

REAP for Indian Children Entering an
Urban School System

A Thesis
Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of
Master of Education
in the Indian and Northern Education Program
of the College of Education
University of Saskatchewan
Saskatoon, Saskatchewan

by

Sister Rose Marie Marcuzzi

Saskatoon, Saskatchewan

February, 1981

202000346495

The author has agreed that the Library, University of Saskatchewan, shall make this thesis freely available for inspection. Moreover, the author has agreed that permission for extensive copying of this thesis for scholarly purposes may be granted by the professor or professors who supervised the thesis work recorded herein, or in their absence, by the Head of the Department or Dean of the College in which the thesis work was done. It is understood that due recognition will be given to the author of the thesis and to the University of Saskatchewan in any use of the material of this thesis. Copying or publication or any other use of the thesis for financial gain without the approval of the University of Saskatchewan and the author's written permission is prohibited.

Requests for permission to copy or to make other use of material in this thesis in whole or in part should be addressed to:

Director
Indian and Northern Education Program
College of Education
University of Saskatchewan
SASKATOON, Canada

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the English oral language and reading skills used by six Indian children entering an urban school in Saskatoon. Rose's Educational Assistentment Program was developed and administered to assist students in areas of skill deficiencies. The areas were identified by the administration of a set of diagnostic, standardized tests. Following the three month treatment, post-test forms of the same tests were administered.

The study found, by the t-test analysis of mean scores, that the students' language skills increased significantly at the .05 level in word recognition, word attack, translating from oral language to written, and recognizing initial and final consonants. On the basis of the rejection of the four null hypotheses being tested, the study concluded that REAP as it was designed and used was beneficial in the development of English oral language and reading skills of the study sample.

The observational data collected during the study suggested that REAP also was related to positive growth in the self-concept and self-confidence of the children. This was considered to be an important factor, supported by the literature concerning Indian children which suggested that "not only does poor self-concept interfere with learning to read, but that the reading disability leads to an even poorer self-concept" (Quandt, 1972, p. 9).

It was speculated that the small group and individualized teaching in a concentrated time frame may have been an important component in the success of REAP.

The study findings and conclusions were limited by the small sample, the high level of correlation among tests, the level of difficulty of the pre-test forms, and the ability of the researcher to diagnose language difficulties and construct appropriate materials to overcome deficiencies.

Since Indian children showed positive increases in skills involving word recognition, word attack, translation of words from oral to written forms, the researcher concluded that Rose's Educational Assistentment Program was beneficial to Indian children entering an urban school.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author gratefully acknowledges the valuable assistance given in the completion of this study. Appreciation is expressed to Prof. D. Koenig, Prof. C. King, Prof. C. Fondse, and external examiner Dr. K. Whale of the College of Education of the University of Saskatchewan.

Special thanks are given to the Saskatoon Public School Board, to the students and teachers at Princess Alexandra school for their assistance and cooperation in helping the author carry out this research, and to Lois McBeth, Edmonton, for use of the "Compensatory Language Arts/Reading Program for Inner City Schools."

My personal appreciation to the Institute of Northern Studies for scholarship assistance, the Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation for a research grant, and to many friends and colleagues for support, interest and encouragement during the study.

A special thanks to my community, the School Sisters of Notre Dame, for their encouragement and time off to pursue studies.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES.	viii
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION.	1
Problem	4
Statement of the Problem.	5
Hypotheses.	5
Limitations	6
Delimitations	6
Assumptions	7
Definition of Terms	7
Summary	8
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.	9
Background of Indian Children Entering the Urban School System	9
Teacher Expectations and Attitudes.	12
Urban School Entrance and Language Problems	14
Summary	17
III. PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY	18
The Sample.	18
Organization.	19
Procedure	20
Test I - The Detroit Visual Attention Span for Objects	20
Test II - The Detroit Auditory Attention Span for Related Syllables	21
Test III - Schonell Graded Word Reading Test.	21
Test IV - Schonell Grade Word Spelling Test	21
Test V A,B - Roswell-Chall Diagnostic Reading Test	21
Test VI A,B,C - Botel Word Recognition Test - Form A.	22
Structure of the Program.	22
Development of Self-Concent Through Oral Language	23
Reading Skills Development.	25
Analysis of the Data.	27
Summary	30

	Page
IV. PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS.	31
Presentation of the Data.	31
Hypothesis 1.	32
Hypothesis 2.	32
Hypothesis 3.	34
Hypothesis 4.	37
Correlation Analysis.	39
Observational Data.	42
Discussion of Results	44
Summary	49
V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	50
Summary	50
Conclusions	51
Recommendations	53
BIBLIOGRAPHY.	54
APPENDICES	
A. School Board Letter	64
B. Tests	66
C. Rose's Educational Assisment Program (REAP).	85
D. Materials	91

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Means, Standard Deviations and t-values for Pre- and Post-tests of Word Recognition Skills	33
2. Means, Standard Deviations and t-values for Pre- and Post-tests of Word Attack Skills.	35
3. Means, Standard Deviations and t-values for Pre- and Post-tests of Oral to Written Skills.	36
4. Means, Standard Deviations and t-values for Pre- and Post-tests of Initial and Final Consonant Skills.	38
5. Pearson Correlation Coefficients of Mean Scores on Nine Pre-tests of Language Skills.	40
6. Correlation Coefficients of Mean Scores on Eight Post-tests of Language Skills	41
7. Group Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, and t-values on Pre- and Post-tests.	45

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

In the Canadian society of the 1980's, children of Indian ancestry are schooled for competence in the dominant society. Over the past 25 years Indian, Metis and Inuit children have been involved in the public education system where curricula, teaching techniques and evaluation criteria have been developed for students of the dominant culture. It could be assumed that, within the same system, all learners in general would achieve parallel levels of skill development and conceptual learning. Statistics indicate that the converse has been true for some Indian students.

The Hawthorn Report (1966) cited data collected in 1963 which reported that among Indian students enrolled in schools across Canada, the drop-out rate was 94% between grades one and twelve. In a task force study of Indian education in Saskatchewan, the Federation of Saskatchewan Indians (1973) found that the situation had worsened and reported a drop-out rate of 96% by the grade 12 level. Indian students not only dropped out, but according to a survey conducted by the Saskatchewan Public School Board in 1979, the ones who remained in the system became progressively more age-grade displaced as they proceeded along the age-grade continuum.

The situation of the Indian student in the public education system has become a major concern of both Indian people and non-Indian educators, employers and governments. Research studies have sought explanations and solutions to the problem.

F. A. Ianni (1973) made the comment that educational authorities must rule out the suggestion that the Indian is incapable of mastering educational tasks. The National Indian Brotherhood (1972) concluded that:

The present school system is culturally alien to native students where the Indian contribution, if not entirely ignored, is often cast in an unfavourable light. (p. 2)

Coombs (1970) examined the schools themselves and stated: "The achievement of minority pupils depends more on the schools they attend, than does the achievement of majority pupils" (p. 9).

Distribution figures found in the Canadian Indian Statistics (1971) showed that 90% of the Indian students attending school were at the elementary level, 9% at the secondary level and 1% at the post-secondary level. Since the highest concentration of students was found at the elementary school level, the researcher considered it was a logical level in which to implement programs and curricula more relevant to Indian children than those likely to be available in the average urban school.

The importance of positive experiences for the learner during early school years was described by Bloom, Davis and Hess (1965):

The first three years of the elementary school are critical. If learning is not successful and satisfying in these years, the entire educational career of the child is seriously jeopardized. The child's interest in school learning, the problems of the school dropout, and the educational and vocational career of the individual are largely determined by what takes place in the first few years of public school. (p. 22)

The number of Indian children in the city has increased phenomenally during the past several years. Statistics prepared by the Education branch of the Department of Indian Affairs in Saskatoon (1980) indicated the increase of status Indian children into the school systems in Saskatoon since 1974:

1974 - 160
1975 - 320
1976 - 249
1977 - 454
1978 - 632
1979 - 764
1980 - 853

In 1978, J. Gallagher, a native counsellor with the Saskatoon Public School Board, conducted a study in which he found that 76% of the Indian students in the public school system were "age-grade" displaced by two or more years. More recently, some concern about this situation has been shown by the public school system. In a survey conducted in 1979 to investigate the problems of the Treaty Indian, the Saskatoon Public School Board has attempted to meet the needs of the newly-urbanized Indian child within the system. The survey's philosophical premise is that,

The schools must do many things for many children . . . It is our belief that, through continuous progress, individualization of instruction, sensitivity to and provision for cultural background of native students and continued involvement of native parents, our elementary schools can effectively meet the needs of these children. (Saskatoon Board of Education, 1979)

During the past several years, educators have become more aware of the Indian child's problems in learning; however, school authorities still find it difficult to understand some of the underlying basic problems affecting the Indian child. According to researchers and educators, one of the basic problems for Indian students is their deficiencies in basic oral language and reading skills.

The purposes of this study were to assist Indian children entering an urban school:

1. by means of a program designed to develop oral language and reading skills.
2. to develop a positive self-concept in the Indian children.

Problem

Research literature supports a factor of this study that one of the major difficulties Indian children face in entering an urban school is their lack of fluency in oral language. This may be due, in part, to the fact that English is the child's "second language," or that the child speaks a form of non-standard English learned from his parents.

Hawthorn (1966) observed:

Standard everyday conversations among Indian children and adults are severely limited. The English spoken by adults is often inaccurate and limited in vocabulary. (p. 113)

Renaud (1964), speaking on the background differences of Indian children, commented:

Indian societies in Northern Canada and the Prairies operate with a minimum of recorded language. The child growing up in these communities does not imbibe literacy, as those growing up in other Canadian communities. (p. 6)

In the article, "Improving Reading Ability of Indian Children,"

Narang (1971) stated the problem as:

Conversation between children and adults is restricted. This may be largely due to cultural values which demand silence in the presence of adults . . . The sentences used are short, simple and often incomplete. Indian children are, therefore, deficient in listening and speaking abilities. (p. 192)

Fox (1978) and Narang (1972) saw language problems as existing in many Indian homes. In contrast, Susut (1972) transferred the language problem from the home into the school setting:

In school, difficulties often arise from the differences between the native tongue and English, such as those relating to tenses of verbs, size of vocabulary and mouth movement. (p. 8)

The difficulty imposed on students having to learn a new language on entry into school was discussed by Howe (1967) who suggested that:

A small child entering a school, which appears to reject the only words he can use, is adversely affected in every aspect of his being. He is immediately retarded in his school work.

Sealey and Kirkness (1974) described the Indian child's entrance into school as an interruption of the learning process.

The Indian child is forced to unlearn and relearn and acquire new learning areas which he should have at his disposal at school entry if he is to progress at the same rate as his non-Indian classmates. (p. 148)

This study did not advocate another "remedial program," but a program of assistance. It was an "Educational Assistentment Program," whereby the researcher assisted Indian children participating in the program to overcome some of their deficiencies in oral language as early as possible in their school experience.

In summary, this study focused on the problems faced by Indian children who, on entering Saskatoon school systems, found themselves experiencing difficulty with language related activities. The researcher developed a language assistment program and tested its usefulness over a three month time period with six Indian children in a grade one class in a Saskatoon public school.

Statement of the Problem

Rose's Educational Assistentment Program (REAP) was designed to assist children of Indian ancestry who experience difficulties in oral language and reading skills. The purpose of the program was to correct the skill deficiencies in oral language and reading in grade one.

Hypotheses

The study tested the following null hypotheses:

1. There will be no statistically significant increase in word recognition skills for children involved in REAP.
2. There will be no statistically significant increase in word attack skills for children involved in REAP.
3. There will be no statistically significant increase in skills translating oral language to written for children involved in REAP.
4. There will be no statistically significant increase in skills recognizing initial and final consonants for children involved in REAP.

Limitations

In implementing the Educational Assistentment Program, the following limitations applied:

1. The small sample of school beginners made it impossible to generalize findings to the population of Indian students in Saskatoon schools.
2. The testing material used in the study may have had limited relevance for the subjects.
3. The three months during which the program was conducted may have been too short to allow for any significant change in skill level.
4. The 't-test' procedure used to analyze the data is limited in its ability to find specific changes in learning.
5. The sporadic attendance by some students put strictures on the study.

Delimitations

REAP was conducted within the following parameters:

1. Only six children of Indian ancestry in one classroom in Saskatoon

were selected for this study.

2. The study remained within the confines of the language arts and reading aspects of the curricula.

3. For three months, 30 minutes per day were allotted to oral language skills followed by 30 minutes of work on reading skills.

Assumptions

In conducting the REAP study, the researcher made the following assumptions:

1. That the Indian children in this study used English as a second language when entering an urban school.

2. That the Indian children in this study were likely to be reticent and have little self-confidence.

3. That the Indian children in this study were likely to have a low level of oral language and reading skills.

4. That the Indian children in this study were likely to be classified as culturally disadvantaged in the urban school situation.

5. That the experimental program which was designed for this study would provide Indian children with an increase in skill competence in oral language and reading.

6. That the materials used in the program would be seen by students to be culturally relevant and interesting.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions were applied.

Indian children: children of Indian ancestry in which both parents were status Indians.

Non-Indian: any person not born of Indian ancestry.

Non-Standard English: English language usage learned and responded to in the context of one's environment. English which does not meet the standards of the language used in the schools of Saskatoon.

REAP: Rose's Educational Assistentment Program designed to assist Indian children develop oral language and reading skills.

Culturally Disadvantaged: A child who is taken from his familiar environment and placed within the educational system which exists for the purpose of enhancing a society other than his own.

Summary

The number of Indian children entering the Saskatoon school systems is increasing. Many Indian children enter with deficiencies in oral English language and reading skills. The REAP program designed for this study proposed a method whereby these students might be helped to develop oral language and reading skills. The program was geared to test the Indian child for skills in:

1. word recognition
2. word attack
3. translating from oral language to written
4. recognizing initial and final consonants.

The program also was planned to enhance the positive self-concept and self-confidence of the children involved in the study.

Chapter II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter examines research literature in the areas of:

1. Background of Indian children entering the urban school system.
2. Teacher expectations of Indian children.
3. Urban school entrance and Indian children's language patterns.

Background of Indian Children Entering the Urban School System

The differences which exist between (sic) cultural groups can no longer be attributed to innate intelligence. The differences are believed to be in the cultural values and beliefs of each respective group. (Zintz, 1969, p. 8)

According to much of the research literature, the educational problems of the Indian child are compared or categorized as being similar to those of the culturally disadvantaged child. Crow (1966) referred to the disadvantaged as a group of people who live under economic and social conditions which include low incomes, high rate of unemployment, poor housing, large families and inadequate education. This description resembles that of many Indian homes as referred to by Frideres (1974), Sindell (1974) and Spindler (1974). Hawthorn (1966) stated that to understand how or why the Indian child entered the school system at a disadvantage, it was necessary to examine how the early socialization he received differed from that of the non-Indian child.

Wasson (1970) explained that the Indian child learned the culture of

his parents. The attitudes, behaviour standards, values and reasoning power all become a part of his personality. However, when the Indian child enters the urban, middle-class school, he is expected to change his cultural orientation, values and identity to conform with those of the dominant society within the school. The child experiences many conflicts because of the dichotomy between his culture and that of the school.

Looking at the Indian child's background from the anthropological point of view, Ahenakew (1973), Ford (1968), Pohorecky (1970) and Price (1979) described Indian tribes as having had their own systems of education. The Indian child grew up learning everything he needed to know for survival. This was done by observing and practising the skills taught him by his parents. He could identify with parents, grandparents and elders as traditional models. According to Mandelbaum (1979), Price (1979) and Sindell (1974), kinsmen displayed behaviour patterns and attitudes which conformed to traditional Indian values and expectations.

Sociologically, through field experiences and first-hand information, Sindell (1974) concurred with Burns and Broman (1979) and Hawthorn (1966) that Indian children when of an age to enter school had experienced few limits on their behaviour. The child was free to explore his natural surroundings and learned to be self-dependent. The authors also stated that because the Indian child was cared for by a number of kinfolk, he was prevented from developing an extreme dependency on one or two members of the nuclear family. Brophy and Aberlee (1969) and Manuel (1974) explained that the strong ties of the kinship-group within the Indian society were based on friendship, respect and loyalty. Kinship played an important role in the life of the Indian people. Through this kinship the Indian child learned by observation and repetition. This facet of education was

reiterated by Littlejohn (1975, p. 28) when she stated that oral sources were dependent for preservation on the powers of observation of the observer and the powers of memory of successive generations.

However, The Saskatchewan Newstart Program (1971) pointed out that the old style of learning through observation and repetition was gradually replaced by a learning style highly dependent on words, oral and written. The study continued by saying that Indian children from smaller northern communities were likely to have language problems. The study explained how many Indian children came from a situation which was restrictive in experience and language. Indian parents did not have the time nor the skills to teach their children. This factor was confirmed by Susut (1972) and Zintz (1980). Joyce and Banks (1971) and Renaud (1964) described conversations between an Indian child and an adult as being "limited." This statement was backed by Coombs (1970) when he wrote that the English spoken by Indian adults was often limited in vocabulary. Zintz (1980) commented that parents using a form of non-standard English provided a functionally efficient and satisfying means of communication. Thus the child learned this mode of speech at home. According to Rossel (1971), environmental deprivations may have had some effects on the child's perception, attention span, learning patterns and his relationship with adults.

Crow (1966) and Horn (1970) were of the opinion that in economically deprived areas a child's oral language development suffered severely. The main causes for this situation were a lack of good reading materials in the homes and the parents being too occupied for sufficient oral communication with the child. The same could be said about the Indian child. A comparison of background circumstances between Indian and non-Indian

children was made by McCabe (1960) and Moffet and Wagner (1976). Zintz (1980) observed that in many non-Indian homes a child learned to speak English fluently by the age of six. He had a good understanding of the language. In contrast, in the home of the Indian child, many parents did not have as good a command of English as that found in the middle-class dominant society. The Indian child was often left with grandparents who spoke very little English, thus limiting the child's verbal language usage. When the Indian and the non-Indian child come together in the classroom, the former's language usage puts him at a disadvantage.

A child who is familiar with books and knows how to use them and knows how to converse with an adult has an expanded vocabulary. This child has a greater advantage over a child with minimal verbal interaction, little exposure to books and who has learned English from adults who use it as a second language. (Cohen, 1969, p. 7)

Teacher Expectations and Attitudes

Teachers must become aware of the individual needs of the children in order to determine the type of programs and activities which must be provided. (Joyce & Banks, 1971, pp. 65-66)

Fox (1972) and Price (1978) agreed with Joyce and Banks that many children, especially Indian children, come to the classroom with a set of values and background experiences which differ in many aspects from those of the middle-class dominant society. Teachers should be cognizant of the differences and seek to understand the child's values and background. Jensen (1974) and Moursund (1976) suggested teachers should teach the child according to his individual needs and abilities. Their stress was for less structured, uniform programs. The beneficial aspects of such a method was observed by Collier (1973) in his study Alaskan Eskimo Education where he examined the process used by a teacher in Bethel, Alaska. The

teacher rarely taught the class as a whole group. She taught the children in units on a one-to-a-few or one-to-one communication basis. This method was instrumental in helping the teacher establish a working relationship with the children, as well as develop a good rapport.

Crosby (1963) commented:

The teacher who looks with penetrating insight into the potential of culturally different children, and creates a school which identifies with them, provides a climate of support and makes possible the development of a self-image which commands self-respect and respect for others. (p. 412)

An understanding teacher tries to find opportunities to nurture a child's ego needs, as well as make the classroom climate a positive one. More important, however, is the child's need to be accepted by the teacher. Jensen (1974), in discussing teacher attitudes, stated that failure was due in part to the teacher spending less time helping the culturally disadvantaged child, thus making less effort to communicate with the child. This lack of communication gives the child a feeling of unimportance and inadequacy. The self-concept of an individual is developed as a result of the experiences he has had. Quandt (1972) stated that a person who perceived himself as unimportant or incapable may be unable to perform at a normal level. A positive classroom climate encourages children to participate in oral language discussion.

Dumont and Wax (1969) and Kleinfeld (1973) described a classroom situation in which Eskimo and Indian students refused to speak. They reacted to this situation by stating that a warm and accepting classroom climate would reduce the student's fear of being laughed at when giving oral answers.

Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) and Wasson (1970) were of the opinion that teachers who have low expectation levels of children seldom motivated

them to higher learning levels. Children generally achieve the level of expectations placed on them by the teacher. LaRoque (1975) confirmed this fact through personal experience. The teacher's expectations of her were low and he had destined her for failure. Her experience suggested that many educators had biased attitudes towards Indian students. These attitudes were reflected in the classroom touching the lives of the children.

Prejudice is another factor which affects the relationship between a teacher and the Indian child. Deloria (1972) and LaRoque (1975) both cited examples of teachers downgrading the Indian child and his culture. A prominent example of downgrading assumed that the Indian child was lacking in intelligence (Brooks, 1978). Mickelson and Galloway (1973) stated: "Indian children as a group characteristically manifest low achievement levels in the public schools of North America" (p. 55). Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) were of the opinion that low educational achievement was a source of concern to educators. Cheyney (1976) emphasized the teacher's need to respect the dignity of the individual child in the classroom, regardless of family and cultural background.

Urban School Entrance and Language Problems

Teachers assume that an Indian child entering an urban school has completed kindergarten. This may not be necessarily so. The child's education may be one learned totally from the home environment. Manuel (1974) and Rossel (1971) pointed out that the Indian child comes from a society where the extended family is an important factor in his life. His education has been derived from the numerous relatives around him; his sense of security has been developed. When the child is taken from

this situation and placed in an urban school, he may become withdrawn, insecure and reticent. Within the extended family the child has learned his basic oral language.

Cohen (1967) stated:

It is commonplace observation that the language of culturally different children differs from the standard English used in schools. This language difference plays a vital role in the education of a child entering an urban school. (p. 36)

Horn (1970) agreed with Cohen regarding the child who had learned a restricted vocabulary at home. Such a child was likely to have difficulty in school where language was used and taught in a different form by the teacher. Zintz (1980) concluded that many negative attitudes and academic failures of Indian children were rooted in the differences of culture, language and experience.

Bowd (1974) and Wieczkiewicz (1979) conducted studies which examined the relative importance of vocabulary, general intelligence, language background and socio-economic status in determining the grade levels achieved by Indian children. Dowd's (1974) study involved Indian boys aged 12 to 14 years from several cultural groups in Western Canada. While general intelligence would be a factor of achievement among white children, the study anticipated that vocabulary and socio-economic status would be most important for Indian groups. The conclusions of this study demonstrated that, for the white samples, the grade levels depended primarily on general intelligence, whereas, for the Indian group they were verbal ability. Moursund (1976) stated that without language an accumulation of knowledge cannot be developed. This may be applied to the Indian child's learning of the English language. The learning of the language may be affected by the lack of certain common elements in the

language he is already using, whether it be Cree or non-standard English.

Linguists such as Jensen and Petty (1980) have shown language structure differences between English and native languages. Some of these language structures present obstacles to the Indian child in his attempts to learn English. Galloway and Mickleon (1969) commented that some English sounds have no counterparts in native languages. This was confirmed by Soveran (1965) in her article, "From Cree to English." She pointed out the F and V found in the English language are foreign to the Cree: the ch-sound in Cree varies in position when articulated. In some positions it is sounded almost as a ts: e.g., church-churts. Sometimes the ch substitutes for the English j - sound, jolly-cholly. The sh-sound depends on the positioning of the tongue which varies in Cree, producing sounds from s-to-sh. When a Cree speaker encounters the English sh, to the majority it will be s. They will speak English or buy "sells for a sotgun."

Soveran (1965) continued: "We are sure we are continuing to repeat what we have heard, when in fact, we have replaced several Cree sounds by the English sounds we thought we heard" (p. 2).

McLeod (1979) gave further examples by describing the importance of vowel sounds and lengths in Cree. Vowel lengths are an important signal in Cree, e.g., nipā - sleep; nipa - kill. The vowel emphasis may completely change the meaning of a word. Such differences in vowel length occur in English, but they do not carry any change in meaning as in the Cree language.

It would be impossible in this study to examine all the differences which occur between Cree and the English language. The examples cited give an insight into some basic differences. These differences may

explain causes for the Indian child's difficulty in understanding certain verbal concepts. This may be a contributing factor in an Indian child's low achievement in school. Lawrence (1978) claimed that a child limited in the mastery of English oral language is labelled "language deficient." It must be noted, however, that the child is deficient only in terms of mastery of the language. Streeton (1973), working with Indian children in Prince Albert, Saskatchewan, claimed that the major reasons for an Indian child being behind in school achievement was a lack of fluency in oral language. Erickson (1971) pursued Streeton's reasoning by stating if the thinking of Indian children is limited by their early, stumbling grasp of English, their mental development may be permanently impeded.

Fox (1972) concluded that inadequate exposure to oral language may be one of the principle reasons for language problems for the Indian child in the urban school.

Summary

The Indian child entering the urban school steps into a different world of customs and language. The language problems are varied because of the Indian child's Cree background and of his non-standard form of English. There are difficulties in speech patterns and language sounds which may not be familiar to the Indian child.

Teachers are important in helping Indian children achieve in an urban school. Sometimes teachers assume that the Indian child is inferior in intelligence to other children in the class, with the result that their expectations are lower for these children. Teachers must make efforts to understand the Indian child's background and pinpoint the deficiencies in oral language and reading skills.

Chapter III

PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY

This chapter outlines the procedures followed in developing, administrating and evaluating the language learning outcomes of REAP. REAP was conducted for three months with six Indian children in grade one in a Saskatoon Public School.

The Sample

The sample for this study consisted of six children of Indian ancestry, enrolled in a grade one classroom in a Saskatoon school during the 1979 term. The sample involved four boys and two girls. Three of the children spoke and understood some Cree and the other three did not. However, all six children spoke a non-standard type of English which was limited in vocabulary. Five of the six children had spent one year in kindergarten. The school selected for the study had a high concentration of Indian children. The study was designed to include children of average intelligence.

At no time during the study did the researcher intend to include children with psychological or emotional problems. The rationale for choosing subjects with average intelligence was to show that Indian children lacking in oral language and reading skills could be helped by REAP.

The subjects for REAP were chosen with the aid of the school

psychologist who had a profile of each child. The principal and the grade one teacher involved also provided information regarding the learning abilities of each child selected.

Organization

Prior to selecting the sample for the study, the researcher obtained authorization from the Superintendent of the Public School Board in the city of Saskatoon, Saskatchewan. Authorization was sought to work in a school with a high Indian population, specifically in the primary grades. The initial contact was made with the Superintendent of Research, Development and Planning to explain the purpose and structure of Rose's Educational Assistentment Program (REAP) and the type of children needed for the study (see Appendix A). The Superintendent, in consultation with several principals and the two native resource teachers in the system, designated a school for the use of the researcher. Arrangements were made to meet with the administrator of the designated school. After contact with the administrator, a specific classroom was assigned and the researcher spent some time with the teacher, discussing the purpose of the study and what it hoped to accomplish. During the three months of working with REAP, the researcher and the classroom teacher had constant contact with each other. The researcher daily kept the teacher informed regarding the content of the day's lesson with the children. The children returned to the classroom with follow-up work from the lesson taught. The researcher met with the principal and teacher once a week to discuss the children's progress.

Procedure

In working with the subjects, the small group approach was used as the teaching procedure, because each child is unique in ability, aptitude, interest and the culture which he brings into school. The researcher looked at each child as an individual having a unique personal history and used this as a basis for building self-confidence and a sense of security in each child. This approach concentrated on each subject's skill deficiencies and progressed from that point in a positive way. Purkey (1970) was of the opinion that a child's self-concept does occur as an outcome of the learning situation and that self must be recognized as an important factor in learning.

The Indian children involved in the study were drawn from the classroom during the regular language arts and reading period. The initial contact between the researcher and the subjects was an informal "getting acquainted" time. During the second session, the subjects met the researcher individually for the completing of a set of pre-tests which consisted of a battery of standardized, diagnostic tests. The use of these particular tests was to help diagnose and determine difficulties in the subjects' use of oral language and reading skills. The tests measured the subjects for skills in word recognition and word attack, translating from oral language to written, and recognizing initial and final consonant sounds.

The tests used are as follows.

Test I - The Detroit Visual Attention Span for Objects

This test consists of a series of 14 cards with pictures on them.

The cards start with two pictures on one card and progress to eight pictures on one card. The test is to determine the child's visual attention span for memory recall.

Test II - The Detroit Auditory Attention
Span for Related Syllables

This test is a series of 43 sentences ranging from five words to 22 words. It is completely auditory, testing the child's ability to repeat words and sounds correctly in context.

Test III - Schonell Graded Word
Reading Test

This test determines whether or not the child can actually use the word attack skills which he has been taught. An analysis of the errors made shows which skills are weak. The words selected for the test start at a grade one level.

Test IV - Schonell Graded Word
Spelling Test

This tests the child's ability to transfer his knowledge of the sound/symbol relationship to a written form. An analysis of the errors made by the child indicates his instructional needs. The words selected for the test start at a grade one level.

Test V A,B - Roswell-Chall Diagnostic
Reading Test

The Roswell-Chall test is structured to determine the strengths and weaknesses a child has in the sound, symbol relationships. An analysis of errors points out the child's instructional needs. Skills on the test are presented in the order in which they are usually taught.

Test VI A,B,C - Botel Word Recognition
Test - Form A

The Botel Word Recognition test is administered to a child individually to estimate his oral reading fluency. The test consists of 20 word samples from each reading level, pre-primer through to the fourth grade. Sample words in the test are taken from five major basal readers. Through the analysis of errors made by a child in using certain words, the tester can roughly determine his reading level.

The testing procedure took approximately one week to complete. The researcher took careful notes on the data found in the tests, as well as on the information gathered at the "getting acquainted" session. Having diagnosed the strengths and weaknesses of each child through the data of the pre-tests, the researcher used REAP as an outline to gear the necessary skills towards each child's needs. Culture-oriented materials were implemented and techniques used which helped fulfil the needs and deficiencies of each child in the sample. The working period for the study took three months. Upon completion of the study, each child was given a post-test using alternate forms of the same battery of standardized diagnostic tests.

Structure of the Program

A detailed outline of the program used in the study may be found in Appendix B. The outline details the skills to be taught for the language arts component of the study. The reading skills required of the subject are detailed in the outline (Appendix B). In addition to the skills, the researcher has included some of the activities which were used in teaching a particular skill.

The researcher conducted the program daily with the six sample students for a period of three months. During this time, implementation of the program was as follows: a 60 minute block of time was divided into two, 30-minute sessions. The first session dealt with developing oral language skills:

1. speaking skills
2. listening skills.

The second session concentrated on developing reading skills:

1. decoding and encoding printed symbols
2. phonetic skills
3. comprehension skills -- predicitive, inferential and interpretive.

The researcher tried to implement the study with a routine, daily schedule. Both the schedule and the program had to be flexible due to a number of circumstances -- absenteeism, activities in the regular school program such as swimming classes, as well as the speed in the learning process for each child in the study.

Development of Self-Concept Through Oral Language

The first 30 minutes of the teaching session were spent working with oral communication skills. Class usually began with the researcher asking each child questions, e.g., "What did you do after school yesterday?" "Name three things you saw on the way to school this morning." After one child related what she/he had done or seen, the other children were allowed to make remarks relevant to the first child's answer, or ask related questions. This procedure was carried out with each child individually.

As a variation of the question period, colourful pictures were distributed to each child and she/he had to describe what was shown in the picture and what it was about. The children were encouraged to give verbal, relevant comments about each other's pictures as well as their own.

Records and tapes were used to help develop listening skills. Tapes with a variety of sounds on them were used. The sounds on the tapes included distinct basic sounds, such as a drum beat or horn blast, to more subtle and hidden ones such as brushing teeth or closing a door. The tape recorder proved of great value in the oral communication study. The children appeared to enjoy machinery and with proper instructions could use equipment effectively. The children took turns using a recorder to tape various sounds in the building. Each child then allowed the others in the group to identify the sounds and make comments of where and how these sounds were recorded.

A more advanced method of developing listening and memory skills was the use of verbal phrases. The researcher would say a group of numbers or use a short phrase and have a child repeat it verbatim. Each time the phrase was repeated correctly, more words would be added to expand the phrase, e.g., Tom played pall.

Tom played with the ball.

Tom played ball with Jim.

Sentences usually varied in content. During oral communication sessions a further step was taken by the researcher in encouraging the children to develop oral stories from their own imagination.

Reading Skills Development

In the final 30 minutes of each experimental teaching session, it was the aim of the researcher to develop vocabulary, reading, comprehension and phonetic skills. The researcher used the basal reader series by Collier and Macmillan (1968), Opening Books and A Magic Box, for the vocabulary building exercises. This particular series was the same one used in the subjects' classroom, which simplified the transition from REAP to the regular classroom at the conclusion of the study. Vocabulary from the readers was developed, as well as words relevant to the child's everyday life experiences.

All new words taught to the subjects were done so with pictures from magazines, hand-drawn sketches or concrete objects. Pictures and written word symbols were taught simultaneously. When the study began, each subject had a sight vocabulary of five words. These words were put on individual 2" x 3" cards, one set for each child. The child used the cards to build short phrases. As the vocabulary increased, the cards were supplemented with the new words. Longer phrases and sentences were constructed. The children were encouraged to read aloud their respective phrases or sentences. They were also encouraged to read each other's sentences and phrases. Much praise and reinforcement was given to each child for the construction and reading of his sentences. If words were missed or skipped, gentle prodding and help was given for their correction. A second set of word cards was printed for the home use of the child.

For this particular phrase and sentence construction activity, the children were allowed to sit on the floor. In this way each child was able to spread out his cards and see them as a whole unit. It was hoped that the children would have the psychological illusion that they were in

a "toy-playing" situation where working with cards was a game.

Pictures and stories were in constant use to develop most of the skills to be taught. Coloured pictures helped the children with interpretive and predictive skills. After looking at a picture the child was asked to predict what might have taken place before the picture was taken. Using the same picture, the child was asked to infer some after effects of the depicted scene. To develop inferential, interpretive and predictive skills, short stories were narrated and the children were asked guiding questions.

In the development of vocabulary sight words, the basal pre-primer was used. The child felt a sense of achievement when a new word was recognized in the pre-primer. New words not from the basal reader were used on story charts put on the bulletin board for the child to read. Eventually, the subjects were reading the stories from the pre-primers and answering questions about the pictures. The answers were given in sentences using the words they had learned.

During the entire time of the study, the newly learned words were on charts on the bulletin board. The words were also used in the form of short stories made up by the children themselves. The new words were added to the children's individual card decks, and used for phrase and sentence building. Quandt (1972), describing the language experience approach, stated that as children recognized and read back their own language from an experience chart, the concepts of themselves as readers were greatly improved.

Every week the children were given word recognition tests to ascertain word retention and vocabulary skills.

In conjunction with vocabulary development, time was spent daily on

phonetic skills. Phonetic skills involved the development of initial and final consonant sounds. A number of cut out pictures with the same initial or final consonant sounds were pasted on cards. These were used as a game with the children who had to find the card with the picture of a specified consonant. Children were encouraged to draw their own pictures for consonant sounds. The game "I Spy" was used often with the children to identify objects and pictures in the room beginning or ending with specific consonant sounds. This activity helped develop phonetic skills. The consonant sound and symbol were taught simultaneously. As the research drew to completion, the subjects were transferring more of the picture symbols into printed form.

The transfer from symbol to printed form was a gradual process. Word tests were applied whereby the subjects printed a dictated word instead of just underlining or circling the word. This process was taken a step further by having the subjects print the known words into phrases and sentences. This gradually replaced the individual card activity of sentence building.

During the entire experimental process the researcher used varied audio-visual materials: magazine pictures, posters, filmstrips, records, tape recorders, hand drawn pictures and the children's own drawn pictures.

Appendix C lists the actual materials used. Possibilities for other materials which could be used in teaching the various skills are found in the REAP outline.

Analysis of the Data

The purpose of this study was to determine whether the subjects had developed skills in:

1. word recognition
2. word attack
3. translating from oral language to written
4. recognizing initial and final consonant sounds.

The null hypotheses of the study stated that there would be no significant differences for these skills in the post-tests when compared to the pre-tests. The data for this study were collected at two points: the pre-tests administered prior to the experiment and the post-tests at the conclusion of the study. The skill development changes were assessed by analyzing the scores on the pre- and post-tests and testing for significant differences in mean scores. The pre-tests and post-tests were administered to the same subjects before and after a three month experimental period.

The 't-test' analysis was used for this study because of the small sample involved. McCollough (1974) describes that 't-tests' are relatively insensitive to departures from population normality where the sample size is large. She continues: "existence of 't-tables' for very small samples has done much to encourage the use of 't' when samples are quite small" (p. 259).

The researcher found that this particular study, involving pre-post testing for the same subjects, could be analyzed by a 't-test' with paired-sampling design as described in the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (1975): "Pairing is especially useful when the magnitude of the treatment effect is near (or less than) sample to sample variability" (p. 270).

Collier and Hummell (1977) use the term The One-Group Pre-test-Post-test design which is similar to the "paired-sampling" design. They contended that the design was inadequate when used alone; however, it did

make a significant contribution to the total design package. They made further explanations:

Each subject serves as his own control and the differences between his pre-test and post-test scores represent a stringent measure of the degree to which "real-life" program goals have been achieved. (p. 356)

Collier and Hummell (1977) are of the opinion that this design documents the facts of the outcome and change as a result of the test score differences, without pinpointing the process which produces the change.

Therefore, in using this design, the researcher, with the t-test data, established whether or not there was a difference in the mean scores at the .05 level of significance. The level of significance, $p \leq .05$, determined the rejection level for the results of the t-test scores computed in the study. If the level of significance was $< .05$, the null hypothesis was rejected.

The Pearson Product-Moment Correlations (Pearson r) were computed to test the commonality of skills being tested by the diagnostic tests used in the study. McCollough (1974) stated that the Pearson r is an index of the degree of correspondence between the paired z scores.

McCollough (1974) states:

The Pearson r is a sample statistic which can vary between +1 and -1. As the degree of correspondence between z score pairs decrease, r approaches zero. (p. 306)

Therefore, using both the t-test analysis and the Pearson r , the researcher was enabled to gather pertinent data concerning both the skills being measured by the tests and any significant differences between student scores on pre- and post-tests.

Summary

This chapter described the process the researcher used in selecting the subjects for the study sample. The writer outlined the procedures for the implementation of the study and the types of diagnostic tests selected. Test results were used to implement diagnostic teaching and techniques which would be of the greatest benefit to the subjects involved in the study. The data were analyzed by means of the "t"-test. Correlations between pre-tests and post-tests were investigated.

Chapter IV

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of data analysis in relation to the tests which were used and the hypotheses being tested in the study. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the findings of the Pearson correlation, the t-test procedure and the observational report of student behaviour during the time of involvement in the REAP program.

Presentation of the Data

The purpose of this study was to diagnose specific language skill difficulties experienced by a selected sample of grade one Indian students; to develop and administer an Educational Assistentment Program (REAP) to these students; and to measure any significant improvement in language skills and self-concept behaviour as a result of being involved in REAP.

Data were analyzed by the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation procedure and the t-test analysis for significant differences in mean scores on pre- and post-tests.

Eight standardized, diagnostic language skill tests were administered with different forms being used for pre- and post-testing sessions. The pre-tests were administered in December, 1978, to six grade one students in a Saskatoon school. The treatment (REAP) followed during January to March, 1979, and post-tests were administered at the end of March.

Results of the data analysis are presented in relation to each hypothesis which was tested.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 -- There will be no statistically significant increase in word recognition skills for children involved in REAP.

Scores achieved by the six study subjects on each of five tests were analyzed by the t-test procedure in relation to the first hypothesis. Table 1 shows the applicable tests and results of the t-test analysis. Significant differences were found between mean scores achieved on the pre- and post-tests for three of the four measures used to determine word recognition skills. In each case, the mean score achieved on the post-test was significantly greater than that of the pre-test, indicating a significant increase in word attack skills after involvement in REAP. The tests showing significant increases were the Detroit Auditory (testing for the ability to hear and recall related syllables), the Botel Word Recognition 6A (testing recognition of sight words at the pre-primer level), and the Botel Word Recognition 6B (testing recognition of sight words at the primer level). However, mean differences were not significant.

On the basis of this analysis, where significant differences were found for three of the four measures, the null hypothesis was rejected. The alternate hypothesis was accepted that significant increases in word recognition skills were found among students who had been involved in the REAP program.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 -- There will be no statistically significant increase in word attack skills for children involved in REAP.

Table 1
Means, Standard Deviations and t-values for Pre- and
Post-tests of Word Recognition Skills

Test	Form	N	Means	S.D.	d.f.	t-value	prob.																																
Detroit Visual Attention - Objects (1)	Pre	6	48.00	3.16	5	2.37	0.064																																
	Post	6	52.83	7.99				Detroit Auditory Attention - Related Syllables (2)	Pre	6	18.67	4.68	5	6.17	0.002*	Post	6	25.50	5.79	Botel Word Recognition (6A)	Pre	6	1.33	0.82	5	14.61	<.001*	Post	6	11.83	2.56	Botel Word Recognition (6B)	Pre	6	0.50	0.55	5	15.49	<.001*
Detroit Auditory Attention - Related Syllables (2)	Pre	6	18.67	4.68	5	6.17	0.002*																																
	Post	6	25.50	5.79				Botel Word Recognition (6A)	Pre	6	1.33	0.82	5	14.61	<.001*	Post	6	11.83	2.56	Botel Word Recognition (6B)	Pre	6	0.50	0.55	5	15.49	<.001*	Post	6	4.50	0.85								
Botel Word Recognition (6A)	Pre	6	1.33	0.82	5	14.61	<.001*																																
	Post	6	11.83	2.56				Botel Word Recognition (6B)	Pre	6	0.50	0.55	5	15.49	<.001*	Post	6	4.50	0.85																				
Botel Word Recognition (6B)	Pre	6	0.50	0.55	5	15.49	<.001*																																
	Post	6	4.50	0.85																																			

*p < .05

Five tests of the battery administered during the study were related specifically to word attack skills. As shown in Table 2, mean scores on post-test forms of three of the five tests differed significantly from pre-test scores. Tests on which pre- and post-test scores differed significantly were Detroit Auditory Attention (testing for the ability to hear and recall related syllables), the Schonell Word Reading (testing for word attack skills), and the Roswell-Chall Reading (testing for sound, symbol relationship). Mean difference between pre- and post-tests on the Detroit Auditory test was 6.83, largest of the five tests of word attack skills. Analysis of scores on the Detroit Visual Attention Test (testing memory recall) and the Roswell-Chall Reading test (testing for sound, symbol relationship) showed some increase from the pre- to the post-test, but differences were not significant.

Since significant differences were found on scores achieved on three of the five tests used to measure word attack skills, the null hypothesis of no differences was rejected. The alternate hypothesis was accepted; that significant increases were found on post-test scores for students who had spent three months working with REAP.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 -- There will be no statistically significant increase in skills translating oral language to written for children involved in REAP.

The third hypothesis of this study investigated the possibility of any increase in students' language skills of transferring from oral to written forms. Table 3 shows that six of the standardized tests were used to measure this skill. They were: The Detroit Auditory Attention (testing for the ability to hear and recall syllables), the Schonell Word

Table 2
Means, Standard Deviations and t-values for Pre- and
Post-tests of Word Attack Skills

Test	Form	N	Means	S.D.	d.f.	t-value	Prob.
Detroit Visual Attention - Objects (1)	Pre	6	48.00	3.16	5	2.37	0.064
	Post	6	52.83	7.99	5		
Detroit Auditory Attention - Related Syllables (2)	Pre	6	18.67	4.68	5	6.17	0.002*
	Post	6	25.50	5.79	5		
Schonell Word Reading (3)	Pre	6	0.00	0.00	5	10.28	<.001*
	Post	6	4.33	1.33	5		
Roswell-Chall Reading (5A)	Pre	6	11.67	4.08	5	2.48	0.056
	Post	6	15.33	3.14	5		
Roswell-Chall Reading (5B)	Pre	6	0.00	0.00	5	-10.28	<.001*
	Post	6	4.33	1.03	5		

*Significance: $p < .05$

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations and t-values for Pre- and Post-tests of Oral to Written Skills

Test	Form	N	Means	S.D.	d.f.	t-value	Prob.
Detroit Auditory Attention - Related Syllables (1)	Pre	6	18.67	4.68	5	6.17	0.002*
	Post		25.50	5.19			
Schonell Word Spelling (4)	Pre	6	3.33	0.52	5	14.70	<.001*
	Post		9.17	1.33			
Roswell-Chall Reading (5A)	Pre	6	11.67	4.08	5	2.48	0.056
	Post		15.33	3.14			
Roswell-Chall Reading (5B)	Pre	6	0.00	0.00	5	10.28	<.001*
	Post		4.33	1.03			
Botel Word Recognition (6A)	Pre	6	1.33	0.82	5	14.61	<.001*
	Post		11.83	2.56			
Botel Word Recognition (6B)	Pre	6	0.50	0.55	5	15.49	<.001*
	Post		4.50	0.84			

*Significance: $p < .05$

Spelling (testing for translating from oral language to written), Roswell-Chall A and B (testing for sound, symbol relationship), Botel Word Recognition (6A) (testing recognition of sight words at the pre-primer level), and Botel Word Recognition (6B) (testing recognition of sight words at the primer level). The t-test analysis for significant differences between means found that for five of the six tests there were significant increases at the .05 level. The only test on which scores did not differ significantly was the Roswell-Chall Reading (5A).

On the basis of finding significant increases on five of the six measures, the null hypothesis was rejected. This study, therefore, accepted the alternate hypothesis that significant increases were found in post-test scores of the students' ability to transfer from oral to written form after they had worked with REAP for a three-month period.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 -- There will be no statistically significant increase in skills recognizing initial and final consonants for children involved in REAP.

The final hypothesis of the study examined the differences in pre- and post-test scores for initial and final consonant skills of students in the study. The diagnostic tests administered to test this variable with means, standard deviations and t-values are shown in Table 4. Two tests of the three differed significantly from the pre-test scores. Tests on which pre- and post-test scores differed significantly were Detroit Auditory Attention (testing ability to hear and recall related syllables) and Roswell-Chall Reading (5B) (testing for sound, symbol relationships).

On the basis of finding significant increases on two of the three measures, the null hypothesis was rejected. This study, therefore,

Table 4

Means, Standard Deviations and t-values for Pre- and Post-tests of Initial and Final Consonant Skills

Test	Form	N	Means	S.D.	d.f.	t-value	Prob.
Detroit Auditory Attention - Related Syllables (2)	Pre	6	18.67	4.68	5	6.17	0.002*
	Post	6	25.50	5.79			
Roswell-Chall Reading (5A)	Pre	6	11.67	4.08	5	2.48	0.056
	Post	6	15.33	3.14			
Roswell-Chall Reading (5B)	Pre	6	0.00	0.00	5	10.28	<.001*
	Post	6	4.33	1.03			

*Significance: $p < .05$

accepted the alternate hypothesis that significant increases were found in students' ability to hear and distinguish initial and final consonants after they had worked with REAP for three months.

Correlation Analysis

The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation procedure was conducted to test the degree to which the eight standardized tests measured the same or different variables. Correlation coefficients for the pre-test scores are shown in Table 5. Coefficients (Pearson r) reached the .05 level of significance for only two pre-tests: the Detroit Visual Attention Span for Visual Objects and the Detroit Auditory Attention Span for Related Syllables. Subjects failed to score on the Schonell Word Reading pre-test; therefore correlation coefficients could not be computed. The non-significant correlations among scores of the remaining tests related to the low scores of all subjects on the pre-tests.

Analysis of post-test scores revealed a different picture. Table 6 shows the Pearson r correlations among post-test scores and reveals that seven of the eight were significantly correlated at the .05 level with every other test. The only coefficient which failed to reach the significance level was that of the Roswell-Chall Reading (5A) to Roswell-Chall Reading (5B). This was understandable since the two tests were designed to test different levels of the same skill. The finding that seven of the tests were significantly correlated suggested that, in fact, the same skills may have been measured by each test. This result must be considered in weighing the advisability of rejecting the four null hypotheses.

Table 5

Pearson Correlation Coefficients of Mean Scores on
Nine Pre-tests of Language Skills

Test	Detroit Visual Attention - Objects	Detroit Auditory Attention - Related Syllables	Schonell Word Reading	Schonell Word Spelling	Roswell-Chall Reading (5A)	Roswell-Chall Reading (5B)	Botel Word Recognition (6A)	Botel Word Recognition (6B)
Detroit Visual Attention - Objects	-	.866*	-	0.0	.388	-0.465	.775	.462
Detroit Auditory Attention - Related Syllables	.866*	-	-	.221	.381	-0.594	.611	.546
Schonell Word Reading	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Schonell Word Spelling	0.0	.221	-	-	.063	-0.316	.158	0.0
Roswell-Chall Reading (5A)	.387	.381	-	.063	-	-0.440	.400	-0.447
Roswell-Chall Reading (5B)	-.465	-.594	-	-.316	-.440	-	-.800	-.447
Botel Word Recognition (6A)	.775	.611	-	.158	.400	-.800	-	.447
Botel Word Recognition (6B)	.462	.547	-	0.0	-.447	-.447	-.447	-

*Significance: p < .05

Table 6

Correlation Coefficients of Mean Scores on Eight
Post-tests of Language Skills

	Post 1	Post 2	Post 3	Post 4	Post 5A	Post 5B	Post 6A	Post 6B
Post 1	-	.993**	.905*	.908*	.967**	.905*	.878*	.883*
Post 2	.993*	-	.870*	.900*	.957**	.870*	.870*	.888*
Post 3	.905*	.870*	-	.971**	.822*	.000**	.856*	.925**
Post 4	.908*	.897*	.971**	-	.798*	.971**	.891*	.989**
Post 5A	.967**	.957**	.822*	.798*	-	.822*	.853*	.761
Post 5B	.905*	.870*	.000**	.971**	.822*	-	.856*	.926**
Post 6A	.878*	.870*	.856*	.890*	.853*	.856*	-	.886*
Post 6B	.883*	.888*	.925**	.989**	.761	.926**	.886*	-

* p < .05

** p < .01

Observational Data

Observational data of the development of self-concept through oral language yielded findings which are described as follows.

At the beginning of the study, the children were very hesitant and shy about answering orally. Four of the six students were quite shy; the other two were more exuberant in speaking. When asked questions, the children usually answered with one or two word answers. The researcher recorded a sample to illustrate the point -- Teacher: "Name something you saw on the way to school this morning." Answer: "Bird." The researcher allowed this type of answer until a feeling of ease was developed with the researcher and the children. Gradually, with the use of pictures of animals and children shown doing activities, one and two answer words were expanded into short sentences -- Teacher: "What is the boy doing?" Child: "He is playing ball." Much reinforcement and praise were given when a student gave an answer. Working closely with and being encouraged by the group built each child's self-confidence.

Word development progressed slowly. The researcher constantly encouraged the children to incorporate into their oral language the new words they learnt. The new words were also put on charts on the bulletin board. The children were encouraged to give oral sentences using the new words, which were then printed on experience charts. The sentences were simple: Mike plays. The child then read back his own sentence. Each child was given an opportunity to dictate oral sentences. The children became excited about being able to read these sentences from the charts. The researcher developed questioning so that the children's oral sentences would develop into a written story to be written on the experience chart. The following is a sample:

Mike plays.

Mike plays ball.

See Mike play ball.

When the researcher had taught all the words used in the vocabulary of the first pre-primer, Opening Books, the children were given a copy of the reader. The children were allowed to spend time looking through the book for familiar words. There was great excitement and a sense of achievement in the children when they recognized words. Recordings were made of the children's first attempts in reading from the readers. They were hesitant and referred to the experience charts for the familiar words. Later recordings show greater fluency and sureness of words when reading.

During the oral language segment of teaching time, phonetic skills were developed whereby the children listened for initial and final consonant sounds in words. The researcher used magazine or hand drawn pictures having the same initial or final consonant sounds. To teach the sound b, a number of pictures starting with b were shown -- boy, ball, bat. Each word was said emphasizing the b sound; the children repeated the words. They were then asked to give a word of their own with the b sound in the initial position. They also drew pictures on their own with the initial b sound. The same process was used for teaching the final consonants.

As a group of initial and final consonants were taught, they were mixed so that the children could identify differences in the sounds asked for by the researcher. Progress was slower for this component of the oral language period. Some children had difficulty hearing and recognizing the consonant sounds c, ch, sh, and v. Constant drill of these

consonants produced some improvement.

The 30 minute oral language period of REAP showed personal development in the children taught. They became more at ease in talking to the researcher and in answering questions. Oral language developed from simple sentences to expanded stories. The children's attitudes and self-confidence grew with their sense of achievement in recognizing words, and reading short stories from the experience charts. The children developed a sense of ease in speaking and using oral language. The oral language - aspect of the study could not be measured in statistical terms. Nevertheless, the researcher observed the daily growth of each child in oral language skills and self-concept. Purkey (1970) stated:

Changes in the child's self-concept do occur as an outcome of the learning situation, and that self must be recognized as an important factor in learning. (p. 44)

Discussion of Results

Analysis of data in this study found that for all four language skills being tested, REAP resulted in significant increases in student achievement. These findings suggest that for Indian children in this study, the skills of word recognition, word attack, translating from oral language to written, and the ability to recognize initial and final consonants were significantly enhanced by the use of the Assistentment Program (REAP).

Table 7 contains the eight standardized pre- and post-tests which were used in the study, together with means, standard deviations, t-values and probability of significance on the two-tailed test. It can be seen that on six of the eight tests, post-test scores were significantly higher than the pre-test scores. On two of these tests, however, students were enabled to score at the time of pre-test, suggesting that the tests

Table 7

Group Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, and t-values on Pre- and Post-tests

Test	Form	N	Means	S.D.	d.f.	t-value	2-tailed Prob.
Detroit Visual Attention - Objects (1)	Pre 1	6	48.00	3.16	5	2.37	0.064
	Post 1	6	52.83	7.99			
Detroit Auditory Attention - Related Syllables (2)	Pre 2	6	18.67	4.68	5	6.17	0.002*
	Post 2	6	25.50	5.79			
Schonell Word Reading (3)	Pre 3	6	0.00	0.00	5	10.28	<.001*
	Post 3	6	4.33	1.03			
Schonell Word Spelling (4)	Pre 4	6	3.33	0.52	5	14.70	<.001*
	Post 4	6	9.17	1.33			
Roswell-Chall Reading (5A)	Pre 5A	6	11.67	4.08	5	2.48	0.056
	Post 5A	6	15.33	3.14			
Roswell-Chall Reading (5B)	Pre 5B	6	0.00	0.00	5	10.28	<.001*
	Post 5B	6	4.33	1.03			
Botel Word Recognition (6A)	Pre 6A	6	1.33	0.82	5	14.61	<.001*
	Post 6A	6	11.83	2.56			
Botel Word Recognition (6B)	Pre 6B	6	0.50	0.55	5	15.49	<.001*
	Post 6B	6	4.50	0.84			

*Significance: $p < .05$

selected were too difficult for their ability level. The fact that on the same tests in the post-test form, the six students achieved a mean score of 4.33 on each test indicated that the REAP program possibly had resulted in some increase in reading skills. Since it was impossible to compute variance between the two test scores, this finding may have been due to chance alone.

The test on which students achieved the highest score of all the tests, on both the pre- and post-test forms, was the Detroit Visual Attention Test for Objects. The administration of the REAP program did not result in any significant increase in scores on this test. These results may have suggested that the students already had highly developed visual attention skills at the time of the study and that REAP, which was designed to match language skill deficiencies, did not assist appreciably the visual skills of the students.

Among the tests which showed significant increases in mean scores, the largest mean difference was found for the Botel Word Recognition test (6A). This may have related to the strong visual attention skills shown by scores on the Detroit Visual Attention Test or by the fact that the REAP program concentrated considerable efforts on practice in word recognition.

The finding that language skills increased significantly in all four areas being tested may have related to the concentrated, individual and small group teaching approaches around which REAP was organized.

Commenting on small group teaching, Lyon (1976) made the point that students had more opportunities for verbal interaction as well as a better understanding of themselves and fellow classmates. Petty and Jensen (1980) further commented on the individual teaching technique as valuable because children vary in ability and skill development and should be allowed to

pursue independent activities in the classroom. This technique was used with the subjects to reinforce word recognition. Each subject had a set of individual word flash cards. The researcher and the child spent time in oral repetition and visual recognition of the words. A further set of word cards was sent home with the subjects to reinforce the learning in school. It appeared that the extra drill of new words had some effect on the subjects' word retention skills as shown by results of those tests where scores increased significantly.

The techniques used in teaching word attack skills involved auditory, visual and tactile forms. The sounds and letters were presented in planned sequential patterns. This allowed for memory retention of word patterns by the subjects. Tests conducted by Bauman (1976) and Brooks (1978) involving groups of Indian children across Canada suggested that Indian children were stronger in spatial abilities than in verbal. McArthur (1962) emphasized greater use should be made of the Indian child's non-verbal abilities in working with word attack skills. It appeared that the pattern activities in the REAP Program for remembering words were more beneficial than verbal exercises. It would appear the results found in this study were consistent with similar findings in the literature.

Significant increases were found in the students' ability to translate words from oral to written form. The Schonell Graded Word Test showed the mean score increasing from 3.33 on the pre-test to 9.17 on the post-test. Memory recall has been considered to be an important factor in the application of this skill. Referring to memory recall as part of oral tradition, Price (1978) commented:

The Indian child comes from a society of oral tradition where story telling is a dramatic and social event. The recitations of the tradition stories are judged on accuracy, rhythm and voice. (p. 115)

Price (1978) further emphasized that the skills of memorization in oral tradition allowed for verbatim repetition of tales and legends.

The oral tradition concept may be responsible for a person's ability to learn and retain spelling words. Petty and Jensen (1980) emphasized the importance of the memory factor when they stated that the relationship between spelling ability and visual perception and memory was strong. Educators (Fox, 1978; Shenk, 1978) were of the opinion that children need to develop skills in visual and auditory discrimination. Moffet and Wagner (1976) claimed: "Locking the overall look of a word into visual memory seems to have a role in successful spelling" (p. 229).

This particular aspect was incorporated into the listening skills section of the REAP program in this study. Evidence from the literature would seem to indicate that reading as well as listening to words would be of more benefit to a child. Gagné (1970) subscribed that verbal associations reinforced words in a child's mind. Results of this study regarding the skill of translating from oral to written forms were consistent with findings of other researchers.

This study found a significant increase in the students' ability to recognize initial and final consonants.

The study also observed significant development and growth in oral language skills involved in REAP. The observational aspect noted an increase in self-confidence and greater ease in using oral language by the children involved in the program. The individual and small group aspect of the program allowed for greater interaction between the researcher and the children. Observational skills were more difficult to measure, however daily progress was recorded by means of tapes, written records and observation. The progress of oral language was a slow process, but gradual

increases in oral answering and discussion, daily increased. At the close of the study, the children in REAP were speaking more freely and with greater fluency.

The finding that significant increases in mean scores followed involvement in the REAP program supported the use of such a program with Indian children entering grade one having English language deficiencies. However, these findings must be considered in relation to the finding that post-test scores on the eight diagnostic tests correlated significantly with each other in seven instances. This finding suggested that the tests measured the same rather than different language skills. It could be speculated, also, that the four skills being measured in the study were inter-related and inter-dependent and that it was not possible to master any one of them without simultaneously using the other skills. Rejection of the null hypotheses and the finding that significant increases in four language skill areas resulted from the use of REAP must therefore be accepted as tentative.

Summary

The analysis of the data of this study indicated that there were significant increases in the post-test scores for each variable tested in the four hypotheses. The null hypotheses of no differences were rejected and alternate hypotheses were accepted. The discussion of the results was presented statistically showing increases in language skills which could be measured by using diagnostic tests. Observational results were discussed showing development in the children's oral language and self-confidence.

Chapter V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

The purposes of this study were to assist Indian children entering an urban school:

1. by means of a program designed to develop oral language and reading skills.
2. to develop positive self-concepts.

The subjects for the study were six Indian children selected from one classroom in a Saskatoon school, with the aid of the principal and teacher involved. The six Indian children were administered diagnostic tests which indicated that the children were below the school standards in oral language and in skills involving word recognition, word attack, translating from oral language to written and in recognizing initial and final consonants.

The researcher developed an Educational Assistentment Program (REAP) to assist the Indian children with deficiencies in oral language and reading skills, and through these skills to develop a positive self-concept in the children. The program was designed to work with the subjects one hour daily for three months from January to March. The REAP program was divided into two 30 minute segments. The first 30 minutes involved the use of oral language. The children were asked questions which they answered; informal discussions took place; pictures were used to stimulate discussion.

Experience chart stories were read by the children. The second 30 minute segment involved reading skills. The children were taught new words and how to recognize new words. Eventually readers, using the new vocabulary, were introduced. The children learned how to transfer the words they had orally learned into the written form. Phonetic skills were taught using familiar words from the new vocabulary. The daily progress of the children was recorded in written form, by tape recorder and through their own pictures and seatwork distributed during the teaching period.

At the conclusion of the three month period a set of diagnostic tests were again administered to determine the effectiveness of the REAP program on the six Indian children. The data for this study were collected at two points: the pre-tests administered prior to the experiment; and the post-tests at the conclusion of the study. The t-test analysis was used because of the small sample in the study. The Pearson r was also used to determine correlations which existed among the tests. Observational data were also used in the study to determine the oral language development and growth in the self-concept of the children involved in the study. This aspect of development in the study could not be statistically determined.

Conclusions

The results of the data found in the study indicated that the REAP program had been effective in assisting the six Indian children involved in the program. The data for hypothesis one, testing word recognition skills, indicated that six of the eight tests used showed significantly higher scores in the post-tests than in the pre-tests. The Detroit Visual Attention Span for Objects indicated the highest scores in the pre- and post-tests for all the tests used. This was a significant indication

that Indian children have strong visual concepts.

The data for skills tested in the remaining three hypotheses all showed significant increases in the scores between the pre-tests and post-tests. The Pearson r indicated that seven of the eight tests showed a significant correlation at the .05 level.

The observational data showed definite growth and development in oral language and self-concept in the Indian children. The researcher believed that working with the Indian children individually and in a small group was greatly responsible for the advancements made in developing oral language skills. Another aspect which may have been a contributing factor to learning was that the children were with their own Indian peer group, which gave each child a sense of belonging and security. Purkey (1970) stated that improvement in self-concept improved reading ability as well as academic achievement.

In planning the objectives for the program on the basis of the pre-test results, the researcher designed activities which would specifically guide the subjects in oral language. This was seen to be relevant to the types of oral language and reading skills in which the subjects were deficient. Through observation, it seemed that improvement in the children's verbal patterns could be methodically brought about in a short period of time by concentrated, individual teaching, which involved the oral answering of questions and discussions.

The data compiled in this study suggested that deficiencies tended to be strongest in the use of oral language by the Indian child. The data appeared to support the hypothesis that these deficiencies can be corrected. The program examined in this thesis demonstrated that, in the oral language and reading skills assessed, a positive improvement in

Indian children's verbal patterns can be obtained in a short space of time. This can be accomplished by actively involving the children in specific and well-planned oral language experiences and in the consistent teaching of reading skills.

Recommendations

The conclusions reached in this study, as well as the interests and experiences of the researcher, have led to the following recommendations.

1. It is recommended that teachers recognize the oral language and reading skill deficiencies in Indian children and build oral language instructions based on the child's strengths as well as deficiencies.
2. It is recommended that teachers provide small group instruction to encourage children to speak and listen to each other to develop oral language and reading skills which enhance the child's self-worth.
3. It is recommended that individualized programs of instruction in language arts be developed to meet the special needs of the Indian child.
4. It is recommended that the inclusion of relevant Indian culture material be incorporated into the language-experience program.
5. It is recommended that some effort be made to learn about the Indian child's culture and background in order to reach him through his interests and culture.

This study examined and reviewed the results of the REAP program. Postive results in the development of oral language skills and self-concept were evident from the recording of daily observational data. Results of statistical manipulation of the data yielded evidence or growth in reading skills. The program benefitted the Indian children; a more positive self-concept was observed in the children as their oral language and reading skills improved.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Bibliography

Books

- Adler, Sol. Poverty children and their language. New York: Grune and Stratton, Inc., 1979.
- Ahenakew, Edward. Voices of the plains Cree. Toronto: McClelland and Stewart Ltd., 1973.
- Apple, Joe A. Readings in educating the disadvantaged. Selected academic readings. New York: Rockefeller Center, 1970.
- Ausubel, David P. The psychology of meaningful verbal learning. New York: Grune and Stratton, 1963.
- Ausubel, David P. A teaching strategy for culturally deprived pupils: Cognitive and motivational considerations. In W. Webster (Ed.), Educating the disadvantaged learners. Part III. San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1966.
- Banks, James A. Teaching strategies for ethnic studies. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1975.
- Bereiter, Carl, & Engelmann, Siegfried. Teaching disadvantaged children in the preschool. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1966.
- Berry, Brewton. The education of the American Indian. A survey of the literature. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1968.
- Bloom, Benjamin S., Davies, Alison, & Hess, Robert. Compensatory education for cultural deprivation. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965.
- Brooks, I. R. Native education in Canada and the United States. A bibliography. Calgary, Alta.: University of Calgary Press, 1976.
- Brophy, William, & Aberle, Sophie. The Indian: America's unfinished business. Norman, Okla.: University of Oklahoma Press, 1969.
- Burns, A., & Broman, B. The language arts in childhood education. Chicago, Ill.: Rand McNally Publishing Company, 1979.
- Cardinal, Douglas. Of the spirit. Edmonton, Alta.: Newest Press, 1977.
- Cheyney, Arnold. Teaching children of different cultures in the classroom. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1976.
- Cohen, Alan S. Teach them all to read. New York: Random House Inc., 1969.

- Collier, John Jr. Alaskan Eskimo education: A film analysis of cultural confrontation in the schools. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1973.
- Condie, LeRoy. An experiment in second language instruction of beginning Indian children in New Mexico public schools. Albuquerque, N.M.: University of New Mexico, 1961.
- Crow, L. D. Educating the culturally disadvantaged child. New York: David McKay Co., Ltd., 1966.
- Deloria, Vine, Jr. We talk, you listen. New York: Dell Publishing Co., Inc., 1972.
- Engelmann, Siegfried. Preventing failure in the primary grades. New York: Simon and Schuster Publishers, 1969.
- Fader, D. The naked children. New York: MacMillan Comp.
- Frideres, J. S. Canada's Indians: Contemporary conflicts. Scarborough, Ont.: Prentice-Hall, 1974.
- Friesen, J. W. People, culture and learning. Calgary, Alta.: University of Calgary, Delselig Enterprises Ltd., 1977.
- Fuch, Estelle, & Havighurst, Robert J. To live on this earth: American Indian education. New York: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1972.
- Gagné, Robert. The conditions of learning. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston Inc., 1970.
- Galloway, C., Mickelson, N., & Burchfield, D. Orientation, pre-school and pre-kindergarten summer programme for Indian Children. Victoria, B.C.: Faculty of Education, University of Victoria, 1968.
- Griese, Arnold A. Special problems of reading comprehension in the education of Eskimo and Indian pupils. Fairbanks, Alas.: Northern Cross-Cultural Education Symposium, University of Alaska, 1974.
- Hawthorn, H. B. A survey of the contemporary Indians of Canada. Part I and II. Ottawa, Ont.: Indian Affairs Branch, 1966.
- Horn, T. D. Reading for the disadvantaged: Problems of linguistically different learners. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1970.
- Ianni, F. A. Conflict and change in education. Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman, 1975.
- Indian Affairs and Northern Development. Canadian Indian statistics. Ottawa, Ont.: IAND Publication, 1971.
- Jensen, A. Educational differences. London, Eng.: Methuen Pub., 1973.

- Joyce, Wm., & Banks, J. Teaching the language arts to culturally different children. Menlo Park, Calif.: Addison-Wesley Pub. Co., 1971.
- Keach, E. T., Fulton, R., & Gardner, Wm. E. (Eds.). Education and social crisis. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1967.
- Landes, R. Culture in American education. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1965.
- LaRoque, Emma. Defeathering the Indian. Agincourt, Ont.: The Book Society of Canada, 1975.
- Leighton, D., & Kluckhorn, C. Children of the people. Boston, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1947.
- Mackey, William, & Andersson, Theodore. Bilingualism in early childhood. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, 1977.
- Mandelbaum, D. G. The plains Cree. Winnipeg: Hignell Printing Ltd., 1979.
- Manuel, George, & Posluns, Michael. The fourth world: An Indian reality. Don Mills, Ont.: Collier-Macmillan Canada Ltd., 1974.
- McCormick, Mona. Primary education for the disadvantaged (what the literature reveals). La Jolla, Calif.: Western Behavioural Sciences Inst., 1975.
- McDill, Ed. L., McDill, Mary S., & Sprehe, J. T. Strategy for success in compensatory education: An appraisal of evaluation research. Baltimore: John Hopkins Press, 1969.
- Moffett, J., & Wagner, B. J. Student centered language arts and reading, k-12. New York: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1976.
- Moursund, Janet. Learning and the learner. Monterey, Calif.: Brooks/Cole Publishing Co., 1976.
- Mullen, Donna. The education of children in the north of Saskatchewan and in the slums of the province. Prince Albert, Sask.: Saskatchewan Newstart Inc., 1971.
- Munroe, Robert L., & Ruth, H. Cross-cultural human development. Monterey, Calif.: Brooks/Cole Publishing Co.
- Nagler, Mark. Indians in the city. Ottawa: St. Paul's University Press, 1970.
- Orata, Pedro. Fundamental education in an Amerindian community. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs, 1965.
- Orvik, James, & Barnhardt, Ray. Cultural influences in Alaskan native education. Fairbanks, Alas.: Center for Northern Educational Research, University of Alaska, 1974.
- Petty, W. & Jensen, J. Developing children's language. Boston: Allyn, 1980.

- Pohorecky, Zenon. Saskatchewan Indian heritage. The first two hundred centuries. Saskatoon: Extension Division, University of Saskatchewan, 1970.
- Price, John. Native studies. American and Canadian Indians. Toronto: McGraw-Hill Ryerson Ltd., 1978.
- Price, John. Indian of Canada. Cultural dynamics. Scarborough, Ont.: Prentice-Hall of Canada Ltd., 1979.
- Purkey, Wm. Self-concept and school development. Englewood Cliff, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970.
- Quandt, I. Self-concept and reading. Newark, Del.: Temple University Press, 1972.
- Reese, Helen E. Deprivation and compensatory education. Boston, Mass.: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1968.
- Riessman, Frank. The inner-city child. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1976.
- Rosenthal, Robert, & Jacobson, I. Pygmalion in the classroom: Teacher expectation and pupils' intellectual development. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968.
- Sealey, Bruce, & Kirkness, Verna (Eds.). Indians without tipis: A resource book by Indians and Metis. Agincourt, Ont.: The Book Society of Canada, 1974.
- Sindell, Peter S. Some discontinuities in the inculturation of Mistassini Cree children. In G. Spindler (Ed.), Education and cultural process toward an anthropology of education. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1974.
- Soveran, M. From Cree to English - Part I. The sound system. Saskatoon: University of Saskatchewan, 1964.
- Stanbury, W. T. Success and failure: Indians in urban society. Vancouver, B.C.: University of British Columbia Press, 1975.
- Strickland, Ruth G. Guide for teaching: English is our language. Toronto, Ont.: The Copp Clark Co. Ltd., 1950.
- Thompson, Hildegard. Education for cross-cultural enrichment. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs, 1967.
- Tiedt, Iris M., & Tiedt, Sidney W. Contemporary English in the elementary school. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1967.
- Verma, G., & Bagley, C. Race and education across cultures. London: Heinemann Educational Books Ltd., 1955.

- Vernon, P. E. Intelligence and cultural environment. London: Methuen and Co. Ltd., 1969.
- Webster, S.W. Suggested strategy for teaching socially disadvantaged learners. In Selected academic readings. New York: Rockefeller Centre, 1970.
- Williams, Fredrick. Language and poverty. Chicago, Ill.: Markham Publishing Co., 1972.
- Zintz, Miles. Indian research study. Final report. Albuquerque, N.M.: College of Education, University of New Mexico, 1957-60.
- Zintz, Miles. Education across cultures. Dubuque, Ia.: Kendall-Hunt Publishing, 1969.
- Zintz, Miles. Corrective reading. Dubuque, Ia.: Wm. C. Brown Co. Publishers, 1978.
- Zintz, Miles. The reading process: The teacher and the learner. Dubuque, Ia.: Wm. C. Brown Co. Publishers, 1980.

Articles

- Bauman, E. Northwestern Ontario Indian children and the WISC. Psychology in the Schools, October 1976, 13(4).
- Bolton, F. B. Experiments with the Raven's Progressive Matrices (1938). Journal of Educational Research, 1955, 48, 629-633.
- Bowd, A. D. Some determinants of school achievement in several Indian groups. Alberta Journal of Educational Research, June 1972, 18(2).
- Bowd, A. D. Linguistic background and nonverbal intelligence: A cross-cultural comparison. The Journal of Educational Research, September 1974, 68(1), 26-27.
- Brooks, I. R. Teaching native children: Lessons from cognitive psychology. The Journal of Educational Thought, 1978, 12(1), 56-67.
- Cameron, Ann; & Storm, Thomas. Achievement motivation in Canadian Indian, middle and working-class children. Psychological Reports, 1965, 16, 459-463.
- Coombs, Madison L. A summary of pertinent research in bilingual education. Albuquerque, N.M.: Indian Education Office, 1971.
- Crosby, M. Children in crowded areas. Childhood Education, May 1963, 39(12).
- Downing, J., Ollila, L., & Oliver, P. Cultural differences in children's concepts of reading and writing. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 1975, 45, 312-16.

- Dumont, R., & Wax, M. Cherokee school society and the intercultural classroom. Human Organization, Fall 1969, 28(3), 217-226.
- Enochs, Romily J. The relationship between Indian and non-Indian teachers' perceptions of Indian first-graders' achievement in reading. BIA Research Bulletin, January 1978, 6(1), 23-41.
- Erickson, Donald A. Failure in Navaho schooling. The Northian, 1970, 3-9.
- Foerster, Leona, & Little Soldier, Dale. What is new and good in Indian education today. Educational Leadership, December 1975, 33(3).
- Fox, S. Back to basics in language arts in the bureau of Indian affairs schools. BIA Educational Research Bulletin, September 1978, 6(3).
- French, Laurence. The educational dilemma facing urban Indians. Journal of American Indian Education, January 1979, 18(2), 28-32.
- Gordon, Edmund W. Characteristics of socially disadvantaged children. Review of Educational Research, December 1965, 35(5), 377-85.
- Heaps, Richard, & Morrill, Stanley G. Comparing the self-concepts of Navajo and white high school students. Journal of Indian Education, May 1979, 18(3), 13-15.
- Kelsey, H., Keithley, A., & Brunson, W. T. Improving reading skills of Seminole children. Journal of American Indian Education, May 1971, 10(3).
- Kleinfeld, Judith. Classroom climate and the verbal participation of Indian and Eskimo students in integrated classrooms. The Journal of Educational Research, October 1973, 67(2), 51-52.
- Kleinfeld, Judith. Effective teachers of Indian and Eskimo high school students. In Cultural influences in Alaskan native education. University of Alaska, March, 1974.
- Kleinfeld, Judith. Positive stereotyping: The cultural relativist in the classroom. Human Organization, 1975, 34, 269-74.
- Lawrence, Gay. Indian education: Why bilingual-bicultural? Education and Urban Society, May 1978, 10(3), 305-20.
- Loban, Walter. Oral language proficiency affects reading and writing. Instructor, March 1966, p. 97.
- Lyon, Tom. On small group teaching. American Education, August-September 1976, 12(7).
- MacArthur, Russell. Some differential abilities of northern Canadian native youth. Educational Journal of Psychology, 1968, 3(1), 43-51.

- Mickelson, N. I., & Galloway, C. Cumulative language deficits among Indian children. Exceptional Children, 1969, 36, 187-90.
- Mickelson, N. I., & Galloway, C. Verbal concepts of Indian and non-Indian school beginners. The Journal of Educational Research, October 1973, 67(2), 55-56.
- Narang, H. L. Improving reading ability of Indian children. Journal of Elementary English, 1971, 15.
- Philips, Susan. Participant structures and communicative competence: Warm Springs children in community and classroom. Monograph Series on Languages and Linguistics, No. 23, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C., 1970.
- Raph, Jane B. Language development in socially disadvantaged children. Review of Educational Research, 1965, 35(5), 389-400.
- Rossel, Robert. The Indian child and his culture. Los Angeles, Calif.: Amerindian Publishing Co., 1971.
- Selam, H. M. Redbird, & Selam, Leroy B. Cultural conflict in the classroom. Social Education, May 1972, 516-17.
- Shenk, Barbara Ann. A reading curriculum for k-6 Indian school approaches, materials and rationale. BIA Education Research Bulletin, May 1978, 6(2), 20-23.
- Snider, J. G. Performance of acculturated Indian children. Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 1961, 7(1), 41.
- St. John, J., Krichev, A., & Bauman, E. Northwestern Ontario Indian children and WISC. Psychology in the Schools, October 1976, 13(4), 407-11.
- Streeton, G. Language acceleration project for overage Indian students. Research Center, the Saskatchewan School Trustees Association, Regina, Saskatchewan, 1973.
- Susut, Sonja. Effects of pre-school environment on the early formal education of the Indian child with special reference to reading. Query, January-February 1972, 3(1), 7-13.
- Turner, G. H., & Penfold, D. J. The scholastic aptitude of the Indian children of the Caradoc reserve. Canadian Journal of Psychology, 1952, 6(1), 31-44.
- Wasson, Wilfred. Hindrances to Indian education. Educational Leadership, December 1970, 28(3), 278-80.
- Wax, M., Wax, R., & Dumont, R. Cultural deprivation as an educational ideology. Journal of American Indian Education, January 1964, 3, 15-18.

- Wax, M., Wax, R., & Dumont, R. Formal education in an American Indian community. Social Problems, Supplement 1964, 11.
- West, L. W., & MacArthur, R. S. An evaluation of selected intelligence tests for two samples of Metis and Indian children. Alberta Journal of Educational Research, March 1964, 10(1), 17-27.
- Wieczkiewicz, Helen. A phonic reading program for Navajo students. Journal of American Indian Education, May 1979, 18(3).
- Zintz, Miles. Problems of classroom adjustment of Indian children in public elementary schools. Science Education, April 1962, XLVI, 261-269.

Theses

- Burgess, Glen D. A program for teaching English to Indian children in elementary schools. Unpublished dissertation, Stanford University, 1937.
- Littlejohn, Catherine. The Indian oral tradition: A model for teachers. Unpublished masters thesis, University of Saskatchewan, 1975.
- McCluskey, D. E. A cross-cultural study of values in primers. Unpublished masters thesis, University of Saskatchewan, 1973.
- Schlam, Philip. School administrator's perceptions of problems arising from the integration of Indian and non-Indian children in publicly supported schools in Saskatchewan. Unpublished masters thesis, University of Saskatchewan, 1968.
- Wax, R. H., & Wax, M. L. Dropout of American Indians at the secondary level. Unpublished thesis, Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia, 1964.
- Whale, Kathleen. Verbal interaction and creative writing. Unpublished thesis, University of Saskatchewan, 1972.

Statistics and Research

- Chase, Clinton. Elementary statistical procedures. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1967.
- Collier, Ray, & Hummel, Thomas. Experimental design and interpretation. Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan Publishing Co., 1977.
- Manaster, Guy, & Havighurst, Robert. Cross-national research. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1972.
- McCullough, Celeste. Introduction to statistical analysis. Montreal: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1974.

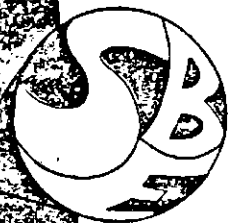
- McCollough, Celeste, & Van Atta, Loch. Statistical concepts. A program for self-instruction. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1963.
- Nie, Norman, Hull, Hadlai, Jenkins, Jean, & Steinbrenner, Karen. Statistical package for the social sciences. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1975.
- Walker, Helen. Elementary statistical methods. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1949.
- Wiersma, Wm. Research methods in education. Itasca, N.Y.: F. E. Peacock Publishers Inc., 1975.

Unpublished Papers and Reports

- Bowd, Alan B. Ten years after the Hawthorn report. University of Victoria.
- Cooley, Ralph. Language analysis and intercultural research. Presentation made at SIETAR, University of Oklahoma, February, 1978.
- Federation of Saskatchewan Indians. Indian education in Saskatchewan, Vol. I, II, III. Saskatchewan Indian Cultural College, Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, 1973.
- Fox, Mary Lou. Teaching English to Indian children. TESL Conference, 1972.
- Indian Education Committee. A preliminary look at the survey of the treaty Indians. Saskatoon Board of Education, Saskatoon, Marcy, 1979.
- King, Cecil. The education of our native children. Indian and Northern Education Program, Saskatoon, Saskatchewan.
- McCabe, Maurice. Indian education and the public school. Proceedings of the Indian Education Conference, Arizona State University, March 3-6, 1960.
- McLeod, Ida. An intensive language course in Cree. Saskatchewan Indian Cultural College, Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, 1979.
- National Indian Brotherhood. Indian control of Indian education. Policy paper presented to Minister of Indian Affairs and Northern Development, Ottawa, Ontario, 1972.
- Renaud, Andre. Education from within. Paper presented to Ontario Conference on Indian Affairs, London, Ontario, November, 1964.

APPENDIX A

School Board Letter



Saskatoon Board of Education

R.G. Fast, M.Ed., Ph.D., Director of Education

December, 1978

Sister Rose Marcuzzi
Indian and Northern Education Program
University of Saskatchewan
Saskatoon, Saskatchewan
S7N 0W0

Dear Sister Marcuzzi:

I am pleased to acknowledge and approve your request to conduct a research project in Princess Alexandra School early in the new year. It is my understanding that the project will involve Indian children in the grade one classroom.

Yours sincerely,

D.L. Hicks
Superintendent
Planning, Development
and Research

DLH/jmc

UNIVERSITY OF SASKATCHEWAN

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
306-343-5663 OR 4526

INDIAN AND NORTHERN
EDUCATION PROGRAM
SASKATOON, CANADA
S7N 0W0
306-343-3139

November 24, 1978

Dr. D.L. Hicks,
Saskatoon Board of Education,
SASKATOON, Sask.

Dear Dr. Hicks:

I am a graduate student in the Indian and Northern Education Program at the University of Saskatchewan. I am doing a study to investigate the language and reading difficulties found among Indian students who come from northern communities into the Saskatoon school system.

I would like to test an experimental program in a school which has a high concentration of Indian students. The program would involve 6 or 7 children for a period of one hour daily, preferably during their regular language arts period.

I would also like to work with the children for a period of three months from January until March.

A copy of my proposal will be presented to explain the program I will be using with the children.

I look forward to a meeting with you and to answer any questions regarding the study.

Sincerely,

Sister Rose Marcuzzi
Sr. Rose Marcuzzi

APPENDIX B

- Test I - Detroit Visual Attention Span for Objects
- Test II - Detroit Auditory Attention Span for Related Syllables
- Test VI - Botel Word Recognition Test
- Test V - Roswell-Chall Diagnostic Reading Test
- Test III - Schonell Graded Word Reading Test
- Test IV - Schonell Graded Word Spelling Test

FOREWORD

The Detroit Tests of Learning Aptitude are offered to meet the demand of psychologists whose task it is to solve children's learning problems in practical ways. The tests yield a general mental age as well as a series of subtest mental ages ranked by the psychologist from highest to lowest and graphed in a visual profile. Strengths and weaknesses in the psychological constitution are disclosed.

This psychological instrument is very flexible, adapted to examining preschool children and to the higher mental processes of high-school students. The psychologist uses his own judgment and discretion in the selection of subtests which fits the needs of every individual subject. The entire series would rarely be given to any subject but usually from nine to thirteen subtests are recommended. This process of selection challenges the psychological insight of the examiner.

Within the pattern of general intelligence many special phases of mental faculties may be recognized. Some of them are listed in the table on the next page and are checked with respect to which one or more of the nineteen subtests they seem to be related. By reference to this table the psychologist is able to write a meaningful diagnosis of difficulties in learning the school subjects as well as in many out-of-school situations.

A thorough study of this table is recommended as an introduction to the full possible utilization of the *Detroit Tests of Learning Aptitude*.

same score is given for two or more mental age values, give credit for the highest age; for example, a score of 8 points on Test No. 1, Pictorial Absurdities, should be given a mental-age credit of 5-9 (five years, nine months). In other tests, several points in score have been assigned to one mental age. Do not attempt to allocate these scores to the months just above or below the mental age given. One month's difference in mental age is not significant enough to warrant such detailed division. For example, in Test No. 8, Social Adjustment A, scores of 7 and 8 are both credited as 4-3.

2. In Tests Nos. 6 and 9, find the average of the mental age of the simple score and the weighted score for the final mental age of each of these tests. For example, in Test No. 6 a simple score of 42 is 7-6, a weighted score of 229 is worth 8-0, and the final average mental age is 7-9. In case two such scores have a difference of three months, give the extra half-month a credit of a whole month. For example, in Test No. 6 a simple score of 50 is 10-3, a weighted score of 263 is 10-6, and the final mental age is 10-5.

In Tests Nos. 5 and 11, use the average of the mental ages of the *two longest* cumulative minute periods for the final mental age. For example, in Test No. 5 a three-minute cumulative score of

187 is 12-3, and a four-minute cumulative score of 214 is 11-9; final mental age score 12-0.

Finding the median mental age.—After the mental ages have been found for all of the tests which have been given to any child find the median mental age for all the tests as follows:

The rank order of the tests should be determined, writing "1" in the column marked "Rank" for the highest mental age on the front page of the Pupil's Record Booklet, a "2" for the second highest, etc., until all tests have been numbered. If any two or more have the same mental age number them consecutively in any arbitrary order, preferably in the order of the test numbers themselves. For example, if Tests Nos. 9, 10, and 13 have the same mental age and are 4th, 5th and 6th in order, rank No. 9 as 4, No. 10 as 5 and No. 13 as 6.

Find the median by taking the mental age for the middle test of the rank order if an *odd* number of tests has been given, such as the seventh test in thirteen or the sixth test in eleven. If an even number of tests, use the average mental age between the two ranks adjacent to the half; for example, if twelve tests have been given use the mental age between the sixth and seventh in rank. If the sixth test in rank has a mental age of 8-3 and the seventh test has a mental age of 8-0, use 8-2 as the final mental age.

Computing the I.Q.—Reduce years and months of mental age and of chronological age to months, for example, 9 years and 2 months equals 110 months. *Divide the mental age by the chronological age through fourteen years of age. At the 15 year chronological age level and for older ages use 15 years 0 months as the chronological divisor.* This plan gives some recognition to claims and contentions that sixteen is too high for average adults. Compute the I.Q. to the nearest whole number and point it off in the usual manner, such as 96. not .96.

Making the profile.—On page 16 of the Pupil's Record Booklet is a form for recording test results in profile form. The procedure is as follows:

1. Copy on the various lines in rank order the tests from the first page of the booklet. For example, if Test No. 5, "Motor Speed and Precision," had the highest mental age (such as 12-3) and was first in rank order, it should be copied on the first line of the profile; under "Test No." put 5; under "Test" write "Motor Speed and Precision"; and under "M.A." write 12-3. Proceed in this manner until all the tests which have been given to any pupil have been recorded in rank order.

2. When all results have been recorded on page 16, make a small cross or dot on the graph to correspond to each mental age. Vertical

rules on the profile represent half years. Place the cross or dot between rules for other ages. For example, mark 12-3 for the first line for the case in question by placing a cross or dot half way between 12 and the next vertical rule—the "12" stands for 12 years and no months (12-0). Then draw a suitable line from point to point so that the results are shown in graphic form, from highest to lowest test result. The tests at the top of the list on this diagram are special talents or abilities above the pupil's general mental age and those at the lower range are disabilities.

3. In order to make the profile of greatest value it is recommended that two vertical lines be drawn—one a dotted line for the chronological age and the other a dashed line for the mental age.

DETROIT

Administering and Scoring—Test 13 69**Test 13, Auditory Attention Span for Related Syllables**

See: Page 9 of Pupil's Record Booklet

Material:—A series of 43 sentences, ranging from five words of six syllables to twenty-two words with twenty-seven syllables, given on page 9 of Pupil's Record Booklet.

Procedure:—Say, "I am going to say something to you. When I get all through, you say just what I said."

Say each sentence slowly and distinctly. Do not repeat. After each sentence, allow time for the pupil to repeat it. (See general suggestions for Test No. 2, page 34.) Start with sentences where success is obvious, continue until there are three sentence failures in succession.

Record responses on the Pupil's Record Booklet by crossing out any words omitted and by inserting any additional words or syllables.

Scoring:—A sentence is failed when there are three or more errors. There are three kinds of errors:

(a) a word omitted; (b) a word added; (c) an unsuitable word substituted. In determining failure, the errors may all occur in a, or b, or c, or in any combinations of a, b, and c.

Scoring: *Three points* for each sentence with no errors. (Credit three points for each sentence before the place where the testing began.)

Two points for each sentence with one error of any type.

One point for each sentence with two errors of any type or combination of types.

No credit for each sentence with three or more errors of any type or combination of types.

Maximum Score: 123 points.

DETROIT AUDITORY ATTENTION SPAN FOR RELATED SYLLABLES

Score _____

1. My doll has pretty hair.
2. We will go for a walk.
3. My dog chases the white cat.
4. Our new car has four red wheels.
5. Henry likes to read his new book.
6. Bring the broom and sweep the front room.
7. The bell on the engine rings loudly.
8. On Sundays all of us go to church.
9. In summer we go North where it is cool.
10. Green leaves come on the trees in early spring.
11. The airplane makes a loud noise when it flies fast.
12. We saw a little fire on the way to school.
13. The sun shone brightly today and it hurt my eyes.
14. The men painted our new house white with dark green blinds.
15. They gave me some pretty shoes for my birthday last month.
15. The art teacher comes to our own school three days a week.
17. Ten persons went to a party where there was lots to eat.
18. Three boys spent a happy day last week on a fishing trip.
19. On Tuesday for lunch we had some fresh bread which our mother baked.
20. Father must buy some new license plates for his car once each year.
21. When the train passes the whistle blows for us to keep off the track.
22. In the summer time the nights are very short and the days are long.
23. We had a party for Jean last Monday with cake and ice cream to eat.
24. At eight we go to bed and mother reads to us from our story books.
25. Each year when the big circus comes to town father takes the whole family.

- 2 -

26. Many boys and girls go to the movies on nights at the end of each week.
27. My sister Mary has a pretty new doll which shuts its eyes and goes to sleep.
28. The man who lives next door is a good neighbor and invites us for many rides.
29. Last winter we made a big round snow man and put a little black hat on his head.
30. In my uncle's home there was a soft red carpet on the floor of the living room.
31. The day of the football game the weather was clear but chilly and the wind blew briskly.
32. Because there were few vacant lots the police roped off our street so that we might be safe.
33. On the Fourth of July my father puts on his army suit and joins his friends on parade.
34. In fair weather and at high tide ships from many nations set sail for their own distant ports.
35. The baseball team from our high school played fifteen games; they lost six but they ended in second place.
36. Last night there was a large banquet at the hotel where many people dined and had a pleasant time.
37. Our reading books at school have many fine stories which are short but very full of life and action.
38. In the north country the days are very short in winter and the sun hangs low in the southern sky.
39. China closets filled with all kinds of dainty dishes and cut glass lined the large walls of the dining room.
40. On cold, clear nights hundreds of thousands of twinkling stars shine brightly from their cradles far up in the sky.
41. In the heart of the Congo there are many kinds of beasts which are a nightly terror to the black natives.
42. Down near the bank of the river is an estate from which sound the shouts of happy children hour after hour.
43. Each four years voting takes place which results in many men being placed in office for terms of two years or more.

9. Visual Attention Span for Objects

(See pages 48-49 of Handbook, 37-50 of Pictorial Material).

Score: Simple _____

Weighted _____

- 2a cat girl
- 2b dog horse
- 3a pig hand fork
- 3b tree pail star
- 4a watch boy fish pan
- 4b hat top knife sled
- 5a ring door shoe cake lamp
- 5b stove cow lock kite wheel
- 6a moon saw drum chair bread ear
- 6b swing tub ball flag clock bird
- 7a bad dress sun house box train king
- 7b eye horn ball take cup pear jug
- 8a egg book toy leaf church glove noon fence
- 8b soap fan broom hen rat comb goat screw

DETROIT TEST OF LEARNING ATTITUDES

Visual Memory (Objects)

III DESCRIPTION OF TESTS

A. Botel Word Recognition Test - Form A ✓

- i) Purpose: to determine, quickly, a student's reading ability. The words are drawn randomly by grade level from various basal reader glossaries.
- ii) Uses:
- (a) roughly determine a reading level. When the child knows 85% or better of a particular list, he can cope successfully with a corresponding reader.
 - (b) through an analysis of errors, the strategies a child uses in word analysis can be detected.
 - (c) for children from mid grade one to grade four
- iii) Administration:
- (a) is individual
 - (b) response should be instantaneous (no longer than 5 seconds per word)
 - (c) child is given one copy of the test (primary type) and the teacher records responses on another copy
 - (d) Pupil begins reading column A (pre-primer level). Check each word read correctly within five seconds. When a child mispronounces or substitutes a word, record the answer as phonetically as possible beside the word.

<i>like</i>	<i>lick</i>
<i>boat</i>	<i>bō-at</i>
<i>kitten</i>	<i>cat</i>
<i>ball</i>	✓

Words corrected by a pupil and hesitations under five seconds are not considered as errors.

- (e) Stop testing when child makes six errors on two consecutive levels.

iv) Scoring

- (a) at each reader level there are 20 words. Multiply the number of words correctly identified by 5 to give a percentage.

85%+	- independent reading level
80-85%	- instructional reading level
-80%	- frustration reading level

BOTEL READING INVENTORY
A WORD RECOGNITION TEST

A	B	C
a	all	about
ball	at	as
blue	boat	be
come	but	by
father	do	could
get	duck	fast
have	find	friend
house	girl	guess
in	he	hen
it	kitten	how
little	like	long
make	now	mitten
mother	out	never
not	put	old
play	saw	party
ride	stop	sat
see	thank	some
to	there	tell
want	three	tree
will	train	walk

- i) Purpose: is to determine the strengths and weaknesses a child has in the sound/symbol relationships.
- ii) Uses:
- (a) An analysis of errors will point out the child's instructional needs in word analysis.
 - (b) As the skills on the test are presented in the order in which they are usually taught, the test can be given to children in grades mid-one to six.
- iii) Administration:
- (a) Is individual
 - (b) Child has one copy of the test (primary type) while administrator records responses on another copy.
 - (c) All subtests except 4 (silent 'e') should be read horizontally.
 - (d) If an item is read correctly, put a check mark after the word or letter. If incorrect, record the answer given as phonetically as possible above the item. If the pupil spontaneously corrects his answer, parenthesize it, and mark correct. Circle items that pupil omits or refuses. Cross through items not presented.

rime
(nip)✓
let✓
rim
nap
(dot)
~~nut~~

(f) The test sections:

1. Single Consonants

Say to pupil, "What are the sounds of these letters?" If he does not seem to understand, say "The first letter is s(es), has the sound sss, as in sand, so, some. (Note: If pupil gives soft sound of s for c or j for g, say, "Yes, what other sound does it have?")

Some pupils are unable to give the consonant sounds in isolation, especially when they have never received such instruction. Frequently such pupils give words beginning with the sounds. When this is done, it should be considered correct. Make a note in the margin that words (having the initial consonant sounds) were given.

If the pupil does not know at least half of the consonant sounds, check his knowledge of the consonant names. Note this information under "Remarks".

2. Consonant Combinations

Administer as part 1, above.

3. Short Vowels - in words

Say to the pupil, "I want you to read these words across the page." Mark as in section (d) above.

- in sentences

Say to the pupil, "Read these sentences." Pay particular attention to these words:

sip, milk, top, jug
Sam, let, him, nap, cot, hut

They are the short vowel words in the sentences, and the only words given credit in scoring.

- in isolation

Say, "What are the sounds of these letters?"
If the long vowel sound is given say, "Yes, what other sound does it have?". Try to obtain short vowel sound.

4. Silent 'e' rule

Say, "I want you to read this word (indicate top word) then the one underneath it (indicate bottom word)."

5. Vowel Combinations

Say, "I want you to read these words across the page."

6. Syllabication

Say: "I should like you to read these words. If you cannot recognize a word right away, figure it out the best way you can by dividing it and sounding it out."

If pupil gives only part of a word, note that above the word.

	<i>come</i>	<i>invite</i>
<i>daytime</i> ✓	<i>overcome</i>	<i>invented</i>

iv) Scoring

(a) There is a score for each section of the test, the number correct over the number of items.

1. Single Consonant - number of items - 19
2. Consonant Combinations - 10
3. Short Vowels - in words - 10
- in sentences - 10
- in isolation - 5
4. Silent 'e' - 5 (word pair must be correct)
5. Vowel Combinations - 12
6. Syllabic 't' - 8

(b) In the Short Vowel and Vowel Combinations sections, if the word given is incorrect but the vowel sound correct, credit is given.

sip ✓	nade	tap	big	mcp ✓	} 2 ✓
	mad	tub	beg	mob	

ROSEWELL - CHALL

1. s p m c h b

r n k j w z

d g l f v y t

2. ch fl th st tr

cr sh wh str scr

3. let rim nap dot hut

sip mad tub beg mob

4. He took a sip of milk from the top of the jug.

Sam let him take a nap on the cot in the hut.

i o a u e

5. pin cut dim mat rob

pine cute dime mate robe

6. seek pail coast harm

gain boil load cart

meal coin leaf peel

7. daytime overcome invented

enjoyment expansion

contribution

departmental permanently

d. Schonell Graded Word Reading Test - Form A

- i) Purpose: to determine if the child can actually use the word attack skills which he has been taught.
- ii) Uses:
- (a) An analysis of the errors made will show which skills are weak.
 - (b) The words are selected from grades one to ten, so the test can be used for these grades.
 - (c) A grade level reading equivalent can be computed to be used in conjunction with the Botel Word Recognition Test
- iii) Administration:
- (a) Individual.
 - (b) Child has one copy while the teacher records what the child reads on another copy.
 - (c) Tell the child that the starting words are fairly easy but they get more difficult as the words progress.
 - (d) Have the child read the words across the line, from left to right, until ten consecutive errors are made.
 - (e) As this test's purpose is to see if he can apply his word attack skills, he should not be prompted, or rushed. If he wishes to try the word two or three times and manages to say it correctly, do not mark it wrong.
- iv) Scoring:
- (a) Total number of words read correctly.
 - (b) Grade score is computed by dividing the number of words read correctly by ten.
i.e. $35 \div 10 = 3.5$ (5 months in grade 3)
 - (c) Record grade score on Registration Form.

Schonell's Sight Reading Words

Read words across.

10 words = 1 year

5 years (every word right - 1 month)

8 mistakes out of 10 words, stop test.

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

Schonell's Graded Word Reading TestFrom A

Name _____ Score _____

School _____ Reading Age _____

Date of Test _____ Age _____ Mental Age _____
(if known)

Date of Birth _____ Examiner's Initials _____

C. Schonell Graded Word Spelling Test - Form A

- i) Purpose: to determine if the child can transfer his knowledge of the sound/symbol relationships to a written form.
- ii) Uses:
 - (a) An analysis of the errors made by the child will indicate his instructional needs.
 - (b) The words are selected from grades one to ten so the test can be used for these grades.
 - (c) A grade level spelling equivalent can be computed.
- iii) Administration:
 - (a) Individual or small group
 - (b) Word is dictated, used in a sentence and dictated again.
 - (c) Words are dictated from left to right across the page.
 - (d) Stop testing after ten consecutive errors.
- iv) Scoring
 - (a) Total number of words spelled correctly divided by ten gives the grade level. ($35 \div 10 = 3.5$ five months in grade three).
 - (b) Letter reversals are scored incorrect.
 - (c) Record grade score on Registration form.

SCHONELL GRADED WORD SPELLING TEST A

84

hat sat	can hit	fun lid	top cap	rag had
let may	doll tree	bell by	yes ill	then egg
land flower	how son	your seem	cold four	talk loud
ground noise	lowest remain	brain hoped	write worry	amount dancing
damage fitted	else spare	through daughter	entered edge	cough search
concert avoid	domestic duties	topic recent	method type	freeze instance
liquid description	assist welfare	readily various	guess genuine	attendance interfere
accordance approval	mechanical accomplished	anxious remittance	signature financial	allotment capacity
surplus prologue	exceptionally colonel	successful coarse	preliminary referring	resource courteous
exhibition definite	affectionately guarantee	attorney anniversary	pinnacle irresistible	tobaggan hydraulic

APPENDIX C

Rose's Educational Assistentment Program
REAP

Language Arts Components

A. Oral Language

1. A strong well-developed program in oral language is the basis of a good program.
2. The concern of the school is to expand each child's language. Children's language is expanded through active involvement in listening, speaking, viewing, reading and writing.

B. Listening

1. In the language arts skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, listening is the primary skill. This is the skill that the child learns first.
2. Listening is a receptive skill in that the listener receives communication from others. The receiver is required to identify symbols and obtain meaning from them. Children who do not have an adequate listening vocabulary are hampered.
3. Listening is a natural skill, but it is a skill that can and should be taught. Disadvantaged children will benefit from a formal program of listening skills.
4. Aims and objectives -- to develop awareness of the importance of listening developmentally, by recognizing the need for listening, providing the listening experiences, so that the child may express his thoughts and experiences orally and in writing. This would entail many listening experiences which would radically require more critical listening.
5. Direct instruction in the teaching of listening skills is superior to informal instruction in which the children listen to a selection read to them and then they discuss it.
6. The following is a list of basic skills that should be taught in Grade 1.
 - a) Learning to listen for details
 - b) Listening and responding to directions
 - c) Listening for the main idea
 - d) Recognizing relationships: sequence, time, etc.
 - e) Predicting outcomes
 - f) Sensing emotional reactions
 - g) Drawing inferences from details
 - h) Making judgments
 - i) Drawing conclusions

C. Speaking

1. Speaking is the second of the language skills to be developed. It is preceded by and dependent on the skill of listening.
2. Culturally disadvantaged children may come to school with:
 - a) a limited speaking vocabulary
 - b) immature sentence patterns
 - c) limited experiences
 - d) a reluctance to express opinions
 - e) a short attention span
 - f) a preference for manipulative materials
 - g) little interest in abstract symbols, such as written words
 - h) little interest in what books have to offer.
3. Growth in speaking is directly related to the experiences and the opportunities for expression offered by the environment.
4. Vocabulary building is an important part of the program. Enlarging the children's vocabulary will be one of the major concerns.
5. The aim of the Assistentment Program is to expand the language of each child so that he/she can become linguistically fluent. It must develop the child's desire to talk. The teacher must supply many topics for discussion and provide many opportunities for the child to speak.
6. The following speaking skills are stressed:
 - a) stating details
 - b) sentence patterns - questions, statements
 - c) stating the main idea
 - d) expressing ideas in correct sequence
 - e) giving directions
 - f) finishing a story by predicting the ending
 - g) defining and classifying
 - h) expressing emotions or feelings
 - i) telling three or four things about an object or item
 - j) using colourful words
 - k) using descriptive words

D. Reading

1. Skills

- a) To demonstrate the acquisition of a systematic approach to decoding (reading) and encoding (spelling) printed symbols.
- b) To demonstrate the acquisition of the meaning of the printed content (reading comprehension) at different levels, literal, predictive, inferential, interpretive, evaluative.

2. Attitudes

As a result to create special learning conditions, to demonstrate:

- a) increasing curiosity and interest in reading and spelling
- b) a growing appreciation of the advantages or usefulness of literacy
- c) an open-minded deliberative approach to mastering the reading and spelling skills.

3. Concepts

To provide the concepts necessary for academic success through planned provision of direct and practical cultural and linguistic experiences.

Reading Readiness

The reading skills that should be developed for culturally deprived beginners through classroom instruction include the following:

1. The development of concepts. Depth and variety of experience are necessary for conceptual development. Concept formation is a process involving the following four stages of development.
 - a) Actual experience with an object, person or event.
 - b) Accurate discrimination (visual but stated in words) of essential and nonessential characteristics in objects.
 - c) Formation of the concept.
 - d) Formation of categories, i.e., grouping individual experiences into classes.

Various activities are appropriate in developing conceptual readiness, such as the following:

- a) Experience with concrete objects coupled with sense impressions and use of language to develop vocabulary and meanings. Flat pictures, as well as three-dimensional objects, are preferable. Demonstrations, models and exhibits also serve to expand children's meanings and vocabulary.
- b) Labelling objects.
- c) Learning to "read" meaning from pictures.
- d) Conversation and storytelling including the use of experience charts.

- e) Use of audio-visual aids such as slides, filmstrips, television, recordings and tapes.
- f) Dramatization, marionette and puppet shows. Acting out is an excellent way to teach word meanings.
- g) Constructing and using picture dictionaries.
- h) Following oral (or written) directions - simple to more complex.
- i) Fitting objects and words into categories.

The child should learn early that a word stands for an idea or concept and thus for the real thing. Without this knowledge he may be merely a word caller.

- 2. Training in auditory discrimination is an essential skill for successful reading. Lack of this skill leads to improper speech and ultimately to incorrect association of sound and printed symbol.
- 3. Training in visual discrimination of letter similarities and differences is vital in the process of identifying words. Reading requires the ability to discriminate each word from every other word. Letters more difficult to discriminate should be taught later to minimize interference. Emphasis is placed on verbalizing the difference in words.
- 4. Studies indicate that the ability to name and write and letters of the alphabet is an important indicator of a child's readiness to learn to read.
- 5. Reading is a left-to-right activity, and this skill must be taught.
- 6. Some disadvantaged beginners have not yet learned how to hold and handle a book.

Reading Program

- 1. Use of the experience chart is an especially valuable technique with disadvantaged students in that it permits initial reading instruction to use the child's own language. It also allows for gradual transition to the more formalized language of books (moving from the known - child's spoken language - to the unknown - printed language). Basal materials may be used as a means of systematizing the structure and sequence of skills in the reading program.
- 2. The skills, in general, to be taught in this project may be summarized as follows:
 - a) Picture reading -- pictures give clues to word identity and meaning.

- b) Word recognition -- association of sound with the whole word (sight vocabulary).
- c) Introduction of letter names and sounds in a systematic way.
- d) Phonetic Analysis to be taught in the sequence outlined in the reader series.
- e) Some aspects of structural analysis will be introduced in the second year.
- f) Continued emphasis on development of word meanings (vocabulary) and their use.
- g) Comprehension skills such as literal meaning, inferring meaning and even critical reading at a very elementary level. Comprehension is applying thought processes to reading.

APPENDIX D

Materials

Materials

Collier-Macmillan Canada Ltd. (1968)

Basal Readers - Pre-primers

Opening Books

A Magic Box

Listening Skills Program - Tapes

Dorothy Kendall Bracken

Chicago, Ill. (1968)

Language Activity Cards

Series 1, 2, 3, 4

W. J. Gage Ltd.

Toronto, Ont.

- for inferences, associations, predictiveness

Playskills Kit

Reader's Digest Assoc.

Montreal (1972)

Cultural Materials

Stories About Johnny (Books)

By J. A. MacDiarmid

Curriculum Division

Department of Education

Yellowknife, N.W.T. (1971)

Various Library Books about Indians

Nature

Animals

Picture Charts

by Jack Macmillan

- Pictures depict various activities involving Indian children in northern communities.

Language Experience Charts

Wall charts for children of Native ancestry for developing Oral English.

- (a) Blueberry picking
- (b) Getting water
- (c) Wood sawing
- (d) A family scene

School Aids and Textbook Publishing Company,
1935 Albert Street,
Regina, Sask.

Language Experience Charts for Oral English Development for Children
in Northern Schools.

- Jack McMillan - Set of 37

Curriculum Services

Educational Development Division

Education Branch

Indian Affairs and Northern Development

400 Laurier Avenue, Ottawa, Ontario

Language Experience Charts - Experiences relevant to Native children.

- (a) Handicrafts (Beadwork)
- (b) Tanning of Hides
- (c) Animals
- (d) Store
- (e) Band Meeting
- (f) Snaring Rabbits
- (g) Ice Fishing
- (h) Digging Roots

Curriculum Branch
Department of Education
411-1181 Portage Avenue
Winnipeg, Manitoba