whole language approach to teaching English literacy; (c) avoided criticizing students for speaking Spanish during English instructional time; and (d) encouraged students to use either Spanish or English during free reading and journal writing time.

The results of the study showed that by seventh grade, there were few differences in the two groups of students on their performance on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS). The most significant difference was in their readiness to be mainstreamed into *English only* classes by sixth grade. Of bilingual immersion students, 99% were ready for mainstreaming compared to 65% bilingual transition students who were ready. Both groups of teachers believed their program successfully developed Spanish language skills. The bilingual immersion teachers, however, rated their program higher in developing literacy skills in English.

Questionnaires given to the parents showed that both groups of parents were generally satisfied with the education their children received. However, concerns with students' ability to be successful in the English only program were expressed by both parent groups.

This study showed some advantages for the bilingual immersion program, however, since the academic results were so similar, Gersten concluded that parents should have the choice of programs.

Although differences between these two programs were relatively minor, the El Paso bilingual students from both programs scored below the national mean on the ITBS. Whether this resulted from problems with test validity (using norm-referenced tests for minority students) or from students' lower skill

levels, cannot be determined from this study. A closer look at students' skill levels could help determine what type of instruction these students need to be successful in middle school, high school, and higher education. More specific information about students' skill levels and appropriate instruction could be gained using curriculum-based assessment (CBA). Curriculum-based assessment also could be used to more closely compare students' growth between the bilingual immersion and bilingual transition programs. Finally, CBA could also be used to examine the goals of the two programs, with success defined differently in each program.

The advantages of curriculum-based assessment are that test items are taken directly from the curriculum, repeated measures show growth over time, and students' performance can be compared to previous performance or to local norms. Importantly, when test items are taken directly from the curriculum, students can be assessed in culturally relevant materials in either Spanish or English. The following example study took place in a bilingual transition program. The resource room teacher used curriculum-based assessment to assess students' growth.

Case Study Summary

Juan, the student in this study, was ten years old and in third grade. He was identified for help for language and learning disabilities; Juan received special education instruction for reading, writing, and math. His home language was Spanish. He received English as a second language instruction and Chapter 1 English language instruction.

For reading and writing instruction, Juan was assessed in reading fluency, and oral story retell. For spelling he was assessed by sampling his written work. Reading fluency was assessed using a timed passage reading from a Spanish basal. After reading a story or listening to a story read by the teacher, Juan was asked to orally retell the story with two measures used: a count of the total number of words in the retell and the total number of story elements recounted. Creative writing was assessed using two measures: A qualitative rating scale to assess intelligibility, and a count of the total number of words spelled correctly.

Instructional Strategies

1. MacMillan texts in Spanish were used for reading practice (4 days per week, Monday through Thursday).

2. Creative writing process was used 1 day a week.

3. Neurolinguistic Practice (NLP) was used for sight words and spelling words taken from MacMillian text.

4. Story retells were written using story elements which students either created from an individual summary or a group summary (or copied from the group summar). Story retells were from the MacMillan text in Spanish (1 day a week).

5. Students also listened to each other within paired readings from Spanish literature stories such as Ramona the Pest.

All strategies were used with groups of 3-6 students (group size varied during the year) on a collaborative basis, and in the classroom. Praise, encouragement, and individual attention were used as motivational strategies.

Results for Fluency and Retells

The following three sections– fluency, oral retell, and written retell, include data graphs and work samples. In the fluency section oral reading was expressed as the percent of words read correctly and the number of words read correctly, graphed for each timed reading sample taken during the year. For the first and the last reading sample, the text that was read has been copied. The words that were missed have been crossed out and word substitutions are written above the text.

In the next section, oral retell, data were generated by having the student read a story and then retell it out loud, which the teacher wrote down. The total number of words were counted and the data were graphed; the number of story elements used in each retell also were counted and graphed. The five story elements counted were: character, setting, problem, response, and outcome. The student's first and last oral retell samples have been transcribed exactly as written.

Finally, the written retell section includes a graph of the number of words spelled correctly, a graph using a qualitative scale for intelligibility (see Figure 13), and the first and last written retell samples. These data were generated in a manner similar to the oral retell: The student read the story out loud, then he retold the story orally, and finally he wrote a story retell.

Results

Fluency
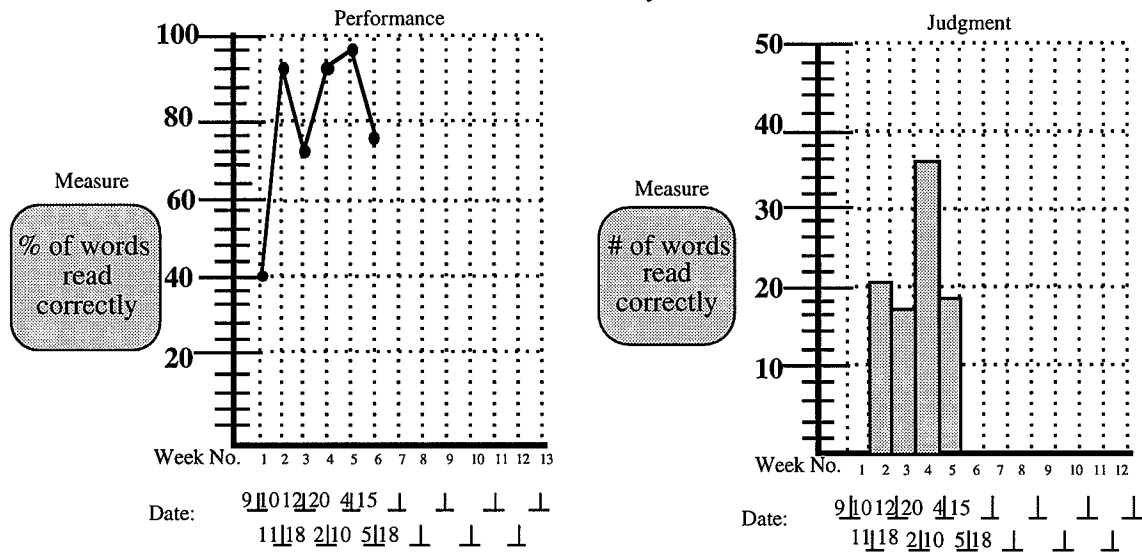
Figure 13. Graphic Representation of Juan's Spanish Fluency Scoring

First Sample (9/10/91)   **42% accuracy**

Su mamá asoma la cabeza y dice^{que}.
　　　 – Ay, ¡qué ruido!
¿Quién hace ese^{see} ruido^{re}?
　　　 – Yo^{No}, mamá – dice^{que} Trini.
¡Vamos! ¡Arriba!
　　　 – Ay, Trini^{tre} – le^{el} dice^{que} su mamá –.
¡ Pero si es sábado!
No^{un} me gusta ^{be}despertar así.
El sábado por la mañana me gusta todo de puntitas.
Después de un rato, Trini se^{es} asoma al cuarto.

Figure 14. First Spanish Fluency Sample

81

Last Sample (5/18/93)   **76% accuracy**

De ~~pronto~~porto se[sc] encontró con el león.

　　　– Oye, barrilito, ¿no ~~has~~hay visto por ~~alli~~ un conejito? – ~~pre~~perguntó el león.

El conejito ~~cambió~~cadia la voz y contestó[s].

　　　– La montaña está ~~prendida~~, el conejito se quemó.

Sal ~~huyendo~~ león, que te vuelves ~~chi~~qui cha[ca]rrón.

El león ~~creyo~~senó que la montaña estaba ~~prendida~~ y salió hu[o]yendo.

El conejito ~~dentro~~ del barril ~~siguió~~ rodnado, rodando, montaña abjo.

Figure 15. Last Spanish Fluency Sample

Oral Retell
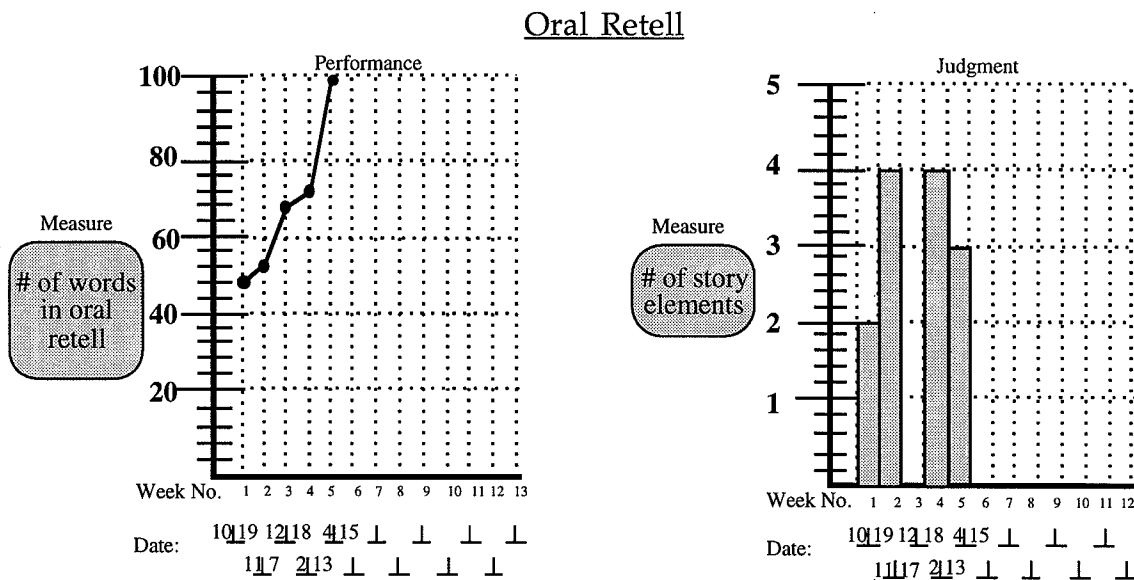
Figure 16. Graphic Representation of Juan's Oral Spanish Retell Scoring

First Sample (10/19/91)   **46 words**

El León y el Perrito

Que se jugaban ellos dos y se querian. Que nunca se pegaban, nunca se

mordián El señor cuando lo recogio, se murió. El león tambien se murió. El señor

estaba triste porque se murió el león. Y el otro del perro estaba triste porque se

murió.

Figure 17. First Oral Spanish Retell Sample

Last Sample (4/15/92)   **103 words**

Sarita y su amiga

Sarita le dijo a su amigo – Ven amigo a mi pera. Priméro tuven a la mia y disfués

voy a la tuya. Sarita, que es la tuya? La mia es una manzana. Premiro vamos a la tuya a

jugar adentro y después yo y tu vamos a la mia a ver television. Y le digo la otra come Ya me

voy es que mi mamá me anda llamando. Después se fue y se convirtió en una linda Mariposa.

Y después la otra se convirtió en una linda, lind mariposa. Y se fueron a las casas a jugar

otra vez.

Figure 18. Last Oral Spanish Retell Sample

Written Retell
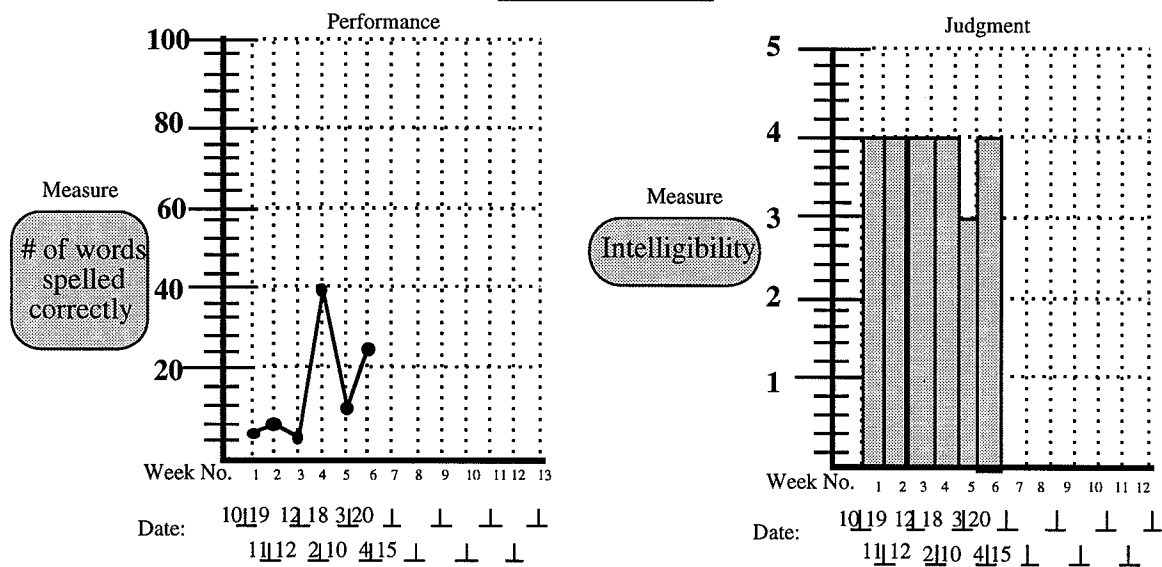
Figure 19. Graphic Representation of Juan's Written Spanish Retell

First Sample (10/19/91)   **8 words spelled correctly**

El Leon y el Perrito

El Perrito es¡ murio

El Leon es murrio

Figure 20. First Written Spanish Retell Sample

Last Sample (4/15/92)   **24 words spelled correctly**

Sarita y su tio Elefante una ves el tio Elefante una ves el tio Elefante sefue a la casa y peDio la Lus y se Fijo que a via laiaralla.

Figure 21. Last Written Spanish Retell Sample

The student's performance in reading improved in fluency, as shown by the percent of words read correctly, whereas reading production, the number of words read during timed readings, remained about the same. This finding is particularily impressive considering the passages read successively became more difficult. The student told progressively longer oral retells, although there was fluctuation in the number of story elements included in the retells. Finally, the written story retells also became progressively longer and had more words spelled correctly. Although the intelligibility remained fairly constant, the later written retells are more complex and more closely resemble oral retells.

Discussion

Whether students are taught in immersion or bilingual programs, it is important to monitor their performance. Whereas this case study monitored performance, future studies could improve on the design by including more information about how the data gathered were used to modify instruction and how instruction was related to long-term goals.

References

Fallows, J. (1989). Viva bilingualism. In McQuade, D., & Atwan, R. (Eds.), *The Winchester reader* (pp. 696-700). Boston: Bedford Books of St. Martin's Press.

Gersten, R., Woodward, J., & Schneider, S. (1991). Bilingual Immersion: A review and synthesis of research conducted in El Paso, Texas.

Hernandez-Chavez, E. (1988). Language policy and language rights in the United States: Issues in bilingualism. In Skutnabb-Kangas, T., & Cummins, J. (Eds.), *Minority education: From shame to struggle* (pp.45-56). Philidelphia: Multilingual Matters.

Rodriguez, R. (1989). Toward an American language. In McQuade, D., & Atwan, R. (Eds.), *The Winchester reader* (pp. 693-696). Boston: Bedford Books of St. Martin's Press.

A Study in Goal Setting

Useful student performance measures should answer specific questions such as, "Are students learning?" and "Is instruction effective?" However, to answer these questions, classroom-based assessment measures need to be crafted so that they reflect clearly defined instructional goals. Such measures can be used to document outcomes which teachers can graph to monitor students' progress toward their goals. Then they can use data-based decision rules for determining when instruction should be changed. Fuchs, Fuchs, and Hamlett (1989) specify the ways in which goals shape assessment of performance, "The goal dictates (a) the material and conditions with which measurement will occur, (b) the behavior to be observed, and (c) the criteria for judging attainment" (p. 429).

Research literature supports the importance of setting goals with exceptional learners and points to a relationship between goal ambitiousness and performance; higher expectations tend to generate higher performance (Johnson & Graham, 1990; Fuchs, Fuchs, and Hamlett, 1989; and Masters, Furman, & Barden, 1977). Fuchs, Fuchs, and Hamlett also state that special educators tend to underestimate students' maximum performance levels when setting goals. For ambitious yet attainable goals, Fuchs, Fuchs, and Hamlett suggest a dynamic goal setting process in which "goals are adjusted upward whenever actual student progress indicates a more ambitious rate of progress" (p. 430). This approach differs from traditional goal setting in which long-term goals are often static–if students are making satisfactory progress, goals remain the same. Dynamic goal setting creates an interactive relationship between goals, evaluation, and instruction.

Another dimension beyond ambitiousness and attainability of goals is whether goals are product oriented or process oriented (Johnson & Graham,

1990). "Product goals, as the name implies, focus on what will be accomplished...
Process goals emphasize the processes [that] learners will use to achieve their
goals" (Johnson & Graham, p. 5). In special education, long term academic goals
are usually divided into short term objectives with specified steps that students
will accomplish. Process goals provide strategies for students to gradually
assume responsibility for breaking product goals down into manageable steps.

Johnson and Graham (1990) subsume this orientation around three critical
dimensions of goals– specificity, difficulty, and proximity (p. 5). Goals must be
specific to ensure that students understand what is expected of them and so that
performance can be evaluated. Goals at an appropriate level of difficulty are
challenging but attainable. Proximal goals are short term goals in which
objectives are broken into small steps that provide opportunities for students to
closely monitor their own progress.

Additional factors Johnson and Graham (1990) relate to success in goal
setting are, "feedback in goal attainment, students' level of commitment in
attaining the goal, the degree to which students participate in the selection of
goals, and the impact of students' skills and abilities on the goal-setting process"
(p. 6). Feedback implies that progress toward goals is monitored. Initially
feedback may depend upon the teacher, but eventually students can monitor
their own progress. Johnson and Graham stress high expectation of goal
achievement, intrinsic or extrinsic rewards, and involvement in the goal setting
process as the critical factors which affect goal acceptance and commitment.
Participation in the goal setting process is a necessary step in teaching exceptional
learners to set reasonable goals independently. Reasonable goals depend on a
realistic assessment of students' skills and abilities and the determination of a
level that is challenging but attainable.

In summary, the process of setting goals and monitoring students' progress toward goals is a multi-step process. Goals should be ambitious yet attainable, and goals should be adjusted upward based on student performance indicators. The requirements for goal attainment should be clearly specified and stated in proximal objectives. Both product-oriented and process-oriented goals should be developed. Additionally, feedback as well as student participation and motivation are important considerations in goal attainment.

In the following case study, the objectives were to improve reading fluency and prosody (expression). The teacher monitored progress closely. After each timed reading, the teacher noted specific skills that needed improvement (proximal goals). The case provides an excellent illustration of how curriculum-based measures can be used within a goal setting program.

Goal Setting and Progress

The teacher in this study has 17 years experience as a speech pathologist and resource room teacher. She teaches grades K-5 in a resource program and primarily relies on thematic literature and poetry to teach reading. She also employs a variety of other instructional strategies inlcuding: individual and group oral reading; embedded vocabulary and phonics instruction; listening to taped books and then having the students read the books with expression; readers theater; and taping students reading their best/favorite piece.

Jennifer, the student in this case study, receives 1 hour and 45 minutes daily instruction in the resource room. Due to severe disorders in language, Jennifer, a third grader, has received five months of collaborative, specialized instruction from academic and speech/language perspectives. All language arts skills appear to be significantly impaired when compared to mathematical skills. Both written and oral responses are quite labored even though concentration is generally maintained. Both individual and oral reading instruction has

involved the use of thematic literature with embedded vocabulary and phonetic development. The following information about Jennifer has been taken from her IEP.

Test Scores

	Raw Score	Grade Equivalent Score	Standard Score	Percentile Rank
Reading	45	1E	76	5th
Spelling	28	1E	72	3rd
Arithmetic	23	3B	98	45th

Table 4. Wide Range Achievement Test (WRAT) for Jennifer.

	Age Equivalent Score	Grade Equivalent	Standard Score	Percentile Rank (Local)
Reading				
Letter-W ID	7-2	1.6	81	10th
Passage Comp.	7-8	2.2	94	33rd
Word Attack	6-7	1.3	81	15th
Written Language				
Dictation	7-0	1.5	80	9th
Writing Samples	7-7	2.4	93	31st
Broad Reading	7-4	1.8	85	16th
Basic Reading	6-11	1.5	80	9th
Reading Comp.	7-5	1.9	89	22nd
Broad Wr LA	7-4	1.8	85	17th

Table 5. Woodcock-Johnson scores for Jennifer.

	%GR	GE	SS	%Age	Age	SS
Reading	50th	3.1	100	58th	8-4	103
Spelling	3rd	1.6	72	8th	6-10	79

Table 6. Basic Achievement Skills Individual Screener (BASIS) scores for Jennifer.

Reading	Grade Level
Word Recognition	2.2
Oral Reading Level	Primer
Reading Comp.	1st
Reading Rate	49 CWPM Primer

Table 7. Brigance Diagnostic Inventory for Jennifer.

All of these test scores indicate that Jennifer indeed has problems in reading and language usage, but they are not helpful within a goal setting program. Such data are limited by the lack of alternate forms needed to allow full participation by the student (i.e., frequent measurement with feedback).

Therefore, Mrs. Brown used the following (two measures to scale) reading, the first of which focused on fluency and the second of which addressed prosody.

Reading Rate: Words correctly read in a one minute sample are calculated (total words read minus errors).

Prosody Criteria:

1 = Reads single words, no "flow." Telegraphic like in sound.

2 = Some phrasing is noted (two to three words).

3 = Pauses for ending punctuation. Inflection changes may not be present.

4 = Appropriate "flow" and phrasing is noted as well as attention to punctuation with pauses. Appropriate inflection is noted most of the time.

5 = Reading generally "flows." Voice changes to reflect meaning changes. Appropriate ending inflections.

Results
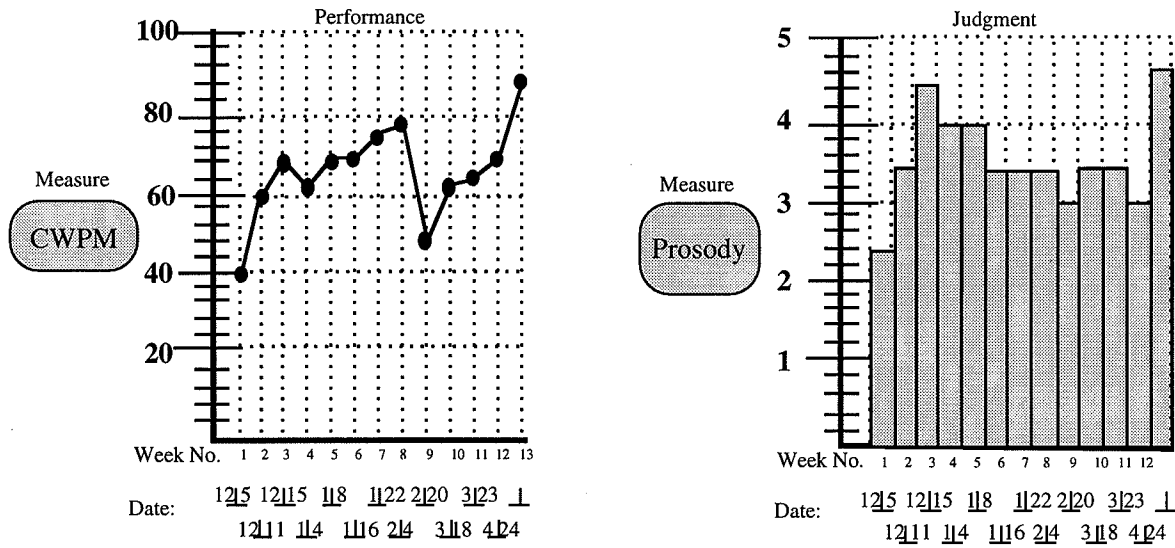
Figure 22. Graphic Representation of Jennifer's Scoring

To understand what the graphs tell us about Jennifer's performance, it is necessary to look more closely at the reading passages and the assessment method. The passages were chosen from a variety of sources because they fit a theme and were at Jennifer's current reading level. There was a tendency for the passages to become more difficult as the year progressed; however, the passages were not systematically evaluated for level of difficulty. As can be seen in Figure 8, these passages and performance on them, appear well suited to a progress monitoring system within a goal setting program.

The following passages were used for timed readings. To assess reading fluency, Mrs. Brown counted the total number of words read and to assess accuracy, she counted the words read correct per minute (WCPM).

Passage Title	Words Read	WCPM	Percent Correct
George and Martha (12/5/91)	49	40	82
Owl (12/11/91)	64	61	95
Morris (12/18/91)	73	67	92
George and Martha (1/8/92)	64	61	95
The Explorers Find Treasure (1/14/92)	72	66	92
Frog and Toad (1/16/92)	75	66	88
Frog and Toad (1/22/92)	78	72	92
Frog and Toad (2/4/92)	79	74	94
My Father's Walk (2/20/92)	58	47	81
Frog and Toad (3/18/92)	62	60	97
Sarah, Plain an Tall (3/23/92)	75	62	83
An Icy Adventure (4/24/92)	70	65	93
Magic Fish (5/12/92)	86	85	99

Table 8. Reading Passages Used in Testing

The information we have tells us that Jennifer maintained about a 90% accuracy rate (Correct Words Per Minute [CWPM] divided by total words read per minute), read about 64 words correct per minute, and maintained a rating of 3.5 on prosody in materials that became more difficult as the year progressed.

Discussion

The methodology used in this case study could have been improved simply by adding a target CWPM goal to the graph. If we knew how many words Jennifer had been expected to read per minute, we could evaluate her progress toward that goal. And, if we knew the CWPM goal for third graders at her school, we could evaluate Jennifer's performance compared with her peers'.

Curriculum-based assessment is outcome driven. If the passages chosen for timed readings are taken from materials at the long-term goal level, then the results can give information about Jennifer's progress toward this long-term reading goal. However, testing the student in materials that become more difficult has complicated this particular case by adding considerations about readability– how difficult and comparable are the passages? Although, the passages appear to have been selected at the student's current level of performance, we cannot make inferences about Jennifer's progress toward long-term goals.

To measure students' progress toward goals, the goals must be explicit. A general goal such as "The student will read with greater fluency and prosody" provides little opportunity for specific evaluation. Specific and detailed information about how the student improves over time and compares to peers must be considered. The long-term goals for special education students can involve a plan for reintegrating them into the mainstream. If a student is reading with acceptable fluency, accuracy, and expression and is improving (relative to both previous performance and age-grade appropriate peers), then the student belongs in the regular classroom. If such improvement is not acceptable (e.g., the student is maintaining the same level of absolute and relative performance), then instruction should be modified.

References

Fuchs, L., Fuchs, D., & Hamlett, C. (1989). Effects of alternative goal structures within curriculum-based measurement. *Exceptional Children, 55*(5), 429-438.

Johnson, L., & Graham, S. (1990). Goal setting and its application with exceptional learners. *Preventing School Failure, 34*(4), 4-8.

Masters, J., Furman, W., & Barden, R. (1977). Effects of achievement standards, tangible rewards, and self-dispensed achievement evaluations' on children's task mastery. *Child Development, 48*, 217-224.

Individualized Education Plans as Working Documents

In this section, the concept of an Individualized Education Plan (IEP) as a working document is addressed. The IEP should not specify daily instruction, but there should be two-way interplay between the IEP and daily instruction. The goals and objectives should inform instruction and that instruction should result in the attainment of IEP goals. Such interplay requires that IEP goals be broad and allow different options for instruction to meet those goals. In the following sections, the history of IEP implementation and a model for a working IEP will be discussed. We follow Smith's (1990) analysis which divided the history of literature and research about the IEP into three periods: the normative phase, the analytic phase, and the technology-reaction phase.

During the *normative phase*, researchers were concerned with "explaining the nature of the law, how it would affect the education of children with disabilities, and how to write and implement IEPs" (Smith, 1990, p. 7). Researchers debated the intent of the law and attempted to define exemplary compliance.

During the *analytic phase*, the focus of research was on examining IEPs to see if they were written and implemented in accordance with the law. A major concern was the link between diagnostic assessment and instruction. Based on diagnostic assessment, the child's unique needs were to be defined, services and instruction that met those needs were to be included in the IEP, and methods for evaluating whether or not objectives were met also were to be included in the IEP. However, researchers who analyzed IEPs found that goals and objectives were not founded in psychoeducational assessment and instruction often was not linked to any goals and objectives. IEPs often were missing basic information

such as short term objectives and evaluation methods. Evidence of participation by parents and teachers also was lacking. An obvious concern was the lack of training in how to write and implement IEPs; yet there was a lack of funding. In the end many teachers felt that time spent on IEPs was wasted.

Concerns with the expense and time required to create IEPs lead to the *technology-reaction phase*. Attention to computer technology was in reaction to the concerns about paperwork overload and reflected an attempt to reduce time involved in developing IEP goals. In turn, the focus of research shifted from exemplary compliance to minimal compliance.

Smith (1990) calls for a shift in the focus of research, "from analyzing the IEP process and document to identifying a system that allows practitioners to procedurally prescribe individualized education" (p. 12). The current trend of developing prepackaged goals and objectives is unlikely to lead to individualized instruction. Two examples of research that focus on procedurally prescribed instruction are provided by Sugai (1985) and Fuchs and Deno (1991).

In his article, "Case Study: Designing Instruction from IEPs," Sugai (1985) addresses many of the concerns raised by Smith (1990). He demonstrates how instruction can be directly linked to diagnostic assessment by focusing on methods for evaluating progress toward goals and providing examples of how short-term objectives can be modified to reflect student progress. In Sugai's case study, the behavioral and academic goals are very specific and the program outlined by the IEP is individualized, based on the student's unique characteristics. The emphasis from Public Law 94-142 on specific instructional objectives and objective evaluation are compatible with subdiagnostic instructional techniques that emphasize specific subskill mastery.

In contrast to specific subskill mastery, another direction to emerge in the last decade is curriculum-based measurement (CBM), which focuses on terminal

behavior. Fuchs and Deno (1991) describe CBM as "general outcome measurement," (p. 489) a method of assessment which can be applied to a wide variety of instructional techniques. In the case of IEP development, CBM measures students' current level in relation to long term goals. General outcome-based assessment is used to provide valid evaluation within holistic instructional programs; such practices satisfy the dictates of PL 94-142 by providing evaluation that protects students with disabilities. As reflected in the following case study, general-outcome assessment methods are simple to implement and are directly linked to instruction. This case is a vivid example of how Smith's (1990) suggestions can be operationalized. Rather than the traditional IEP, which was based on published achievement tests, an IEP is written in line with subskill mastery or progress on long term goal measures from the curriculum.

A Case Study Linking IEP Goals and Instruction

The student in this case has deficiencies in expressive writing and in reading. The IEP goals do not reflect all of the student's needs, the instruction shows little relation to IEP goals, and short term objectives are not being assessed. The IEP goals were derived from test scores from the Woodcock Johnson Psychoeducational Test. The goals for reading are, "Given material at the 7th grade reading level, student will complete comprehension activities with 95% accuracy" and "Given a passage student will define five words from their use in context with 80% accuracy."

Teacher and Student Demographics

The teacher in this example was a resource room teacher with more than ten years of experience teaching students with learning handicaps and behavioral disorders.

The student, Mike, was 14 years old and in ninth grade at the time of the study. He received resource room instruction for deficiencies in written language and in auditory skills. The following test scores, objectives, and narrative data are from Mike's Individualized Educational Plan.

Individualized Educational Plan (IEP)

Weshsler Intelligence and Woodcock-Johnson Scales

WSC-R: Verbal=82/Performance=93/Full Scale=87

Baseline Data from Woodcock-Johnson on 11-22-91

	Grade Equivalent	Standard Scores	Percentile
Broad reading	6.7	93	31
Broad math	5.0	78	7
Broad written language	4.5	80	9
Broad knowledge	5.3	85	16

Table 9. Woodcock-Johnson Scores for Mike

Overall cognitive functioning is in the low average range. Strengths were suggested in abstract verbal and non-verbal reasoning. Weakness was in ability to complete mental computations in math.

<u>Short-Term Objective</u>
    1. Given material at the 7th grade reading level, student will complete comprehension activities with 95% accuracy.
        Method of Evaluation: Teacher-made test and Woodcock-Johnson.

<u>Short-Term Objective</u>
    2. Given a passage, student will define five words from his/her use in context with 80% accuracy.
        Method of Evaluation: Teacher-made test and Woodcock-Johnson.

<u>Short-Term Objective</u>
    3. Student will continue to be enrolled in general academic classes to raise reading level to 8th grade.
        Method of Evaluation: Woodcock-Johnson

<u>Present Level of Performance</u>

<u>Communication</u>. Mike exhibits strengths in visualization types of tasks. He has a more difficult time with auditory task (e.g., directions written down as opposed to said to the class). Brian is able to satisfactorily communicate his ideas in writing, as shown through class assignments.

<u>Personal, social, and emotional</u>. Mike tends to be quiet in situations where he is unsure of himself. Once he becomes more comfortable, talking increases. Mike appears to have good rapport with his peers.

<u>Career/vocational</u>. Mike has indicated he would like to join the Airforce after finishing high school. His goal is to eventually become a pilot. In an effort to work toward this goal Mike is going to continue to raise his reading level as shown in transition goals. A full transition plan is expected to be developed by age 16.

<u>Reading</u>. Reading score is below grade level but is Mike's strongest area. Mike seems to have good word identification skills. Understanding words in passages seems to be more difficult for Mike.

<u>Math</u>. Mike's calculations is his stronger skill. He seems to have a more difficult time applying these problems with a score of 4.0.

<u>Written language</u>. Mike showed strength in writing samples. While written language is a strong skill, dictation (writing down words that are read to him) appears to be more difficult.

<u>Broad knowledge</u>. Social studies appears to be Mike's strength in this area. Science also appears to be a strength, and humanities appears to be a weakness.

<u>Related Information From the Student's IEP</u>

<u>Rationale for Program Placement</u>. Mike continues to qualify for the special education program based on a discrepancy between ability and achievement. He shows strength in the area of reading. Mike's weakness appears to be in written language. Auditory skills also appear to be slightly delayed. It is the opinion of the IEP team that Mike be retained in the special education program. Modification to the regular education program will not meet his needs at this time. His handicapping condition will not prevent him from following school rules and procedures.

<u>Special Education Program/Service/Materials</u>. Resource room placement.

<u>Type of Staff Specialist.</u> Resource teacher

<u>What Will Be Provided</u>. One-on-one and small group instruction in the areas of written language, math, and reading.

Based on this IEP information the following instructional strategies were used for reading and written language.

Instructional Strategies

1. After reading the story, students wrote a story retell without instruction (2/18/92 pretest).

2. Up to this point, students were given instruction on how memory works and how to improve it. The next day students compared two samples and

the teacher asked them what might help with memory expansion. Typically a student might suggest, "Let's review vocabulary before we read." Another student might ask how the task would be scored, so explanations of qualitative scale and word and sentence counts would be provided (3/4/92).

3. Vocabulary review would take 50 minutes, with group vocabulary instruction. Students scanned the story sheet and found any word they might not know. Then all words were listed on the chalkboard and then students were asked to define words (group discussion, used dictionary, sentence context, etc.).

4. Teacher read story out loud (50 minutes).

5. Students reread story (50 minutes of individual silent reading).

6. Students had 25 minutes to write story retell.

Scoring

The written story retells were scored using three measures: a qualitative rating scale; the number of words written; and the number of thought units, all of which are described below.

Story Retell Qualitative Rating Scale
Grade 9

Dimensions: Analyzing, sequencing, recalling, attending to detail, understanding literary terms, maintaining cohesion.

1

Not enough written to assess (e.g., non-compliance).

2

The story idea is barely present; story is vague and ill-defined.
No details are present; story elements left out. Specific names are out of context.
No sequence is present.

3

The major idea behind the story is almost present, but not specific
Few details are included and/or story elements remain unelaborated.
Inaccuracies exist.
The story is missing cohesion– beginning, middle and end.
Sequence is not clear because so much detail is missing.

4

The main idea is retold, but significant details are missing.
Inaccuracies are present but do not interfere with the meaning of the story.
Main characters and events are vague and/or not included.
Sequence generally follows the story, but some information is missing.
Entire story is not present. Ending or middle is not there.

5

Most of the story is retold but some of the details are missing.
Minor inaccuracies may exist.
Though characters and events are retold, they are less specific
The entire story is not completed, with less definition of the beginning, middle and end.
The sequence generally follows the story.

6

Most of the story is retold, particularly the main idea and most of the major supporting detail.
Few inaccuracies exist.
Characters are included, using proper names and places.
The full story is retold, including the beginning, middle, and end.
The sequence is sensible and follows the story.

Figure 23. Grade 9 Qualitative Scoring Anchor

The number of words written simply represented a cumulative count of all words, regardless of spelling; thought units were defined as independent

phrases which were generally correct, grammatically, and contained a subject, verb, and object.

Curriculum Measurement Materials and Student's Responses

On the following pages, the stories that were read are in the box and the student's written retell has been typed below the box. The slashes in the story retells were made by the teacher to count thought units. The student's original spelling and writing conventions have been copied. The scores for number of words, number of thought units, and the qualitative scale are in a box under the written retell (see Figure 23 for graphs of these data). Over a two-month period, four measures were administered on the following dates with the following topics.

Famous People Stories: 2-18-92 Carrie Fisher– pretest

                                     3-4-92   Elizabeth Blackwell

                                     4-7-92   Isiah Thomas

                                     4-23-92 J. R. Richard

Carrie Fisher (2/18/92)

How would you like to be a star overnight and have lunch every day with C-3PO and R2D2? That's what happened to Carrie Fisher when she was nineteen years old. She became famous in her role as Princess Leia in the film Star Wars. This film grossed almost half a billion dollars-more money than any other film. Carrie became so popular that little girls dressed up as the princess at Halloween and her picture was prized by Star Wars card collectors.

Carrie Fisher could have become very spoiled by this instant fame, but she didn't. She grew up in Hollywood. Her mother is actress Debbie Reynolds; her father, from whom she got her fine voice, is singer Eddie Fisher. Carrie discovered early that success comes and goes: what remains is hard work and the knowledge that one has done one's best.

Star Wars and The Empire Strikes Back were fun to do but they were also hard work. There was one scene in which Princess Leia had been captured. She was supposed to be "tortured" with a radar treatment and hung upside down. Unfortunately, Carrie fainted so the scene was cut from the film.

When you watch Star Wars, you are able to see an entire new galaxy but Carrie and the other actors could only pretend to see hyperspace when they were making the film. For example, in one scene Carrie had to look frightened and beg, "Please don't blow up my planet." But she was pleading to a piece of cardboard, not to Darth Vader.

Special effects are more important than the actors in films like StarWars and Empire. That's why Carrie looks forward to doing more challenging films so she can prove she's a good actress.

While waiting to do the next Star Wars film, Carrie is busy with piano lessons, exercise and acting classes. She lives by herself in an apartment full of things any of her fans would enjoy-antique toys and dolls.

When Carrie portrays Princess Leia, she has to act very proper and serious but when she's just being herself, she is fun-loving and likes to joke. Whatever Carrie Fisher chooses to be, one thing is certain: the Force will always be with her.

Student Retell

Carrie Fisher always ate lunch with the big actors/ and that she was with the big actors/ and she and the movie made a half billion dollars/ and her mother and father were famous/ and Carrie Fisher was really famous to./

Numer of Words	40
Number of Thought Units	5
Qualitative Score	3

Elizabeth Blackwell (3/4/92)

Today there are many women doctors, but in 1845, when a twenty-six-year-old teacher named Elizabeth Blackwell announced her decision to study medicine, women doctors were as scarce as fleas on a marble. There simply weren't any. That's why everyone was shocked at Elizabeth. But she wanted to do something more important with her life than knitting, sewing, and other traditional activities assigned to women.

It took courage and perseverance for Elizabeth to reach her goal, because other doctors, all of whom were men, of course, did not take her seriously. They thought she was crazy. When Geneva Medical College in upstate New York finally accepted her, she soon persuaded her fellow students she was very serious indeed, and she gained their respect.

After graduation in 1849 she went to Paris for further study. There, while treating a patient with a serious eye infection, one of her own eyes became infected. To keep the infection from spreading, the doctors had to remove her infected eye, replacing it with a glass eye. She had to give up her dream of becoming a surgeon.

If Dr. Blackwell couldn't become a surgeon, at least she could administer to the people who needed the most help, such as poverty-stricken immigrants, women, and children. She returned to New York and set up a small hospital. At first few would come for help because they didn't trust a woman doctor. Maybe she was a witch! But slowly the needy came, and Dr. Blackwell tended them.

There was never enough money to run the hospital, so Dr. Blackwell asked a famous actress for help. You would think the actress might be sympathetic, but she was shocked when she heard about women doctors. "Trust a woman as a doctor-never!" were her final words.

Such rejections did not discourage the doctor. Her hospital thrived-and so did Dr. Blackwell. She died in 1910 at the age of 89, secure in the knowledge that she had been the first of hundreds of women doctors. Today we remember this pioneer on our eighteen-cent stamp.

Student Retell

Elizabeth Blackwell was the first women doctor in 1845/ and she was a teacher too/ she was twenty-six years old/ nobody thought that she could be a doctor/ they were all afraid that a women doctor would mess up./ Finally in 1910 she died at the age of 89./

Numer of Words	49
Number of Thought Units	6
Qualitative Score:	4

<div style="border: 1px solid black;">

Isiah Thomas (4/7/92)

To his college coach, he was "Pee Wee." His best friend calls him "Zeke." His admiring fans call him "Mr. Wonderful." With his signing of a pro contract, you can call him "rich." And an opposing coach terms him "rich." And an opposing coach terms him "one of the best point guards in college basketball history."

"He" is Isiah Thomas, who led Indiana to the 1981 NCAA Basketball Championship. At half-time of the championship game, Isiah had scored only 4 points and Indiana led North Carolina by just a point. But with the second half tip-off, Isiah took charge, stealing the ball several times in quick succession, playing a brilliant floor game, and netting 19 more points, all of which made him an easy and obvious choice as Most Valuable Player. "Isiah has amazing quickness and good hands," the North Carolina coach said, and added, "He broke the game open."

But this game was no flash in the pan for Isiah. Throughout the 1981 season, he was the leader of the Indiana team, both in terms of points scored and of his inspirational qualities. Though the team wasn't playing well at the start of the season, Isiah kept telling his teammates that they could still be a good team. As the results of the title game convincingly demonstrated, Isiah got the message across.

Isiah is facing a new challenge, for shortly after the tournament was over he decided to turn professional. "Pro basketball is so much different from college basketball, it's kind of scary," he said. but although he stands only 6' 1", short for a basketball player, virtually everyone agrees that Isiah will continue to be a star.

Despite his fame, Isiah remains modest. He often praises teammates rather than boasting about his own accomplishments. Perhaps this modesty comes from being the youngest of nine children, or perhaps because his family was so poor that they occasionally went without food. But his mother, whom Isiah describes as "the greatest woman in the world," kept them all together. This experience also made Isiah stronger as a person, so that when he went away to college and then to the pros he knew how to take care of himself.

</div>

Student Retell

To his coach he called him "Pee Wee."/ To his friend he called him "Zeke."/ To his fans they called him "Mr. Wonderful."/ Isiah won the NCAA championship tournament/ when Isiah was finish playing the tournament he signed a contract over to the pros/ He is now on the Detroit Pistons playing professional basketball./ Even though he was only 6' 1"/ He was the shortest basketball player on his team/ he was still a good player./ He said that "professional basketball is scary/ not like collage basketball was easy./ He was the youngest out of nine kids./ Everybody thinks that he could play basketball forever./

Number of Words	106
Number of Thought Units	12
Qualitative Score	5

J.R. Richard (4/23/92)

James Rodney Richard of the Houston Astros, J.R. for short, was perhaps the best right-handed pitcher in baseball by the end of the 1979 season. He became the first National League right-hander to strike out 300 batters in a season the previous year, and improved on that figure in 1979, striking out 313. He averaged nearly 30 wins for four years. And the 1980 season began as if it would be his best ever.

Then in June, things mysteriously started going bad for J.R. He complained of a sore arm, and missed several starts, for the first time in his career. Some people, however, including newspaper reporters and even teammates, had doubts that anything was really wrong with him.

But in July, everyone discovered J.R.'s problem, for he suffered a stroke while playing catch, and only a long operation saved his life. Even then, his left side was paralyzed for a while. Many people believed he would never pitch again. Several months later, however, another operation, lasting nearly an entire day, was performed on J.R., raising the possibility that he might be able to resume his career.

With this encouragement, he began doing exercises to build up his physical strength. When he reported for spring training before the 1981 season, he courageously decided to practice in public, rather than by himself. He soon discovered he could throw nearly as hard as before his stroke, and his catcher reported that his fast ball occasionally approached speeds of 90 miles per hour. Other adjustments he would need to make before he could pitch in an actual game would require more time, but as J.R. says, "I know I'm going to be fine. I have confidence in myself."

J.R. is also an inspiration to other people, especially those with serious illnesses, because of his courage and determination to overcome obstacles. But no matter what happens, and J.R. knows better than anyone else that he may never be able to pitch again, he says, "It wouldn't be the end of the world. I'm going to keep living. The only thing that bothers me is this: I jumped off the couch and found I couldn't fly."

Student Retell

James Rodney Richard of the Houston Astros he was named J. R. for short./

In his 1979 career he struck out 300 batters./ He got better in his 1980 season/ he

struck out 313 batter. But in July somthing weird happen to him./ All his teamates

thought he was ok./ In June he had a long operation that took hours./ His left side

was paralized for a while./ After about a entire day worth of an operation J. R.

returned playing baseball./ His catcher recorded that he threw a ball almost 90

miles an hour./ But in 1981 his fans knew that he wound'nt be a pitcher anymore./

If he quits playing baseball his life is not over/ the only thing bothering him is

that he tried to jump off the couch and he couldn't fly./

Number of Words	140
Number of Thought Units	13
Qualitative Score	5

Results

Performance

200
160
120
80
40

Measure

# of Words

Week No. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13

Date: 2|18 4|7 ⊥ ⊥ ⊥ ⊥ ⊥
3|4 4|23 ⊥ ⊥ ⊥ ⊥

Judgment

5
4
3
2
1

Measure

Qualitative Score

Week No. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

Date: 2|18 4|7 ⊥ ⊥ ⊥ ⊥ ⊥
3|4 4|23 ⊥ ⊥ ⊥ ⊥

Performance

15
10
5

Measure

# of Thought Units

Week No. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
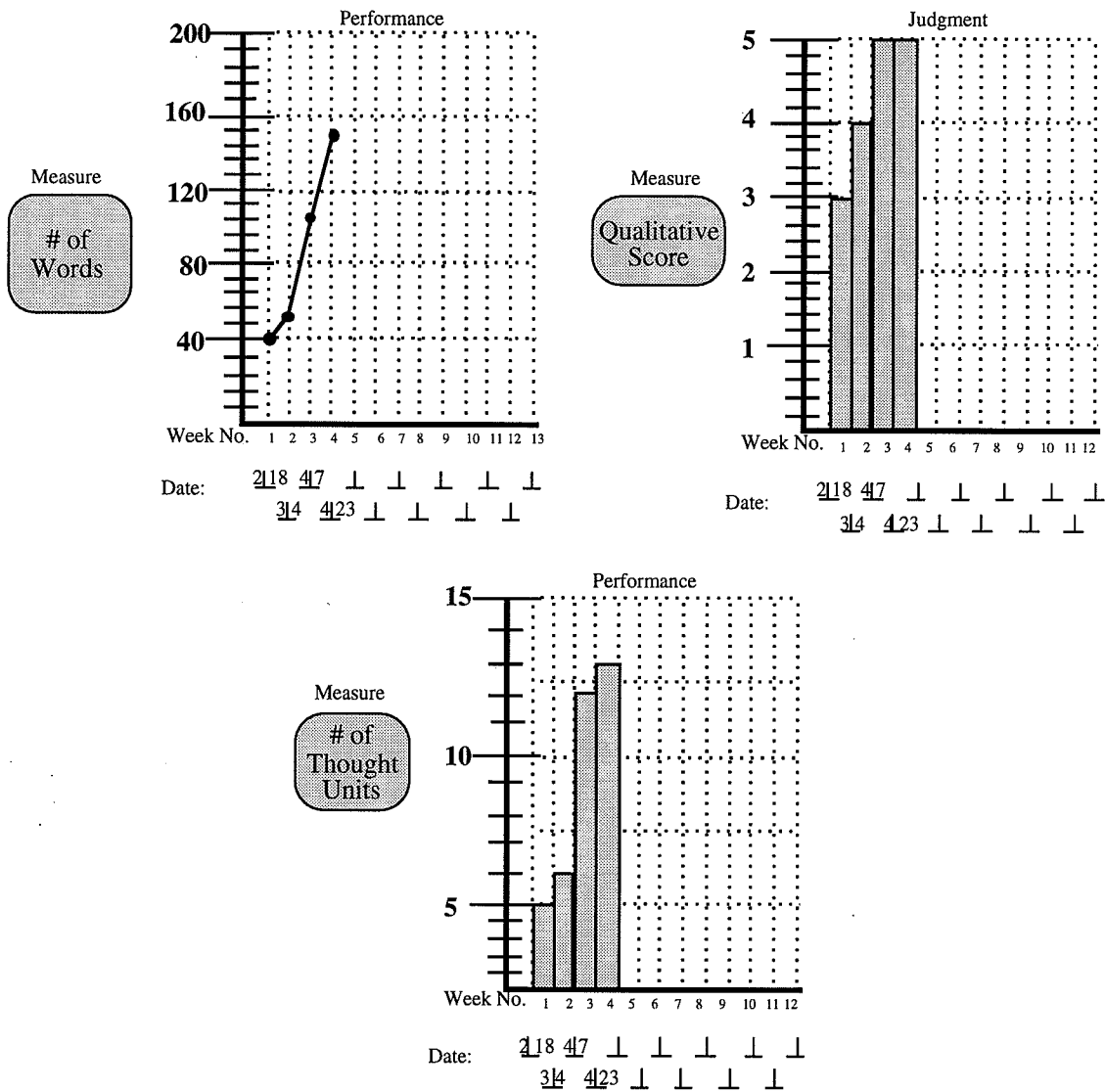
Date: 2|18 4|7 ⊥ ⊥ ⊥ ⊥ ⊥
3|4 4|23 ⊥ ⊥ ⊥ ⊥

Figure 24. Graphic Representation of Mike's Scoring

The story retells improved dramatically following instruction. Mike wrote longer retells with more of the ideas from the story. After instruction, he also used more complete sentences, improving the readability of his retells. His use of writing conventions also improved.

In addition, following instruction, the student showed definite improvement in written expression and his story retells show that he comprehended what he read.

Discussion

The data from this study show growth in student performance following instruction. However, because there is no interplay between the IEP and instruction, IEP goals do not appear to be addressed. The only method available for monitoring student's progress toward IEP goals used standardized test score comparison from one year to the next.

An alternative approach is to assess the student's performance on the materials that are used for instruction and then write IEP goals. For example, if the IEP goals for writing are developed from a sample of the student's writing, goals may be written to reflect the student's ability in relation to peer norms, reflecting the following goals:

- "When writing a story retell, the student will go from 40 words written to 150 total words written (grade level average);

- the number of thought units expressed will increase from a total of 3 thought units per retell to a total of 15 thought units per retell;

- the quality of written expression will improve from a 1 to a 3 when compared to grade level norms."

Then, the instruction can reflect the IEP goals. If there was interplay between the IEP and instruction, the story retells that the student writes can then be used to evaluate whether or not short-term objectives are being met. Comparing the student's progress to grade level norms also can help define short-term objectives. It places the student's growth in perspective by showing how far the student needs to improve. Classroom instruction can remain constant, consisting of oral vocabulary development, reading short passages about famous

people, and writing story retells. And with story retells scored by counting the total number of words and thought units, and by using a qualitative scale, the evaluation procedures can show growth over time.

References

Goodman, J., & Bond, L. (1993). The individualized education program: A retrospective critique. *The Journal of Special Education, 26*(4), 408-422.

Lynch, E., & Beare, P. (1990). The quality of IEP objectives and their relevance to instruction for students with mental retardation and behavioral disorders. *Remedial and Special Education (RASE), 11*(2), 48-55.

Smith, S. W. (1990). Individualized education programs (IEPs) in special education– from intent to acquiescence. *Exceptional Children, 57*(1), 6-14.

Sugai, G. (1985). Case study: Designing instruction from IEPs. *Teaching Exceptional Children, 17*(3), 232-239.