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Robin Campbell, B.A.

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Abstract.

The study explores the teacher-child interaction of hearing children read in infant classrooms. A total of 156 interaction recordings from six different teachers have been collected from naturalistic settings. Additionally these interactions were observed by the writer and subsequently teacher interviews took place. The transcriptions of these recordings form the basis for a pedagogical analysis of the interaction.

A descriptive system of the teacher verbal moves used within the interaction was developed. This system indicates three main varieties of moves: pedagogical, feedback and asides. The pedagogical moves are sub-divided into areas concerned with welfare, directions, providing words, word recognition, phonics and comprehension. Feedback moves consist of both positive and negative feedback. Examples of the teacher moves are provided and analysed.

Teacher word recognition moves were especially helpful to the reader. This move was most usually provided by the teacher restarting the phrase/sentence for the child and stopping immediately before the miscued word. The move was uttered with rising intonation to indicate a question was being asked. Moves which indicated to the reader to use a phonic analysis were also helpful.

It was noted that the interactions of two teachers were dominated by asides. In such instances the interaction becomes akin to a ritualised event rather than a positive teaching activity. For other teachers the interaction provided the opportunity to observe, diagnose and teach, e.g. one teacher allowed time for the child to self-correct, made frequent use of word recognition and phonic moves, and used pre-read and post-read exchanges to develop mechanical and comprehension skills.

A series of questions for teachers to use in the analysis of hearing children read interactions is outlined. Finally, a suggestion of guidelines, which a teacher might use, when hearing children read, is put forward and forms the basis for a discussion.

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1. Introduction.

The study presented here is an exploration of the dyadic interaction of hearing children read within the naturalistic setting of an infant classroom. In particular, emphasis is placed upon the teacher verbal moves and their pedagogical function.

The motivation for the study came from the writer's own teaching experience; first as a primary school teacher there was an expectation that part of the role would be to hear children read on a regular and frequent basis. By organising activities within the classroom to accommodate the reading this expectation could be met. But for what purpose? How should children's reading be responded to? The Bullock Report (DES, 1975) which might have been expected to provide insights into the interaction, in fact referred to hearing children read mainly with generalisations and with little more specific than exhortation to use this activity for diagnostic and teaching purposes. Teacher verbal and non-verbal behaviour is very largely ignored in this report.

The second stage of motivation occurred for the writer as a college lecturer where discussions with primary school teachers on the activity of hearing children read lacked firm evidence based on classroom data. Although the work of Goodacre (n.d.), together with the experiential accounts of the teachers and advice from reading scheme manuals, e.g. Morris (1974), allowed informed and insightful discussion to develop, the need for detailed empirical study was highlighted. Mr Brian Kay, chief inspector for teacher-training, according to a TES report (Lodge, 1980), has criticised the lack of advice being offered to student teachers in the handling of classroom language. This may well be the result of limited research on specific aspects of classroom language or the inadequate

dissemination of such research which would permit the advice to be offered.

Many teachers do want to increase their knowledge and understanding of classroom events, although Bradley and Eggleston (1978) indicate probationary teachers' professional concerns in the area of reading were largely with administration/organisation.

Most concern was not about methods of teaching reading but about how to organise the class so as to find time to hear everyone read regularly.

(Bradley and Eggleston 1978; p 93)

As a first step probationary teachers may want to learn about how to organise their room in order to be able to hear children read. Subsequently they may wish to clarify and compare what they actually do during this interaction. As one of the teachers in the study presented here asked,

Teacher F "Is this very different from other infant classes because I never know what's going on?"

This question serves to confirm the view that few teachers know how other teachers teach (Bassey, 1978). The research project on hearing children read was motivated by the writer's experience but subsequently developed as a response to the demands of primary classroom teachers who indicated their concern to understand more fully and become more competent within an activity which forms part of their teaching day.

In 1975 Brandt produced an observational portrait of an infant school in this country. In this he indicated a lack of objective evidence within the considerable literature of infant school practice.

Despite this extensive body of literature, however, only limited objective information exists regarding the precise nature of instructional processes and learning activities in such a school.

(Brandt 1975; p 101)

The situation for micro elements of the total infant school practice is similar. There is limited objective information available regarding hearing children read and this despite earlier suggestions that such enquiries were needed.

...future enquiries of individual methods of instruction and practice for example must be based upon classroom observations as well as on information supplied verbally or in writing by the teachers concerned.

(Morris 1966; p 133)

This view put forward by Morris was, within a different context, supported by Yetta Goodman.

Hopefully, more studies will be done using children in an actual reading situation As more people begin to study reading in the environment in which it actually takes place, the process of reading may become less of a mystery.

(Goodman Y. 1967; p 290)

Not only might the process of reading become clearer through studies within a naturalistic setting but also the instructional practices of teachers might be clarified and subsequently developed. Rosen and Rosen (1973) and Raban et al (1976) are two studies which have explored aspects of language within the primary school and on the basis of their work put in a plea for further investigations, in this country, into the learning experiences that occur within schools, which will lead to descriptive and critical accounts of such experiences. Marland is more polemical in his proposals for research action.

...prime aim must be to recognise the problems of the busy English teacher and to find ways of helping him or her.

(Marland 1978; p 2)

It is hoped, that at least in part, the research presented here meets Marland's aim.

A recent report on primary school classrooms (Galton et al, 1980) has indicated the limited amount of individual attention accorded to pupils by their teacher. If this is the case, and resources of time and staff might suggest it is inevitable, then the quality of such attention becomes crucial. In order to assess the quality of the attention a first requirement is to find out more about what actually goes on in primary classrooms particularly during such teacher-child interactions and this must involve penetrating the classroom and studying the interactions in detail (Simon, 1976). On the basis of such study it might be possible to suggest, however tentatively, possible strategies for the busy teacher to consider.

The research presented here is a study of one teacher-child interaction in infant schools, that is hearing children read. In order to study this interaction two methods were utilised. First, a small scale survey, using a questionnaire, was made of infant school teachers to ascertain views on aspects of the interaction such as frequency, length of time, purposes, teacher's role and record keeping. Second, an observational study of the interaction was carried out which included recording the complete interaction. Subsequently transcriptions were made, teachers were interviewed and an analysis was provided. The emphasis within the study has been on the role of the teacher especially the verbal moves she makes. (The use of the pronoun she to describe the teacher is appropriate as all of the teachers in this study were female. For ease of reporting the pupils are therefore in general referred to by the pronouns he/him/his. This should not be seen to imply any sex typing or discrimination by the writer.) Other aspects of the interaction were noted and are reported in this study e.g. the organisation within the classroom, frequency of the interaction, length of time, physical aspects of the interaction and record keeping. However it is the teacher verbal moves which are the central concern of this study. In particular the pedagogical function of these moves is

explored and subsequently hypotheses are put forward regarding the use of specific moves and the overall format of the interaction.

One outcome of the research should be an increased knowledge and understanding of a specific classroom interaction. From this it is hoped that student teachers in initial training and teachers in in-service training or the classroom might be helped to clarify and develop their own work and particularly their role and action while hearing children read.

In the field of medicine Beard (1976) suggests,

There is a curious medical axiom: the more common the condition, the less research is conducted into it.

(Beard 1976; Guardian 17.12.76)

This axiom may also apply to education. Hearing children read is a common infant school practice yet until very recently has been neglected as a research area. This study is designed to reduce such neglect.

2. Literature.

2(i) Hearing children read as a teaching activity.

The activity of hearing children read in the early stages of education is well established. Elements of this interaction, between teacher and child, have been examined by various means which include; diaries (Harmson and Madge, 1937), observations of general classroom practice (Southgate, Arnold and Johnson, 1978), major questionnaire surveys (DES, 1975) direct observations of the specific event (Gulliver, 1979); most frequently, however, evidence comes from experiential accounts of classroom practice e.g. (Dean, 1968; Moyle, 1968; and Hughes, 1970).

The evidence suggests that the interaction of hearing children read is a teaching activity which has been part of infant/junior school practice for a major part of this century and also on closer perusal of sources is geographically distributed.

The development of hearing children read as an individualised approach to reading may have historical derivations from oral 'round robin' class reading (Austin and Morrison, 1963) back to the earlier monitorial systems of education of the 19th Century in which the whole class read orally following the model provided by the teacher or monitor (Goldstrom, 1972).

Miss E A teaching in Barnsley in 1937 reports

In the afternoon I had spent a little extra time on reading - as there is such a lot to get through - 36 children or more to hear read individually every day.

(Harmson & Madge 1937,
extract in The Guardian 5.3.76)

During the period from 1954-57 children in Junior classes in Kent were noted to be reading regularly to their teacher at her desk and receiving spontaneous instruction in the form of prompting and some incidental word building (Morris, 1966).

The Bullock Report (DES, 1975) indicates that, based on a survey of 1417 classrooms containing 6 year olds, hearing children read was extensively utilised by teachers. More recently small scale studies of interactions involving hearing children read from Exeter (Gulliver, 1979) and Manchester (Hale, 1980) demonstrate that the practice continues.

Hearing children read is therefore a teaching activity both historically well established and geographically widespread. The fact it is well established says nothing, however, about the relative importance of the interaction in the daily reading activities of the classroom.

2(ii) Importance of the activity.

There have been vigorous advocates of the importance of the hearing children read interaction e.g. Moyle (1968) and Hughes (1970). Indeed, Moyle suggests that hearing children read may be the most important part of reading instruction. Hughes puts forward a similar view.

The most valuable contribution to the teaching of reading is made when the teacher is in a position to give individual attention to the child....

....the teacher must make every effort to hear children reading as often as possible. This is the finest teaching situation when the crux of the child's reading problem may be fully appreciated.

(Hughes 1970; p 106)

Two key aspects of the interaction are contained within the Hughes extract and are suggestive of the reasons for the interaction being regarded as important. Individual attention can be provided for the child; this it is argued is a notion which is central to modern thinking in primary education (Boydell, 1978). Secondly, it is a means of appreciating the child's reading problems and presumably his strengths. The oral reading will provide, as Yetta Goodman (1967) suggests, a continuous window into the reading process. Within this view is the key idea that teachers will utilise the activity for diagnostic and teaching purposes (Morris, 1974).

There is evidence which allows us to infer that the interaction is considered to be of importance within the classroom. The Bullock Report (DES, 1975) suggests there is no doubt of the importance attached to the practice of hearing children read and puts forward the evidence taken from the questionnaire survey conducted for that report.

The Bullock Report (1975) Table 14, p 252				
Number of occasions on which 6 and 9 year olds read to the teacher in a week, by reading ability of the pupils.				
(Percentages)				
	Daily	3 or 4 times	1 or 2 times	Less Often
6 year olds:				
The ablest reader	17	36	41	6
An average reader	31	54	15	-
The poorest reader	72	26	2	-
9 year olds:				
The ablest reader	1	4	35	59
An average reader	3	19	64	14
The poorest reader	48	38	13	1

This table is certainly suggestive of a considerable amount of the teacher's time and effort being devoted to the activity. However, questions about how adequately a survey can explore the reality of a classroom impinge upon the above results (Robinson, 1974). Gray (1976) indicates that classroom observation resulted in some downward revision of teacher's estimates of the frequency with which children were heard reading in his study of infant school practice. The Schools Council Project Extending Beginning Reading (Southgate, Arnold and Johnson, 1978) provides empirical evidence of the interaction based upon classroom observation. In one part of the study one hundred and twenty eight observation sessions of twenty minutes each were recorded for twenty teachers of first and second year junior classes. These sessions were used to record all those activities connected with reading and writing. It was found that the teaching activity/^{on} which these teachers spend most time was in the category 'hears oral reading'; this occupied 14% of the teacher's time. However, it should be noted that non-teaching activities occupied 25% of their time. Nevertheless, this study does indicate that in the reality of the classroom hearing children read is a dominant teaching activity even among lower junior classes.

King (1978) in a study which also emphasised classroom observation - thirty eight infant teachers, six hundred hours of observation - noted that the teachers tried to hear all children, but especially beginners, read every day although this aim was not always achieved. The activity was considered to be an important part of infant school practice. Indeed, Gray (1979) who studied forty one teachers in twenty one Outer London Borough Infant Schools suggests that it is considered by the teachers to be the most important of teaching activities,

.... for many infant school teachers this (hearing children read individually and frequently) appears to be the single most important component of 'good practice'.

This adds credence to the finding cited earlier in Southgate et al (1978). Hearing children read is considered to be an important teaching activity and teachers of young children spend a substantial proportion of their time in this dyadic interaction.

All the children in any one classroom may not receive equal amounts of instruction by way of the hearing children read interaction. Table 14 of the Bullock Report shows that teachers attempt to hear the poorest readers more frequently than the average or ablest readers. This practice of providing more personal attention for the poor reader is advocated by Hughes (1970). However, in the reality of the classroom it may actually be the clever and more able reader who receives most attention (Burstall, 1978). Boydell (1978) suggests it is two main groups who receive most attention, the active hardworkers and active miscreants; however she considers that it is the quality of the contact when it does occur that is critical. In particular Boydell emphasises the cognitive quality of the interaction.

Questions about the quality of the interaction are also raised by Goodacre (n.d.), who stresses that hearing children read should not be seen as a ritualised activity but rather as a learning situation for both participants.

Others have been more severely critical of the interaction,

Surely it is an acknowledged fact that reading out loud bears little relationship to the internal processing of print. The stress, particularly for a slow reader, of reading out loud a number of words out of context has only a marginal relationship to their ability to read with understanding internally.

In fact asking a child to read to the teacher is as valueless for assessing their ability as a graded word recognition test. Silent reading at three metres is about the only way to find out how well the child can break the code.

Grant would appear to be arguing for silent reading as a means of developing reading competence. Buswell (1945) has reported this non-oral method to be an effective methodology aiding reading development. It may be that arguments about the imperfect relationship between oral and silent reading (Anderson and Dearborn, 1952), and the eventual aim of silent reading form the basis for such criticisms.

Are there any dangers inherent in the child reading orally to his teacher? Buswell (1945), in reporting the non-oral method used in Chicago public school from 1935 to 1945, argues that oral reading should follow (rather than precede) silent reading. The reason for such a view was that non-oral reading set free the reading process from the restrictions of oral reading or subsequent sub-vocalisation and enabled the reader to move directly from the visual symbol to meaning. The questions that need to be answered therefore are (a) does subvocalisation create a problem for reading development? and (b) does oral reading hinder reading development?

Brooks (1980) provides a review of subvocalisation in which the important points for this study were that subvocalisation tend to decrease with age from the beginning of silent reading to about 10 years when it approximates to adult levels (Garrity, 1977), and with the fluency of the reader (Zink, 1965); also that subvocalisation increases when the text is blurred (Edfieldt, 1959), or conceptually difficult (Hardyck and Petrinovick, 1970). From this it might be argued that subvocalisation is unlikely to be a problem as it gradually decreases as the reader becomes older and more fluent. Subvocalisation decreases as a part of the reader's development rather than hindering his development. Second, it would seem that subvocalisation may be a useful aid to the reader when the text which he is confronted with is in some way difficult. Furthermore, if subvocalisation is seen to be a brake upon reading speeds then it might be eliminated by providing biofeedback as reported by Hardyck, Petrinovick and Ellsworth (1966).

Contrary to the view that oral reading acts as an impediment to reading development is the suggestion that it can actually assist the reader.

Oral responding may facilitate the mental processing of new or difficult information. The mature reader increases self-stimulation by reading aloud when the text is difficult. Oral language plays a supportive role in reading behaviour. Saying words and sentences aloud resulted in greater ability to recognise and understand written words and sentences among beginning readers in a research comparing oral and non-oral approaches. Oral reading is then, an aid to learning at this level and not something to be minimised lest it create slow readers.

(Clay 1972; pp 158-159)

Oral reading, it is being argued here, helps the reader in the same way as subvocalisation may help him when he is confronted by a difficult text. Brooks (1980) uses the idea of Venezky (1974) to suggest that comprehension of difficult material may be aided by providing a phonological image for the reader to listen to. A review by Conrad (1972), based on work with deaf children, postulates a not too dissimilar notion in suggesting that vocalised speech becomes a fortuitous aspect of learning to read as it provides the necessary medium that best sustains the Short Term Memory processes. Conrad is arguing here that reading aloud provides a phonological form for the visual symbols and that this enables the words to be more readily transferred into the readers STM store so that the sequence of words can be comprehended.

None of these authors provides an unequivocal argument for oral reading as an aid to reading development. However neither accepts the case to be established that a non-oral approach to beginning reading eliminates later harmful subvocalisation.

Potts (1976) who argues against the value of the hearing children read interaction, in normal teaching, going so far as to suggest that it can

hinder reading development, does recognise the value of the interaction for diagnostic purposes. Others hold that the child's oral reading performance provides a means of examining process and underlying competence (Goodman and Goodman, 1977). It might be argued that oral reading not only provides a window on the reading process but that as an element of hearing children read it offers the opportunity for preferred reading strategies from the child to be observed and developed by the teacher. However, this is based on a prior assumption that there is agreement upon theories of reading development and therefore appropriate child reading strategies. This is not the case. Downing (1979) is critical of the Smith/Goodman viewpoint and postulates a cognitive clarity theory of reading. In this theory Downing views reading as a skill and draws upon the work of Fitts and Posner (1967) to suggest three phases of development - the cognitive phase in which the learner attempts to understand the tasks to be accomplished in the acquisition of the skill- the mastery phase in which the skill is practised until mastered and the automaticity phase when the skill is practised to take it beyond mastery to a level which demands little conscious concern for it. Morris (1979) is also critical of the Smith/Goodman theory and supports the common sense view of reading, which is rejected by Goodman, of reading as a precise process which involves exact and detailed sequential perception and identification of letters, words, spelling patterns and large language units. This dichotomy between the Smith/Goodman and Downing/Morris positions would appear to be a continuation of 'meaning emphasis' and 'code emphasis' approaches to reading which was delineated by Chall (1967). This dichotomy does not necessarily imply a disagreement over hearing children read.

Morris (1974) very firmly advocates hearing children read for diagnostic-teaching purposes. She suggests that young children should be heard read as often as possible and on-the-spot treatment should be provided

by the teacher. It might be that this treatment would be different from that advocated by Smith/Goodman. However, among the specific strategies advocated by Downing (1979) are a number which would surely be acceptable to both viewpoints. Downing suggests that a child who is going to read aloud should first prepare the piece by silent reading in order to ensure that he realises that the main purpose is to get the meaning. Second, he suggests that the reader should not always be interrupted to correct errors of pronunciation lest this misleads the child to perceive reading as pronouncing instead of comprehending. Third, there is a need to recognise that some errors are 'good' errors which represent recoding the message and that they might be left; however, if syntactical or semantic errors are made then the child should be asked if what was read makes sense. Fourth, the teacher should encourage the child to predict an unknown word from the sense of the rest of the sentence. Each of these points would indicate that hearing children read is an opportunity for the teacher to determine how the child is reading and to determine what reading strategies are being adopted so that she can respond accordingly. None of this would suggest a major departure from the Smith and Goodman view. However, a fifth point from Downing, namely the teaching of phonics in the context of meaningful reading, receives less emphasis from Smith and Goodman although they do of course suggest the grapho-phonetic cueing system as one of the sources of information to be used by the reader. Nevertheless, teaching phonics and emphasising phonic moves during the hearing children read interaction might indicate that a teacher is adopting a code emphasis. Despite differences of perspective hearing children read can be seen as an influential teaching activity in which the teacher can observe, teach and reinforce reading behaviours which are regarded as being important. The child's reading development can be aided by the teacher's considered response to his oral reading.

Further criticisms of the individualised hearing children read interaction are contained in Robinson (1980) who suggests a look and listen methodology which advises that the teacher should read aloud and the pupil listen. Goddard (1958) also argues a case for group reading but on practical grounds i.e. number of children in the class and the time available. Neither writer, however, fully counters the argument that individualised oral reading by a child to his teacher provides a unique opportunity for diagnosing the child's level of reading competence and instructional needs.

2(iii) Purposes.

Diagnosis and subsequent structuring of learning experiences partly provide the reasons for the hearing children read interaction being described as one of the most valuable things a teacher can do (Atkinson and Gains, 1973).

However, others have seen the interaction to be valuable more in terms of ensuring that the child reads accurately word by word (Goldman, 1979); provide an opportunity for the child to practice his skills naturally and share his experience with his mentor (N.A.T.E., 1964); or more clearly to see individualised reading as important to the child for affective reasons, (Natchez, 1975). Each of these views leads to the perception of hearing children read as an occasion for constructive learning rather than a standard ritual (Taylor, 1973).

The child learns through his interaction with information providing adults, (Smith and Goodman, 1971). This suggests that the teacher has to adopt a positive dynamic role within the interaction (Dolch, 1955 ; and Ireland, 1976). Indeed, Peters (1969) argues that listening to children read is a skill in itself, and that the interaction can only

be of value if the teacher listens analytically and constructively to the child's reading.

Certainly the view expressed by Duffy et al,

....anybody can listen to children read orally from a basal reader.

(Duffy, Sherman and Roehler 1977;
p 168)

or the report of work within a Birmingham Infant School which indicated,

Some (parents) also help in the classroom, though this is limited to supervising needlework or large painting projects and to hearing able readers.

(Totten 1977; p 17)

is quite contrary to the more dynamic view of the interaction suggested by Peters above. Both Duffy et al and Totten are indicating a more passive view of the interaction and see hearing children read as having few important cognitive purposes.

A number of authors have attempted to list the purposes for which teachers listen to children read. These lists provide supportive statements to the idea that hearing children read can and should be a valuable, dynamic activity rather than a passive activity which is relegated to a ritual within the classroom. Moyle (1968) states that hearing children read should be looked upon as a teaching situation which is valuable from many points of view:

- 1 The child usually enjoys having the teacher's full attention centred upon him for a few moments and this increases effort on his part.
- 2 The teacher can impart a feeling of success which the child may not experience when reading on his own.
- 3 The child can be helped to bring expression into his reading.

- 4 New words met can be discussed and added to the child's vocabulary.
- 5 The teacher can observe the progress being made by the child and therefore can follow up the sessions by providing materials which will promote further reading growth.
- 6 The teacher will note any difficulties being experienced and thus be able to devise activities to remedy them.
- 7 The teacher can keep a constant check on the child's understanding.

(Moyle 1968; p 123)

The purposes stated here, and subsequently reiterated by Hughes (1970), contain both cognitive and affective reasons for hearing children read. The diagnostic aspect of the interaction is indicated with suggestions that immediate or subsequent action and activities can be provided. This emphasis upon diagnostic and teaching purposes was also put forward by Morris (1974) who suggested that all young children should be heard reading as often as possible for the purposes of,

- (a) assessing progress and motivating afresh
- (b) diagnosing difficulties
- (c) giving on-the-spot treatment where possible and
- (d) planning and executing further work to solve particular problems.

(Morris 1974; p 83)

The Bullock Report indicated the value of hearing children read and while no list of purposes was provided it is possible to discern the diagnostic and teaching emphasis. The Bullock Report argues the need for qualitative observations during listening, developing various kinds of comprehension by asking questions and using the information gained to structure successive learning experiences. Further, on the basis of part of the information gained from the survey, the Bullock Report suggested teachers clearly use hearing children read to give practice

especially to those who most need it and to monitor progress. Roberts (1975), however, is critical of this aspect of the Bullock Report in that no information was provided about teaching techniques and,

.... nothing about the purposes for which teachers listen to children reading.

(Roberts 1975; p 14)

Goodacre (1976) recognises that teachers are rarely explicit about their objectives when hearing children read however,

Reasons suggested have been to diagnose difficulties, to help with unknown words by discussing them in context, to draw attention to the code aspect of words (sounds of letters etc.), to estimate the extent of the reader's understanding of what they have read, to reinforce the personal relationship between the teacher and the child, and to check on the accuracy of the reading.

(Goodacre 1976; p 98)

Dean (1976) writing in the same B.B.C. Publication puts forward four main purposes when hearing young children read,

to check progress and to be sure that each child is actually doing some reading;

to provide a measure of individual teaching matched to the child's needs;

to provide an opportunity for establishing a relationship with a child so that he wants to read in order to please his teacher;

to give practice.

(Dean 1976; pp 55-56)

More importantly, however, Dean begins to put forward ideas as to what these purposes might mean in actual teacher behaviour during the interaction. Individual relationships she argues are established best in one to one situations. Hearing children read provides such a situation when the teacher may be able to concentrate solely on the child reading and this Dean suggests helps to build the relationship. The teacher needs

to ensure that the task is at an appropriate level so that the child can experience success at reading. Thus, during the interaction the teacher will be able to provide positive reinforcement for the child.

2(iv) Role of the teacher

The interaction is, therefore, seen as a time for diagnosis and teaching, a period for functional diagnosis, as the term is used by Herber (1966), meaning testing and teaching within the framework of the regular school lesson. Such a view does imply that the adult listening is perhaps experienced but also a skilled teacher of reading (Vincent and Cresswell, 1976). The importance of the teacher has been expressed in relation to the general reading development of young children by Durrell (1968) and Southgate (1972). What specifically might be the teacher's role when hearing children read?

Simply stated it might be to,

Respond to what the child is trying to do.

(Smith 1973; p 195)

However, as Smith indicates, this is in reality one difficult rule to follow in order to make reading easy. It requires of the teacher, insight, tolerance, sensitivity and patience. Also, Hunt (1968) states for the teacher-pupil individualised reading conference,

Her (the teacher) art and power of asking questions and responding instantly and intelligently to the child's reactions with more questions are the key to success.

(Hunt 1968; p 295)

Similar views have been expressed in relation to the earlier development of reading within the home. The need here is for sensitive teaching, (Butler and Clay, 1979) or as Clark (1976) notes in her study of children

who become young fluent readers prior to starting school,

.... an interested adult with time to spare to interact in a stimulating encouraging environment...

(Clark 1976; p 54)

The recent empirical work of Hewison and Tizard (1980) adds credence to the role of the adult (parent) hearing children read as an important stimulus to reading progress. These views on the role of the adult in interaction with a child have perhaps an antecedent in the development of spoken language ,

Language is an interactive process that requires not only a child with appropriate neurological equipment in a state of readiness, but also an older person who engages in communicative interchange with him.

(Gleason 1977; p 200)

Although these views provide an insight into the teacher's role when hearing children read they do not provide specific indicators of the behaviour required from the teacher. Smith and Goodman (1971) and Smith (1971) state more explicitly that the teacher's role is as a supplier of information.

As a precursor to providing information the teacher, within the naturalistic setting of the classroom, must first organise for the interaction to occur.

It may be the quality (Resnick, 1972) and length (Bassegy and Hatch, 1979) of the interaction which provide significant teaching events for the child. This can only happen within the classroom if others in the room have activities to attend to and are aware of the organisational structures. It may also demand of the teacher both 'withitness' and 'overlapping' (Kounin 1970) in order that the interactions can continue in a meaningful way.

If the child is to retain confidence in the teacher to whom he is reading, (West Sussex, 1976), then presumably the teacher must demonstrate attention and interest. This affective aspect of the teacher's role has been mentioned earlier (Moyle, 1968; Goodacre, 1976; and Dean, 1976). Giving the child full attention during the interaction (Moyle, 1968), sometimes involving physical contact (West Sussex, 1976) and also presumably the words uttered by the teacher are ways of emphasising the affective aspects of the interaction.

Teachers do see part of the role in hearing children read as keeping a check on the child's progress (Goodacre, 1969). However, for many of the infant teachers in Goodacre's postal survey this seemed to be quite simply keeping a check on progress through a reading scheme. A more optimistic note was struck by Goodacre (1973) who suggests, on the basis of personal impressions, that teachers were now listening more actively to children's reading aloud and their errors. This is suggestive of aspects of miscue analysis being used in order to achieve greater insight into the child's reading progress (Goodman, Y., 1970). The teacher by focussing on the degree to which the miscue approximates to the correct response is able to assess the children's reliance upon various sources of information (Weber, 1970). The child's use of grapho-phonetic, syntactic and semantic cue systems, (Goodman K. Goodman. Y. and Burke, 1978) may thus be determined. The child's movement through stages of oral reading - predominant use of contextual information; predominance of non-response errors; co-occurrence of graphic and contextual constraints (Biemiller, 1970), may also become apparent although it is more likely that in the classroom miscue analysis will be used to indicate a child's reading strengths and weaknesses (Karlin, 1975). A call for teachers in this country to make greater use of miscue analysis when hearing children read is now evident (DES, 1975; Roberts 1975; and Potts, 1976). Although

Goodacre (1976) indicates that this detailed type of hearing cannot always be carried out in the day to day work of the classroom she, nevertheless, suggests that teachers have found that awareness of miscue analysis continues to have beneficial effects on their hearing of young children. In particular, they ask of themselves "Why did he read that?" This it has been argued is the crucial question,

Finally at the root of error analysis is the basic question, Why? Why is the child reading as he is?

(Donald 1979); p 22)

Use and/or awareness of miscue analysis may, therefore, provide for the teacher a more sophisticated means of assessing a child's reading progress.

Reservations about the use of miscue analysis however are evident.

Hood (1978) questions the practicability of miscue analysis for teachers. While recognising its value within research she questions whether miscues might accurately reflect a reader's typical behaviour and suggests a return to counting errors, using a total error score which provides an indication of progress and suggests appropriate reading materials.

Potter (1980) raises a cautionary note on miscue analysis, in particular the extent to which miscues which are syntactically acceptable are in fact based upon the child's use of syntactic information. This query is based upon Potter's study of twenty eight children reading words in context (passage) and out of context (list).

The teacher's role it was suggested is concerned with supplying information to the reader (Smith and Goodman, 1971; and Smith, 1971). The information which is provided arises out of the diagnosis made of the child's reading, (Strang, 1968). It is this immediate response by the teacher based upon an instant diagnosis of the strengths and difficulties observed in

children's reading within the day to day teaching environment which is believed to be a fundamental aspect of the teacher's role (Herber, 1966; Powell, 1971; and Karlin, 1975). Hearing children read provides the opportunity for what Morris (1974) refers to as on-the-spot treatment. It requires what Smith (1971) states to be intuition,

In terms of reading instruction, intuition is a sensitivity for the unspoken intellectual demands of a child, encouraging and responding to his hypothesis testing.

(Smith 1971; p 196)

What types of responses should the teacher provide when a child miscues? Part of this answer may, of course, be determined by the type of miscue which the child makes. However, Glynn (1980) suggests on the basis of work with the teacher and paraprofessional tutoring of oral reading that the prompts should be of a contextual or grapho-phonetic nature rather than simply telling the child the correct word. Goodman, K. (1965) reports on the basis of a study of one hundred 1st, 2nd and 3rd Grade children in Detroit that in view of the way in which children are cued to self-correct, correcting them when they read orally is unnecessary and undesirable. The more intensive study of six young beginning readers during their first year of reading instruction by Goodman, Y (1967) reaches a similar conclusion,

The teacher needs to help the child develop strategies to make the best use of the language cue system and should probably not give a child a word until he has encountered it at least three times.

(Goodman, Y. 1967; p 271)

An investigation by Pehrsson (1974), in part designed to explore whether a teacher helps a child to understand better what they read by correcting them during the process of oral reading, would appear to support the Goodman's view. In this study twenty-five children were asked to read three passages of two hundred words under differing conditions; read in

order to tell about it, read and pay close attention to the words - teacher corrects errors, read and pay close attention to the words - no corrections from the teacher. The results suggest that a child reads better, comprehension and rate, when requested to read for meaning and is not interrupted during the reading process. However, the way in which errors were corrected by the teacher are not made fully explicit and may have included other strategies as well as telling the word.

Part of the teacher's role would therefore appear to be encouraging and responding to the child's reading but not providing the word which is miscued. However Dean (1976) argues there may be occasions when providing the word is appropriate,

Children need encouragement. When they stumble it is probably best if the helper (a volunteer helper rather than a teacher) simply supplies the word so that they get the feel of a continuous text and develop an interest in what it says.

(Dean 1976; p 57)

However, if teachers are to avoid simply providing the word for a child what strategy might be adopted? Clay (1972) suggests a teacher might best help a child by getting him to regress, that is read back within the passage or sentence for context. This is perhaps responding to what a child may naturally do when attempting to self-correct - returning to the beginning of the sentence.

Another aspect of the teacher's role while hearing children read is to provide feedback (Smith, 1971). Smith suggests that the feedback can be positive, negative, but not in the punitive sense, or silent approval. Importantly the feedback is provided as a means of providing the child with a message as to how successful is his hypothesis testing. Dean (1976) suggests that children need to have success while reading and that the teacher while hearing a child read should quite simply ask herself, what positive reinforcement have I been able to give? The effective

teacher of reading it is suggested uses praise and encouragement (Harris, 1979). Glynn (1980) is more explicit and states that praise should be provided contingent upon (a) correct performance (e.g. sentences or pages read correctly), (b) self-correction of errors, and (c) error correction following a prompt.

There is evidence to suggest that some teachers use the hearing children read interaction to record the children's knowledge of letter sounds (Goodacre, 1969); and that incidental phonic teaching occurs to overcome the individual weaknesses detected when the teacher is listening to reading (DES, 1975). This incidental or functional phonics teaching (Schonell, 1951) has more recently been questioned by Smith (1973); sounding out words letter by letter he suggests is a last resort when readers are already fluent. The teacher's role therefore may include bringing the child's attention to miscues, by feedback, and leaving the child to select an appropriate cueing system.

The asking of questions in order to develop various kinds of comprehension, (DES, 1975), or to estimate the extent of the readers' understanding of what they have read (Goodacre 1976) may also constitute part of the teacher's role when hearing children read.

Adoption of any or all of the above roles within the interaction will be influential in the actual verbal moves that are made by an individual teacher. It may be, however, that the teacher's concept of reading will determine the patterns of teacher behaviour (Bawden and Duffy, 1979).

Views of reading as a precise process i.e. a precise sequential identification, a series of word identifications, or a selective process i.e. selective, tentative, anticipating (Goodman, 1967) would appear to be quite different. These two views are likely to produce differing concepts of roles when hearing children read and thus differing profiles of teacher

behaviour.

2(v) Frequency, time, interruptions and records.

Although there has been a neglect of intensive studies of the language interaction between teacher and child during hearing children read, Gulliver (1979) and Hale (1980) being notable exceptions, a number of the surface features - frequency, time, records and interruptions - have been noted within various studies of infant school practice (Goodacre, 1969 ; DES, 1975; Brandt, 1975; Southgate, Arnold and Johnson, 1978; King, 1978; and Gray 1979).

How frequently should or do teachers hear children read? It has already been noted that it is argued by Hughes (1970) that for a number of purposes children should be heard read as frequently as possible. This view is also put forward by Morris (1974) while Moyle (1968), and Moyle and Moyle (1974) argue that it is best to hear children for short periods daily rather than longer sessions held less frequently. The diary of a teacher in Barnsley in 1937, cited earlier (Harmson and Madge, 1937), indicated that classroom teachers may share this perspective on frequency of hearing children read. The Bullock Report Table 14 suggests that very few infant school children are heard reading less than three times a week but also it indicates that frequency may be determined by the reading ability of the child. Gray (1976) warns that teacher estimates of frequency may have to be revised downwards after classroom observation; nevertheless, he does state elsewhere (Gray, 1979) that the average child was perhaps being heard read four times a week. Bassey (1978) interviewed ^{asked} primary school teachers and/questions about classroom practice. He notes that three-quarters of the infant school teachers attempt to hear children read at least three times a week - Table 59.

Bassey 1978. Table 59 p 75		
What are your Expectations for Each Child in Terms of Reading?		
each number shows the percentage of teachers saying 'Yes'	Younger infants	Older infants
everybody to read aloud to an adult every day	34 %	34 %
everybody to read aloud to an adult at least 3 days in every 5	42 %	44 %
everybody to read aloud to an adult at least 2 days in every 5	8 %	9 %
everybody to read aloud to an adult regularly but no daily requirement	12 %	12 %
reading to be done as appropriate with no regular requirement	4 %	1 %

N (Younger infants) = 239 teachers; N (Older infants) = 264 teachers
 Items in logical order.

There is no information provided by Bassey on the possible frequency differences for children with various reading abilities. However, Bassey does remind his readers that these findings are the results from interviews and therefore may not be an image of classroom practice but rather the teacher's perception of practice or attempts to give the 'right' answer. King (1978) in his observational study of infant classroom practice notes that teachers attempt to hear children, especially beginners, read daily. However, this aim was not always achieved. Arnold (1977), reporting on the Extending Beginning Reading project, states that 1st and 2nd year junior teachers say they hear backward readers every day, average readers two - three times a week and good readers once a week; these figures provide some confirmation to the earlier Bullock Report. It would appear, therefore, that infant school teachers hear children read at a frequency level for most children of three

or more occasions per week and that less able readers are heard more frequently than ablest readers.

How long does the interaction last? Arnold (1977) indicates that the hearing children read interaction is often limited to two or three minutes amongst 1st and 2nd year junior teachers. Similar limitations were also noted by Gray (1979) amongst infant school teachers. King (1978) suggests an even lower figure with an average of 73 seconds being noted during one period of observation. It has been questioned whether less than two minutes individual attention is sufficient to provide for adequate diagnosis and teaching (Boydell, 1975). Goddard (1958) argues that to hear adequately a child and prepare new work for him requires a minimum of three minutes. It is right to be reminded, however, that it is the quality of the tuition which is important rather than the time spent, (Morris, 1966). Where the time spent on the interaction is limited it might be that the teacher's purpose is related to keeping a check on progress, page and book, rather than exploring levels of competence through an awareness of the possibilities of miscue analysis.

An example of a more sustained interaction is provided in Raban, Wells and Nash (1976). Here Susan reads to her teacher for nine minutes and fifty five seconds and there is evidence of the teacher using a variety of verbal moves to question, tell and assist Susan. There is also an indication, in this example, of the teacher spending part of the interaction period helping and organising other children. In general, therefore, it would appear that teachers spend three minutes or less per interaction when hearing children read; however, the specific example noted above would indicate variations from this norm.

Interruptions to the dyadic interaction, as apparent in the study by Raban, Wells and Nash, have also been noted in other studies of classroom

observation. Perhaps because most children are involved with creative activities while teachers are hearing children read (Hunter - Grundin, 1979) it is inevitable that they will seek assistance or the teacher will need to control and organise at various moments. This indicates a highly active role for the teacher (Brandt, 1975). Indeed, Wragg (1979) suggests teachers take classroom decisions in microseconds; however, perhaps the interaction requires the more complete attention of the teacher if it is to be a worthwhile activity. Arnold (1977) states that the interaction is often interrupted by multitudinous requests from other children. Gray (1979) points out that the interaction is frequently interrupted by other distractions. King (1978) is more explicit and indicates that during one hearing children read interaction the teacher tied another child's shoe lace, urged several others on with their work, wrote words in word books, but at no time looked at the book the child was reading from. It may be, therefore, that teachers need to very seriously consider their classroom organisation as a prelude to hearing children read in order to reduce the number of interruptions and therefore improve the quality of the hearing children read interaction.

The frequently expressed importance of adequate record keeping is apparently not met by the actual practice within the classroom.

Only 37% of the teachers of six year olds and 46% of those of nine year olds said they kept records of persistent individual weaknesses that might require additional help within the school.However able the teacher, we do not believe that appropriate measures can be developed to meet varying individual needs unless the characteristics of these are sequentially noted.The important thing is that the recording should be in a form which is helpful to other teachers and can be interpreted expertly and used constructively to advance the child's reading competence.

(DES 1975; pp 254-5)

An earlier survey (Goodacre, 1969) indicated that records kept were in the main quite simple and had limited reference to a child's strengths and weaknesses. Amongst the class-teachers from twenty six schools who

responded to a questionnaire:-

51% kept children's card or book marks on which they recorded the child's progress (i.e. book and page number)

86% kept their own record book noting progress in the scheme and/or reading ability.

22% mentioned recording individual children's reading difficulties (on book, card or in teachers record book)

11% recorded child's knowledge of letter sounds (4 out of 5 teachers reported letter sounds were learned incidentally)

12% mentioned making a monthly or termly check on progress

6% kept wall charts or graphs of pupils' progress in the books of the scheme.

(Goodacre 1969; p 6)

These simple records with an emphasis upon recording progress by page/book of a reading scheme is regarded as unsatisfactory by Mackay, Thompson and Schaub (1970). In particular, they argue, it encourages boasting among the successful and a sense of failure among the slow; it encourages children to become competitive; children become less interested in books and more interested in a desire to complete the reading scheme; and it does not indicate how the page has been read. Views such as these, especially those concerned with the qualitative aspect of how the page has been read, have led to an increasing emphasis on the possible use of miscue analysis (Goodman, 1972) or variations of miscue analysis (Williams, 1970, Hughes, 1973, and Goodacre, 1976). In each case, however, the child's miscues are seen as providing important indicators of reading strengths and weaknesses which can be systematically recorded.

A contrary view is noted elsewhere. Dolch (1961) discusses the need for adequate records to be kept by the teacher of the child's difficulties but says,

We cannot tell, however, how fully anyone follows this advice. Under the pressure of keeping the children going, perhaps the mental notes are the most important.

(Dolch 1961; p 158)

It may be that the competent active teacher is too busy to record her observations but is, nevertheless, processing and mentally noting important aspects of the child's behaviour. Wragg (1978) reports on observations of the teacher who obtained the highest learning gains in the Bennett (1976) study of primary teaching styles. On record keeping the teacher, Margaret Stephens, is reported to say,

It's all in my head. I know where every child is and because I don't write it down I have to keep a close check.

(Wragg 1979; extract in
The Guardian 15.9.78)

Despite calls for more sophisticated forms of record keeping it would appear that many teachers maintain very simple records although they may in addition retain a mental picture of the child's reading strength and weaknesses which is both complex and accurate.

2(vi) Micro analysis of the interaction

Attempts to analyse in greater detail the interaction of hearing children read within the classroom have only recently begun to emerge. Hale (1980) provides a sociological analysis of what she refers to as a routine teaching event. Her study of the interaction within the first two years of Junior School led her to suggest that teachers normally sought word by word accuracy and that hesitations or verbalisations which were not perceived to be correct were likely to bring the teacher's immediate intervention.

She further argues that the approach to reading is closely tied to the nature of the social relationship which exists within the hearing children read interaction,

The spoken exchanges involved in hearing children read were characterised by asymmetrical conversational rights demonstrating a high level of teacher control. Teachers possessed all the rights of correction, interruption and inattention and used these rights to exercise tight control over how reading was 'done'.

(Hale 1980; p 27)

This form of control and direction, Hale argues, can only be accomplished if reading is treated as a process of decoding and it is contrary to what is required within a holistic approach to reading development (reading as a psycholinguistic guessing game). Attempts to develop new approaches to reading may therefore require prior attention to the social processes and the sociological constraints which might hinder such teaching developments.

Gulliver (1979) has also examined, in some detail, the hearing children read interaction. The basis for his work was the belief that in every teacher's work some public theory is represented. These theories would be reflected in teacher behaviour including the hearing children read interaction.

He studied six teachers from two schools; five were infant teachers and one a middle junior teacher. The teachers contributed tapes of themselves listening to children read, in all forty one tapes being submitted for analysis. The tapes were transcribed in full and the teacher verbal moves classified into fifty three types of moves which were later classified under ten functional headings. Subsequent analysis led Gulliver to the view that teachers are consistent in their selections of strategy and that they work to consistent but different assumptions. Some teachers did seek word by word accuracy; others within the hearing children read interaction were able to demonstrate a willingness for the child to explore the text for meaning. Some teachers were therefore working within holistic approaches to reading, a feature not evident in Hale's study.

Gulliver's study provides an interesting micro analysis of a hitherto neglected teaching activity. Although his study attempts to explore the activity within the naturalistic setting of the classroom the actual interactions were not observed and there is no evidence presented of the

frequent interruptions which have been noted elsewhere. As complete transcripts are not provided in the original study (Gulliver, 1977), it is not possible to check on the extent to which the hearing children read recordings were produced in completely normal naturalistic settings. Also, no information is provided on the extent to which each move was utilised within the study, a feature which might serve to highlight teaching strategies.

2(vii) The study of classroom language

The study presented here explores hearing children read and attempts to provide a pedagogical analysis of the teacher verbal moves within the interaction. There already exists various systems for the analysis of language interaction in the classroom. Particularly influential, in the direct and systematic observation of teacher and pupil in the classroom, has been the Flanders Interaction Analysis System (Flanders, 1970). The basic system comprises ten categories- one to seven for teacher talk; eight and nine for pupil talk, and ten silence or confusion. The ten categories can be summarised as:-

1. Teacher accepts feelings.
2. Teacher praises or encourages.
3. Teacher accepts or uses ideas of pupils.
4. Teacher asks questions.
5. Teacher lecturing.
6. Teacher giving directions.
7. Teacher criticising or justifying authority.
8. Pupil response.
9. Pupil initiation.
10. Silence or confusion.

The system which is relatively easy to learn and apply has been used in

many studies of classroom interaction. Its application to various subject areas and age groups produces data which provide information on the milieu of the classroom. The extent of teacher domination in classroom interaction; how much of the teacher's talk is lecturing; and opportunities for pupil initiation are all aspects of the classroom which have been considered using the system. However, Barnes (1969) argues that the studies restrict themselves to statements about whole lessons and do not examine the details of the ebb and flow of activity during the parts of the lesson; more especially, he objects, the actual words used by teachers and pupils are usually not to be found. A key feature, therefore, of Barnes' work is the audio recording of complete lessons and the copious use of actual extracts to clarify and illuminate the verbal interchanges within the classroom. As a means of analysing the recorded language Barnes provides an analytical instrument which serves as a guide to the questions to be asked of this language. This instrument is set out by Barnes under five main headings:-

(a) Teacher's questions

Analyse all questions asked by the teacher into these categories:

1. Factual ('What?' questions)

- (i) naming
- (ii) information

2. Reasoning ('How?' and 'Why?' questions)

- (i) 'closed' reasoning -recalled sequences
- (ii) 'closed' reasoning - not recalled
- (iii) 'open' reasoning
- (iv) observation

3. 'Open' questions not calling for reasoning

4. Social

- (i) control ('Won't you...?' questions)
- (ii) appeal ('Aren't we...?' questions)
- (iii) other

Notes on questions

Naming questions ask pupils to give a name to some phenomenon without requiring them to show insight into its use.

Reasoning questions require pupils to 'think aloud' - to construct, or reconstruct from memory, a logically organized sequence.

Recall questions are concerned with summoning up required knowledge from memory.

Closed questions have only one acceptable answer; whereas to

Open questions a number of different answers would be acceptable. Open questions might be factual in some circumstances: for example, a request for 'any fraction', where the range of choices open to the pupil is unusually wide. (It is necessary to check apparently open questions by examining the teacher's reception of pupils' replies, which may show he will accept only one reply to a question framed in apparently open terms. Such questions might be called 'pseudo-questions'.)

Observation questions are intended to include those questions (about phenomena immediately present to the children) which require them to interpret what they perceive. (There may be difficulty in distinguishing some of these from 'naming questions'.)

Control questions are directed towards imposing the teacher's wishes upon the class.

Appeal questions, which ask pupils to agree, or share an attitude, or remember an experience, are less directive than control questions: that is, it is possible for children to reject them without necessarily giving offence.

(b) Pupils' participation

1. Was all speech initiated by the teacher? Note any exchanges initiated by pupils.
 - (i) If these were initiated by questions, were they 'What?', 'How?' or 'Why?' questions? Where they directed towards the material studied or towards performing the given tasks?
 - (ii) If they were unsolicited statements or comments, how did the teacher deal with them?
2. Were pupils required to express personal responses
 - (i) of perception?
 - (ii) of feeling and attitude?
3. How large a part did pupils take in the lesson? Were any silent throughout? How large a proportion took a continuous part in discussion?
4. What did pupils' contributions show of their success in following the lesson?
5. How did the teacher deal with inappropriate contributions?

(c) The language of instruction

1. Did the teacher use a linguistic register specific to his subject? Find examples of vocabulary and structures characteristic of the register.
2. Did any pupils attempt to use this register? Was it expected of them?
3. What did the teacher do to mediate between the language and experience of his pupils and the language and concepts of the subject?
4. Did the teacher use forms of language which, though not specific to his subject, might be outside the range of eleven-year-olds? Find examples, if any.

(d) Social relationships

1. How did the relationship between teacher and pupils show itself in language?
2. Were there differences between the language of instruction and the language of relationships? Was the language of relationships intimate or formal? Did it vary during the lesson?

(e) Language and other media

1. Was language used for any tasks that might have been done better by other means (e.g. pictures, practical tasks, demonstrations)?
2. Were pupils expected to verbalize any non-verbal tasks they engaged in?

(Barnes 1969; pp 17-19)

Although the first two headings have similarities with Flanders' system the subsequent analysis can, by the use of examples, provide greater detail of classroom language. Additionally, the questions about the language of instruction does raise issues unexplored by Flanders type studies.

Delamont and Hamilton (1976) provide a more general critique of Flanders' approach and of other systems of interaction analysis, they argue the case for 'anthropological' observation of classroom life. The research thus uses a holistic framework to make sense of the complexities of the classroom.

Recordings, observational notes and interviews all contribute to the picture of the classroom during which new categories of description can be developed.

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) recognise the illuminating contribution of Barnes and his detailed observations of teacher's questions and their effect on pupil's thinking and participation. However, while accepting the value of Barnes's work, Sinclair and Coulthard put forward their descriptive system which was designed to comprehensively account for all the utterances within the classroom. Barnes does not necessarily analyse all the language in the classroom but concentrates upon those aspects which he finds to be interesting and relevant. Sinclair and Coulthard's system includes five ranks: lesson, transaction, exchange, move, following Bellack et al (1966) and acts. There are two major classes of exchange: boundary and teaching.

A boundary exchange is realised by framing and focusing moves. A frame, often denoted by the words "right", "okay", "well", "now", and "good", is used to indicate a boundary. Very frequently a teacher will follow such a frame with a focus which tells the pupil what the transaction is going to be about. The teaching exchange is realised by opening, answering and follow-up moves. A frequent format in a teaching exchange is for the teacher to ask a question, the pupil to answer it and the teacher to provide evaluative feedback. At other times the teacher may inform the pupils of some fact. This teaching exchange does not require a pupil response, although it may occasionally occur. The moves are made up of acts, the unit at the lowest rank of discourse. The twenty two acts which Sinclair and Coulthard identify are marker, starter, elicitation, check, directive, informative, prompt, clue, cue, bid, nomination, acknowledge, reply, react, comment, accept, evaluate, silent, stress, metastatement, conclusion, loop and aside. These acts provide the means

by which each element of classroom language can be classified. This system has been utilised to analyse the language within the classroom and examples are provided in Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) which indicate how the totality of the classroom language can be comprehensively described. Subsequently, Sinclair and Coulthard suggest that initial analysis of classroom language demonstrates how linguistic and social behaviour are linked. Teachers of young children are not only teaching a subject, they are also providing rules for making appropriate contributions to the discourse.

The ideas and/analytic instruments indicated above are suggested to be of general value in the study of classroom language, i.e. they have application across the age ranges of schools and colleges. The emphasis in each, however, is different ranging from the linguistical emphasis of Sinclair and Coulthard to affective and cognitive aspects of pedagogy in Flanders' work. There are, in addition, studies which have concentrated upon the primary school age range and which have utilised various instruments to aid the analysis of teacher-child interaction at this age level.

Resnick (1972) developed a systematic observation instrument for use within informal infant classrooms. The categories for observation of teacher behaviour were:-

- Q
m A question from the teacher directed to one or more children. Subscripts indicate content: m: = "management" (What kind of paper do you want? When do you want to finish? Where is the tape?)
- Q
p p = "personal". (Did you go with your brother? Did your mother like it? Whose room is being painted?)
- Q
s s = "substantive" (How many over here will balance these? Which word says "little"? What letter is missing?)
- Wh Teacher asks child 'What' he is going to do.
-

D
m A direction to the child to do something or work on a particular task. Subscripts have same meaning as for Q-code.

D
p

D
s

I
m Teacher gives information to child. Subscripts have same meaning as for Q-code.

I
p

I
s

Pr Teacher praises child or child's work.

N Negative statement to child (That isn't good. Stop that.)

W Teacher writes or spells a word for child (when child is writing); or teacher reads a word for child when child is reading.

H Teacher helps child (implies physical aid, as in crafts, art, moving furniture, finding things, etc.).

Wr Teacher writes from child's dictation.

Rd Teacher reads story to child.

P+ Teacher gives permission to child.

NP Teacher does not grant permission when child asks.

Del Teacher asks child to wait.

R Unclassifiable response.

A Teacher speaks to another adult.

Utilising this instrument Resnick was able to clarify how the instructional and management functions are met in an open classroom. The importance of extended interactions (five or more remarks to a child or group) in providing the major opportunity of direct instruction and a willingness to interrupt these interactions to respond to other children before returning to the extended interaction were particularly noted.

Brandt(1975) also sought to explore the instructional process and learning activities in an informal British infant school. However, Brandt considered the Resnick study as being limited in that it concentrated upon teacher behaviour. His study therefore used a modified PROSE (Personal Record of School Experience) observational instrument to collect data on primary school pupils and their contact with adults, peers and materials as well as teacher behaviour. However, the resulting information on teacher behaviour is, consequently, more restricted. The recording sheet for behaviour categories records adult behaviour during child-adult contacts, under seven descriptors:-

- POS giving praise or positive attention
- PRM giving child permission or choice
- SHTL showing or telling something
- LSPUW listening, questioning or watching
- DO4 doing something for child
- CNTR controlling child or group
- NEG indicating disapproval

Therefore results also emphasise the teacher's role in terms of the extent of time involved in listening to children and raising questions about their activities and the management of the classroom.

A report by Galton, Simon and Croll (1980) from the ORACLE (Observational Research and Classroom Learning Evaluation) project also utilised a

modified PROSE together with a Teacher Record. This Teacher Record was used to record the various kind of contact in which the teacher engaged with her pupils. The observation categories of the Teacher Record were contained under three main headings; questions; statements; and silence. Under each main heading sub-categories were noted. Thus questions were categorised into those concerned with recalling facts; offering ideas, solutions (closed); offering ideas, solutions (open); referring to task supervision; and referring to routine matter. The observer, when coding this instrument, was required to determine the type of conversation or the nature of the silent interaction taking place. Listening to a pupil reading aloud was regarded as a silent interaction-reading, and therefore indicates a quite different view of the teacher's role within such an interaction from that adopted in this study.

A return to the system of interaction analysis developed by Resnick, with its emphasis upon teacher behaviour, is apparent in the work of Bassey and Hatch (1979). However, in order to stress the professionalism of the teacher, Bassey and Hatch developed the Resnick system for use by the classroom teacher in order that she might record her utterances, analyse them and subsequently evaluate her own effectiveness.

Part of the development and simplification of the Resnick system involved including all questions under one category. 'Personal' and 'substantive' utterances, they argued, are both of importance in terms of a child's educational development so separation is unnecessary, and very few 'management' category utterances were evident. A similar simplification was applied to directions and information. The final list of seven categories for the analysis of teacher's utterances put forward by Bassey and Hatch were:-

- Q Teacher asks a question
- D Teacher gives a direction
- I Teacher gives some information
- E Teacher gives encouragement
- C Teacher checks undesirable behaviour or performance
- P Teacher gives, or declines to give, permission for a child to do something.
- X Teacher says something which is not classifiable under any of the above headings.

On the basis of their study of eleven teachers, who provided seventeen recordings of thirty minutes each, Bassey and Hatch stress the importance of long interactions (four or more utterances) as significant teaching events. Short interactions (three or fewer utterances) were considered to serve primarily the functions of keeping individuals in the class busy. However, it is essentially as a self evaluation instrument that Bassey and Hatch put forward their system of seven categories. In order to assist this self-evaluation a series of questions is also provided for the teacher to answer herself as an autonomous professional (in the terminology of Bassey and Hatch).

These primary school studies of teacher behaviour may be more specifically orientated towards the age group under consideration in this study. However, in concentrating upon the totality of teacher behaviour they remain insufficiently specific to account for the variations in teacher utterances during hearing children read interactions. A survey of British observation systems would indicate that a suitable system for the purposes of this study is not available (Galton, 1979). Indeed Galton suggests that,

.....it is likely that the number of instruments will increase even more rapidly since each fresh research tends to have its own special requirements which cannot be met by the existing systems.

However, two recent studies have looked more closely at hearing children read. Gulliver (1979) examined forty one recordings submitted by six teachers and suggested that teacher moves could be classified under ten general functions which relate to underlying views of the reading process of learning. These ten functions might be summarised as:-

- | | | |
|--------|------------------------------------|---|
| (i) | Establishing literal meaning | Teachers employ many strategies to ensure that pupils see reading as a meaning-getting process. |
| (ii) | Encouraging inference | Children may be asked to go beyond the information given. |
| (iii) | Eliciting criticism | Teachers encourage pupils to adopt a critical attitude towards the author's meaning and their expression. |
| (iv) | Emphasising tentativeness | Teachers may encourage a tentative approach to reading. |
| (v) | Attending to language and meaning | Teachers may emphasize the semantic and syntactic aspects of reading. |
| (vi) | Explaining | Teacher offers explanations to pupils. |
| (vii) | Providing conditions for induction | Teachers may facilitate the inference of rules of general statements from particular instances. |
| (viii) | Attending to graphic information | Teachers may direct attention solely to graphic information. |
| (ix) | Demanding accurate recoding | Teachers may demand accurate reading. |
| (x) | Conditioning | Errors are followed by immediate feedback. |

However, analysis of an interaction using this system is time-consuming and, indeed, Gulliver himself puts forward an alternative impressionistic approach which is suited to comparative analysis. Further criticisms of the system for analysis are that there is no category for teacher utterances made to children other than the child reading; and some of the functional moves are highly inferential and alternative meanings can be put forward. For example, on the latter point, Gulliver provides an example of attending to language and meaning -

However, phonics was not always used to help a child read a word which created a problem. On many occasions words were immediately supplied by the teacher. This repair strategy was used by all the teachers, at some time or other, usually when the word might have been difficult to sound out. The teacher also provided reinforcement after a child successfully sounded out a word and/or completed his reading satisfactorily. The reinforcement at the end of the read might involve giving a star for the child to put on his reading card.

The Hale study does provide, therefore, certain categories of teacher moves: comprehension, phonics, providing the word and reinforcement which are pedagogical rather than sociological. These categories might, therefore, apply to this study which is concerned with a pedagogical analysis of the hearing children read interaction.

3. Methodology.

The essential purpose of this study was to illuminate various aspects of the hearing children read interaction and, in particular, to clarify the teacher's verbal behaviour within such interactions. In order to achieve this it was considered that two research techniques might be employed. Firstly, a survey of teacher's views on frequency, timing, purpose, role and record keeping could be explored through the use of a questionnaire. Secondly, observation and recording of hearing children read interactions, together with subsequent teacher interviews, might clarify the realities of this classroom activity.

Details of the development of the questionnaire and its use within a small scale survey, together with the results, are provided in Chapter four. It is perhaps sufficient at this point to indicate that the findings from the survey were somewhat limited. Although some interesting comments were obtained from the teachers, and a number of points were clarified, the questions failed to explore in depth the hearing children read interaction, but then it has been suggested that this is a typical disadvantage of a survey (Forsyth and Wood, 1974). Consequently the main emphasis in this study was centred upon the classroom observation and recording of hearing children read.

As a first step to gaining access to classrooms the Divisional Education Officer of a large Urban District Council in S.E. England was approached. Details of the nature of the study were provided and permission sought to carry out this work in selected classrooms. The Divisional Education Officer expressed his interest in the project and gave permission for the study to take place subject only to each headteacher being willing to allow the research to be carried out in her school.

Three randomly selected infant/primary schools were finally utilised with two infant class teachers from each of the schools providing recordings and being observed at work.

The six teachers from the three schools are designated throughout this study by letters A, B, C, D, E and F. These letters signify nothing more than the order in which they were observed and recordings taken. A minimum of twenty four recordings with each teacher were obtained. In some instances a larger number of interactions was recorded, the precise number being dependent upon the flow of a morning's activities. Recording only ceased at an appropriate moment which would cause minimal disruption to the classroom activities. These details of teachers and recordings are provided in Table 1.

TABLE 1			
Teacher and recording details for hearing children read.			
School	Teacher	No. of recordings	No. of visits to obtain recordings
1	A	30	5
	B	27	2
2	C	26	4
	D	24	3
3	E	25	4
	F	24	5

Transcripts which are provided within this study are coded by the teacher letter and recording number. A30 would, therefore, be the transcript from teacher A which was the 30th, and, therefore, the last hearing children read which was recorded in her classroom.

It was decided that this study would concentrate upon infant classes excluding the reception class. Although children might be heard reading in a reception class there are numerous other pre reading and reading activities which might take precedence over hearing children read. Therefore, using classes of middle and top infants might be more appropriate. It would have been possible to use junior classes for the study as there are other studies which have indicated that hearing children read is an integral part of junior classroom organisation (Morris, 1966; and Southgate, Arnold and Johnson, 1978). Indeed Hale (1980) bases her sociological study of hearing children read on 1st and 2nd year junior classes. However, the evidence provided within Table 14 of The Bullock Report would suggest that hearing children read plays a less important role in junior classes, 9 year olds, than in infant classes, 6 year olds. Therefore, a decision was made to concentrate on classes of 6 year olds and 7 year olds where, from the evidence of The Bullock Report and the views of the headteachers, hearing children read was likely to be an important aspect of classroom activity. In none of the schools were the classes vertically grouped.

A preliminary visit to each school provided the opportunity to discuss with each headteacher the nature of the study. In these discussions an emphasis upon gaining some insight into the reality of a daily classroom activity was stressed.

In each instance, after the preliminary visit to the school and discussion with the headteacher, it was the headteacher who approached the classroom teachers to indicate the nature of the research project and to discuss with them their willingness or otherwise to participate. None of the classroom teachers refused to take part, although later many of them did admit to feeling apprehensive about having someone in their room watching and recording their teaching. This apprehension was partly dispelled, it

seemed, by two factors. Firstly, the researcher was seen to be another teacher with substantial experience of primary classroom teaching and might, therefore, be expected to have a certain amount of empathy with the teacher being observed. Secondly, the research topic itself was seen by the teachers to be of relevance to their work rather than their initial perception of a research project as having only distant relevance to the needs of teachers.

After a class teacher had agreed to take part in the study another visit to the school by the writer/researcher was arranged. During this visit most of the time would be spent in the classroom observing the activities and organisation within the room and taking whatever opportunity occurred to discuss with the class teacher the nature and purpose of future visits. An ethical problem did emerge at this stage. Already it seemed apparent that the essential feature of the research was the behaviour of the teacher during hearing children read and, in particular, the teacher verbal moves. However, it was felt that to emphasise this factor might have distorted subsequent recordings with the teacher concentrating on her verbal responses to a child's reading. Therefore, during discussions the emphasis was placed upon the study being concerned with the totality of hearing children read in general terms. What happens during hearing children read in normal classrooms? Where do the children read? For how long do they read? What sort of miscues/errors do they make? What opportunities occur for teaching during the interaction? What records are kept? Although the teacher's role was, therefore, stated to be part of the study it was not emphasised. It was hoped that this approach might best serve the needs of the research and at the same time be acceptable behaviour with a professional colleague. Later discussions with the participating teachers indicated that none of them felt they had been given the wrong impression of the study. Furthermore,

the consensus was that the research had been of benefit to them as they were now considering afresh the various aspects of hearing children read including their own behaviour within the interaction.

During the initial visit to the classroom it was agreed where the cassette recorder would be placed. In all cases this was on the teacher's desk which is where the six teachers indicated the interaction would take place. Also a chair was placed near the teacher's desk so that additional observations could be made. At an appropriate moment on this initial visit recordings were made of the teacher hearing children read. However, these recordings were not utilised for purposes of analysis. They were instead designed to provide a pilot run for teacher, children and researcher partly to put everyone at ease and partly to check on audibility of the recordings. A feature of this pilot run was how quickly the children accepted into the classroom another adult and cassette recorder. They continued to work and play, behave and misbehave in the manner which one might expect from a group of young children. The teacher usually took a little longer to adjust, appearing and later admitting to feeling somewhat nervous. However, in a busy infant classroom the multifarious activities soon demand a teacher's complete attention and the presence of another adult comes to be ignored.

Towards the end of this initial visit to the classroom the teacher was asked if she could provide a class list for the observer so that the children's names would be easily recognised during the interactions. Also the teacher was asked to indicate whether the child was perceived by the teacher to be an able, average or weak reader within the context of the whole class. The assessment of the child by the teacher was not in terms of a standardised score; indeed it is unlikely that the younger children would have been tested. However, it was felt that the

teacher's subjective assessment of a child's present reading progress might influence the teacher's expectations of and response to a given child. The information might also be useful in making comparisons with The Bullock Report survey.

Throughout the discussion with the class teacher it was emphasised that the purpose of the research project was to find out more about a normal classroom activity. This could only occur by recording and observing within a naturalistic setting and with events occurring normally.

Therefore, it was stressed that the teacher should control who read, where the reading took place, when the interaction occurred and for how long it lasted. Other events which might interrupt the hearing children read activity should be responded to in the usual fashion. Thus if the class normally leave the room to watch a television programme in mid-morning then this obviously must continue. The observer would remain with the class throughout most of the morning and record whatever hearing children read interactions took place. As preliminary visits with both the headteacher and class teacher, as well as a pilot run of recording within the classroom, had taken place, it was hoped that the actual recording and observation of the main study would proceed without major problems. In general this was the case with the helpful attitude of the teachers being instrumental in ensuring that events went smoothly for the recording and observing and it appeared quite naturally for the children in the class. Perhaps inevitably many of the children saw the observer as another adult who might button their coats, admire their paintings, help with spellings, arbitrate in disputes or indeed hear them read. In the main the observer remained somewhat distant from the children in order not to over-influence events particularly when children were reading to their teacher. However, at times it was impossible not to respond to the children, as to have been totally unresponsive might have created worries for these very young children.

At the end of each recording session the teacher was interviewed. Within this interview questions were raised which sought to clarify the observations of the interactions. These questions, because they were asked before transcribing the recordings, were of a general nature concerned with such issues as frequency, recording, physical aspects and purposes. The responses did, however, assist in providing a dual perspective and, therefore, a more complete picture of hearing children read. It is recognised, however, that this attempt to develop a shared perspective of a classroom event falls somewhat short of what has been achieved in other studies, eg. Smith and Geoffrey (1968). Smith the investigator worked with Geoffrey the classroom teacher daily for a complete semester in an attempt to understand the complexities of the classroom. This might indicate another possible approach to the study of hearing children read. However, the research reported here did attempt to provide a holistic approach to a classroom activity (Delamont and Hamilton, 1976). Recordings, observations and interviews all contributed to the subsequent analysis.

The one hundred and fifty six recordings which were obtained from the six teachers were subsequently transcribed in full. This task was inevitably very time consuming but was considered by the writer to be essential in order to provide an analysis of all the utterances within these interactions. The study might, therefore, be seen to be following the pattern set by Barnes (1969), of being able to provide detailed quotations of actual words used by both teachers and pupils, rather than the analysis of classroom interaction stemming from the work of Flanders (1970), which would suggest a list of pre-specified categories to be checked on a regular time basis but which would lose the raw data of actual verbal behaviour.

The examples from the transcriptions which are provided throughout this study are presented in a format which shows the reading from the book in the right hand column and the comments by the teacher and less usually by the child in the left hand column. Comments made by children other than the child reading have not been transcribed, indeed many of these comments were difficult if not impossible to decipher. However, any response by the teacher is indicated so that all the utterances by the teacher and the child reading during the interaction are provided. An example from part of a transcript, therefore, would be:-

F9

Drew		Come - Come here <u>Rip</u> said Come here Rip, said Roger.
Teacher	(aside)	Well you use it, eh, make the triangle into something.
Drew	(reads on)	Rip came (miscues come) here!
Teacher		Rip
Drew		came (miscues come) here!
Teacher		Rip didn't actually came. He hasn't actually came to Roger. Roger's still calling him, isn't he? So it isn't Rip came here. It's Rip come here!
Drew		Rip come here! Mrs Red hat said - /h/ /a/ /d/ - had a big //

Notes:

- | | | |
|---|---------------------|---|
| 1 | (aside) | : comment by teacher to another child |
| 2 | (reads on) | : reads on without pause |
| 3 | Come - Come | : - indicates repetition or reconsideration of a word |
| 4 | <u>Rip</u> | : word omitted |
| 5 | Came (miscues come) | : indicates word uttered and (word in text) |
| 6 | /h/ /a/ /d/ | : child is sounding out the letters of the word |
| 7 | a big // | : child hesitates after big |

indicated, it was due to the manner in which the observer was perceived by the class teacher, ie. an ex-primary school teacher who might be expected to understand and empathise with the classroom teacher. The observer was able to communicate with the classroom teacher about classroom practice which indicated that he was witnessing again similar events and occurrences which previously he had been a full party to (Woods 1976). Also, however, it might have been related to the fact that it was infant classrooms which were being observed. Although a few children had to demonstrate their prowess to the observer the majority appeared to remain with their own interests and tasks. Similarly the teacher in responding to the many demands upon her attention and time appeared to forget about the other adult in the room. It cannot of course be argued that the presence of the observer in the room was non-influential on the events of the classroom and particularly the hearing children read interaction but the problem did appear to be less in reality than it had appeared it might be prior to the beginning of the study.

The transcription of the recordings seemed likely to create a problem in that it would take considerable time. It was estimated that at least ten minutes, and frequently more, were required to transcribe each minute of the recordings. However, there would appear to be no immediate solution to this problem. If the actual words uttered by both teacher and child are considered to be of importance, and in this study they were, then transcription has to be a necessary part of the research.

Two aspects of hearing children read were missed in this study, the non-verbal behaviour of the teacher and verbal and/or non-verbal behaviour of the children which led to an aside by the teacher. Certain non verbal aspects of the interaction were observed and are commented upon elsewhere, Chapter eight, in this study. Thus the positioning of teacher, child and book, the use of a card under the line being read or finger pointing

to words by the child, frequency, time and recording were all observed and noted. However, the movements towards or away from the reader, the facial gestures and finger pointing of the teacher were all lost. In particular the finger pointing by the teacher may have been especially important. Where does the finger point? Does the finger point to the first letter(s) and, therefore, suggest to the child that he should use his phonic knowledge to cue the word? Does the finger point to a word which has been miscued and does this signify to the child that information is being provided or is it in this case a form of negative feedback? Perhaps the finger points to the beginning of the sentence in which a miscue occurred and thus signifies to the child that syntactic and/or semantic cueing systems will assist in cueing the previously miscued word? Each of these questions raise the query as to what a teacher's finger pointing, during hearing children read, may convey to the child reading. This would be of particular importance if it was seen to be a dominant feature of the interaction. Although in this study it was evident from time to time there was no indication of its becoming a more major feature than the frequent verbal moves of the teacher. Nevertheless, it is an aspect of hearing children read which might be followed up in another research project either by positioning the observer closer to the interaction in an attempt to collect the data or by the use of a television camera. However, the use of the television camera might raise additional questions about people and equipment influencing the events they were attempting to record.

It has already been indicated that although all the teacher utterances have been transcribed, including those asides, ie. utterances directed towards a child or children other than the child reading, the comments made by others which might have led to the teacher aside have not been transcribed. In many cases this would not have been possible as the

comments were either undecipherable or were uttered completely out of range of the tape recorder. It is unlikely that loss of this data is crucial to this particular study. However, it might be of interest, in a study concerned with classroom organisation, to explore the reasons why some teachers have so many asides during their interactions of hearing children read while other teachers are able to restrict what might be regarded as interruptions to the dyadic interaction. Is the frequency of asides determined by the teacher's perspective of the importance of hearing children; the activities which other children are engaged upon; the type of relationship which the teacher has with her pupils; a combination of these factors; or perhaps some other factor?

It might be argued that most of the problems already indicated might be resolved,

through the persistent observation and shared analysis of the events as they happen.

(Robinson 1974; p263)

The research outlined in this report, at least in part, attempted to clarify and analyse hearing children read with what might be regarded as persistent observation and to some extent shared analysis. However, it may be that a more extensive attachment to one class might have led to a greater shared perspective of the event between researcher, teacher and child. Churchill (1978) indicates that analysing a transcript and detecting within that transcript a question does not mean that the hearer detected a question, nor, indeed it should be added, that the apparent questioner asked a question. Primmer (1979) argues that it is fundamental to learning that the teacher and learner have a reciprocity of perspective, a researcher may need to share that perspective if the reality of the classroom is to be fully explored. Although this study was very much classroom based and might be regarded as being of the anthropological tradition (Delamont and Hamilton, 1976), a more

prolonged period in a single classroom may have been equally illuminating or more so. In particular, the transcriptions could have been explored in greater detail by both teacher and researcher which may have led to somewhat different interpretations of the verbal moves. It would also, in retrospect, have been interesting to have obtained more information and views from the children themselves. However, the problems associated with obtaining meaningful and penetrating analyses of events from children six and seven years of age might thwart such an ambition.

4. Survey.

The Bullock Committee (D.E.S. 1975) faced by considerable amounts of subjective comment on practices then current in the teaching of English decided to acquire as much objective information as possible. In order to achieve this aim a questionnaire was designed which was subsequently sent to 1601 primary schools of which 1415 responded. The 88% response rate was indicative, the report argued, of the interest aroused by the inquiry.

The areas considered by the questionnaire for primary schools attempted to cover a wide range of aspects about the organisation, staffing and resources of the school in relation to the teaching of English as well as the nature and extent of the teaching itself. The school section had questions related to teacher numbers and responsibilities, school affiliations to e.g. United Kingdom Reading Association, use of a teachers' centre, audio-visual aids available, medium and materials, testing and remedial provision. The class section for teachers of 6 year olds or 9 year olds included questions on the teacher-experience and qualifications, time spent on all aspects of English work, ways of teaching reading including the number of times children were heard reading during the course of a week, the use of graded reading schemes, availability of books, record keeping and the children's written work.

Hearing children read was, therefore, surveyed for the Bullock Committee but only within the context of many other aspects of the teaching of English and the question was restricted to ascertaining the frequency with which children of various attainment levels were heard reading. It can be argued, therefore, that no more than the surface features of the interaction were surveyed. In particular Roberts (1975) is critical of the survey for not providing any insights into the purposes for which

teachers listen to children reading. The questionnaire which was developed for this study, therefore, sought to extend the objective information provided by the Bullock Report to include questions about the teachers' purpose for hearing children read and, in addition, question the teachers about their role in the interaction, the length of time of the interaction and the criteria for terminating the interaction. It was hoped that by including these questions further insights into a normal classroom activity would be obtained.

In designing the questionnaire the advice contained within Evans (1968) was utilised as a guide:-

- 1 Define clearly the purpose of the questionnaire.
 - 2 Decide exactly what information is required.
 - 3 Analyse it into its component parts.
 - 4 Frame a series of questions designed to elicit it.
- The only qualifications needed for success are the ability to think clearly and to ask plain questions in simple unambiguous terms.

(Evans 1968; p 66)

However, this clear advice does perhaps suggest that questionnaire development is rather more simple than the experience of developing such an instrument would indicate. Woods (1976), for instance, raises the relevant query about researchers asking questions derived from their own milieu which creates the artificial situation of the teacher casting about in his own mind to answer in the similar terms. Further advice on the wording of questions, general layout and the order of questions was noted from Oppenheim (1966). Additionally the Bullock Report with its one question on frequency of hearing ablest, average and weakest readers suggested a starting point for this survey of hearing children read.

As an introduction to the questionnaire a short letter was prepared in the hope of securing the goodwill of the recipients. As a recognition of the fact that primary class teachers are very busy the letter was kept relatively short. A friendly approach to a professional colleague was

adopted which emphasised the importance of the class teacher as a means of extending our knowledge of an important teaching activity. An indication that their co-operation would be appreciated and an expression of gratitude for their help was also included. A copy of the letter which prefaced the questionnaire is provided below:-

Dear Colleague,

The Bullock Report attempted a general survey of classroom practice related to reading. Within this survey the practice of 'hearing children read' was evaluated by a question related to the number of occasions on which a child normally reads to a teacher during a week. The attached questionnaire has been prepared in an attempt to extend our present knowledge of what is involved in hearing a child read.

The research is directly related to classroom practice and it is, therefore, only you, the practitioner who can help. The many demands made upon primary school teachers are naturally recognised. However, I hope you will feel that the time necessary for filling out this questionnaire is not too demanding.

Thank you for your help and co-operation.

Yours sincerely,

Robin Campbell

The questions which were included in the questionnaire are indicated below. They were originally drafted by the writer then rewritten with minor amendments after a discussion with a group of primary school teachers on an in-service training course had shown up any possible ambiguities, inappropriate use of jargon and adequate spacing for responses. The first question was preceded by a statement to indicate that if the respondent wished to make any additional comment a line had been left after each question for that purpose. It was recognised that this might lead to an avalanche of open ended responses which would be difficult to collate and quantify. However, equally it might provide some interesting and insightful responses which would lead to a closer appraisal of reality as perceived by the teachers.

The first question asked the teachers about the frequency of hearing children read. It was similar to the question in the Bullock survey although on the advice of teachers two extra categories were added i) more than daily and ii) not at all. This question was inserted first as it demonstrated the link of the questionnaire with the Bullock survey and indicated that report, as did the letter, as the starting point for this study.

1 How often do the following children in the class normally read aloud to a teacher during a week?

Please tick appropriate boxes

- a) the ablest reader in the class?
- b) the average reader in the class?
- c) the weakest reader in the class?

More than daily	Daily	3 or 4 times a week	1 or 2 times a week	Less often	Not at all

Comment



Question two asked the teacher to indicate the reasons for deciding that a child had read sufficiently in any one session. It was thought that differences might be evident between teachers who ritually heard one page from each child and others who utilised a more diagnostic approach in which the length of a read might be determined by the ease with which the child was reading. The teachers were again asked to indicate their response for readers of differing attainments.

2 What criteria do you utilise in deciding that a child has read sufficient to you in any one session?

a) the ablest reader in the class? _____



b) the average reader in the class? _____



c) the weakest reader in the class? _____

Comment

The third question required the teacher to estimate the amount of time that she spent hearing children, at the three levels of attainment, read.

3 When you hear children read, what would you estimate is the amount of time that you spend with

a) the ablest reader in the class? _____

b) the average reader in the class? _____

c) the weakest reader in the class? _____

Comment

These first three questions were contained on the first page of the questionnaire and provided what were considered to be a relatively simple and practice-related lead in to the fourth question which asked about the purposes in hearing children read. Ascertaining the purposes behind a teacher's action in hearing children read would partly resolve the criticism made by Roberts (1975) of the Bullock survey and also might indicate the range of behaviour to be expected of the teacher during the actual interaction, e.g. if a teacher suggests one purpose to be incidental phonics teaching then one might reasonably expect that teacher to spend some of her time, while hearing children read, in the teaching of phonics. An assumption is being made here that there will be some congruence between the teachers' actions and their stated view.

4 What is your purpose in hearing children read? If you have a number of purposes please state each.

a) The ablest reader in the class?

Most important purpose _____

Next most important purpose _____

" " " " _____

" " " " _____

" " " " _____

b) the average reader in the class?

Most important purpose _____

Next most important purpose _____

" " " " _____

" " " " _____

" " " " _____

" " " " _____

c) the weakest reader in the class?

Most important purpose _____

Next most important purpose _____

" " " " _____

" " " " _____

" " " " _____

Comment

The fifth and sixth questions were related to the role of the teacher during the interaction. However, again on the advice and insistence of teachers, the word job rather than role was utilised. Possibly this is a case of what Woods (1976) was referring to as a researcher asking a question derived from his own milieu which might create an artificial response from the respondent.

5 What do you think is your job when you hear children read?

Comment

6 How did you develop these views of your job given in 5?

Comment

The final questions related to hearing children read were two questions about the type of records which were kept by the teachers and the use which was made of such records. Information on record keeping has been provided by the Bullock Report and earlier by Goodacre (1969); the results from these two questions would, therefore, provide a corpus of data for comparison with these earlier works.

7 What records, if any, do you make when you hear children read?

Comment

8 How do you use any records you make?

Comment

The last page of the questionnaire included a number of questions about the teacher, length of service, initial training and supplementary long courses and also about her class; ages of the children, number in the class and form of organisation.

A feature of the questionnaire is that only question one limits the possible responses to the question. All the other questions are open-ended. Although it would have been possible to have developed a questionnaire with a range of responses provided, the outcome might well have been to suggest and prescribe the responses. The benefits to be gained from an open-ended questionnaire of the teacher's own words and responses drawn from her own perception of events was considered to be worthwhile despite the awareness that quantifying the responses would be difficult.

The questionnaire was distributed to twenty five teachers. They were the colleagues of a group of teachers who were involved on an in-service training course. In all seventeen teachers provided responses to all the items of the questionnaire, a return rate of 68%. The results, which are provided below, are based on an analysis of these limited numbers.

1 How often do the following children in the class normally read aloud to a teacher during a week.

	More than daily	Daily	3/4 times a week	1/2 times a week	Less often	Not at all
Ablest reader	-	17.6(17)	47.1(36)	35.3(41)	(6)	-
Average reader	-	23.5(31)	67.4(54)	11.8(15)	-	-
Weakest reader	11.8	52.9(72)	35.3(26)	(2)	-	-

% for 17 infant classes
(%)Bullock Report - 6 yr old survey

The category of 'more than daily' would appear to be a useful addition to the Bullock question as it further discriminates the extent to which the weakest readers are heard reading. However, in the main, the trend towards hearing children of gradually increasing attainment with less and less frequency is evident both in this small study and in the more major Bullock survey. The comment section does indicate that the neat categorisation and numerical counts reveal but also hide many important features of reality.

"For the ablest readers in my class I use anyone who is willing to lend an ear - parents, welfare help, etc."

Perhaps, therefore, able readers are being heard as a ritualised event as well as less frequently than weaker readers.

The lack of congruence between aspiration and reality is recognised. A teacher who indicated that the aim was to hear everyone daily added the comment,

"This is sometimes impossible, but weakest always heard daily."

Yet another teacher with a similar aim suggested that she heard her ablest readers for apparently non-pedagogical reasons (affective ? parent-teacher relationships ? administrative convenience ?)

"My three ablest don't need it every day but with only three it is not worth causing complications."

Perhaps appropriately, one teacher took the opportunity provided by the comment section to remind the researcher that hearing children read is not enough (Harrow, 1979), and that reading is part of the classroom in many other ways.

"The ticks refer to child reading from reading book only. Classroom is reading environment, all children are reading daily in purposeful ways apart from reading scheme."

2 What criteria do you utilise in deciding that a child has read sufficient to you in any one session ?

Two main criteria are apparent in the responses of the seventeen teachers. Firstly, they attempt to allow children to read through to a logical stopping place. In many instances, and given the nature of books from reading schemes, this means reading through to the end of a page. Many of the teachers noted that this usually meant that the ablest readers read more pages than the slower reading weakest readers. Secondly, the factor of time determined how much reading a child would complete in any one session. The conflicting demands upon the teacher and the aim of interacting with many different children must inevitably influence her actions.

"Limited time and no teaching help usually determine amount most children read to me from book."

This combination of pages and time criteria are brought together in a succinct manner by one teacher who indicated that for all children,

"The time factor must obviously be taken into account here but one aims to reach the end of the page or pages depending upon how closely written the text is."

A third criteria mentioned by a minority of teachers relates to the capacity of the child and the manner in which he is reading.

"He (the weakest reader) would read no more than two pages; less if he showed signs of weariness."

This reported weariness is perhaps manifested by,

"Loss of concentration."

However, another teacher indicated more clearly that it is the level of reading, perhaps as suggested by Betts (1946), and in particular the number of errors being made which determines the length of the read.

"As soon as he began to have difficulty in mastery of several words."

This third criteria was indicated by seven teachers in relation to the weakest readers but only by one teacher in the case of the ablest readers. The overall impression gained from the replies was that teachers used time and completion of page(s) as the main determining criteria for completing an interaction but that in the case of the weakest readers the child's ability and manner of reading were influential as a third criteria.

3 When you hear children read, what would you estimate is the amount of time you spend with,

		Percentages					
	<u><1 min</u>	<u>1.1-2 mins</u>	<u>2.1-3 mins</u>	<u>3.1-5 mins</u>	<u>5.1-10 mins</u>	<u>10.1-15 mins</u>	<u>>15 mins</u>
ablest reader	-	5.9	11.8	52.9	17.6	11.8	-
average reader	-	-	11.8	47.0	23.5	17.6	-
weakest reader	-	-	-	41.2	35.3	11.8	11.8

The information provided above would indicate that the weakest readers spend a longer time with their teacher than do average or ablest readers. None of the teachers expected to interact with the weakest readers for less than three minutes although some would do so for average and ablest readers.

This time trend, of hearing the weakest readers for a longer period of time, was apparent also if individual teacher's total response is considered.

- a) ablest average weakest reader; decreasing time for weakest = 2 teachers
- b) ablest average weakest reader; equal times = 4 teachers
- c) ablest average weakest reader; increasing time for weakest = 11 teachers

The comments of the teachers to this question indicated how an apparently simple question may serve to hide the complexity of reality in the classroom.

"Try to give equal time, about five minutes, but varies according to child's immediate needs."

Responses to this question are, therefore, inevitably generalised and specific interactions will be determined by other factors. Also what does one mean by hearing children read ?

"Part of this time would be spent in making sure the child is relaxed."

Possibly the importance of the affective aspects of the one-to-one relationship are being emphasised in the above quotation.

There was also another reminder that hearing children read only constitutes part of the reading environment for the child.

"This is individual times of reading. More time is spent in games, flashcards, phonic work etc."

4 What is your purpose in hearing children read ? If you have a number of purposes please state each.

The question, in fact, subsequently asks the teachers to provide a list of purposes in order of importance for each level of reading attainment. This extra demand provided a stumbling block for many teachers who found it difficult and/or inappropriate to differentiate between various purposes.

"I find it very difficult to put purposes in order. Many of them I would give equal value to."

"I would not say these are necessarily in the right order."

"All the purposes really have equal importance."

A second problem that emerged with this question, despite the fact that it had been developed with the co-operation of another group of teachers,

was that a minority of teachers considered that the same purposes applied at all levels of reading attainment.

"The above reasons apply to children of all abilities."

"I can't really see that there is very much difference in the aims and purposes of hearing reading (for each of the levels of attainment)."

A final caveat provided by some teachers was that, although sub-purposes can be stated, the overall purpose is quite simply stated as to teach children to read.

"Overall purpose is to teach children to read but this is probably assumed."

"The main purpose must be that, reading aloud to the teacher helps them learn to read, other drills, phonics, practice, etc. can help, but basically children learn to read by reading."

However, despite these three caveats to the question, a substantial amount of information was provided by the teachers to indicate what they perceived to be the purposes that prevailed when hearing children read. Collating the various information was not always easy as inevitably the teachers indicated their purposes in their own words and it may be that simple word differences may hide a subtle difference in purposes. Nevertheless, it is possible to postulate a number of categories of purposes. These are provided below in order of frequency provided by the teachers.

i) Comprehension

This was the most frequently noted purpose provided by the teachers. Thirteen of the teachers indicated this as a purpose, for one or more of the three reading levels.

"To check comprehension."

"To ensure that the child is reading with understanding."

Hearing children read as an opportunity for estimating the child's

understanding of what he is reading has been suggested by Moyle (1968), Morris (1974) and Goodacre (1976). The Bullock Report develops this notion further and suggests that the teacher can ask questions to develop various kinds of comprehension, implying that comprehension questions may be asked at various levels and indeed at another point the report does put forward a taxonomy of comprehension skills (Barrett, 1968).

How is the level of comprehension to be assessed? The clearly stated view of the Bullock Report is by asking questions of the child. However, an alternative view might be that the teacher judges almost intuitively to what extent the child is reading with understanding. Perhaps this intuition is based upon the flow of reading from the child, the extent to which he reads with expression and also the degree to which any miscues are good miscues syntactically and semantically.

However, this survey does not provide any information on the behaviour of the teachers to ensure that comprehension occurs. All the survey indicates is that amongst a small group of teachers a prime purpose in hearing children read is to check on the child's level of understanding of what he has read.

ii) Interest and enjoyment

An emphasis upon developing an enjoyment of reading was put forward by eleven teachers as a purpose when hearing children read.

"Enjoyment for the child."

"To help child enjoy reading."

However, the difficulty of achieving this with books from a basic reading scheme was noted.

"It is often difficult to promote a gripping interest in a

story line which is less than riveting in its content and in its stilted phraseology."

How then does this interaction between teacher and child provide an opportunity for developing an enjoyment of reading? One response suggested it is the sharing of the activity which is the contributory factor.

"Shared enjoyment of the reading material."

Perhaps, therefore, it is the attitude of the teacher which is crucial.

It is difficult to teach people to value what you yourself do not value. Students spend time figuring out their teachers' beliefs and usually have a pretty accurate view of them, often despite what the teachers say themselves.

(Kohl 1973; p 146)

The manner in which the teacher approaches this interaction may, therefore, be of considerable importance. If the teacher enjoys reading and can convey this message to the children in her class both by word and action then perhaps during the shared activity of hearing children read the child can be helped to share this enjoyment. A link might be drawn between this notion and the decisive factor influencing children's progress, as put forward by Southgate (1968) i.e. reading drive, the beliefs and attitudes of the teachers.

iii) Phonic teaching

Nine of the teachers indicated that one of their purposes when hearing children read was to provide some phonic teaching based on each child's own needs. This would, therefore, appear to be a major reason for hearing children read with approximately 53% of the teachers noting this as a purpose. However, in the Bullock survey 96.8% of teachers answered yes to the question,

Is phonic practice given when appropriate to overcome individual weaknesses detected when the teacher is listening to reading?

(The Bullock Report; p 458)

This would suggest that phonic teaching forms a more major role than is indicated by the seventeen teachers in the survey presented here. The discrepancy may be accounted for by a number of reasons. Firstly, in the hearing children read survey each teacher had to provide her own response based upon her perception of a classroom activity. By contrast the Bullock survey requested a yes/no response to a specific question, indeed it could be argued that the wording demanded a yes response. To reply no would seem to imply that the teacher would not provide remedial help to an observed individual need. Secondly, the hearing children read survey was responded to by teachers to indicate what they might do during the interaction;

"to teach as one listens i.e. phonic work."

Responses to the Bullock survey might indicate phonics teaching during the interaction, or as an activity to follow the interaction possibly at another time in the day.

The phonics teaching that the teachers suggested they provided was incidental or functional phonics (Schonell, 1951) i.e. the sound analysis of words which the child is attempting to read from his books.

"Teaching the sounds incidentally."

This incidental phonics teaching was indicated to include a variety of aspects related to the overall notion of phonics teaching. It included,

"teaching the sounds"

"teaching double sounds"

"teaching phonic rules"

"to establish phonic synthesis;"

the precise aspect being dependent upon the need of the individual child.

iv) Reinforce personal relationships

This purpose was indicated by seven of the teachers. The actual wording utilised by each teacher is somewhat diverse. However, the overall impression provided is that the teachers see this interaction to be an opportunity to reinforce the personal relationship between teacher and child (Goodacre, 1976). It does suggest, therefore, that the interaction can be seen to serve affective purposes as well as cognitive ones.

"Personal and emotional benefits arise from this activity but are not the purpose of it"

Natchez (1975) and Clark (1976) have both argued that an interested adult, who demonstrates both an interest in the child's reading and a caring attitude about how things are going, may be instrumental in the child's progress with reading.

The interaction can be seen to provide an opportunity to motivate the child to want to read and give him a sense of achievement.

"Motivate child to wish to acquire more skill in the activity."

"To give feeling of progress and achievement."

Roberts (1973) has argued that hearing children read provides the opportunity to satisfy the child's need for approval and backing. A number of teachers in this study would appear to hold similar views,

"Giving them a sense of achievement."

The report from West Sussex (1976) emphasises the relational aspect of the interaction to the extent of suggesting that this might involve physical contact as an expression of the confidence in the person to whom they are reading. The physical contact is, therefore, an expression of the emotional link between the teacher and child, an aspect noted by one of the teachers,

"To come close to child emotionally."

v) Diagnosis of difficulties

It is taken as understood that teachers will carry out this necessary activity (hearing children read) for diagnostic-teaching purposes.

(Morris 1974; p 35)

The above quotation neatly encapsulates the widely held view that hearing children read is an activity which enables teachers to diagnose any difficulties the child may be encountering. Dean (1968), Moyle (1968), Hughes (1970) (1972) (1973), Ireland (1976) and Goodacre (1976) all emphasise the diagnostic purpose when hearing children read. Vincent and Cresswell (1976) are perhaps suggesting the possibilities of hearing children read being a diagnostic activity when they stress the importance of the experienced and skilled teacher in reading as the best diagnostic testing device. Mackay et al (1970) stress that there is an implication that more diagnostic records should be developed from such activities, while Herber (1966) argues that such diagnosis provides the opportunity for testing and teaching to be integrated, thus allowing for what Morris (1974) refers to as on-the-spot treatment.

In the American literature the diagnosis of oral reading, possibly by miscue analysis, is well documented. However, Dolch (1955) argues the case for diagnosis not just in clinics but he suggests by the million teachers who deal everyday with children. In this country Potts (1976), although arguing a case against the activity of hearing children read, does suggest that if utilised then it must be for diagnostic purposes.

The Bullock Committee relayed the essential view expressed above, that hearing children read should be seen as a major diagnostic opportunity for the teacher, although its members noted that at that time the diagnostic possibilities were largely unrealised. Although this may

have been the case, Goodacre (1973) stated a personal impression that teachers were adopting a more diagnostic approach to teaching reading especially related to the more active listening to children's reading aloud and their miscues/errors.

In this study seven of the seventeen teachers indicated that a purpose for hearing children read was,

"to diagnose difficulties"

but not only to diagnose but also to use such diagnosis for teaching purposes,

"to observe child's difficulties and to treat them."

However, although only stated as a purpose by 41% of the sample, it must remain problematic the extent to which other teachers in the sample do actually listen - diagnose - teach without making explicit diagnosis as a purpose. For instance does,

"check ability to word build"

imply a diagnostic purpose to the activity, although viewed by the writer as a phonic teaching purpose. It is perhaps indicative of the manner in which open-ended responses provide problems of analysis.

vi) Develop fluency and expression in reading

This purpose was noted in some format or another by seven of the teachers.

"The development of fluency and expression."

"To encourage fluency."

Of course it was not asked of the teachers how they would attempt to achieve their stated purposes, and therefore, one can only hypothesise how fluency and expression might be developed or

"to teach them to punctuate with their voice."

Possibly this might be achieved by either ensuring that the reading material is at the appropriate level for the child (Betts, 1946) which

would allow the child to read with rhythm, i.e. proper phrasing and accurate interpretation of punctuation or possibly by the teacher intervening to provide a model of reading for the child to attempt to imitate.

There is little evidence to suggest that authors of books on the teaching of reading see this purpose as important although Goodacre (1976) does indicate that she has previously noted that many teachers do place considerable emphasis on fluency in reading which includes, use of pitch and expression, few mistakes and no re-reading or back-tracking in the text. However, as Goodacre indicates to eradicate the child's miscues is to deny the teacher evidence of the child's learning strategies.

It might, therefore, be true that a teacher needs to consider each child individually and then determine the purpose for hearing them read. For some children fluency of reading might be appropriate at certain times while at other times it might be more appropriate to assess their learning strategies by an analysis of miscues. The reading material would, therefore, need to be considered in relation to the purpose of the reading on any specific occasion.

vii) Structure successive learning experiences

This purpose would seem to be the logical corollary to the earlier stated purpose of diagnosis of difficulties. A teacher makes a diagnosis of difficulties then either responds with immediate on-the-spot treatment or utilises the diagnosis for subsequent structuring of learning experiences.

The Bullock Report which argues the case for more qualitative observations while listening to children read suggests that these

observations should be used to structure successive learning experiences. This view is also expressed by Moyle (1968), Hughes (1972) and Morris (1974).

This purpose was explicitly stated by five of the teachers in this survey, e.g.

"to help me decide upon further activities he may require "

"to give remedial help and practice in areas of difficulty."

The extent to which further activities were developed and used were of course not asked for and cannot be ascertained from the replies. It is not possible, therefore, to determine how important this purpose is in the reality of the classroom.

viii) Practice given to the child

Four teachers suggested this as an important purpose of hearing children read. Stated quite simply hearing children read provides the opportunity for the child,

"to practice reading skills already learnt."

Behind the notion of the importance of providing opportunities for children to practice their reading is the assumption, that, although help with component skills may be of some assistance to the child, essentially what he requires to learn is to read. Succinctly stated by one teacher as,

"children learn to read by reading."

A view which might be considered alongside Frank Smith's central theme,

"to learn to read children need to read. The issue is as simple and as difficult as that."

(Smith 1978; p 5)

In more pragmatic terms what is perhaps being suggested is that the effective teacher of reading ensures that sufficient time is given

to the activity of reading in order to assist the child's reading development (Harris, 1979).

ix) Check on progress

Although this purpose was clearly stated by three of the teachers there, nevertheless, remains an uncertainty about the precise meaning of such purpose. Two of the replies were,

"to check progress "

"to establish progress made."

However, this does not establish whether the activity is seen as a means of checking the child's progress through a book and/or reading scheme or whether the activity is concerned more with checking the efficiency of the child as a reader (Goodacre, 1976). A view expressed by a number of authors is that teachers should be checking on the child's progress not merely by noting book and page read but by a more qualitative assessment of his developmental progress (Moyle, 1968; Hughes, 1972; Roberts, 1973 and D.E.S., 1975). However, as will be noted in the question on record keeping it may be the check on book and page read which many teachers use to check progress. Perhaps the third teacher's response suggests this view,

"to keep a check on what and how much they are reading."

x) Check on accuracy

For three of the teachers hearing children read provided an opportunity

"to check accuracy".

This purpose might suggest that the teachers concerned viewed reading as a precise process (Goodman, K., 1967). However, as each of these teachers also indicated diagnosis of difficulties as a purpose, it would be inappropriate to suggest that any of these teachers had a specific perspective of reading based on a single response within a questionnaire.

xi) Encourage use of contextual cues

Only one teacher suggested this purpose for hearing children read, although that does not of course necessarily mean that none of the other teachers in the reality of the classroom fail to encourage children to use contextual cues. However, only one teacher did perceive it as sufficiently important to articulate it.

This purpose might be seen as suggesting reading as a selective process (Goodman, K., 1967) where the child is encouraged to use syntactic and semantic information as well as utilising the grapho-phonetic information. However, as with a 'check on accuracy' a similar caveat must be introduced on the appropriateness of labelling based on a single response.

5 What do you think is your job when you hear children read?

In part the response to this question was to reiterate the points already made within question four.

"Really to do all the things in four - to turn them into good fluent readers with a love of books."

To that extent, therefore, the question might be regarded as redundant. However, beyond the relisting of previous purposes there were indications of how the teacher might function in order to achieve their stated purposes.

"To observe readers' individual strength and weakness and give help accordingly so that the readers develop to their full potential. Above all give the individual reader a feeling of success so that reading will be a continued source of pleasure."

Within this comment and also evident in others is an indication that the teacher's role while hearing children read is to observe, to assess, to assist and to praise and encourage. Viewed in this way the teacher's role while hearing children read might be seen as a microcosm of most teaching. However, although these aspects of a teacher's role provide an insight in

to what a teacher might attempt it does not indicate the actual behaviour of the teacher.

The first step it is suggested is to observe,

"To observe, sit quietly, pay full attention."

How might this occur? What activities will the other children in the class be involved with in order to allow the teacher to fully attend to the reader? Attention to what - word accuracy, fluency, comprehension etc?

To assess by progress through the book or by application of miscue analysis? Presumably as the assessment might be followed by assistance then miscue analysis or careful attention to the words uttered and their relationship to the text is called for.

"To be ready to help with difficulties."

This suggests the teacher intervening in order to provide assistance. How will this help be provided? By providing the word which is miscued? Encouraging the use of phonic knowledge? Suggesting the use of contextual cues?

Finally the teacher might,

"give praise and encouragement,"

but when, how frequently and in what format is left unanswered.

Therefore, although the teacher's role in general terms is clarified by the responses made by the teachers a more specific analysis of what this entails would have to be extracted from a more detailed interview or by observations within the classroom.

6 How did you develop these views of your job given in five?

The response to this question was very precise. The teachers had in their own minds a clear idea as to how they developed views on their role while hearing children read. The main response put forward by eleven teachers was experience, it was actually working in the classroom which enabled them to gradually develop a view of their role.

Other responses by the teachers included; own reading, five teachers; observations, three teachers; a course of some description, two teachers; and finally one mention of initial training. These responses might be of some concern to those involved in teacher education. Perhaps, however, a recognition of the essential link between theory and practice is contained within the comment,

"the teaching of reading is always a worthwhile subject of study but it is largely an intuitive process."

7 What records, if any, do you make when you hear children read?

The responses provided by the teachers are tabulated below which also provides the details from a Goodacre survey (1969) and the Bullock survey.

Record keeping - hearing children read

<u>Records kept</u>	<u>Hearing Children Read Survey</u>	<u>Percentages</u>	
		<u>Bullock Survey</u>	<u>Goodacre Survey</u>
Progress by book/page	94.1	95.5	86.0
Lists of difficult words	47.1	--	--
Individual children's reading difficulties	--	--	22.0
Individual weaknesses that require help	--	36.7	--
Phonic details	35.3	--	11.0
Comprehension	5.9	--	--
Level of fluency and expression	5.9	--	--
Type of cues used	5.9	--	--

The findings from this survey might serve to confirm the personal

impression of Goodacre (1973) who suggests that teachers are listening more actively to children's reading aloud and their errors. Certainly the teachers in this survey do indicate a more diagnostic approach to hearing children read which precedes a form of record keeping which notes, at least to some extent, the strengths and weaknesses of the child's reading.

In addition to the more detailed records which are kept two teachers indicated that in the busy classroom many of the records remain unwritten.

"Many of the records are in my head."

"Very few written notes for myself I seem to retain good knowledge of children without notes."

8 How do you use any records you make?

As might be expected the responses here relate back to the type of response made to question seven. Consequently, eleven teachers indicated that they used the records to check on the child's progress through a reading scheme or specific book.

"I look back and see how long they have been on a book, if too long try to sort out the difficulties or change them to a parallel book in another scheme."

Equally, eleven teachers indicated that the records would be used to note any particular difficulties the child was experiencing and subsequently provide appropriate learning situations.

"To note particular difficulties the child is experiencing and to ensure that children follow a planned progression."

A number of teachers indicated not only how the records might be used by themselves to maintain a check on a child in their class but also how the records might serve other adults. Five teachers noted how the records were useful to pass on to the next teacher and two of the responses

indicated that the information would form the basis for communication with parents on the child's reading development.

The small scale survey which was conducted by the author, with the results discussed above, did produce more detailed information on the teacher-child interaction than was available in the Bullock Report. In particular the survey responds to the Roberts (1975) criticism of the Bullock Report by providing an indication of the purposes for which teachers hear children read. The open-ended nature of the questionnaire was particularly instrumental in providing insights into the dyadic interaction with the teacher comments suggesting what might be occurring as the teacher listens to the reader. Why then was the survey not taken further with a larger sample? Robinson (1974) argues that an understanding of classrooms is not tapped by a questionnaire, although it may serve as a supplement to observations. The nature of this study was to develop an understanding of a specific classroom activity and it may only be through observation and subsequent analysis that such an understanding can be achieved.

Such elements as the amount of time spent on the interaction and the records kept will be assessed more accurately by classroom observation. More importantly, however, features from the purposes might be clarified by such observation. How are the stated purposes of each teacher manifested by actual teacher behaviour?

How does a teacher assess comprehension? Does a diagnosis of difficulties lead to meaningful record keeping and subsequent structuring of learning experiences. In what form does phonic teaching occur? How do teachers convey to the child reading positive affective purposes? How is praise and encouragement provided for the child? How does a teacher respond to a child's miscue? What language does she use? Do the responses offered by teachers differ and are there similarities?

It might be argued that each of these questions could be answered with a reconstructed questionnaire. However, the danger once again would be perusing the surface features rather than getting close to the reality of classroom events. The need in this study is for observation and recording of the actual classroom event and subsequent analysis of transcribed recordings.

5. In the classroom.

In each of the six classrooms, in which the teachers were observed hearing children read, a key aspect of the interaction was the organisation of the classroom environment (Taylor, 1973). In order to spend some time with an individual child the teacher had, of necessity, to provide various purposeful activities for the rest of the children. These activities varied both from day to day and from class to class. However, in each instance the teacher had provided a structured organised environment which gave her the opportunity to hear children read. Boydell (1978) has suggested that teachers need to give consideration to the classroom environment in order to maintain control over their interaction pattern. The organisation required might best be that which will minimise interruptions for the teacher-child hearing children read interaction (Southgate et al, 1978). If interruptions can be minimised then a long interaction can occur. In the view of Bassey and Hatch (1979) it is these long interactions, four or more utterances, which are important contributors to the language development of the child.

A frequent format observed was for the teacher to provide group activities, thus some children might be working from mathematics books/ cards. Others would be working from English cards, at 'play' with sand, water or bricks, painting or involved in some other form of craft activity. When the teacher considered that the children were settled at their various activities she would 1) sit at her desk and 2) call up children to read from their book. These two elements are characteristic of what Dolch (1961) refers to as the reading-to-the-teacher system. Although there was among the teachers uncertainty about the pedagogical value of hearing children read at the teacher's desk, there was no uncertainty about the organisational value of such positioning.

Teacher B. "When I was at College you were encouraged to move around the class.

I find I have two or three things going at one time - children coming for words, children asking about choosing and children reading. It's best if I'm in one place. It doesn't work if I'm wandering around. The children like a pattern of organisation which they can relate to."

The views expressed by the teacher indicated that it was beneficial not only to the teacher but also to all the children for her to remain at her desk while hearing children read. However, this organisation may not minimise interruptions.

Teacher D. "I find it easier if I sit down at one spot. Then the rest of the children know where to find me."

Having established her position within the room the teacher would then call up children to read to her. This pattern of organisation is not unique to this study of six teachers as similar patterns have been noted in other studies, e.g. Brandt (1975). The teacher might call the next child to read while still listening to a previous child, e.g. Teacher A.

A3

Yolande

I can hear something - something

I can hear it too, said Peter

What can it be?

It is the

Teacher (aside) Susannah

Yolande (reads on)

birds! said Penny

Look! There - They

They want to come in to look at the tree.

Teacher A calls Susannah to read while Yolande is still reading.

Susannah is, therefore, ready to read as soon as Yolande completes what is demanded of her. There is, therefore, a minimum of time loss between readers and this strategy would appear to have organisational benefits. It does imply, however, that the other children in the class have tasks to complete, know what these tasks entail and remain motivated to complete the task.

A feature of this calling up the next child to read is that it is achieved with a minimal interruption to the child who is reading. In the example provided, it is while Yolande is reading adequately that the next child is called up. The call is limited to the utterance of a name and it is the paralinguistic features of the call, a rising intonation, which informs Susannah that she is being asked to read.

Another example drawn from the same teacher clearly demonstrates the extent to which both teacher and children are aware of the subtleties of paralinguistic features.

A22

Susannah

Andy came along the pavement again.

He had on his circus clothes,

and he had on new black shoes.

You can - can't walk around the circus.

Teacher (aside) Matthew!

Susannah (reads on)

in those new shoes, Dot said.

You had better//stop and take time

to get shoes

Teacher (aside) Helen.

Susannah (reads on)

you can walk in.

During the time that Susannah is reading Teacher A calls the names of two children. However, there is no confusion as to the purpose of these

two calls. Matthew alters his behaviour and returns to the task in hand while Helen gets her book and goes to the teacher's desk to read.

Other teachers in the study completed an interaction with a child, would then establish that the various groups of children were still working well, spend some time on reducing any queue that might have formed with children requiring assistance, and then call the next child to read. While waiting for the child to collect his book and arrive at the teacher's desk the teacher was able to interact with other members of the class, e.g.

D7

Teacher Peter reading please.

(aside) Right, go and do number thirteen for me first.

(aside) Off you go.

(aside) Go on off you go and get on with your work card.

(aside) This is a short straight line.

(aside) Have you got a counter?

(aside) I tell you what, it's nearly milk time, go and do the milks for me then.

(aside) Who is the shortest?

(aside) Four, five, six, seven, eight, right go and make me a pattern with how many pennies there.

(aside) Right

(55 seconds)

Off you go Peter

Peter

Roger Red Hat

had a ball

A little /wh/

When the child, requested to read, is beside the teacher at her desk the interaction referred to as hearing children read is begun. It is, of course, this interaction which forms the main bulk of this study.

6. Teacher Verbal Moves.

In order to most adequately describe the events which take place when hearing children read it was considered necessary to construct a descriptive system which would comprehensively account for each of the teacher verbal moves.

The linguistic system of analysis provided by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), which was designed to handle discourse produced in one type of classroom situation and, with modifications, to be suitable for a wide range of classrooms was influential in indicating possible developments for the system proposed here. Resnick (1972) also indicated possible categories for the system related to what is essentially a primary school interaction. The notion of providing a system which was sufficiently simple to allow a busy classroom teacher to function as an autonomous professional (Bassey and Hatch, 1979) was also appealing. As the stress in this study is a consideration of the pedagogical functions of each teacher verbal move within a specific reading interaction it was found to be desirable to describe these moves using pedagogical terminology. The work of Hale (1979) suggested that many of the descriptors which were applied within the study reported here were also evident in her sociological analysis of hearing children read.

The complete sequence of a teacher hearing a child read from calling that child to dismissing him/her is referred to in this study as an interaction. Within an interaction a teacher produces many utterances, i.e. continuous sequences of speech bounded by silences on her part. A move is regarded as a teacher utterance or part utterance which serves a pedagogical function. Each utterance is, therefore, composed of one or more moves, as previously noted by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) e.g. C6 in this study.

C6

Shazia

Mr.Red hat got out.

Mr.Blue hat got (miscues fell) out.

Teacher

No.

fell out.

The teacher utterance in this example is composed of two moves 'no' a move of negative feedback which functions as an indicator that a miscue has occurred and 'fell out' a move to provide the word which has been miscued.

During the course of the one hundred and fifty six interactions the six teachers utilised a considerable number of verbal moves. Analysis of the transcripts indicate almost seven thousand teacher verbal moves can be detected. The pedagogical functions of these moves serve a number of purposes. They include pedagogical moves of welfare which are concerned more with affective aspects of the interaction and relate to Flanders (1970) first category "accepts feelings"; directions which ask the child to respond in a certain manner, cf Resnick (1972); phonics, providing the word and comprehension which are three pedagogical moves also noted, although not made explicit, in Hale (1979); and word recognition in which the teacher attempts to get the child to recode the appropriate word but without providing the word using phonics or comprehension. These six types of pedagogical move, welfare, directions, providing words, word recognition, phonics and comprehension might be regarded as more specific aspects of the generalised soliciting and structuring moves proposed by Bellack et al (1966).

Feedback is another form of teacher verbal move noted in this study. This corresponds very closely with Bellack's reacting moves and might, therefore, be separated from the pedagogical moves cited earlier for the purpose of analysis. Both positive and negative feedback are evident in the teacher verbal moves.

Additionally within this study the teachers would frequently switch their attention from the child reading in order to respond to or initiate verbal interactions with other children in the classroom - asides. These asides are, therefore, clearly addressed to others and are not asides in the sense proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard which are really instances of the teacher talking to himself, e.g. "It's freezing in here."

It is, therefore, suggested that within the descriptive system proposed here, teacher verbal moves can be classified under three main headings; - pedagogical moves, feedback and asides. Furthermore, the pedagogical moves can be subdivided into six areas concerned with welfare, directions, providing words, word recognition, phonics and comprehension.

Pedagogical moves

During the time that a child is reading to his teacher a number of pedagogical moves are made by the teacher. These varieties of moves serve to direct and guide the child in his reading.

The sheer variety (of teacher moves) is significant, not least because it dispels any notion that teacher behaviour in listening to children read is a simple matter.

(Gulliver 1979; p45)

The pedagogical moves of the teacher noted in this study are based on the function they appear to serve within the interaction between teacher and child. The teacher moves have, in some instances therefore, to be examined in relation to the previous move made by the child and more usually forward to perceive what the teacher move suggests to or demands of the child. The pedagogical moves it is suggested can be sub-divided into six areas:-

1. Welfare

The teacher may make a move which serves to emphasise the one to one relationship that exists during the interaction. The moves may

- (a) to act as a marker, in that it marks the boundaries in the discourse,
(Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975).

Most frequently found at the start or completion of a read.

While we were looking at the exchanges we noticed that a small set of words - 'right', 'well', 'good', 'O.K.', 'now', recurred frequently in the speech of all teachers. We realised that these words functioned to indicate boundaries in the lesson, the end of one stage and the beginning of the next.

(Sinclair & Coulthard 1975; pp21-22)

Often these moves will be followed by a statement which indicates to the child what is going to happen.

- (i) at the start of a read,

F13

Teacher Right.
 So let's read.

- (ii) at the end of a read,

D7

Teacher Right.
 Off you go.

- (b) to request a child to come to the teacher to read.

A5

Teacher Lee, come on then.

A7

Teacher Michael, can I hear you read please.

- (c) to request within the read that the child alters some aspect of his reading.

B2

Teacher Go slower.

F5

Teacher Can you read a little louder.

B6

Teacher Hold it in your hand.

- (d) to request within a read that the child continues to read; or stops for a moment while the teacher attends to other events.

A1

Teacher Yes, carry on, do the next page.

A13

Teacher Wait a moment.

- (e) to suggest work to be completed elsewhere.

A8

Teacher Now just remember those sounds, will you practice again tonight.

3 . Providing words

At times during the interaction the teacher might provide a word for the child reading. This would occur in a number of different circumstances. Thus the child might attempt a phonic analysis but fail to cue the appropriate word, the child might make a substitution or hesitate. These various forms of miscues might lead the teacher to repair the source of trouble by providing the word. Repair is used here to suggest that the word is provided contingent upon the child losing his flow of reading rather than necessarily making what might be termed an error (Schegloff, Jefferson & Sacks, 1977).

B13

Keith They (miscues There)

Teacher There

A22

Susanah Andy came along the pavement//

Teacher (aside) Well you have in the box where Michael is.

again

In some instances the teacher would provide the word within the context of the sentence being read. This would most usually involve the teacher

in restarting the sentence for the child then providing the word when it is reached in the sentence.

B1

Mark They are (miscues all)

Teacher They

 You know that word.

 They

Mark are (miscues all)

Teacher They all

4 Word recognition

Rather than providing the word for the child the teacher might adopt a word recognition strategy. She would use some form of move which would emphasise the need for the child to recognise a specific word.

(a) to indicate that a word has been miscued and should be read again.

(i) teacher utters with rising intonation the word prior to the miscue.

A1

Clinton said Little Red Wing.
Sun Dew may by (miscues be)

Teacher may

(ii) teacher utters with rising intonation some of the words prior to the miscue.

A6

Christopher He-He may be in the wood (miscues wall)

Teacher in the

(iii) teacher begins the sentence again and with rising intonation reads up to the miscued word.

A2

James She can get (miscues go)

Teacher No.

 She can

(b) to indicate that a word has been miscued and that a word ending is required.

F11

Mark Saw the sun shine (miscues shining)

Teacher shine

As in previous examples a rising intonation is used and serves to indicate that a question is being asked, i.e. What is the word?

The rising tone has been most frequently exemplified in single tone-group utterances, and so has come to be associated in a common-sense way with 'questions'; although, in fact, many questions have falling intonation

(Coulthard 1977 p123)

(c) to refer the child back to a word already correctly read.

D5

Teacher That's that long word.

A22

Teacher The same word.

(d) to indicate, by asking a direct question or making a request, that a word needs to be reconsidered.

A30

Teacher What's that word?

B4

Teacher Look at it again.

C15

Teacher Said the what?

(e) to indicate certain features of word configuration.

C23

Lisa here(miscues he)

Teacher That's not here;

That's not long enough.

5. Phonic analysis

A number of different grapho-phonetic prompts are used by the teachers to suggest to the child that he should utilise his knowledge of phonics in order to discover the word which he was miscuing in some way.

(a) to suggest to the child reading that he looks at certain grapho-
phonic elements..

(i) teacher provides general prompt,

A8

Teacher What's it begin with?

B1

Teacher Do the sounds.

(ii) teacher provides specific prompt,

A11

Teacher Go through the sound - /n/ /e/

(b) to provide phonic information to assist child's initiated
phonic analysis.

A2

James No! said Daddy.
 Now I // /sh/

Teacher /ut/

James shut

(c) to remind the child of a 'phonic rule'.

A9

James Take him Kay .
 You// /tr/ - You /tre/

Teacher Now remember what the 'y' gives at the end.

A1

Clinton They-They could not see Sun Dew.
 We will look near that pin (miscues pine)

Teacher Now what does that 'e' do.

6. Comprehension

Comprehension questions were most frequently noted at the end of a read.
They appeared to be used by the teacher to check that the child had not
only decoded the printed words but had also extracted some meaning.

(a) to check that specific words are understood.

A23

Teacher Em, Katy went to get the mail didn't she?
What is the mail?
Can you tell me?

Helen Letters and parcels.

- (b) to check that the story has been understood.

E6

Teacher Doesn't like riding donkeys.
I wonder why he didn't like riding donkeys.
Why do you think he didn't like donkeys?

John Because he thinks he'll fall off.

Comprehension questions also occurred at the start of an interaction.

- (c) to check that the child was able to recall the contents of the story from a previous reading.

F13

Teacher Right.
So let's read.
Paul so what did the wind do?

Paul Blew the roof off.

Teacher Blew the roof off.
and the

Paul door

Teacher Right.

On occasions these types of questions would be used within the middle of an interaction to ensure that the child reading was understanding what was being read. This might lead to a different form of verbal input.

- (d) to emphasise meaning the teacher reads/rereads part of the text.

B6

Teacher so that

Vanessa people

Teacher in them

Let's start again.
You've lost the sense.

Cars and trucks and street cars stopped
so that people in them could

Feedback

During the course of hearing a child read the teacher provides information to the child as to how he is reading. The child is told that his reading is correct (positive feedback) or that his reading is in some way incorrect (negative feedback).

Of course, a child does not need to be given positive feedback overtly all the time - he does not need the teacher to say "right" after every word. But he has to get the message, one way or another that what he has just done works, that his prediction is confirmed And being told that he is "wrong" is just as informative for the child as being told that he is "right" provided there is no emotional overloading.

(Smith 1971; p229)

The positive feedback that the child received came in a number of formats at various times.

- (a) to indicate that a line/sentence/paragraph/page has been satisfactorily read.

A1

Clinton Big Red Wing and Little Red Wing went to the lake.

Teacher Yes.

- (b) to indicate that the reading has been satisfactorily completed.

The positive feedback provided at the completion of the read is similar to the indicators of a line/sentence/paragraph/page being read satisfactorily. However the statement made by the teacher is frequently longer and/or by intonation indicates that the interaction is complete.

A5

Teacher That was very good.

- (c) repetition of word(s)/phonic element read correctly by the child.

B6

Vanessa As they watched

Teacher As they watched

This repetition by the teacher may also carry an affirmative statement alongside the repetition e.g.

D2

Victoria van-van

Teacher van

Right.

- (d) to indicate that a word previously miscued is now being read correctly.

B1

Mark all came (miscues come)

Teacher They all

Mark come

Teacher That's it.

Negative feedback may be provided for the child to indicate that he has miscued his reading. Most usually this feedback is provided to immediately indicate the miscuing of a single word.

- (a) to indicate that a word has been miscued.

A2

James See her fly up high.
See (miscues She)

Teacher No.

- (b) to indicate that a word has been miscued and includes the miscued word.

This addition of the miscued word serves to emphasise the word that has been miscued and/or indicates the precise word that has been miscued if the child reading has already read on past the miscue e.g.

A4

Susannah , said Peter.
May we have some paint?
What (miscues which) colour.

Teacher No.
Not what.

- (c) a more general statement to indicate that a miscue has occurred.

F12

Russell /p/ /e/ /g/ /s/ reg (miscues pegs)

Teacher You're - you're not thinking.

Asides

In addition to providing verbal comments to the child reading each teacher in this study spent some of her time in verbal interaction with other children in the class. This switching of attention from the child reading to others in the classroom has been noted in other studies.

One of the most striking features of the scheduled data was the number of times a teacher switched attention from one child or group to another during a 20 minute period. This was particularly noticeable in periods in which the teacher was listening to individual children reading orally to her.

(Southgate et al 1978; pp 124-5)

The asides are provided by the teacher for two purposes.

- (a) to direct the children within the class, a teacher initiated comment.

F13

Teacher (aside) That was a lovely chorus Anita but I think that will do for now because we don't want too much noise.

- (b) to assist children who come to the teacher with a problem, often therefore a pupil initiated interaction.

D22

Teacher (aside) You've got to fill in the spaces for the number of your answer.

(aside) Something and six give sixteen, What?

The frequency with which each of the teacher verbal moves was utilised by the six teachers in this study is indicated in Table 2.

TABLE 2
TEACHER VERBAL MOVES

Teacher	No. of Children	Average Time min. secs	PEDAGOGICAL MOVES							FEEDBACK		ASIDES
			Welfare	Directions	Provide Word	Word Recognition	Phonics	Comprehension	+	-		
A	30	3.01	30	93	8	68	41	80	219	44	135	
B	27	2.24	22	94	46	113	63	30	105	44	39	
C	26	5.23	25	87	190	134	248	19	170	44	670	
D	24	4.07	58	140	169	63	106	--	96	73	466	
E	25	7.41	91	184	77	209	64	404	200	149	419	
F	24	5.29	91	141	43	97	81	85	193	19	218	
Totals	156	4.36	317	739	533	684	603	618	983	373	1997	

7. Analysis of teacher verbal moves.

Although the various verbal moves spoken by the teachers in this study have been described and classified it is instructive to consider each form of verbal move in greater detail. Noting when the move occurs and possibly detecting the reasons for such a move may serve to further illuminate this teacher-child interaction.

PEDAGOGICAL MOVES

1 Welfare

This form of teacher verbal move appears to be utilised for a number of similar purposes related to the one to one relationship that exists during the interaction.

Teacher A - "To give him individual attention and to make him feel important. So he's important to me. Even just for a few seconds they can see they are just not one of a group - for a particular moment it's just them."

As might be expected welfare moves are frequently to be found at the opening of an interaction and serve to re-establish the one to one relationship and demonstrate the empathy of the teacher for the child.

A3'

Teacher Now then Yolande we've had a little rest haven't we eh?

Yolande Yes.

Teacher Right let's see how much you've remembered eh?

Yolande Mummy (miscues Mother) and Daddy come (miscues came) in.

Teacher Good.

Teacher A opens with a welfare move which partly serves as a greeting but also is indicative to Yolande of the teacher's awareness of her absence from school. Possibly the remark hints that the teacher is

welfare moves and with a colder relationship - or even being directed to read as a punishment?

C14

Teacher Donna you've done no work so far so come and see if you can't start your new book.
(aside) Good girl, now five and one.

Donna We (miscues Work)

Teacher No.

/W/

Donna Went (miscues Work)

Teacher No.

Work

Although many of the welfare moves are made as openings to the interaction some do occur within the interaction. However, this is so to a limited extent, Table 2 indicates that welfare moves are indeed the least used pedagogical move. Within the interaction they serve to emphasise in some way the relationship between teacher and child indicating the concern of the teacher for the child reading. Often this may take the form of an apology following some form of interruption.

B11

Mark

It was cold.
And there was Willie
out in the cold.
Willie was a little kitten.
He did not//know where-where to go.

Teacher (aside) I think you had better come out now and do something else.
Hold on a minute please Mark.
(aside) Keith!
(aside) Come out of the bricks.
(aside) Out.
(aside) Out.
(aside) Find something else to do on the shelf.
Right Sorry.

Less usually there are instances where a teacher follows up the conversation initiated by the child who is reading. The infrequency of this type of move is perhaps related to the child's perception of

the conversational rights within the interaction (Hale, 1980). There are few examples of children initiating conversations during the course of these interactions. When a child does initiate a conversation then an opportunity is provided for the teacher to respond with a move which demonstrates a willingness to be accepting of the child's feelings.

F13

Paul My house has a red roof.
 It is a red roof.

Teacher Mmh.

Paul We've got a brown one haven't we?

Teacher What on your house?

Paul mm.

Teacher You've got a brown roof on your house have you.
 I think my roof on my house is a black one.

As a balance to the welfare moves at the opening of an interaction welfare moves are also found at the closing of an interaction. Most usually this will be in the simple format of a "thank you" to the child for reading. However, importantly it might convey to the child the appreciation of an audience to a speaker and demonstrate that the event was of some importance.

The "thank you" may be found at the end of a simple sequence of moves by the teacher which conveys to the child a number of meanings.

B1

Teacher Good.
 We'll stop there.
 Right.
 Thank you.

Thus the child is complimented on the completion of his reading, is informed that the interaction is finishing both by a direct statement and a marker and finally the importance of the one to one relation-

ship is confirmed by the final expression of gratitude.

2 Directions

These teacher verbal moves are very clearly utilised to direct and control the interaction. The moves are used to indicate which child will read, when the interaction will begin, to control the pace and length of the reading and finally as an indicator that the interaction is being terminated.

Prior to an interaction, hearing children read, taking place a child has to be selected to read. This selection is very much the prerogative of the teacher, there were no instances within this study of a child selecting himself to read. As indicated elsewhere, in Chapter five, the children were heard reading at the teacher's desk. This might involve calling the child's name and by paralinguistic features within the context of the classroom activities indicate clearly what is required.

A20

Teacher Brett.

Although there was no evidence in this study of children misinterpreting this simple name call, nevertheless, the move can be made more specific in order to ensure understanding.

C2

Teacher Helen, reading.

This move might be further extended into a more complete formalised conversational opening.

C9

Teacher Julie come and read to me please.

The call to read might in some cases suggest that a choice remains with the child. However, there was no indication of children refusing a call or indeed interpreting the call as providing a choice.

C21

Teacher Assim have you finished painting?
 Would you like to come and read.

Infrequently but nevertheless evident were calls which suggested that reading might be regarded as a punishment, or at least work, rather than a pleasant activity.

C15

Teacher Now Philip another one not done any work today you come
 and read to me.

Once at the teacher's desk some children would immediately begin to read. Others would wait until they had received the appropriate teacher move of direction which would inform them to commence.

D5

Teacher Off you go Richard.

This move to commence reading might quite simply be a marker which appears to indicate quite clearly to the child the boundary of the lesson and suggests that they start reading.

F22

Teacher Right.

Nicky The little old man
 looked out of the window.
 Let the wind come! he cried.

Table 2 shows that pedagogical moves of direction are the most numerous of the moves used by teachers in this study. Partly, of course, this is due to teachers using this move to call, start and finish nearly all the interactions. However, it is also partly due to the considerable use of direction moves within the main body of

Or a more general exhortation to the child to attend to his reading.

C4

Philip /so/

Teacher They have

Philip /m/ /e/

Teacher Oh come on Philip.
They have/so/

Philip some

Within the interaction the teacher will determine the length of the reading, most usually in terms of the number of pages to be read.

A10

Neil She may have gone to the wood
for red seeds.

Teacher Yes.
Next page.

Neil Big Red Wing and Little Red Wing

In one instance such a move brought an appeal for a reprieve from the child!

C4

Philip Mother will look for you.

Teacher (aside) Helen what are you doing?
Come on finish this story you've only got one page.

Philip Cor' my neck hurts from standing up!

Teacher Go on with you.

Philip A (miscues All)

Rather than moving a child on to a new page the teacher may decide the child needs to re-read the page.

Teacher A - "They had read very hesitantly so they re read in order to get some meaning from the page."

D9

Carl Soon Tim-Tom looked up now (miscues in) said
(miscues surprise)

Teacher Now just a minute.
Start again.

Soon

Carl Soon Tom looked up now (miscues in)

Teacher in

Carl in surprise.

Finally, of course, the teacher uses a direction move in order to inform the child that the interaction is being terminated.

F3

Jan for you,
one day.

Teacher Good girl.
We'll stop there.

As with the start of a read so too at the finish the teacher may only use a single word marker to indicate to the child that the interaction is complete.

D7

Peter with the ball.

Teacher Okay.
Right.

3 Providing words

Once a child reading miscues a word in some form then the teacher has a number of possible strategies which she can adopt. She can ignore the miscue, that is not respond to it in any way, provide feedback in order to inform the child of the miscue, provide a move which suggests to the child ways of dealing with the word - word recognition, phonic or comprehension moves, or she can provide the word which has been miscued.

D24

Carl they walked
to the new//

Teacher white
Carl house.
Teacher Right.

Teacher D provides the word white following a hesitation by Carl.
Miscues of substitution are also likely to bring forth a providing word move from some teachers.

D21

Kamran Jane (miscues Jump)
Teacher (aside) This.
Jump
Kamran Jump and Play.

In some instances a child may meet a word, begin to decipher the word by phonic analysis and receive from the teacher a providing word move.

D7

Peter Roger Red Hat
had a red ball.
A little /wh/
Teacher white
Peter white dog came (miscues went) by.

Occasionally a teacher may provide the word which has been miscued by the child and extend the information given by reading some of the words which are either before or after the miscued word. The miscued word is, therefore, provided within the context of the sentence being read.

B11

Mark where to go.
He//
Teacher wanted
He wanted a
Mark a home.
He wanted a bed to sleep in.

However, although this pedagogical move is frequently used by some teachers, providing the word for the child might deny him the opportunity for self-correction which it has been argued (Clay, 1972) is an important aspect of oral reading. There is, therefore, a view which indicates that this particular form of pedagogical move is not conducive to the reading development of the young child.

The teacher should avoid giving the word to a child immediately or allowing other children to help when the child first encounters a problem. This will hinder the child's attempt to discover strategies to make the best use of all the language cue systems.

(Goodman, Y.M. 1970; p 458)

The extent to which a child may become dependent on the teacher as a provider of words is to be found at the conclusion of the C26 interaction.

Jason	He can, //
Teacher	make
Jason	make
Teacher	Black
Jason	Black
Teacher	Pony
Jason	Pony
Teacher	run
Jason	run
Teacher	fast
Jason	fast

It is Teacher C who is reading, providing the words, while Jason's role is now that of repeating the words which have been uttered. This pedagogical move is, as has been shown in Table 2, used by different teachers at varying levels of frequency. Teacher C makes considerable use of providing words; she appears to be unwilling to allow the child, reading orally, time for reflection and possibly self correction. In contrast Teacher A appears to be reluctant to provide a word, indeed

on one occasion it was noted that she was prepared to allow a silence of thirty seconds before providing the word.

The children in the classes of Teacher A and Teacher C have quite different experiences in oral reading. Children in Class A read, meet a word which for them is difficult, but are aware that although they may be given guidance - word recognition, phonic, comprehension - with the word they are unlikely to be told the word. Children in Class C read, meet a word which for them is difficult, and can expect to be provided with the word if the problem persists. This might eventually lead to the type of interaction indicated above, C26.

More usually a reliance upon providing the word moves leads to the type of interaction as noted towards the conclusion of D23.

D23

Andrew		Tim and I see not (miscues you). Away (miscues And)
Teacher	Ah! Ah! Not Away.	
Andrew		The (miscues And)
Teacher	No. What's the first sound? /A/ /n/ /d/ And	
Andrew		little Puff sees not (miscues you).
Teacher		sees
Andrew		not (miscues you).
Teacher	No.	/y/
Andrew		not
Teacher		you.
Andrew		you.
		Away (miscues We)
Teacher		We

Andrew We see not (miscues you)

Teacher you

Andrew you funny Spot.

Teacher Right.
 Have you got a cold or something.
 Okay.

Teacher D uses a number of pedagogical moves and negative feedback in this example. Nevertheless, each of the words miscued - And, you, We, you - are at some stage, whether immediately or after another move, provided by Teacher D for Andrew.

4 Word recognition

When a child reading from a text miscues in some form he might be asked by the teacher to reconsider the word which is creating the problem. This request to reconsider - a pedagogical move of word recognition - is most frequently uttered by providing some or all of the words in the sentence which precedes the miscue.

A17

Helen Help! called the chief of police.
 We are snowed in at the police station.
 Would you help us to get out to look after
 the people of the town?
 Follow me! said Katy as she began

Teacher (aside) It is.

Helen (reads on) to push (miscues plough) her way

Teacher to

Helen plough

Teacher Good girl.
 plough

Helen her way across town.

The teacher in this example quite simply says "to" but by rising intonation and within the context of a hearing children read interaction the message is clearly understood, i.e. you have miscued a word, go back to the word 'to' and try again.

given the time to fully utilise the cues which existed in the text and of which they had some knowledge. However, it does seem that use of a word recognition move to encourage a child to reconsider a miscue can be helpful in producing accurate reading of a text. The use of such a move is perhaps related to Butler and Clay's (1979) view of sensitive teaching.

Not to tell, not to drill, not merely to reward with approval, but to bring the child to the point where, on his own, he can search and check and work out messages for himself.

(Butler and Clay 1979; p 21)

5 Phonic analysis

The teachers in this study frequently suggested to children, by use of a phonic move, that they should use their knowledge of phonics in order to cue accurately a word which was being miscued. This phonic move occurred most frequently after miscues of substitution or hesitation and emphasised the initial letter(s). This emphasis upon the initial letter(s) does perhaps serve to develop in children the idea that initial letters or words provide salient clues to the deciphering of words (Marchbanks and Levin, 1965).

C13

Jason (reads on) a big surprise at the farm.
Look here, Jane, said Dick.
All the nuts fell//

Teacher (aside) Right colour that page before you go on to the next one.

/fr/

Jason from the tree.

Teacher Good.

The most frequently used phonic moves by the teacher are those which specifically utter the initial letter(s) as in C13 above, or as in D5 where the teacher asks what is the first sound.

D5

Richard He said, //

Teacher (aside) Which piece is missing?
What's the first sound?

Richard /c/-can I help my - help you?
Oh, yes!

Only in very few instances did any of the teachers move away from these phonic moves to moves which refer to 'phonic rules'.

A1

Clinton They-They could not see Sun Dew
We will look near that pin (miscues pine)

Teacher Now what does that e do.

Clinton pine tree.

Teacher Good boy.

The three examples of phonic moves C13, D5 and A1 indicate that they might be helpful to a child and enable him to cue accurately a previously miscued word. The success rate following the phonic pedagogical move was approximately 50%. Although there is some variation between teachers, there is overall an indication that children self correct in one out of two instances where the teacher provides a phonic move. This form of pedagogical move may be of assistance to the child's reading. An example from F7 demonstrates how a child appears to use a phonic move as an aid to accurately decoding a word.

F7

Nicky One day, Mr Red-hat
came up the hill,
Up-Old man, he cried,
You will have to go.
You must go down
to the foot of the hill//

Teacher /f/

Nicky /f/-/or/- for the wind is coming.

It is also noticeable that following approximately 25% of phonic moves the teacher has to provide further phonic moves to enable the

child to cue the word.

B19

Ian Can you buy tea
at your shop?
Buy a packet of tea
//

Teacher What's this sound?

Ian /f/

Teacher /fr/

Ian From the shop.
Weigh the tea (miscues packet)

Furthermore, in approximately one in five instances the teacher follows up a phonic move by providing the word for the child. This figure is perhaps accentuated by Teacher D who would often follow a phonic move by providing the word without giving the child adequate time to consider the text and/or the information provided by the pedagogical move.

D1

Lisa lady (miscues woman)

Teacher No.
What's the sounds.
/wo/
woman

Lisa woman
//

Teacher /w/ - /w/
went

Lisa went to bag (miscues live)

Teacher No, look.
Come on.
What's the first sound?
/l/
live

An initial consideration might suggest that the phonic move is helpful to the child in that it allows the child to self-correct following

50% of these pedagogical moves. However, it could be argued that this move is far more restrictive than the word recognition move. A phonic move is clearly directing a child to grapho-phonic cue systems, therefore limiting the use of other cue systems (Goodman, K., Goodman, Y. and Burke, 1978). Whereas the word recognition move while not denying the possible use of grapho-phonic systems might also suggest the syntactic and semantic systems. It is interesting to speculate on the child's response below, D7, had a word recognition move been utilised instead of the phonic move - "What's the first sound."

D7

Peter Roger Red hat
had a red ball.
A little /wh/

Teacher white

Peter white dog came (miscues went) by.

Teacher Not came by.
What's the first sound?

Peter I don't know.

6 Comprehension

Moves which emphasise comprehension are most frequently noted at the end of a read. The comprehension moves being used to ascertain whether a child has not only spoken with accuracy the words from the text but also has extracted some understanding of the passage.

A24

Sanjay The tree shook and there was a crack
as the-as it came crashing to the ground.
Randy was happy.
At last he had pulled down a tree and
now he knew that he was growing strong.

Teacher Beautifully read.
Well done Sanjay.
How was Randy pulling down the tree?
With his hands?

Sanjay His trunk.

Teacher His trunk.
Have you got a trunk?

Sanjay No.

Teacher No you haven't have you?
Well done.
That was very nicely read.

Less frequently there were comprehension moves which appeared at the beginning of an interaction and helped to set the scene for the text which was to be read.

E22

Teacher Rachel have I had you.

Rachel No.

Teacher Come on then Rachel.
Right Rachel wait a moment.
Let's have this over here.
Rainbow's End.
What was this story about?
'Cos you're half way through it aren't you.

Rachel Broken down van.

Teacher Broken down.
Was it a broken down van or a broken down lorry?

Rachel Broken down lorry.

Teacher Broken down lorry.
How did it break down?

Rachel Oh.

Teacher You don't know.

Rachel I can't remember now.

Teacher You can't remember.
Well you think about it, look.
Where were the children going anyhow?

Rachel They were going to have a picnic.

Teacher They were going to have a picnic.

Later in this interaction Teacher E again uses comprehension moves as Rachel is reading. This use of comprehension moves in the middle of an interaction was least frequently evident and it must remain speculative as to whether such moves during a read will greatly assist the child's understanding of the text or serve to disrupt the child's involvement with the words and meaning of the passage.

E22

- Rachel Yes, it could be, said the man from the garage. It could be the back axle that is broken down.
It's a breakdown.
- Teacher Yes it is.
The back axle's important isn't it.
- Rachel Yes.
- Teacher What's happening now do you think?
- Rachel He's tied the rope to the lorry and he's bringing it up the hill to the garage.
- Teacher That's right.
What's it called when you tie a rope to another car?
What's that one doing, that one doing?
- Rachel It's towing it up.
- Teacher It's towing it.
We say it's towing it.
Because it's pulling it.
It's got to be a strong rope to do that hasn't it.
- Rachel Oh yes.
What will you do? asked the driver.

What type of comprehension questions do the teachers ask in order to determine that the child has some understanding of the passage? It would appear that there are three main types. Firstly, there are questions which quite specifically ask for word meaning.

E6

- John across the road and
there were three planks over it.
Roger put his foot on the middle plank.
The plank tipped up.

Teacher What's a plank?

John It's a piece of wood.

There are questions which relate the text to the child's own experience. Can they apply the knowledge of words or understanding of the passage to their own world. The interaction E6 continues with Teacher E asking John about his own experiences with a plank

albeit at a superficial level.

E6

John It's a piece of wood.

Teacher Yes.
 Have you ever played on a plank?

John Yes.

Teacher Yes.
 It's like a see-saw isn't it if you put it on the right
 part.

It is part of the teacher's rationale for asking comprehension questions to determine if the child can apply the text to his own experience. Teacher A asks comprehension type questions to see,

"If they have understood the words in context
and also related to life generally."

The third type of questions asked are those which relate to the understanding of the text. Basically the teacher is finding out the extent to which the child is extracting meaning from the text.

E6

Teacher What happened on this page?
 What happened to the plank?

John It tipped up.

Teacher Did it tip up?
 Or did he tell him it might tip up.

John The plank tipped up and he fell down in the road.

The use of comprehension pedagogical moves does enable the teacher to explore whether the child is reading for meaning. It is, as indicated in Tables 2 and 8, a pedagogical move which differentiates the approach of some teachers from others when hearing children read.

FEEDBACK

While a child was reading to his teacher he received frequent feedback to indicate how well he was reading. The teacher acts as a supplier of information; that is she says in whatever manner 'right' or 'wrong' (Smith, 1971). Table 2 indicated that positive feedback was the most frequently

used teacher verbal move directed at the child who was reading. The child was told how he was getting on with his reading, not of course after every word but at certain relatively predictable moments.

A2

James Look at Susan, said Peter.

Teacher mm.

James See Susan flying.

Teacher Yes.

James See her fly up high.
See (miscues She)

Teacher No.

James She does not// /h/ /no/ hold

Teacher Good.

Now look at Penny on with her hand.

Teacher mm.

The A2 transcript provides a number of examples of predictable moments in the provision of feedback. Negative feedback is provided as a child miscues. It is immediate and indicates quite clearly to the reader which word has been miscued, i.e. the word most recently uttered. In the example A2 James miscues She and says 'See', he receives negative feedback and is able to self correct. Where the teacher fails to provide immediate negative feedback and the reader has read past the miscue then the teacher simply adds the miscued word to her negative feedback move.

E2

Tina Elizabeth has made the (miscues a) bed.

Teacher Not the.

Tina a bed.

Again the message is clearly received by the child. Tina self corrects and begins reading with the self correction.

The transcript A2 also provides examples of positive feedback. First, a

child may receive positive feedback when he self corrects a miscue. James hesitates then builds up the word hold, he receives positive feedback - "good" from the teacher.

Second, a correction may, of course, come after the teacher has provided a pedagogical move to help the child.

B1

Mark all came (miscues come)

Teacher No. They all

Mark come

Teacher That's it.

However, the outcome is similar; a positive feedback move after Mark corrects his miscue.

The third example of positive feedback occurs where James, A2, reads correctly a line/sentence "Look at Susan, said Peter." This provision of feedback after such a small amount of reading is likely to be provided for the weakest readers, as perceived by the teacher. The message appears to be twofold. The child is told that his reading is appropriate and also is asked to continue reading. Importantly, however, the child with limited reading attainment is informed that his predictions of the printed page are correct.

Fourth, a reader receives positive feedback at the end of a page and/or his complete reading interaction. Although most children will receive positive feedback at this point the more able readers might have had to read the whole page or pages before receiving their first positive feedback from the teacher.

A21

Brett

That was harder then-than pulling houses.
She can do anything, said one man.
When the snow comes, Katy will have
to push snow off the roads, said another.
That will be harder than anything
that she will have done all summer.
Katy will get along all right,
said one of the men. The harder the work
she has to do the better she likes it.

Teacher Good boy, Brett.

In this example, Brett who is perceived by the teacher as an able reader has had to read a complete page before receiving positive feedback. In uttering a move of positive feedback the teachers utilised a word or few words. In the examples above "mm", "yes", "good", "that's it", "good boy (girl)" and also not indicated "right", "fine" and "okay". The positive feedback, therefore, provides a minimum of interruption to the child reading, this is especially so with the move "mm". This minimal interruption of a child's thought may be a critical factor, especially with the weakest readers, in order to develop a flow of reading. As a variation to the above examples of positive feedback words the teacher may repeat the child's last word or words to indicate that he is reading accurately.

C22

Jason

No, no, no, said Ellen.
Now let Dick and//

Teacher

Peter-Peter

Jason

Peter guess.

Teacher

guess.

Teacher C by following Jason's "guess" with her own "guess" and appropriate intonation has informed Jason that he is reading accurately.

It is, of course, possible for a child to misinterpret this message of positive feedback.

D4

Steven in it.

Teacher it.

Steven I said it.

Teacher Oh sorry.
Right.

Steven Tim can play in it.

In this case Teacher D repairs the interaction with an apology and marker Steven then continues to read.

The teachers in this study provided an indication of the ability of the children in their class at reading, as they, the teachers, at that time, perceived it. This perception of the child's reading may influence the amount of feedback which is given (Table 3).

TABLE 3

Feedback provided for readers

+ positive
- negative

Teacher	Ablest readers		Average readers			Weakest readers			All readers			
	+	(n)	-	+	(n)	-	+	(n)	-	+	(n)	-
A mean	49	(11)	7	54	(9)	5	116	(10)	32	219	(30)	44
	4.45		0.63	6.00		0.55	11.60		3.20	7.30		1.46
B mean	26	(9)	5	29	(9)	12	50	(9)	27	105	(27)	44
	2.88		0.55	3.22		1.33	5.55		3.00	3.88		1.62
C mean	27	(7)	1	113	(14)	29	30	(5)	14	170	(26)	44
	3.85		0.14	8.07		2.07	6.00		2.80	6.53		1.69
D mean	21	(8)	20	69	(15)	47	6	(1)	6	96	(24)	73
	2.62		2.50	4.60		3.13	6.00		6.00	4.00		3.04
E mean	55	(9)	34	112	(13)	95	33	(3)	20	200	(25)	149
	6.11		3.77	8.61		7.30	11.00		6.66	8.00		5.96
F mean	56	(9)	1	88	(9)	5	49	(6)	13	193	(24)	19
	6.22		0.11	9.77		0.55	8.16		2.16	8.04		0.79
All mean	235	(53)	68	465	(69)	193	284	(34)	112	983	(156)	373
	4.41		1.28	6.73		2.79	8.35		3.29	6.30		2.39

It is evident that the weakest readers receive more positive feedback, 8.35, and negative feedback, 3.29, per read than do ablest and average readers. Part of the explanation for this may be noted in earlier transcripts A2 and A21. Weakest readers may receive feedback after a line or sentence of reading whereas ablest readers may have to read a complete page before receiving feedback. It may also be the case that weakest readers miscue more frequently thus creating the opportunity for negative feedback to occur.

The reasons behind the explanation must be more speculative. It may be that weakest readers receive most feedback due to an awareness of the teachers that the weakest readers require most information in order to begin to develop rules about reading (Smith, 1971). Or it may be that the teachers are using a sophisticated form of intermittent reinforcement in which for the ablest readers there is an increase in the number of responses per reinforcement (Skinner, 1968). Yet another possible reason might be that the teachers recognise different purposes for hearing children read. This might range from checking on comprehension with the ablest readers to imparting a feeling of success to the weakest readers (Moyle, 1968). Whatever the reason may be, it can be noted that weakest readers in this study did receive more positive feedback per read than either average or ablest readers. It might, therefore, be argued that the Matthew effect in the classroom (Burstall, 1978), did not occur during the hearing children read interactions of this study. Indeed a reverse Matthew effect of the weakest receiving most praise and encouragement was indicated.

ASIDES

During the course of the 156 interactions the teachers spent some of their time in verbal interaction with other children in the class. There were 1997 asides noted in this study, a mean of 12.8 per hearing children read

interaction. This switching of attention from the child reading to others in the classroom is not unique to this study, it has been reported elsewhere (King, 1978; Southgate et al, 1978; and Gray, 1979).

These asides are used for two main purposes. There are asides to direct, control and organise the other children in the classroom, they are teacher initiated moves. Secondly, there are asides which are a response to a child initiated move, most usually involving a child coming to the teacher's desk to seek assistance.

C7

Martin

Fun with Father.
Oh, Father! What a good time
we had at the farm! said Bobby.

Teacher

(aside) Now Simon.
(aside) Sh!

Martin

(reads on) Fine, said Mr White.
But I am glad

Teacher

(aside) Do eight o'clock on there for me.

Martin

(reads on) that you and Ted
are home.
I was just wishing that I had
someone to go fishing with me.

C7 provides examples of both types of asides. Teacher C directs Simon by a move which indicates that she is aware that he is not doing what is expected of him. The second aside is a more general "Sh!" to control the noise level in the class. The third aside is directed at a child who is at the teacher's desk with his Mathematics book.

The asides in C7 do not appear to disturb Martin in his reading of the text as he does not miscue. However, it is not possible to detect how much attention the teacher is paying to Martin's vocalisation.

In A22 Susannah does miscue by hesitating before the word 'again'. Although Teacher A is involved in an aside with Michael she is apparently still

listening to Susannah as she immediately responds to the miscue.

A22

Teacher (aside) Michael!

Susannah Andy came along the pavement//

Teacher (aside) Well you have in the box where Michael is.
again.

Susannah again.
He had on his circus clothes,
and he had on//

Teacher What does it begin with?

However, at times a child does miscue and because the teacher's attention may be elsewhere the child does not receive the support, in the form of a pedagogical move perhaps, that he requires.

C12

Michelle Stop//

Teacher (aside) Right so what's a quarter of eight?

Michelle Stop//

Teacher (aside) What would half be?
(aside) What would half of eight be?
(aside) Get a frame.
Stop

Michelle Stop//

Teacher (aside) Four p.
(aside) So what would a quarter be?

Michelle Stop bus (miscues here)

Teacher Stop /h/

Michelle here, said Mrs Red hat.

A more extreme example of the way in which asides may diminish the value of the hearing children read interaction is evident in D18.

D18

Teacher (aside) You've got six pennies, right. How many more do you need to make ten.

Neil (reads on) Oh (miscues Do) you see what I see
Is it the hen?

Teacher (aside) One, two, three, four, five, six, right.

Neil (reads on) Is it Spot?
Is it Puff?

Teacher (aside) Right, one, two, three, four, five, six.

Neil (reads on) No, said Dick.
It is not a hen.

Teacher (aside) No you don't.

Neil (reads on) It is not Spot
It is not our little kitten,
It is a black cat, said Jane.
A mother cat and baby kittens.

Teacher (aside) How many?
(aside) You've got six pennies, right.
(aside) How many more do you need to make ten?

Neil (reads on) One, two, three, four.
Four baby kittens.
We have a new family in the barn.
A cat and four kittens.

Teacher (aside) Look there's six pennies there.
(aside) Six, seven, eight, nine, ten.
(aside) No.

Neil (reads on) Oh my, said Dick.

Teacher Hey, hey, you're missing out lines now. Come on.

Neil, from evidence earlier in the transcription, was finding this passage difficult to read. He, therefore, took the opportunity of missing out lines while the teacher's attention was elsewhere. Observation of this interaction suggested the evasion was quite deliberate, Neil missed lines as a means of avoiding parts of the text which were proving difficult.

Although asides can be used without detriment to the hearing children read interaction, C7 and A22, it has been shown that the use and in particular over use of asides can influence the value of the interaction, C12 and D18. The aside is a move which is utilised to greater or lesser degree by teachers, Table 2. The approach of a teacher to the hearing children read interaction, whether a ritualised activity or an active teaching event, might be detected by the number of asides used, Tables 2 and 7.

NON-RESPONSE

The preceding sections have indicated various teacher verbal moves which the teachers utilised either directed to the child reading or to others in the classroom. There were, however, occasions when the child reading miscued but the teacher did not respond. This might occur when the teacher's attention was elsewhere and the miscue was not heard, e.g. D18 above. Children did produce sentences with substitutions which, although they might contain elements of graphic and/or syntactic similarities with the text, were semantically inappropriate.

C15

Teacher (aside) Two and two?
Phillip (reads on) We with (miscues will) get (miscues go)
Teacher (aside) Four and two more makes?
Phillip (reads on) out there and
up (miscues help) we (miscues our) friends
Teacher (aside) No, and two more than four?

Had the teacher's attention been with Phillip it is probable that the miscues would have received a verbal move from the teacher in order to produce a more acceptable response to the text.

At other times miscues were not responded to by the teacher despite the fact that her attention appeared to be with the reader.

A2

James A hat for Mother! A hat for Dad! (miscues
Daddy)
A hat for Susan and one
Teacher mm.
James of (miscues for)
Teacher one
James for Penny.

Teacher A is responding to James during this interaction and provides positive feedback "mm" and a word recognition move "one". However, the

substitution miscue of 'Dad' for 'Daddy' receives no response. It may well be that the miscue is of such graphic, syntactical and semantic similarity that it would be pedantic to bring James's attention to the miscue. The miscue is regarded as a good error (Hood, 1978) and, therefore, merits a non-response.

Non response by a teacher to a miscue by a child, particularly when miscues of substitution are considered, is likely to occur for one of two reasons. Firstly, the non-response occurs because the teacher's attention is elsewhere. Secondly, non-response is apparent when the child's substitution miscue is regarded as a good error.

The analysis of teacher verbal moves and non responses serves to clarify the way in which various moves are brought together within an interaction. The analysis also demonstrates why moves are utilised at certain times and how the reading development of the child may be influenced by the teacher's use of the various moves.

8. Features of the interaction.

Although it was the verbal interaction between teacher and child in hearing children read which was the central aspect of this study, nevertheless, other features which are of some pedagogical importance were documented. These aspects, frequency, time, physical features and record keeping were noted during the periods of observation, while recording the interactions, and on occasions were followed up in the interview with the teacher.

(i) Frequency.

The six teachers in this study were asked to indicate how frequently they heard read the ablest, average and weakest readers in their class. This question is similar to the one which was asked by the survey in The Bullock Report and which contributes so much to the subsequent discussion in that report. The response to this question is indicated below, Table 4.

TABLE 4

Frequency with which infant children read to their teacher in a week, by reading ability of the pupils. Teacher A-F response for each category				
	Daily	3 or 4 times	1 or 2 times	Less often
The ablest reader	B	AD	CEF	--
The average reader	AB	DEF	C	--
The weakest reader	ABEF	CD	--	--

With such small numbers in this study it would be inappropriate to draw any firm conclusions from these responses. However, it is interesting to note that the most frequent response for the various reading abilities of the children is similar to that expressed by teachers of 6 year olds in The Bullock Report. Namely ablest readers are most likely to be heard once or twice a week, average readers three or four times a week and

weakest readers daily. It also adds confirmation to the view expressed by Gray (1979) that the average child was perhaps being heard read four times a week. King (1978) also indicated that teachers attempt to hear readers daily, especially beginners who might be regarded within a class as the weakest readers.

The responses shown in Table 4 are indicative of the teachers' perception of what they attempt to do and, as Bassey (1978) indicates, this may not always be an image of classroom practice. Indeed Gray (1976) notes in his study of infant classrooms that after classroom observation,

It was possible to challenge the teacher's estimate of the frequency with which children were heard reading. This usually resulted in some downward revision of the estimate but the extent of this revision appeared to remain fairly constant. Teachers who said they spent more time hearing children read usually did.

(Gray, 1976; p 165)

As the observer in this study did not remain in the classroom for an extended period of time it was not possible to make a direct observation of the frequency of the interaction. However, a check on the estimates of frequency given by the teachers could be made in other ways.

Teacher A kept a simple record book of the interaction this, amongst other elements, indicated the day which a child read and the page(s) which was read. It was, therefore, possible to check her estimate of hearing weakest and average readers daily and ablest readers three or four times a week against her record of what was actually achieved, Table 5.

TABLE 5

Daily record of children reading to Teacher during a complete term, from record book, by reading ability of the pupils. Percentages					
	a) Read to Teacher	b) Did not read to Teacher	c) Absent	d) Total	a) + c) Read to Teacher or Absent
Ablest Readers (9)	77.55	10.18	12.27	100	89.82
Average Readers (9)	87.51	2.31	10.18	100	97.69
Weakest Readers (10)	81.04	0.21	18.75	100	99.79

The figures presented do indicate that weakest and average readers were being heard read daily, if they were in school, over a complete term. There were only isolated occasions when such children did not read to the teacher. The ablest readers also read to the teacher at about the level of her estimate. It is evident, therefore, that not only does Teacher A put considerable emphasis upon hearing children read but also is able to organise her class in such a way as to make this a reality rather than an unrealised aspiration. The use of a simple form of record keeping in order to check on children who have been heard may be a necessary feature of linking estimates to reality.

Of concern, but outside the scope of this study, was the considerable loss of schooling, almost one day per week, by the weakest readers. The links between reading level and attendance, among children of this age group, have been noted elsewhere with the irregular attender causing particular concern (Clark, 1970).

Teacher B indicated in her response that she expected to hear not only the weakest readers read daily but indeed all the children in her class. In this she would appear to be attempting to follow the advice of such authors as Hughes (1970)(1972)(1973), Moyle (1968) and Moyle and Moyle (1974) who stress the importance of hearing children read as often as possible.

Teacher B - "I hear them all every day."

Observer - "Have you a record of the children reading each day?"

Teacher B - "No, I just put the cards (child's name plus book/page being read) across to another pile until I've heard them all. Now if I don't hear them they will be heard first next day and I'll give them longer - but it's most unusual."

Within the second statement there is an indication that Teacher B recognises she does not always meet her aspirations within the reality of

the classroom. As to the reason for hearing children read daily, she replied,

Teacher B - "I'm sure it's better for the child to read half a page every day than to read two pages every three days. I don't understand why - but it seems logical that they will do better with a little help every day."

The similarity of this statement with the view expressed by Moyle (1968) is worth noting.

Once a child has started upon a reading scheme the aim should be to hear him read a little every day. This is better than several pages every third or fourth day.

(Moyle 1968; p 122)

It was not possible to check further Teacher B's estimate of frequency but, as will be seen later, the amount of time she spent on each interaction was less than any other teacher in the study. This would confirm one aspect of her statement that she hears a little reading on each occasion.

It was difficult with the other teachers in the study to check on the actual frequency of the interaction. Either there was no record kept which would enable this to happen or the observer was reluctant to emphasise what might be construed as checking on the teacher's work and/or honesty. It was felt that the collection and observation of the actual interaction was too important to be hindered by any misunderstanding. Clearly, if the frequency aspect of the interaction was seen to be of crucial importance, then constant observation of a classroom over a sustained period of time could extract these details. The indications within this limited sample were that children are heard reading frequently, that weakest readers are heard more frequently than average or able readers, and that teachers do put a considerable effort into achieving their aspirations, furthermore, with at least one of the teachers the reality of the classroom coincided with her aspirations.

(ii)Time.

Complete information on the length of each of the one hundred and fifty six interactions is, of course, readily available within the recordings. The details are provided in Table 6.

TABLE 6

Time spent hearing children read, by reading ability of the pupils. Minutes. Seconds (n)							
	A	B	C	Teacher		F	Totals
				D	E		
Ablest readers							
range	1.18- 3.28	1.30- 3.45	4.05- 8.00	2.35- 7.20	4.20- 9.30	2.20- 7.45	1.18- 9.30
mean	2.35(11)	2.22(9)	5.24(7)	4.34(8)	6.33(9)	5.02(9)	4.18(53)
Average readers							
range	1.35- 6.37	1.45- 3.20	1.30- 8.15	2.00- 7.10	5.15- 14.40	2.25- 10.45	1.30- 14.40
mean	2.47(9)	2.30(9)	5.45(14)	3.49(15)	8.05(13)	5.58(9)	4.59(69)
Weakest readers							
range	2.15- 5.55	1.20- 4.07	2.00- 6.25	5.00	7.10- 13.10	3.05- 7.05	1.20- 13.10
mean	3.43(10)	2.21(9)	4.24(5)	5.00(1)	9.17(3)	5.25(6)	4.17(34)
Totals							
range	1.18- 6.37	1.20- 4.07	1.30- 8.15	2.00- 7.20	4.20- 14.40	2.20- 10.45	1.18- 14.40
mean	3.01(30)	2.24(27)	5.23(26)	4.07(24)	7.41(25)	5.29(24)	4.36(155)

The mean for all one hundred and fifty six observations with six teachers was four minutes thirty six seconds. This indicates a substantially longer period of time being devoted to the interaction than the two to three minutes noted by either Arnold (1977), with teachers of 1st and 2nd year juniors, or Gray (1979), with infant school teachers. The even lower average, noted by King (1978) with infant school teachers, of seventy three seconds was not matched by a single interaction in this study although A23 at seventy eight seconds was close to the King average and there were other interactions of less than two minutes.

What is noticeable is the wide variation in time spent by the teachers on

the interaction. The range for all one hundred and fifty six observations was from one minute eighteen seconds, A23 an able reader, to fourteen minutes forty seconds, E4 an average reader. This would also suggest that the nine minute fifty five second interaction noted in the Raban, Wells and Nash (1976) report should not be regarded as unusual.

The overall indication of this study was that children of whatever perceived ability were likely to receive relatively similar lengths of time for the hearing children read interaction. The means for ablest, average and weakest readers were all four minutes plus. However, these statistics for all six teachers do hide individual variations. Teachers A and E both spent longer periods of time listening to the average and weakest readers in their classes with the weakest readers receiving the longest interaction times. Teachers B and F devoted relatively similar times to all readers as perhaps did Teacher D, although only having one recording of a weak reader with Teacher D makes it inappropriate to emphasise this statement. Teacher C provides a contrast here to Teachers A and E, as she does on other aspects of the interaction. Teacher C during the course of this study spent longer periods of time with the ablest readers than the average or weakest readers, and weakest readers had least time of all devoted to their interactions. This was in spite of the view, expressed by Teacher C, that she spent more time in any one session with the weakest readers.

Although the amount of time spent on the interactions is of some importance, especially perhaps to the overall classroom organisation, it is the quality of the interaction which may determine the pedagogical value of such events (Morris, 1966). The two shortest interactions in this study were A23, one minute eighteen seconds, and B19, one minute twenty seconds. Both of these interactions are shorter in length than either Boydell (1975) or Goddard (1958) would consider adequate for diagnostic and teaching purposes.

Teacher What's this sound?

Ian /f/

Teacher /fr/

Ian from the shop.
Weigh the tea (miscues packet).

Teacher No, steady. Weigh the

Ian packet of tea.
You can // take the tea
to the playhouse.
You can have a tea party
for the dolls.
You can have the //

Teacher /ch/
You can have the/ch/

Ian chair (miscues children)

Teacher /chil/

Ian children
to tea.

Teacher Yes.
Well done.

In both of these interactions there are opening verbal moves which suggest a collaborative exercise by use of the pronoun "we". Each interaction is closed by positive feedback and a clear indication of the interaction being terminated. Differences do occur within the central body of the interaction. In A23 Helen, an able reader, reads competently through one page of her book self correcting an omission and substituting one word without loss of meaning. As Helen completes the page she receives positive feedback then is asked a comprehension question related to a word in the text. By contrast in B19 Ian, perceived by his teacher as a weak reader, reads one page in a manner which includes a number of hesitations and substitutions. Teacher B provides various verbal moves in an attempt to help Ian read the page.

It can be argued, therefore, that both of these interactions are positive

Paul (reads on) That is Mr Robin, said the crow.
Then the animals

Teacher (aside) You're asked to buy half a pound.

Paul (reads on) on the ground saw
that it

Teacher (aside) What would half of eighty be?

Paul (reads on) was not Mr Robin - was not Mr Robin
It was a jackdaw!

Teacher (aside) Forty, so you don't want all those.

Paul (reads on) Fooled, quacked Mr Duck.
Mr Jackdaw was making

Teacher (aside) Yes, there is a rubber there.

Paul (reads on) all the noises

Teacher/Paul that fooled us.

This interaction lasts for six minutes twelve seconds, almost two minutes longer than the mean. It does, however, contain twenty nine teacher asides and it must be questioned as to whether this interaction is merely part of a ritual rather than a meaningful teaching event.

It is not the purpose of this section, however, to raise a polemic against long interactions. An extract from E4, Mark an average reader in the longest interaction in this study at fourteen minutes forty seconds, demonstrates that these too can be positive teaching events.

E4

Mark I would like to see the horses - horses first
said - says

Teacher No,
You've missed a line.

Mark Yes you can see the horses it - if you like,
said (miscues says) the farmer.

Teacher Not said.

Mark says the farmer.
They are all out in the /f/ fens (miscues
fields)

Teacher No.
Where are they?

Mark fields.

Teacher That's right.
Field.
Is it field or fields?

Mark fields.

Teacher What makes it say fields?

Mark It's got a /s/ at the end.

Teacher That's right.

Mark 'Cos if it didn't have /s/ it would be field.

Teacher Field that's right.
They're out in the fields today.

Mark Do

Teacher Read that line again.
Because you've lost track.
This line here.

They are

Mark They are all out in the /f/

Teacher That word!

Mark fields today.

Down by the pond
/F/


Mark, in this extract, makes a number of miscues which Teacher E attempts to repair by the use of various pedagogical moves. She also questions Mark about his understanding of a rule of accidence. Within this example of hearing children read there is a meaningful discourse between Teacher E and Mark.


The element of time, therefore, although it is of some interest and is indicative of the place of hearing children read within the total classroom organisation, is not as important as the qualitative aspects of the interaction which can best be explored through a closer analysis of the transcripts and in particular the teacher verbal moves.

(iii) Physical aspects.

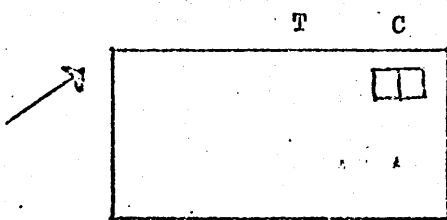
All one hundred and fifty six interactions in this study were observed to take place at the teacher's desk. The teacher would call individual children to her desk and she would then sit at her desk while the child stood beside her to read. The actual positions adopted by each of the teachers is indicated below:-

Key:- Large rectangle represents teacher's desk
T - Teacher
C - Child

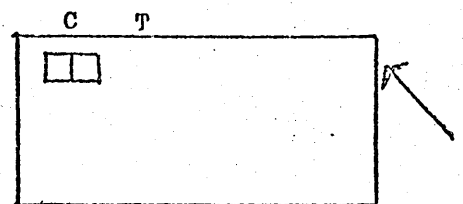
 - Book position

 - Other children coming to teacher for assistance.

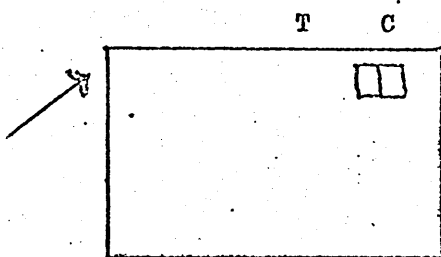
TEACHER A



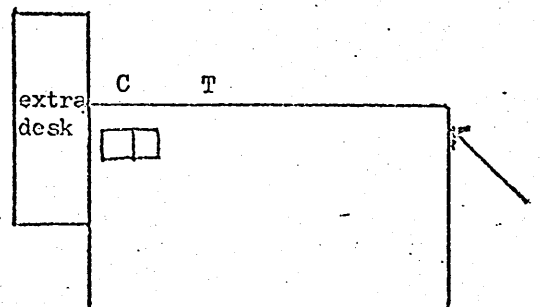
TEACHER B



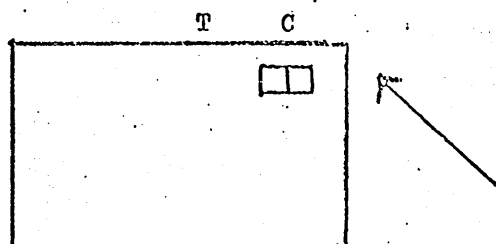
TEACHER C



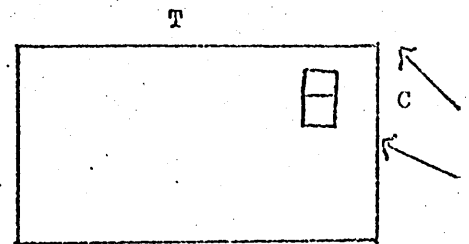
TEACHER D



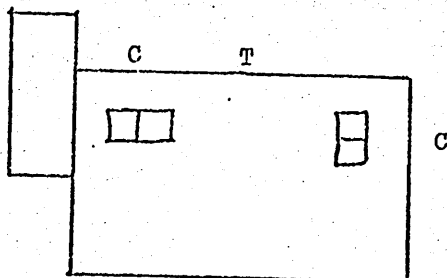
TEACHER E



TEACHER F

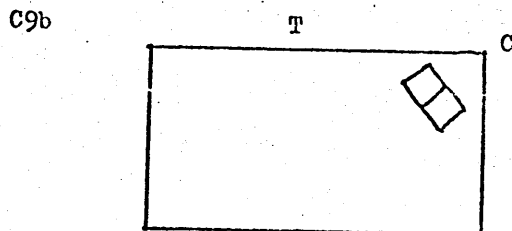
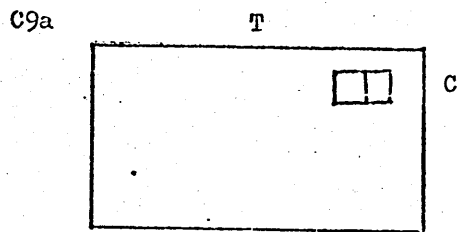


in one instance Teacher D 'heard' two children read at the same time!

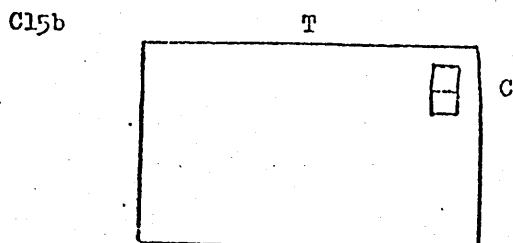
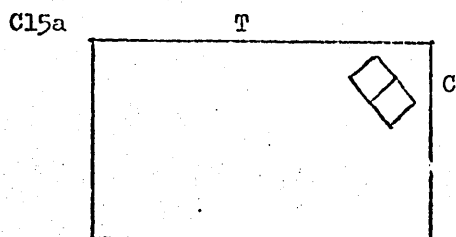


Michelle, D12, read to the teacher in the usual position. Kelly, D13, read to the left of the teacher but was allowed to read on without attention from the teacher until Michelle had finished reading. Kelly then received the teacher's attention for the last one minute ten seconds of her three minute thirty seconds read.

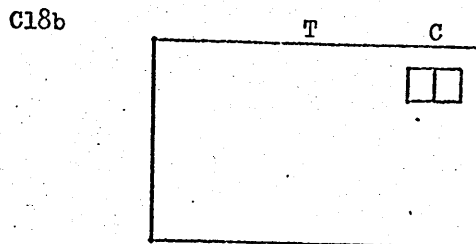
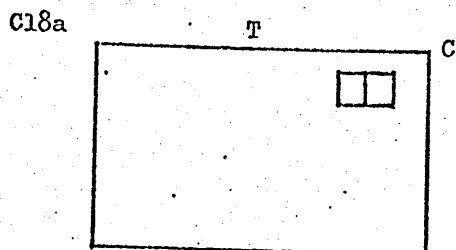
With Teacher C there were three instances where the child's position and the position of the book were illogically juxtaposed.



Julie, C9, read one page to her teacher as indicated in C9a. Julie then changed her position as well as the position of the book before carrying on to read another three pages. Analysis of Julie's miscues would suggest that these different positions had no discernable effect upon her reading.



Phillip, C15, read four pages in all to his teacher. The first two pages were read as indicated in C15a. Phillip then changed the position of the book before reading the next two pages. The number of miscues did not appear to be governed by these positional differences.



Sean, C18, read three pages from position a. He then moved to position b before reading the last of the four pages which he read on this occasion. Sean made less miscues on the last page when he was in a better position for reading. However, the differences were perhaps rather minimal. 1st page ten miscues, 2nd page five miscues, 3rd page seven miscues and 4th page four miscues.

In each of the variations it was the child who arranged his/her position to a more appropriate one. The change always being in the direction of a more logical positioning of child and book. However, it did appear that the child was able to read at his level whatever the position of the book. This has been noted in another study.

He moved his book as he read. He often turned his book fully sideways either to the left or to the right to read. Once he actually turned the book completely upside down and continued reading without an overt pause.

(Goodman Y, 1967; p 238)

Another physical feature of the interaction was the way in which the children would place a card under the line being read or finger point to the words. Children placed their reading card under the line being read in one hundred and twenty of the interactions. It has been argued that this helps the child to concentrate on his reading and avoids the omission of lines (Ireland, 1976).

The teachers in this study would tend to agree with that view,

Teacher A "When they are beginning to read I encourage them to do so. It helps them to concentrate on the line they are reading. When they improve they gradually do away with their card."

Teacher B "It's only there if they need it. I give some a card, others I encourage to read without it if they keep to the line."

Teacher C "It's something they just seem to do. Whether they've done it in the reception class I don't know. Especially Sharon does it always. Otherwise they tend to skip lines. Some of the children use their fingers word by word."

Finger pointing was apparent in seventeen of the interactions, while in nineteen of the interactions neither of these aids was utilised by the child.

Additionally, each of the teachers would point to words or the first letter(s) of a word with either finger or biro. This pointing occurred intermittently during the reading and never throughout a complete reading. The pointing, whether to a word or letter(s), may serve as a pedagogical move of word recognition or phonics. However, as there was no video recording of the interactions, it was not possible to determine accurately whether this was a significant feature of hearing children read.

(iv) Record keeping.

The Bullock Report regarded,

... recording as an essential element in the actual teaching process.

(D.E.S. 1975; p 254)

However, the actual practice of record keeping within the classroom was found to be limited in detail by both the Bullock Report and Wragg (1978). The sophisticated recording of a child's individual weaknesses and/or phonic knowledge, perhaps based on some form of miscue analysis, was utilised by few teachers. Furthermore, Dolch (1961) and Wragg (1978) suggest that teachers may keep most of their records as mental notes rather than written.

The teachers in this study kept two forms of recording, apart from Teacher B, the pupil's reading card and the teacher's record book. The details inserted on these record forms during and after hearing children read varied, however, from teacher to teacher.

Teacher A

Pupil's reading card.

John			
Up and Away 11			
27	29	33	37
✓	✓	✓	✓
39			
light	sight		
fight	tight		
someone	now		

Child's name

Book being read

Pages read satisfactorily

Page read but requires re-reading

Phonic teaching required

Miscued words to be learnt by child

Teacher's record book

30/1	31/1	1/2	2/2	3/2	6/2
Up and Away 11					
John 27	29	A	37		39 ^{PH}

Additional information provided by the teacher's record book indicates when the various pages were read, when the child was absent 1/2, that the child did not read on a certain day 3/2 and that some extra phonic teaching occurred on 6/2.

Although Teacher A does not make use of miscue analysis in her recording, she does keep a record of words and phonic elements which are causing a problem for the child. It might, therefore, be possible to detect not only the child's progress through a reading scheme, but also to note difficulties and, therefore, subsequently structure successive learning experiences.

Teacher B

Pupil's reading card

Richard
Yellow Book 2
13 15 17
<u>19</u>
21 ✓

Child's name

Book being read

Pages read satisfactorily

Page read but requires re-reading

Page heard by helper which teacher will hear again for accuracy

No extra diagnostic information was recorded on this reading card and there was no teacher's record book. Information is, therefore, limited to progress through the scheme and some indication as to how well each page is read. When asked about other diagnostic records Teacher B confirmed the observations of Wragg (1978) and Dolch (1961).

Teacher B "No, I keep a mental note in a hectic day there's no time to look at your notes."

In effect Teacher B is questioning the value of more elaborate records which subsequently may not be utilised due to pressures of time. Therefore, records are best kept where they are readily accessible, within the mind. Queries about the possible distortion of memory notes and their lack of accessibility to others must remain, however.

Teacher C

Pupil's reading card

Julie
Fun with Dick & Jane 1
50 54

Child's name

Book being read

Pages read

Teacher's record book

	13/11	20/11	27/11
	Fun with Dick & Jane 1		
Julie	50	A	54

The teacher's record book duplicates the information provided on the pupil's record card with, in addition, an indication of the week during which the child had read a particular page/book and occasions when the child had been absent. These simple records enabled Teacher C to keep a check on the child's progress through a reading scheme and note the frequency with which children had practised their oral reading. No diagnostic information is available from these records, however, Teacher C did suggest another motive for the pupil's record card.

Teacher C "Children gain satisfaction from seeing a new page number on their own card to show them how well they are getting on."

Mackay, Thompson and Schaub (1970) would argue that the reverse may operate and the recording of page number may create a sense of failure among slow learners and encourage boasting among the successful. Also children may become more interested in completing the reading scheme than developing a real interest in books.

Teacher D

Pupil's reading card

Steven
We come and go
52 54

Child's name
 Book being read
 Page to be read next

Teacher's record book

	20/11		27/11	
Steven	✓	a	✓	✓

These records are limited to noting the child's progress through a reading scheme and keeping a check on the frequency of oral reading of each child in the class. In addition Teacher D suggested,

Teacher D "Occasionally I might put words down on their reading cards but it's not very often."

There was no evidence of this occurring during the period of observation.

Teacher E

Pupil's reading card

John
Blue Book 2
11 ✓ 16 ✓ 21 ✓
27
ay play day
stay say
and

- Child's name
- Book being read
- Pages read satisfactorily
- Page read but requires re-reading
- Phonic teaching required
- Miscued word to be learnt by child

Teacher's record book

	27/11					4/12				
John	✓	✓	a	✓	✓					

The pupil's reading card, used by Teacher E, provides the same details as Teacher A, although they teach in different schools. The record does move beyond the simple page/book recording to indicate some specific phonic or word recognition difficulties. In addition the teacher's record book provides information on the frequency of children reading.

Teacher F

Pupil's record card

Anita
The Two Giants
12 15
would could

- Child's name
- Book being read
- Page to be read next
- Miscued words to be learnt by child

Teacher's record book

	27/11				4/12				
Anita	✓	✓		✓	a				

These records provide information on progress through a reading scheme, frequency of reading and some indication of words which are causing a problem for the child.

There was no evidence within this study of any teacher using miscue analysis as a means of diagnosing a child's reading difficulties. The forms of record keeping were, therefore, relatively simple involving a check on progress through the reading scheme and, in some instances, a check on frequency of oral reading. Teachers A, E and F did record words miscued and phonic problems; however, only the text word miscued is recorded and so the child's use of various cueing systems cannot be deciphered. Teacher B suggested that many of her records were kept as mental notes; thus it was not possible to study the efficiency of these notes in this study. More detailed research on the types of record kept during hearing children read, the use to which these records are put and the usefulness of such records must be left for another project.

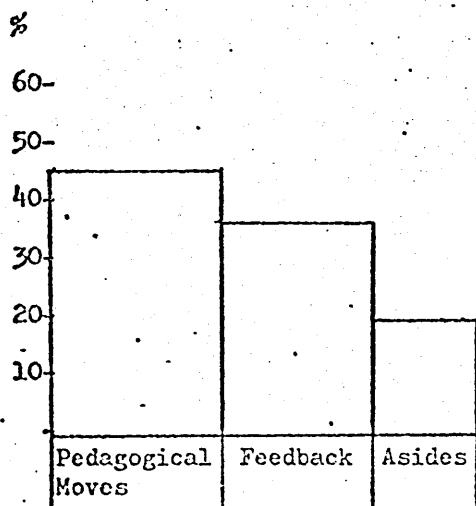
9. Six teachers.

A descriptive system of the teacher verbal moves noted in this study has already been provided. Developing from that system an analysis has been made of each of the moves and non-response as they occur within the interactions of each of the teachers. It will already be evident that there are differences in the way each of the teachers bring together the verbal moves into a complete interaction and that, therefore, the reading experiences of the children will be different in each classroom. Table 7 which provides a profile of each teacher and her use of verbal moves highlights the variations among the six teachers.

TABLE 7

TEACHER VERBAL MOVES IN 3 MAIN CATEGORIES

Teacher A



Teacher B

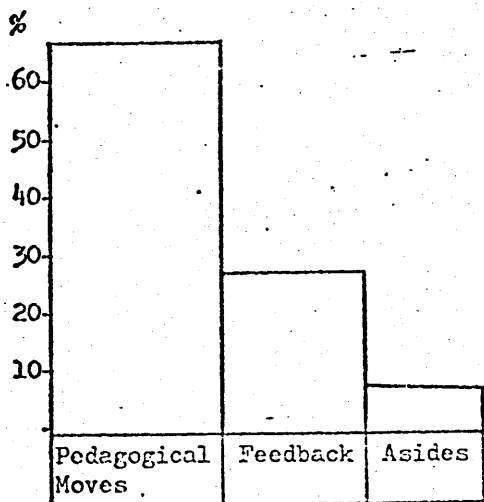
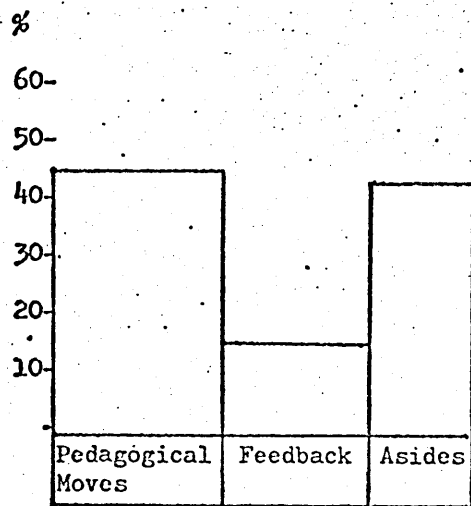


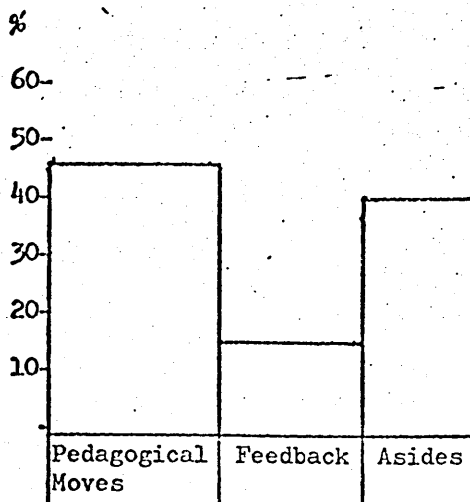
TABLE 7 Cont:

TEACHER VERBAL MOVES IN 3 MAIN CATEGORIES

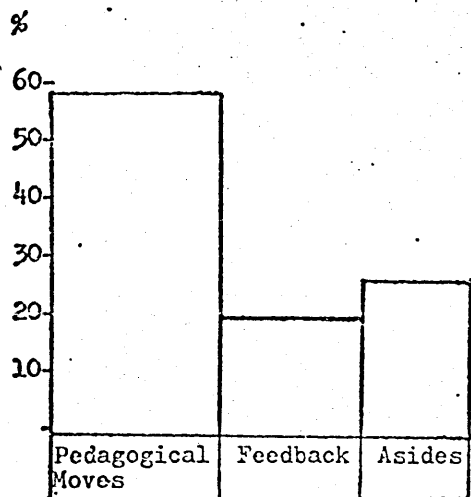
Teacher C



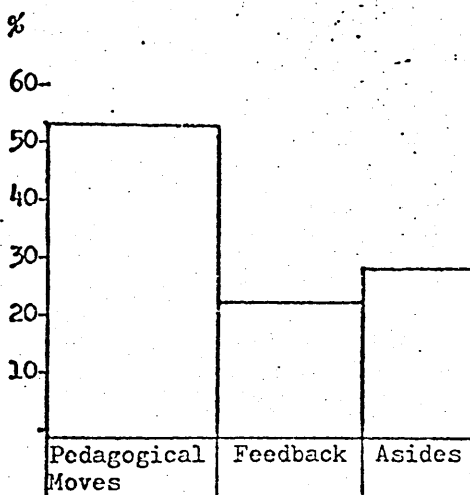
Teacher D



Teacher E



Teacher F



In particular the extent to which Teachers C and D are using asides during interactions is evident. It might be that the organisation and control in these two teacher's rooms is such that the children in the class need to make frequent reference to the teacher or that the teacher needs to be constantly directing the children. However, it might also be that Teachers C and D see hearing children read as a ritual, a task to be completed rather than as an important teaching event. Whatever the reason the profiles certainly indicate that for Teachers C and D a considerable amount of attention is directed towards children other than

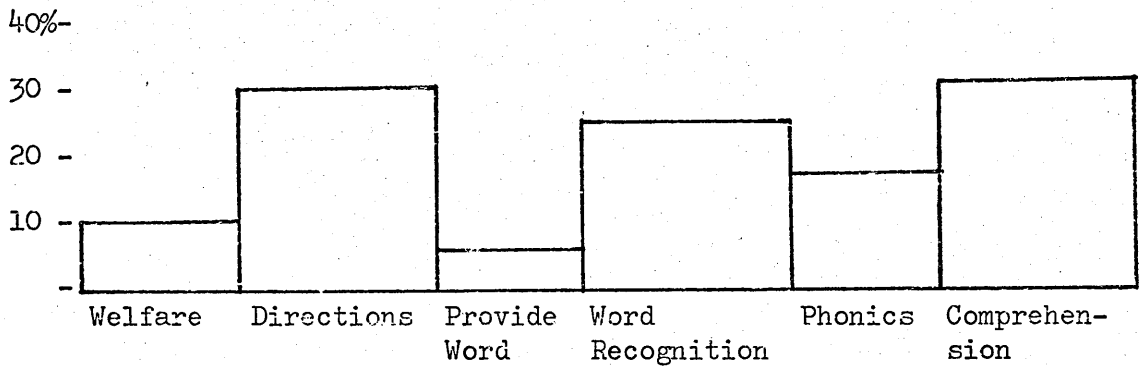
the child who is reading aloud. The experience for these readers is, therefore, likely to be quite different to that of readers in other classrooms.

A closer perusal of the variation in pedagogical moves made by the teachers brings further clarification of the teaching style of each teacher, Table 8.

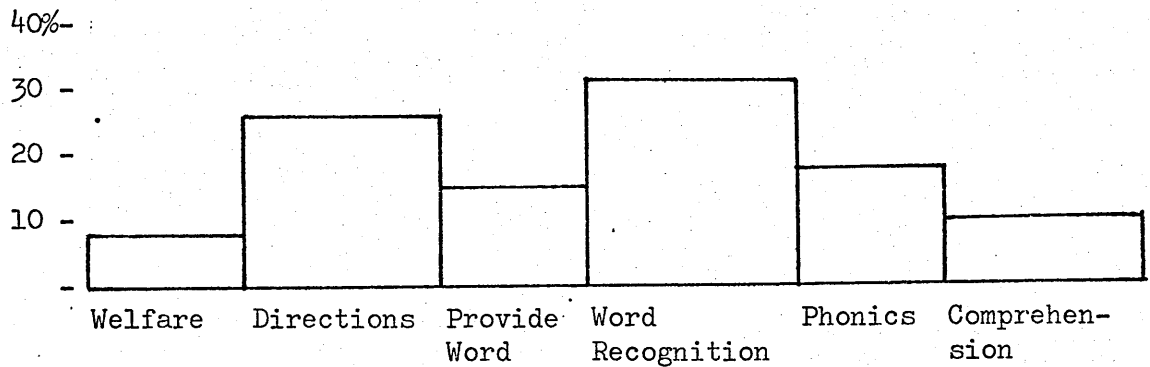
TABLE 8

TEACHER PEDAGOGICAL MOVES

Teacher A



Teacher B



Teacher C

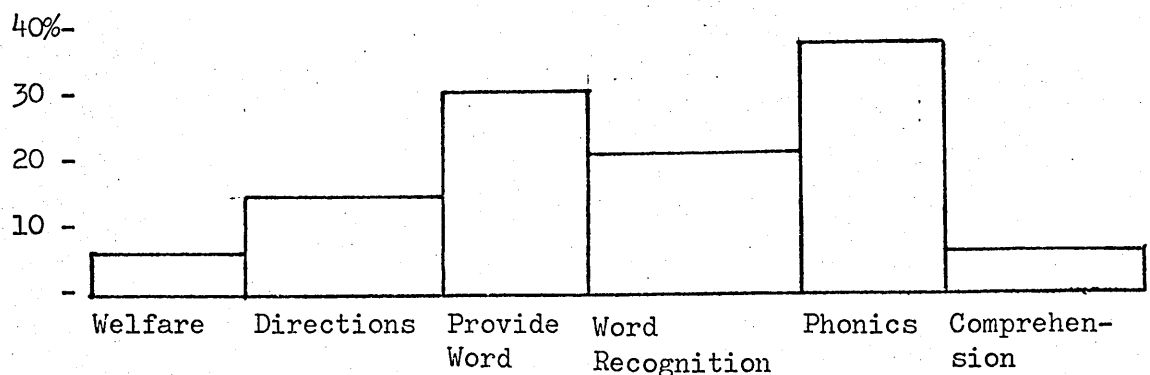
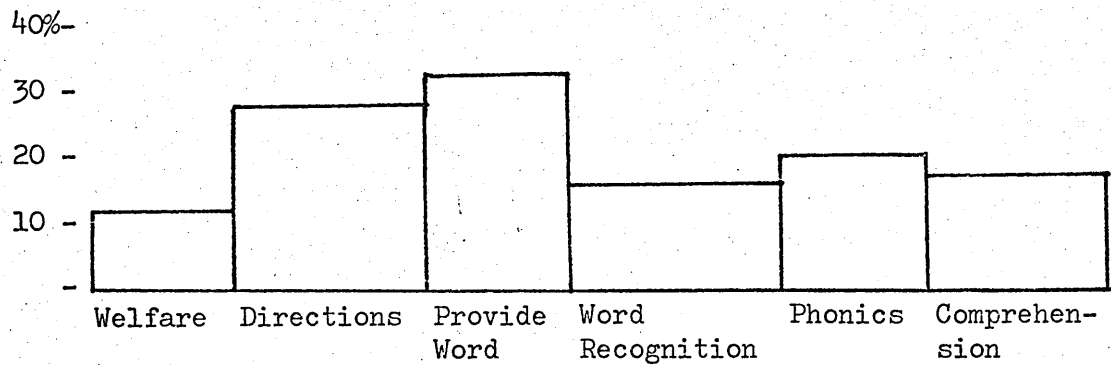


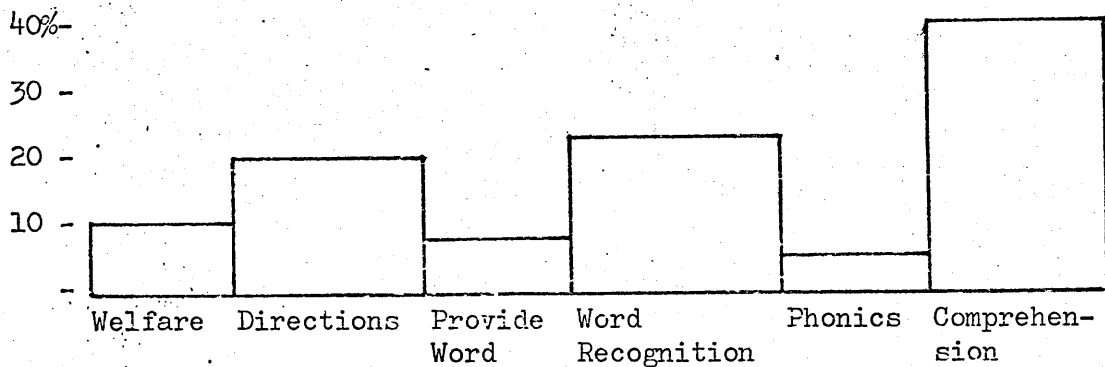
TABLE 8 Cont:

TEACHER PEDAGOGICAL MOVES

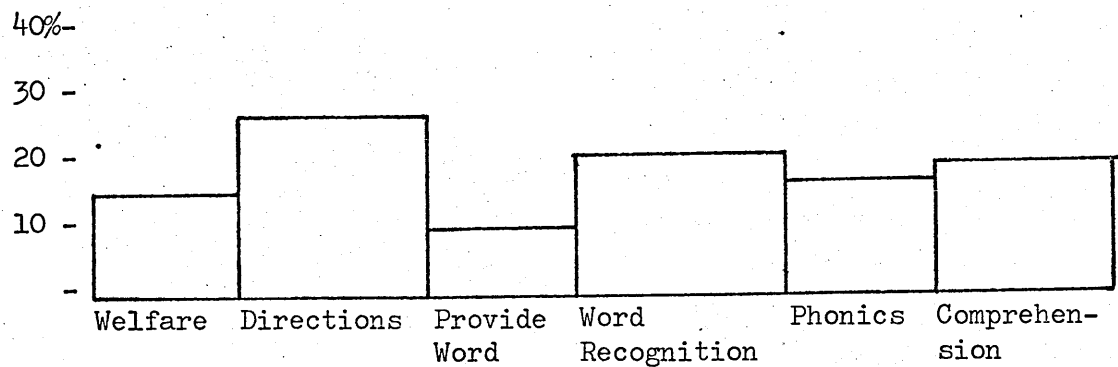
Teacher D



Teacher E



Teacher F



Teachers C and D might again be highlighted to note the extent to which they make use of the pedagogical move providing words and very limited use of comprehension questions, none at all in the case of Teacher D. This pattern does perhaps serve to emphasise the ritualised approach to hearing children read of these two teachers. The aim would appear to be related to hearing children read as a routine teaching activity (Hale, 1980) and ensuring word accuracy. This was apparent in one of

the interviews:

Teacher D "Unless words are corrected they can easily become habitual so can careless reading."

In Gulliver's (1979) view the child is seen as a passive learner and the demand for accurate recoding of graphic information reflects passive views of the reading process.

Although a perusal of Tables 7 and 8 begins to clarify the variations between the teachers as they respond to children reading orally, it is by a closer analysis of the actual transcripts that these variations are more thoroughly understood. Each of the teachers will, therefore, be considered separately and reference made to the transcripts in order to indicate the reality which lays behind the individual profiles. Other aspects of the interaction, frequency, time, physical features and record keeping will be referred to only as they might seem to clarify the teacher's mode of functioning. These aspects have already been considered in some detail (Features of the interaction). With each teacher one specific typical interaction will be analysed in detail; additionally reference will be made to other interactions as appropriate to emphasise similarities or indicate differences.

Teacher A

Teacher A has taught for ten years which includes seven years of infant school teaching. Her initial training was two years which led to a Certificate in Education. During the period of observation she had responsibility for twenty nine top infants in a five class Infant School. The class consisted of fifteen boys and fourteen girls, age range 6 yrs 3 months to 7 yrs.

On each of the five visits to her classroom the pattern of organisation was quite similar. The children were organised into groups who were working at various different activities, eg mathematics, writing, craft,

art and constructional work with bricks. Once these groups were settled into their activities a child would be called to the teacher's desk to read.

In the example chosen for analysis, Al, Clinton has already been called to the teacher's desk to read and although there is no verbal greeting to commence the interaction, the teacher turns to the child, smiles and then proceeds with the interaction. In this instance the interaction begins with the teacher questioning the child on word recognition of three words with similar endings - 'ack'. These words are on Clinton's teaching card and formed part of the diagnosis from a previous reading.

Teacher What does that begin with?
 Try to match up the blue word with the blue word.

Clinton thank (miscues track).

Teacher Nō, no, no.
 What does it begin with?
 First letter.
 mm.

Clinton tank (miscues track).

Teacher No.

Clinton trank (miscues track).

Teacher /tr/.
 Sound it.

Clinton /tr/ /a/ /ck/ track, back, sack.

Teacher Good boy.
 Right.
 (aside) Write me that one.

A feature of this opening is the manner in which the teacher guides the child towards the appropriate response. The negative feedback which is provided, "No, no, no" and "No", is given without emotional overloading. The teacher's contribution is as an information provider (Smith, 1971). The child, therefore, gets the message as to how his predictions are working. Once he has cued the three words the teacher provides positive

Clinton She may have - She may have gone to
the lake
for gold seeds.

Teacher Good boy.

Clinton She may have gone to the wood - the
wood
for red seeds.

Teacher Good boy.
Yes, carry on, do the next page.

Clinton restarts his reading - in both of these two sentences. The first occasion, to create a more sustained flow and secondly, to read the omitted word the. Teacher A again lets him know how he is reading, the use of "Good boy" and "Yes" in these instances are short but clear indicators and perhaps importantly do not distract the child from his reading. Teacher A then directs Clinton to read another page.

Clinton Big Red Wing and Little Red Wing
went to the lake.

Teacher Yes.

Clinton They - They could not see Sun Dew
We will look near that pin (miscues pine)

Teacher Now what does that e do?

Following Clinton's miscue of 'pine' the teacher provides a verbal move which suggests to him a phonic analysis, in this case reminding him of a phonic rule. Teacher A might, in this instance, have decided on a word recognition strategy perhaps by uttering "near that" or she could have provided information in the form of negative feedback, eg "no, not pin". However, she decides on a phonic analysis and this is sufficient to enable Clinton to correct his miscue.

Clinton pine tree,

Teacher Good boy.

The correction is followed by praise from the teacher as might be expected

of cue systems. The frequent use of positive feedback is the natural corollary of praising the reader for many self-corrections, corrections, completed sections of reading and at the end of a read. The limited use of asides, 4.5 per read, ensures a minimal distraction to the child reading and is pre-determined by the organisation within the classroom.

Teacher B

Teacher B has five years of teaching experience of which all but one term has been in infant schools. She is a graduate with a Postgraduate Certificate in Education. Her class consisted of twenty two children, fourteen boys and eight girls in a five class Infant School. The ages of these children at the time of observation ranged from 6 yrs 1 month to 6 yrs 8 months.

The twenty seven recordings were obtained during just two morning visits to Teacher B's classroom. This was possibly due to the relatively short time that she spent on each interaction (mean two minutes twenty four seconds). Teacher B first settled all the children into various activities and then called individual children to her desk to read.

B20 provides an example of her interactions although at three minutes twenty seconds it is somewhat longer than average. In this example Douglas has already been called to the desk to read and the interaction begins as Teacher B greets the child and enquires which page he will be reading.

Teacher Right Douglas - page?
 Now you've been away for a while.
 Let's see how you get on.
 Did you take your book home.
 mm.

Douglas Yes.

Teacher Can you remember how far you read?
 Shall we read from here then?

The opening welfare moves indicate that Teacher B is recognising Douglas's absence from school and perhaps hints at difficulties to come, "Let's see how you get on". The final move is a direction for Douglas to begin reading.

Douglas I can hear something //

Teacher I can hear

Teacher B provides a word recognition move by re-reading the words of the text from the beginning of the text. She does, however, stop one word short of the hesitation and Douglas merely reads on to the hesitation point.

Douglas something//

Teacher Now what's the first sound?

/ch/ /ee/

cheeping

I can hear something cheeping

Teacher B follows the second hesitation first with phonic moves which ask for the first sound and then subsequently provides both the first and middle sounds. However, as Douglas remains silent Teacher B decides to provide the word "cheeping" then places it into context for Douglas to continue reading.

Douglas in the (miscues that) shed

Teacher in

Douglas that shed,

said Alan.

He ran to look

The shed was //

Teacher full

Douglas full of //

The miscue of 'that' receives a word recognition move from the teacher and Douglas immediately corrects. However, when he next hesitates Teacher B provides the word 'full' perhaps in order to establish a flow to Douglas's reading.

Teacher Now that's a long word for a bird.

Douglas budgerigars!

Teacher Good boy.

The shed

Douglas Keep the fire away from here! called Alan to the firemen.

The word recognition move to help Douglas read 'budgerigar' is a more direct reference than Teacher B's usual ploy of reading a few words leading up to a miscue. For this correction Douglas receives his first positive feedback. Teacher B then suggests that Douglas should re read the sentence beginning "The shed ..." in which he miscued twice. However, Douglas rejects the offer and reads on! The teacher now becomes distracted by other events.

Teacher Can you hold on a minute Douglas.
(asides) (Teacher reprimands a group of boys in the class
- 25 seconds)

Douglas Keep the fire away from here! called Alan to the firemen.

Teacher There

The very slight hesitation in Douglas's reading is followed by Teacher B providing the word "There" and it is apparent that, although she does use a variety of verbal moves during her interactions, she does relatively quickly respond to the child and perhaps, therefore, limits his use of reading strategies.

Douglas There are budgerigars in the-this shed!
The fireman //

Teacher What's that word?
You've seen that word before.

Douglas play

Teacher play
So it's.

The fireman played
played

occasions. These were evenly divided between activities related to mechanical skills and comprehension skills. For instance, in B12 the read is followed by a number of comprehension moves.

Teacher Yes.
 What can they do with yellow and blue?
 If they've got a little yellow and a little blue.
 What could they do?

Nigel Green.

Teacher They could?

Nigel Mix it into green.

Teacher How do they make it into green?
 By doing what?

Nigel Putting the blue and yellow and mixing it up.

Teacher Mixing it up.
 That's right.
 Good.

It might be argued that Nigel provides the correct response to the question at the first attempt, however, Teacher B persists with the questioning until finally the response is in the more complete elaborated format that she requires.

Teacher B spends only a very short time on each hearing children read interaction. During this time she very largely avoids having any asides, at thirty nine the least of any teacher in the sample, a mean of 1.4 per read, and deals with other children after each read. During the read she responds to miscues with an eclectic use of word recognition, phonic and providing the word moves. She only allows a limited amount of time for the reader to consider his miscues before intervening with a pedagogical move.

Teacher C

Teacher C has a Teacher's Certificate having completed a two year training course. She has taught for thirty four years mainly with lower juniors. However, for the last ten years she has been Head of Infants

Department in a one form entry JMI school. Her class during the period of observation consisted of thirteen girls and sixteen boys. These twenty nine top infants were aged from 6 yrs 2 months to 7 yrs 2 months.

The twenty six recorded observations of the teacher hearing children read were obtained on four separate morning visits to the school. During each of these visits the children were involved in a variety of activities, the nature of which is most adequately indicated by some of Teacher C's asides.

- C1 Teacher (aside) So four and one is? (Mathematics)
- C1 Teacher (aside) Going to do a pattern now Shazia? (Drawing)
- C1 Teacher (aside) Right put it in the library with the others
Cheryl. (Reading)
- C2 Teacher (aside) Have you done your crown yet? (Craft)
- C4 Teacher (aside) Finish your picture. (Art)
- C13 Teacher (aside) You've got to be careful with your writing
haven't you? (Writing)

Finally, there were groups of children beginning to work on a collage for display which brought forth asides such as,

- C19 Teacher (aside) Put some of the angels in the sky.
- C20 Teacher (aside) Well when we use the glitter yes. When we
glitter we'll glitter altogether.

The transcript C12 provides an appropriate example of Teacher C hearing children read. At three minutes forty five seconds in length it is somewhat shorter than the mean of five minutes twenty three seconds; however, it does adequately display the dominance of asides, phonics and providing the word in her interactions.

Teacher Michelle come and read about the Old Blue Bus.
(aside) Is that supposed to be a big square?

Michelle The (miscues Here)

Teacher /H/

Michelle Here comes (miscues is)

Teacher Here

Michelle is the - the on (miscues old)
 Teacher old /bl/
 Michelle old blue bus.
 Teacher Good.

In the opening five teacher utterances a wide range of verbal moves are evident. Teacher C opens with a direction move to indicate to Michelle that she is to read. An aside helping a child with Mathematics is uttered while Michelle prepares to read. Michelle's first miscue receives a phonic teacher verbal move, "/h/", her second miscue a word recognition move with Teacher C starting the sentence again for Michelle. The third miscue brings forth two teacher moves. Teacher C provides the word "old" and the first sound of the next word "/bl/" a phonic move. As Michelle corrects positive feedback is provided. The rest of the first page is read by Michelle and responded to by Teacher C in a similar manner.

Michelle By (miscues The)
 Teacher No.
 Michelle Go - The //
 Teacher /o/
 Michelle (old) blue
 Teacher The /o/ - old
 Michelle old blue bus
 Teacher went
 Michelle went
 to the//
 Teacher /vi/
 Michelle village with Three Corners.
 Teacher Corners.
 Good girl (end of page).
 Mr

Teacher C starts Michelle off onto the second page by providing the word "Mr".

Michelle Mr Blue Hat and Mr (miscues Mrs)
Teacher Mrs
Michelle Mrs Yellow (miscues Blue)
Teacher Blue
Michelle Blue hat
Teacher got
Michelle got to - on the bus.
Teacher (aside) Now you had better do that again, because it looks
as if you've put a line each way.
Michelle Mr Red hat and Mrs //
Teacher (aside) That's very good Assim well done.
(aside) Do your money now.
Mr Red hat and Mrs
Michelle Red hat
Teacher got
Michelle got on the
bus.
Teacher Good (end of page).

Two aspects which are beginning to dominate the interaction at this point are teacher asides and teacher providing words "Mrs", "Blue", "got", "Mr" and "got" for the second time within the space of a few lines. This second providing of the word "got" may raise queries about the value of such moves. Michelle had not learnt the word and indeed she will be provided with "got" for a third time later in the interaction.

Michelle They (miscues The)
Teacher The
Michelle The //
Teacher (aside) Right, now careful when you get to that one Cheryl.
Michelle bus went up the hill.
Teacher (aside) That's it.
Grand
Michelle Grandfather Yellow hat
//
Teacher /w/

Michelle was /ā/
 Teacher That letter is? was /ạ̄/ /ạ̄/
 Michelle /e/
 Teacher No.
 Michelle /ạ̄/
 Teacher /ạ̄/
 Michelle /i/
 Teacher at
 Michelle at
 Teacher at
 Michelle at the top of //

In this section of the interaction Teacher C has begun to emphasise phonic moves although they do not appear to help Michelle to any great extent and Teacher C decides to provide the word "at" for Michelle who then continues to read the words from the text. By this point it might be argued that Michelle is indeed decoding words rather than reading a passage from a book. Her reading has become very disjointed. Michelle's errors during this reading are approximately 30% of the text words and she is, therefore, well into a frustration reading level as defined by Betts (1946).

Teacher (aside) Bring out what you want rubbed out.
 (aside) Right colour that page before you go on to the next one.
 top of the
 Michelle hill.
 Teacher hill.
 Michelle The bus //
 Teacher (aside) Right do the bottom one now Martin.
 The bus /st/
 Michelle stopped
 Teacher (aside) Now-now don't start please Harry, there's a good boy.
 (aside) Right colour that page before you go on to the next one.

Teacher/Michelle Grandfather Yellow hat
Teacher got
Michelle got on the bus
Teacher The bus
Michelle The
Teacher (aside) Right colour that one now.
Michelle The bus was (miscues ran)
Teacher The bus
Michelle ran down the hill
Michelle Stop //
Teacher (aside) Right so what's a quarter of eight.
Michelle Stop //
Teacher (aside) What would half be?
(aside) What would half of eight be?
(aside) Get a frame.
Stop
Michelle Stop //
Teacher (aside) Four p.
(aside) So what would a quarter be?
Michelle Stop bus (miscues here)
Teacher Stop/h/
Michelle here, said Mrs Red hat
//

The twelve teacher asides in this section of the interaction have diverted her attention away from Michelle. Michelle's three starts at the same sentence "Stop//" may be a request for help which is ignored until she finally miscues 'here' by saying 'bus' at which point Michelle receives a phonic move "/h/" from the teacher and she corrects her miscue.

Teacher /B/
Michelle Bus (miscues But)
Teacher (aside) Jason.
But
Michelle But the blue (miscues bus)

Teacher But the bus
(aside) Half cost four p. so what would a quarter cost?

Michelle down (miscues went)

Teacher But the bus /w/

Michelle went

Teacher fast

Michelle fast - fast (miscues faster)

Teacher (aside) No it isn't.
(aside) A quarter of eight p. is what you want.
Good girl Michelle.

This Cl2 interaction is finally closed with two asides and a positive feedback "Good girl Michelle". One can only speculate as to how Michelle perceives this praise for what has been an extremely difficult passage for her to read.

Cl2 does demonstrate a large number of asides by the teacher, although at 22 asides it is less than the mean for Teacher C of 25.7 per read, and a disjointed read. Other children were able to read aloud their books to Teacher C at a more appropriate level although usually they read alongside the teacher asides. The start of Cl6 provides such an example.

Teacher Helen reading.
(aside) Good girl.

Helen Eric rode away across the hills.
Dapplegrim had a wonderful saddle and
bridle, and the stones flew high and

Teacher (aside) Sh!

Helen (reads on) far from his fine new shoes.
Now we're off to the king's palace,
said Dapplegrim. But mind you ask the
king for a good

Teacher (aside) Right try a money card.

Helen (reads on) stable and plenty of
oats and hay, or we will not stay.
Eric promised to ask for the stable
and oats and hay and with such a
horse as Dapplegrim under him,

Teacher (aside) Right good girl.

Helen (reads on) it was
not long before he reached the king's
palace.

Teacher (aside) Careful of your writing.

Helen (reads on) The lad heard the pound -
heard the pounding
of the horse's - horse's feet a mile
away and
had come out to see what horse and
what rider were coming to the palace.
Oh! Oh! cried the king.

Teacher (aside) Try another card now.

Helen (reads on) Such a
man and such a horse I have not seen
in all my life! He was so surprised
that
he did not know the lad on Dapplegrim.

Teacher (aside) Good well done, have you finished that card?
(aside) Now what are you going to do.

Helen (reads on) When Eric asked if he could get a
place in the king's household, the king
was so happy that he was ready to jump
and dance.

Already in this extract there have been eight asides, there are thirty
in the complete interaction, but Helen reads on at an independent level.
This extract of C16 is similar to C12 in the frequency of asides being
inserted by Teacher C but dissimilar in that the reader is able to
demonstrate a flow of reading.

The opening moves in both C12 and C16 are relatively abrupt and directional
rather than including a more relationship emphasising welfare move. This
is, however, typical of Teacher C, indeed at times her opening move is
even more abrupt and management orientated.

C14 Teacher Donna you've done no work so far so come and see if
you can start your new book.

C15 Teacher Now Phillip B another one not done any work today, you
come and read to me.

Teacher C did not use any of the previous reads to provide a pre-read instructional activity. In each case the child was called to read then directed to commence reading. The same applied at the end of each read. A reader was never questioned upon miscues made in the text or about their comprehension of the story. The sole attempt of comprehension moves by the teacher was dictated by a book being read where the end of the story is followed by a number of questions for the teacher to ask.

The overall impression which Teacher C suggests is of interactions which are dominated by asides. The teacher quickly directs children to read as an opening move and closes the interaction in a similar fashion. The most frequently used pedagogical moves are providing the word and phonics. The emphasis appears, therefore, to be centred on word accuracy. The child is given little time or encouragement to consider contextual clues.

Teacher D

Teacher D has taught for five years. This teaching experience has all been in infant schools, although, it does include experience with a nursery class. She has a Certificate in Education gained after a three year initial training course.

During the period of observation Teacher D had responsibility for a class of twenty six infants. The class consisted of fifteen boys and eleven girls. The ages of the children at the time of the observation ranged from 5 yrs 7 months to 7 yrs 2 months, mean 6 yrs 4 months. Eleven of the children in the class were top infants and would be moving on to a junior class in the next academic year. The other fifteen children were middle infants with another full year of infant schooling ahead of them. The class was arranged in this way for administrative purposes, that is, they were chronologically grouped in a JMI school which was one form entry, but with dissimilar numbers in each year.

Teacher D had a very low child correction rate following her moves of word recognition and phonics. This was often due to her following up such moves by immediately providing the word.

David Father said, Look in -

Teacher (aside) Okay.

David - Father said, Look in here.
You can //

Teacher (aside) Not feast - first.
find

David find something.
Something

It is interesting to note how, at this point, Teacher D's attention is with another child and David, uncertain it would seem, of 'here' in this context restarts his reading and cues the word. David has, therefore, used for himself the word recognition move of restarting the sentence, a move which was noted to be a successful strategy. His subsequent hesitation before 'find' is followed by Teacher D providing the word.

Teacher you

David you

Teacher /w/

David work (miscues want)

Teacher want

Let's try it again shall we?
(aside) Stop a minute everyone of you stop.
(aside) I thought I asked you to be quiet today.
(aside) And told you to run around the garden to use up
your energy.
(aside) Right you were so noisy yesterday.
(aside) Right try and work a little bit quieter please.

David Father said, Look in here.
You can //

Teacher find

David find something.
Something you //

Teacher you/w/

David work (miscues want)

Teacher want

David want

Teacher Right let's try the next page.
(aside) What did you want?

David's second reading of the text is somewhat similar to his first reading. Although he does now read the first line without a break and reads "you" without any help, Teacher D still provides "find" and "want" and her earlier provision of these words does not, therefore, appear to have been helpful.

David Dick said, Look, Jane, look.

Teacher (aside) Point to me another one.
(aside) Point to me another one.

David Red - Red

Teacher Red
That's right.

David yellow and blue.
Yellow is for me.
//

Teacher Who

David Who

Teacher wants

David wants red and blue.
Jane said, I want blue.

In this section of the interaction Teacher D continues to use her most frequent pedagogical move, providing the word. She provides "Who" and "want" for David. Earlier she gives positive feedback "That's right" as David reads and re-reads "Red". Teacher D used positive feedback less frequently than any of the other teachers in this study.

Teacher (aside) This is a long straight line, draw some short straight lines.

David (reads on) Red

Teacher (aside) Where.

David (reads on) is

Teacher (aside) Go and draw me some more short straight lines.

David (reads on) for Sally
Dick said, Come -

Teacher (aside) Pardon.

David (reads on) - Come

Teacher (aside) Snow.

David (reads on) - Come and - Come Sally.
Come and // -

Teacher (aside) Go and have a look at the box on the furthest table.

David - Come and //

Teacher D's attention is again directed elsewhere and David begins to cue the appropriate words by starting and restarting sections of his reading. He is able, given sufficient time, to use the available information in the text in order to read adequately.

Teacher Which?

David /g/

Teacher get

David get something.
Red for //

Teacher you

David you and blue for Jane.

Teacher Right, okay.
Right, off you go.

As Teacher D's attention is returned to David the speed of accurate reading is increased by her provision of the words "get" and "you". The interaction is then completed by the teacher's use of positive feedback and a direction. The D17 interaction lasts four minutes fifteen seconds compared with Teacher D's mean of four minutes seven seconds.

Teacher D did not use a pre-read or post-read activity during any of the observations. Furthermore, she did not use a comprehension move in any

of the interactions. The only move which is perhaps under-represented in the above example is that of phonic moves. An extract from D19 indicates how this move was used,

Paul	biscuits (miscues buns)
Teacher	It's not biscuits /b/ /u/ /n/ /s/ buns
Paul	buns for the - for the - buns for the
Teacher	/p/ pets

For each word, "buns" and "pets", Teacher D first provides some or all of the sounds, then, before giving the reader any length of time to react, she provides the words.

The dominating feature of Teacher D's interactions is, therefore, her use of providing the word moves. She does also use phonic and less frequently word recognition moves, however, these are often immediately followed by providing the word moves. She does not give the reader sufficient time to work out his own strategies. A substantial use of asides, 19.7 mean per read, is also evident to the extent that Teacher D may miss what is occurring (see D18 in Analysis of teacher verbal moves).

Teacher E

Teacher E has twenty one years of teaching experience all of which has been in infant schools or infant departments of JMI schools. She is a qualified teacher by nature of a long service qualification. At the time of observation she was teaching the top infant class in a JMI school. The school had an approximate one form entry, the numbers varying around the thirty mark each year.

The class consisted of thirty three children in all, eighteen boys and

fifteen girls. The age range at the time of observation was six yrs eight months to seven yrs eight months. The twenty five observations were recorded on four separate visits to the classroom. On each occasion Teacher E had, like the other teachers in the study, organised the class to work on various activities while she called individual children to her desk to read.

A representative example of Teacher E hearing children read is provided in the interaction E19. This interaction lasts eight minutes twenty five seconds and is, therefore, just forty four seconds longer than the mean of seven minutes forty one seconds.

Teacher Lisa come and read to me.
Have you done the milks?
Yes, come then dear.
It's on your table dear.
(aside) Paul just a little bit quieter.

Lisa Here is some

Teacher No let's have a look at it. Wait a minute.
Because it's Monday and we might have forgotten all what we are doing.
Might we?
Now what's it all about?
(aside) Yes.

Lisa They're at the farm and they're spending a day at the farm.

Teacher Is he a kind farmer, a friendly farmer or unfriendly farmer?

Lisa Yes, he's a friendly farmer.

Teacher He's called a friendly farmer, isn't he?
Because he does all sorts to help.
And what's he been doing here.
What happened on the previous page.

Lisa Well, they've been looking at the horses.

Teacher And what did they say about him?

Lisa And they asked whether they could stroke him.
And I think he says they might run away from them.

Teacher I see.

Lisa The mother might not let them stroke them.

Teacher Did they ask what they eat.

Lisa Yes.

Teacher And what did they say they ate?

Lisa Grass and when - and they say when the grass is all gone. They say what then - hay.

Teacher I see and what's hay - then. What is it?

Lisa Dried grass.

Teacher Dried grass. You've remembered the story very well haven't you.

This first section of the interaction contains two elements. There are the opening moves of direction which call Lisa to read and ask her to wait a minute, also welfare moves which indicate an empathy for the reader and acknowledge that she may have forgotten the story during the weekend. This is followed by a pre-read activity during which Teacher E emphasises comprehension moves, in this context "what is the story about?" A distinguishing feature of Teacher E's interactions is the very considerable use which she makes of these comprehension moves before, during and after the read.

Lisa Here is some hay, says the farmer.
Feel it, Elizabeth, feel how dry it is.
Give it to the big horse.
Put it on your //

Teacher (aside) Right get on dear, I haven't asked you to come.

Lisa hand
and hold it out to him.
Will he

Teacher He's asking a question (expression).
Will he nip me?
You say it.

The emphasis upon comprehension moves becomes apparent as Lisa begins to read. Lisa utters "will he" without the appropriate expression and, therefore, perhaps understanding. Teacher E provides a model and gets Lisa to copy this model.

Lisa Will he nip me? says Elizabeth
Will he nip me (miscues my) /f//i//n//g//ers/
fingers

Teacher Good girl.
Read that one again.
(aside) Go away please.

Lisa Will he nip my fingers
He will not nip if you hold it-hold it
/r//i/

Teacher (aside) Mark bring me your book.
(aside) Come and sit down here please. right

Lisa right

Teacher Let's read that line again.
He
(aside) There please.

Lisa He will not nip you if you hold it
right,
says the farmer.
He will take it from you /g//e/

Teacher Change that (phonic clue - g)

Lisa gently

Teacher Good girl.
Did you change that /g/ into a soft g. gently
He will take it from you gently.

Lisa Give it to me (miscues him) now.

Teacher Give it to

Lisa him now. He will not nip
you.

Teacher (aside) Take it to your table.

Lisa Hold it right out on your hand.

Teacher You have to hold it flat like that.
If you give a horse anything you put it flat.
If it was a sugar lump because if you do it like that he'd
nip your fingers.
He couldn't help it but that's what he'd do.
So if you put it flat like that they can't nip your
fingers, like that can he.
So that's why he says put it flat on your hand.
(aside) Sh!
(aside) Adele's table go and get your milk.

A variety of moves now become apparent. Positive feedback is provided contingent upon Lisa's self correction of 'fingers'. A number of asides

are evident and Teacher E also provides the word "right" after Lisa's attempt to cue that word. Further positive feedback is provided as Lisa corrects to read "gently" following a teacher phonic move. A word recognition move following the miscue of 'him' allows Lisa to correct this word. An input by the teacher then explains part of the text and appears to be designed to ensure that the reader goes beyond the text to full comprehension of the passage.

Lisa He did not nip me, says Elizabeth.
I like the feel when he (is) take (miscues
is taking)
Teacher is taking
Lisa is taking.

the hay from my hand.
He does take it gently.
He did not nip at all
when I gave the

Teacher (aside) Alright dear.

Lisa (reads on) hay to him.

Teacher (aside) Alright dear leave it there.
Can we just read this line again.
He did not
Let's read it together.

Lisa/Teacher (together) He did not nip at all.
when I gave the hay to him.
He is a good horse,

Lisa says the farmer.
I (miscues Can I)

Teacher No.

Lisa No.
Can I give some hay to the little horse?
says Simon.

Teacher (aside) Nicholas's table.

Lisa I will do it gently.

Teacher (aside) Sit still.

Lisa (reads on) I will

Teacher (aside) And begin again.

Lisa (reads on) hold it out on my hand.
He will not eat it, says the farmer.
He does not like hay.
When he is a big horse he will eat it.

Teacher Now let's read it from here.
And see if you can read it like this.
Listen.
I will do it gently.
I will hold it out on my hand.
He will not eat it, says the farmer.
See if you can sort of make it go as though you were
telling a story.
Instead of saying When-he-is-a-big-horse
Try and put it all together.
Start from here.

I will do

Lisa I will do it gently.

Teacher See if you keep up to my pencil.

Lisa I will

No.

I will hold it out on my hand.

He will not eat it,

No.

He will not eat it, says the farmer.

Teacher Good.

The interaction has continued in a similar fashion with a number of various teacher verbal moves and a continuing emphasis upon reading with expression and understanding. Lisa's attempts at self-correction are evident towards the end of this section as she provides her own negative feedback to her miscue of omission. Her self-correction again receives positive feedback from Teacher E. A number of asides are again evident; Teacher E's total asides 419, 16.8 mean, were the third highest in the sample. However, if the time spent on the interactions is considered, then her rate of asides at 2.18 per minute is considerably less than Teacher C, 4.77 asides per minute and Teacher D, 4.72 asides per minute.

Lisa He does not like hay.

Teacher Oh that's better.

Lisa When he is a big horse he will eat it.

Teacher He says there, look,
He didn't nip me.
And she likes the feel that he's taking the hay from her
hand.
What would you think it would feel like.

Lisa Rough.

Teacher Do you think it would be rough.
A horse's mouth is ever so soft.
It's lips are soft.
I think it would feel tickly.
Don't you think so.
I think it would feel quite tickly.

Lisa When my cat licks me or bites my hand it feels all rough.

Teacher Yes 'cos her tongue's - why does a cat have a rough tongue.
Do you know that.
(aside) Go away dear.

Lisa So it can taste things.

Teacher Well it has a rough tongue because - does a horse clean
its fur with its tongue like a cat does.

Lisa No.

Teacher No.
So do you think that a cat would have to have a rough
tongue to be able to comb its hair.
That's why.
So a horse's tongue is soft because a horse never cleans
itself.
Who does it for him do you think.

Lisa The farmer.

Teacher That's right he brushes it with a brush.
So he doesn't really need a rough tongue.
So I should imagine when he takes that from her it's
tickling a bit more than cats.
Cats are funny aren't they.

Lisa Yes.

Teacher They're funny when they tickle you.
He's asking a question look.
Have you

Teacher E again demonstrates her willingness to interrupt the read in order to question the reader about the meaning of the passage. In this example she extends the comprehension beyond the story to the child's experience with her own cat. The teacher is clearly endeavouring to ensure the child's understanding of the text and beyond. She is providing a quite different experience for the children in her class, than, for instance, Teachers C and D with their emphasis upon word accuracy. However, in this example, it might be argued that Teacher E is dominating the exchange. Lisa's responses to the questions are mainly short, often one or two word answers.

Lisa Have you got some ducks? says Simon.

Teacher (aside) This table go and get your milks.
(aside) Pardon.

Lisa We have some ducks in the park at home.
Yes, says the farmer, they are on the pond.

Teacher (aside) Teresa's table get your milk.

Lisa Would you like to see them?
Take care how you go.

Teacher Take care how you go.

Lisa Mind the mud.
Follow me.
The ducks like the mud.

Teacher The ducks like

Lisa the mud.
I do not have (miscues like)

No.
I do not

Teacher like having to get it off

Teacher my shoes.
I think you are a bit tired this morning.
Aren't you.

A word recognition move, the second most frequently used move by Teacher E after comprehension moves, is used "The ducks like". However, it is uncertain why this move was used. It may have been because Teacher E failed to hear Lisa read "the mud" or it may have been another instance of Teacher E aiming for appropriate expression. Lisa's read is brought to a close by the teacher, with a page half completed, as Teacher E senses that Lisa is tired. The subsequent exchange demonstrates this teacher's willingness to respond to and extend the child's experiences. The interaction is then terminated by the teacher suggesting to Lisa that she goes to get her drink of milk.

Lisa Yes I.

Teacher Did you go to bed late.
Or didn't you want to get up.

Lisa No I -umh - I think I woke up quite early.

Teacher Did you.

Lisa Yes, Jody sleeps with us now.

Teacher And does Jody wake you up.

Lisa Yes, she's awake before all of us.

Teacher Well you don't really like to wake up as early as that.
What does Jody do when she wakes up.

Lisa She goes - aaahh!

Teacher Does she say any other words yet.
She's not saying mum mum.

Lisa No.
She can sit up on her own.
She's six and a half months.

Teacher Look. You've only read half of that page, haven't you.
So you're on 26 $\frac{1}{2}$.
Go and get your milk.

This example E19 does provide an appropriate picture of Teacher E hearing children read. Of the twenty five recorded observations seventeen had pre-read and twenty one had post-read activities. These activities were dominated by comprehension moves. Of the other pedagogical moves, word recognition was used most frequently. The emphasis was on the children being able to read for and with meaning.

Teacher F

Teacher F is a three year trained teacher with a Certificate in Education. She has taught for four years and each of these years have been with an infant class in a JMI school. During the period of observation her class was a middle infant class with some reception children. The class consisted of ten girls and fourteen boys, age range 5 yrs four months to six yrs eight months.

The twenty four recorded observations were obtained during the course of four visits to Teacher F's classroom. These visits took place in the afternoon, at the teacher's suggestion. It was during the afternoon while the children were involved with various creative activities,

painting, clay work, craft, constructional toys and the use of the Wendy House that Teacher F found it most suitable to hear individual children read.

The example chosen to demonstrate the work of Teacher F is the interaction F11. This interaction lasts for five minutes thirty five seconds, just six seconds longer than the mean of five minutes twenty nine seconds. The interaction begins with Mark being called to read. The teacher has his book on the desk so as soon as he reaches the desk he begins to read.

Teacher Mark.

Mark Jennifer Yellow hat
went in - out in the sunshine.

Teacher Good (end of page).

Mark She // saw

Teacher mm.

Mark Mrs Blue hat.

Teacher Good boy (end of page).

Mark She saw - met Mr Red hat.

Teacher Good (end of page).

Mark She saw Mr Blue hat.
She saw - met Mr Brown.

Teacher Lovely (end of page).

Each page in the book being read has a large picture with one sentence underneath except for the last page which repeats all of the sentences. As Mark reads he receives positive feedback for the successful reading of each of the first four pages. He also receives positive feedback for his self-correction "saw" after a hesitation, the praise and information given at that point is "mm" which adequately conveys the message and provides a minimal interruption to Mark's involvement with the text.

Mark She saw-met//Grand//mother Yellow hat.
She /s/ /s/ /a/ /w/ saw the

Teacher (aside) Well you have been playing for a long time.
(aside) How about letting Ricky have a turn at being Daddy.
(aside) Okay.
Sorry.

She

Mark saw the sun shine (miscues shining)

Teacher shine

Mark shining.

Teacher Good boy.

Mark continues to read with some hesitation, he also, despite having read "saw" correctly, subsequently attempts a phonic build build up of the word before correctly cueing it. The teacher's asides are followed by a welfare move as she apologises to Mark for not attending to his reading. Mark's miscue of 'shining' leads Teacher F to offer a word recognition move by repeating Mark's "shine" and with rising intonation indicate there is more to come. Mark corrects his miscue and receives positive feedback.

Mark Jennifer Yellow hat
went out in the sunshine.
She saw Mr - Mrs Blue hat.
She met Mr Red hat.
She saw Mr Blue hat.

Teacher (aside) Yes leave it there.

Mark She saw - met

Teacher (aside) Mark, off the table please.

Mark met Mr Brown.

Teacher Good.

Mark She saw - met Grandmother Yellow hat
She saw the sun shine - sun shine - sun

Teacher Look at the word.
saw the sun /sh/

Mark /sh/ - the sun

Teacher What was the sun doing?

Mark shining

Teacher shining

What does the word say then.

Mark shining.
Jennifer Yellow hat
went to - out in the sunshine.

Teacher Good boy(end of book).
Good boy.
You can have a new book today Mark.

Mark reads through to the end of the book and receives positive feedback once more. During this part of his reading he again has problems with the word 'shining'. Teacher F on this occasion adopts a different strategy she first provides a phonic move, "/sh/" to remind Mark of the initial sound then, as this is not successful, uses a comprehension move asking "What was the sun doing." which enables Mark to provide the correct word.

Mark is now given his next book and immediately begins to read.

Mark Jennifer Yellow hat
went out in the //

Teacher Look carefully.
What does it start with.

Mark /d/

Teacher /dar/

Mark dark.

Teacher Good boy.

Mark's hesitation before 'dark' is followed by Teacher F directing him to "look carefully" then to consider the grapho-phonetic elements especially the salient clue of the first letter. Mark provides the first letter to which Teacher F adds the second sound which enables Mark to cue the word - his correction following a prompt from the teacher leads to positive feedback. As the interaction continues Mark asks if he can take his book home.

Mark Can I take the book home.

Teacher Let's see how we get on first.

Mark Jennifer Yellow hat
went out in the dark.

Teacher Good (end of page).

Mark Jennifer - She saw Mr

Teacher Who?

Mark Mr

Teacher Look again.
Look again.
Take the paper here.
It's got a /s/ on the end.

Mark Mrs Red hat.
She saw Jennifer - Johnny and Roger.

Teacher Good boy (end of page).

Mark She saw

Teacher (aside) Go and pinch Paul back.
(aside) Paul you deserved that.
(aside) Anita you come and work down here now.

Mark She saw Rip, Roger's dog.

Teacher Good boy (end of page).
We will stop there now.
Yes you may take it home though.
But don't read past that page.
Alright.
Only read up to there with mummy.
Okay.
Good boy.
That's much better.

The rest of the interaction is completed in a similar fashion with word recognition, phonic and positive feedback moves as well as asides all being evident. The interaction is finally closed with positive feedback, directions and welfare moves. Mark is encouraged to take his book home to read with his mother, a step which may be influential in the development of his reading (Hewison and Tizard, 1980).

Although this interaction is representative of the way in which Teacher F works, there were no examples of providing the word. However, she did use this move in her interactions, eg F15.

Mark saw

Teacher She saw

Mark She saw

Teacher That's right.
Because if it was sawed, it would have a/d/ on it,
wouldn't it.
It's just.

She saw

Mark She sawed (miscues saw)

Teacher She saw

Mark She sawed

Teacher No not she sawed.

As Mark continues to read he subsequently says "sawed" for "saw" eight more times and Teacher F continues attempts at correct word pronunciation. The complete F23 interaction is, therefore, dominated by this exchange. However, this seeking for word accuracy is far less prevalent in other interactions.

The distinguishing features of Teacher F's interactions is the use of all types of moves with no particular move being dominant. She appears to adopt an eclectic approach to hearing children read within the interaction. Pre-read twice, and post-read once, activities are used infrequently. Asides appear at a mean of 9.1 per interaction.

It will be apparent that there are similarities in the approach to hearing children read of the six teachers. These similarities include the physical aspects of the interaction, the prior organisation which allows it to take place and the variety of verbal moves which are utilised. Nevertheless, there are also real differences. These differences are, in particular, emphasised by a close perusal of the interactions and the

frequency with which each type of move is utilised.

These individual variations are especially demonstrated by the teacher's use of asides, comprehension, providing the word, word recognition and phonic moves. Teachers C and D, it was argued, might be regarded as hearing children read as part of a ritual, their interactions were dominated by asides, an average of one aside every twelve seconds being uttered. Additionally these teachers, when they did respond to the child reading, used providing the word and phonics as their two main strategies. They were perhaps working with the view of reading as a precise process involving exact and detailed attention to letters, words, spelling patterns and larger language units (Goodman K, 1967).

Teachers A and E were, by contrast, it might be argued, working with the view of reading as a selective process in which the reader uses the available information to select the cues which will enable him to 'guess' the right answer. All three cueing systems, grapho-phonetic, syntactic and semantic are emphasised in reading for meaning. Teachers A and E frequently used pedagogical moves of word recognition which stressed the use of context, and comprehension which develops meaning. Their less frequent use of asides, than Teachers C and D, indicated a more active involvement with the reader and suggests hearing children read as a non-ritualised event.

A more eclectic approach appears to be adopted by Teachers B and F, their use of a variety of pedagogical moves at relatively similar levels was apparent. Teacher B, for instance, uses word recognition most frequently, yet comprehension moves least frequently compared to phonics and providing the word. Teacher F uses all four of these pedagogical moves at similar levels although providing the word is somewhat less evident.

The six teachers do vary in the way that they bring together the various verbal moves in a complete interaction. Furthermore, this variation indicates that children will have quite different learning experiences as they read aloud to their teacher. It may well be that these differing learning experiences will be influential in the child's progress with reading.

10. Instrument for the analysis of teacher verbal moves in hearing children read.

The teacher verbal moves during hearing children read have been described. The descriptive system indicated moves of pedagogy, feedback and asides with sub-divisions evident for pedagogy and feedback. Subsequently an analysis of the teacher verbal moves was provided which indicated the use made by the teachers, in this study, of these moves. Based on the descriptive system and the subsequent analysis it is possible to postulate an instrument for the analysis of teacher verbal moves in hearing children read which teachers might utilise in order to assess their own interactional contribution. This instrument has similarities to the format of the instrument put forward by Barnes (1966) in that it describes the various verbal moves then poses a number of questions related to the use of such moves. However, the actual content of the instrument presented here, relating as it does to a very specific classroom event, does differ from the Barnes instrument.

Each of the teacher verbal moves are presented with a brief but, hopefully, clear description, e.g. providing words - teacher provides a word (probably already miscued by the child) for the child reading.

In addition a description is provided for non-response. This is not, of course, a teacher verbal move but the earlier analysis did indicate that it might be an important indicator of teacher inattention or of a teacher decision relating to the adequacy of miscues uttered. It might, therefore, usefully form part of the instrument for analytic purposes.

The questions which are posed relate to each of the teacher verbal moves together with questions related to non-response. The questions asked of asides are:-

How many asides does the teacher utter?

This is immediately to question the extent to which interruptions might be dominating the interaction. King (1978), Southgate et al (1978) and Gray (1979) have expressed concern about the number of distractions which occur while hearing children read, it is important, therefore, for teachers to consider the number of asides. However, this question can also serve to highlight the reasons for asides occurring which might best be explored through an examination of the classroom organisation (Boydell, 1978). This is made explicit by:-

What does this indicate about overall classroom organisation?

From aspects of organisation the questioning moves to affective aspects of the use of asides,

What do asides convey to the child reading?

Who is he reading to?

Does the teacher indicate an interest in the child's reading?

Teachers in the survey did suggest that a major purpose for hearing children read was to reinforce personal relationships. However, this would indicate an attention to the reader and an audience for his reading which overuse of asides might deny.

Can the teacher still respond to miscues despite attention elsewhere?

If yes, is this sufficient?

Kounin (1970) suggests that overlappingness, the teacher's ability to deal with two or more things at the same time, is associated with managerial success in the classroom. The above questions partly are concerned with this attribute but also in the supplementary question the affective purposes of the interaction are recalled.

The questions related to welfare teacher verbal moves are designed to raise queries about the need to put the child at ease prior to beginning reading, recalling the comment in the survey "Part of this time would be spent in making sure the child is relaxed?" Also to check whether at

any stage during the interaction the empathy for the child is displayed verbally. Finally to note whether the interaction is completed in an appropriate manner, possibly finishing on a 'high note' (Veatch, 1978).

The questions asked are:-

Is there an appropriate opening remark by the teacher?

Does the teacher indicate, during the interaction, an empathy for the child?

Is the interaction completed in an appropriate manner?

Many of the interactions in this study were started and finished with warm friendly remarks by the teacher. However, on occasions these greetings and concluding comments were missing, possibly, due to the teacher attending to other aspects of classroom organisation. On a very few occasions the opening remarks were relatively punitive. The welfare questions are likely to highlight opening and closing comments as well as maintenance of empathy.

Questions asked of the direction teacher verbal moves are designed to indicate the extent to which directions have to be provided for the reader. This might give rise to queries about the appropriateness of the text and/or the child's awareness of what is involved in reading; the purpose behind such moves are queried. The last question in this group is offered as an attempt to assess whether the child perceives himself as having the right to dictate and control parts of the interaction (Hale, 1980). The questions are:-

How frequently are direction moves utilised?

What purpose do they serve?

Does the teacher direct the complete interaction?

Is there any evidence of the child asking a question and/or momentarily taking verbal control of the interaction?

Providing the word for the reader, Goodman Y (1970) argues, will hinder

the child's attempts to discover strategies that make the best use of each of the cue systems that are available. This teacher verbal move might, therefore, best be used in a restricted number, if at all. Certainly if offered too quickly after a miscue the opportunity for self-correction will be denied to the child, an important aspect of oral reading will, therefore, be lost (Clay, 1972). In addition Glynn (1980) has suggested that other strategies should be adopted rather than telling the child the correct word. The questions in this section are designed to highlight these views, additionally the teacher is asked to consider the appropriateness of the text either subjectively or perhaps using levels of reading (Betts, 1946). The questions are:-

How frequently does the teacher provide words for the child?

Is the text too difficult?

Does this move help the child to discover reading strategies?

Would a different teacher verbal move have been helpful to the child?

Why? Does the child know the word next time?

A word recognition move might be an important move for the teacher to offer the child as it may suggest to the child that each cue system, grapho-phonetic, syntactic and semantic (Goodman et al, 1978) might be utilised in order to decipher the word in question. The move, therefore, offers a range of possibilities rather than closing down on to specific cue systems. The child is likely to follow such a move by correcting his previous miscue. In this study 66% of all word recognition moves were followed by the child correcting his miscues. Questions which might help to highlight the value of the move are:-

Does the teacher adopt a word recognition strategy?

How frequently does this move occur?

What reading strategies might this move suggest for the child?

How often is the child able to cue the word following this teacher move?

A phonic teacher verbal move appeared in this study as the teacher providing phonic information, reference to a phonic rule or encouraging the child to use his own knowledge. Most frequently the emphasis is placed upon the initial letter(s). This move does suggest to the child that he should concentrate upon just one cue system, the grapho-phonetic. However, whether the child remains with the one cue system or uses more information from the text is uncertain. It might be expected that limiting the cue systems to one would restrict the possibilities of success. In this study the correction of miscues following a phonic move occurred in 50% of the cases. This might suggest that the move is helpful to the child, although the success rate is less than that following a word recognition move. The questions which are suggested, therefore, concern the way in which the phonic move is made, the part of word emphasised and the rate of success following such a move:-

How frequently is the phonic move used?

What form does the move take, e.g. provide phonic information, reference to phonic rules, encourage child to use his own knowledge?

What part of the word, beginning-middle-end, is emphasised? Why?

Does the move enable the child to cue the word?

Comprehension was stated to be an important purpose for hearing children read by a majority of teachers in the survey of this study. It might, therefore, be expected that comprehension moves would form a part of many hearing children read interactions. However, this does not occur with all teachers. In this study over eleven hundred moves were detected in the twenty four interactions of Teacher D yet none of these were comprehension moves. From the other teachers the comprehension moves related to word meaning, understanding the text and relating the text to their own experience. These three types of question might be related to Bloom's (1956) cognitive categories of knowledge, comprehension and application. The questions asked, therefore, relate to the frequency and

type of comprehension moves:-

Does the teacher ask the child questions about the text?

How frequently are these comprehension moves utilised?

What do these questions demand of the child?

Do any of the questions demand recall?

Are questions asked which relate the text to the child's own experience?

Are there any comprehension moves which demand reasoning?

The positive feedback move appears to be offered as praise for words read correctly or corrected after a miscue and as an encouragement to continue. Glynn (1980) suggests that praise should be given a) after correct performance, e.g. sentences or pages read correctly, b) self-correction of errors and c) error correction following a prompt. Smith (1971), however, sees the teacher as an information provider who on the basis of the child's reading says 'right' or 'wrong' so that the child gets the message as to how his reading is matching up to the text. Each of these perspectives, however, might lead the teacher to presenting positive feedback at similar times. The questions are designed to encourage the teacher to detect when and why she is providing positive feedback:-

Does a child receive positive feedback at the end of a read?

Does he receive positive feedback during the read?

How frequently is the positive feedback given?

What does the child do in order to receive positive feedback.

In what form is the move offered, e.g. "yes ", "good boy", etc?

Is it helpful to the child?

The negative feedback was used essentially by the teachers in this study to indicate that a child had miscued. The move is used, therefore, as Smith suggests, to give information which providing there is no emotional overloading may be of assistance to the child reading. The questions asked are:-

In what form is negative feedback provided?

Why does it occur?

Is it helpful to the child?

Is the move offered as information or as a punitive measure; how is it perceived by the child?

The non-response to the child's miscue was noted in this study to occur either because the teacher's attention was elsewhere, most usually connected with asides, or because the miscue was seen to be relatively appropriate semantically and syntactically and that the minor variation from the text need not be brought to the child's attention. Therefore, the teacher should consider the reasons for non-response:-

Are all miscues responded to by the teacher?

Is non-response linked to asides?

If not, why do some miscues receive no response?

The complete instrument for the analysis of teacher verbal moves in hearing children read which offers both a description of moves and questions to be asked of the moves can, therefore, be presented as follows:-

Teacher Verbal Moves

Analyse all moves into these categories:-

Asides; utterances by the teacher directed at a child, or adult, other than the child reading.

Welfare; teacher verbal moves which serve to emphasise the one to one relationship which exists during the interaction. This may demonstrate an awareness of the unique problems of the child and further indicate the empathy of the teacher for the child.

Directions; teacher requests or commands that the child responds in a certain way.

- Providing words; teacher provides a word (probably already miscued by the child) for the child reading.
- Word recognition; teacher indicates a word has been miscued and suggests directly or indirectly that the child should attempt the word again. This move is frequently given in the form of the teacher uttering the text words of the sentence, with a rising intonation, up to but not including the miscued word.
- Phonic analysis; teacher suggests to the child reading that he should utilise his knowledge of phonics in order to discover the word being miscued. The teacher may provide phonic information.
- Comprehension- questions asked of the child to check his level of recall and understanding.
- Positive feedback; praise or encouragement given to the child during or after his read.
- Negative feedback; a negative comment most commonly used to indicate that a word has been miscued.
- Non-response; teacher ignores or misses the miscued word.

Features of the moves can be analysed by asking a number of questions:

- Asides
- How many asides does the teacher utter,
 - What does this indicate about overall classroom organisation?
 - What do asides convey to the child reading,
 - Who is he reading to?
 - Does the teacher indicate an interest in the child's reading?
 - Can the teacher still respond to miscues despite attention elsewhere?
 - If yes, is this sufficient?

- Welfare
- Is there an appropriate opening remark by the teacher?
 - Does the teacher indicate, during the interaction, an empathy for the child?
 - Is the interaction completed in an appropriate manner?
- Directions
- How frequently are direction moves utilised?
 - What purpose do they serve?
 - Does the teacher direct the complete interaction?
 - Is there any evidence of the child asking a question and/or momentarily taking verbal control of the interaction?
- Providing words
- How frequently does the teacher provide words for the child?
 - Is the text too difficult?
 - Does this move help the child to discover reading strategies?
 - Would a different teacher verbal move have been helpful to the child? Why?
 - Does the child know the word next time?
- Word recognition
- Does the teacher adopt a word recognition strategy?
 - How frequently does this move occur?
 - What reading strategies might this move suggest for the child?
 - How often is the child able to cue the word following this teacher move?
- Phonic analysis
- How frequently is the phonic move used?
 - What form does the move take, e.g. provide phonic information, reference to phonic rules, encourage child to use his own knowledge?
 - What part of the word, beginning-middle-end, is emphasised? Why?
 - Does the move enable the child to cue the word?

Comprehension

Does the teacher ask the child questions about the text?

How frequently are these comprehension moves utilised?

What do these questions demand of the child?

Do any of the questions demand recall?

Are questions asked which relate the text to the child's own experiences?

Are there any comprehension moves which demand reasoning?

Positive feedback

Does a child receive positive feedback at the end of a read?

Does he receive positive feedback during the read?

How frequently is the positive feedback given?

What does the child do in order to receive positive feedback?

In what form is the move offered, e.g. "Yes", "good boy", etc?

Is it helpful to the child?

Negative feedback

In what form is negative feedback provided?

Why does it occur?

Is it helpful to the child?

Is the move offered as information or as a punitive measure?

How is it perceived by the child?

Non-response

Are all miscues responded to by the teacher?

Is non-response linked to asides?

If not, why do some miscues receive no response?

How might the instrument be applied to transcriptions of hearing children read interactions from the classroom. An example is provided below with

responded to because it was correct, had it been otherwise perhaps the teacher would have provided another move. The reader might, therefore, be permitted to think that his correction is a good one. Neil continues to read.

Neil (reads on) for /g/ old - gold seeds

Teacher Yes.

Neil on the occasion of this self correction does receive positive feedback which he might also have expected after his correction of "lake". He then reads on and receives further positive feedback this time for the completion of a section of reading, a page. He is then directed to read another page. This move of direction is used to sustain the interaction by requesting the child to read another page.

Neil She may have gone to the wood
for red seeds.

Teacher Yes.
Next page.

Neil Big Red Wing and Little Red Wing

Teacher (aside) Would you like to read.

Christopher, the child who has been called to read, has now reached the teacher's desk and a welfare move serves to greet him and suggests he has a choice as to whether to read or not. Neil continues to read the rest of the page.

Neil (reads on) Went to the lake
There (miscues They) could not see Sun Dew
said - We will look near that pine tree,
said Big Red Wing.

The miscue of "they" is not corrected or responded to by the teacher.

Although the word spoken "there" has close graphic similarities to the text word "they" it is semantically inappropriate. On the next line the self correction to restart the sentence is also ignored/missed by the teacher. In this instance it would appear that these miscues are missed as the teacher is already becoming involved in her interaction with the next reader. Indeed, Neil receives no direct indication of this interaction being terminated, however, as Christopher is being asked to read Neil gets the message that his read is complete.

From this analysis of a specific interaction a number of additional points might be made using some more of the questions from the instrument of analysis. Although there are only two asides spoken during this short interaction, both directed at the next reader, they do appear to distract the teacher away from the child reading and, therefore, stop her from providing positive feedback at one point and detecting a miscue at another. It may have been the proximity of playtime and the teacher's wish to hear one more reader which led to this effect.

The opening move might have been more explicit in its greeting although the caveat already raised must be noted. However, the non-existence of a closing welfare move is more noticeable and relates to the teacher quickly moving into the next interaction in order to hear one more reader before playtime.

Although the opportunities for positive feedback are missed on a number of occasions there is evidence of the teacher providing positive feedback a) contingent upon the reading of a complete page and b) contingent upon the self-correction of a miscue. Moves of phonic analysis, providing words, comprehension and negative feedback do not appear in this interaction.

This example does highlight the use that might be made of the instrument,

however, it does also expose a number of limitations. It will have been noticed that the questions were not all applied to the interaction in a set format. Rather the interaction dictated the way in which the questions would be applied. The questions are not, therefore, to be seen as a check list to be rigorously applied to each interaction but as a guide to the areas which might be explored. Indeed, as the instrument is applied to a number of interactions the need to refine or further develop the questions may become apparent. Already it should be evident that the application of the questions to just one interaction is somewhat inadequate. The complete range of moves may not have been utilised and cannot, therefore, be analysed. Equally the use of one type of move may have been idiosyncratic to that interaction. The need to explore a number of interactions in order to ascertain the pattern of move usage is clear from the above example.

The instrument for the analysis of teacher verbal moves in hearing children read suggests a framework for the researcher or teacher to explore, in a more detailed manner, the specific verbal moves made by the teacher. Although the need for refinement may become obvious with time, its use with one interaction or more appropriately with a number of interactions might enable patterns of teaching to be detected. The relevance within the interaction of the various teacher verbal moves might also be considered using this instrument.

11. Conclusion and discussion.

The exploratory study of hearing children read which has been presented here has provided empirical evidence on such aspects of the dyadic interaction as frequency, length of time, physical aspects including the positioning of teacher and child and the use of cards as guides to reading as well as providing a perspective on record keeping. More importantly, however, the study has researched the language of the interaction and in particular provided a descriptive system for the teacher verbal moves which are evident.

How adequate is this descriptive system? Primmer (1979) argues that it is fundamental to learning that the teacher and learner have a reciprocity of perspective. The researcher must attempt to share that perspective if the reality of the classroom is to be fully explored. The development of the system took account of how the child reacted to the teacher move in an attempt to respond to this problem. In addition discussions with teachers suggest that the terms used, and their descriptions, are compatible with teacher's views of what is occurring during the interactions. Elsewhere (Hale, 1979) similar terms were being utilised although not forming part of a descriptive system. The shared perspective with teachers of what the teacher verbal moves denote and the use of similar descriptions by Hale does suggest some validity to the system. However, although the system can and has been applied to data and appears to make coherent that data some moves may be open to differing interpretations. In particular changes of intonation can suggest different meaning for similar words or phrases. Nevertheless, some preliminary work by the writer with teachers' in-service courses does suggest that the system provides a means for analysing hearing children read interactions. Concern that the small sample of six teachers would produce idiosyncratic moves has not yet been shown to be a problem.

Using this descriptive system it has been possible to develop an analysis of the teaching strategies and styles of the six teachers in the main part of the study. The outlining of an instrument for the analysis of teacher verbal moves in hearing children read was given as an attempt to provide the means by which teachers and researchers might explore this specific interaction.

It is possible to move beyond the descriptive system, the analysis and instrument and begin to suggest what teachers should do when hearing children read? The writer would wish to claim that suggestions can be made based on the work carried out here and the statements and research of other authors. These suggestions must be to some extent tentative at this stage. Perhaps it would be appropriate to consider the suggestions as hypotheses for the present. Certainly the limited sample size must raise questions about generalisations from such numbers. Furthermore, the study of the six teachers was not essentially concerned with causal relationships and to make definitive statements as to what a teacher should do based on the limited evidence of this study would be highly dubious. However, despite these clear limitations the study has implications for the classroom teacher. The work does appear to suggest that a careful consideration of role, response to miscues and verbal moves utilised may be worthwhile. In particular a number of suggestions can be made which may prove to be helpful for teachers either as aids to their own work or as the starting point for future discussion.

The importance of hearing children read within the infant school has recently been re-emphasised by the work of Clay (1972) in New Zealand and Smith (1971) in North America. This might be deduced from the central theme of Smith's work.

To learn to read children need to read. The issue is as simple and as difficult as that.

Two basic necessities for learning to read are the availability of interesting material that makes sense to the learner and an understanding adult as a guide.

(Smith 1978; pp 5-6)

The interaction of hearing children read provides the situation where children can learn to read by reading, guided by an understanding adult, the teacher, and using interesting material. However, whether the basic reading scheme adequately provides such interesting material is of course open to question; Wright (1972), amongst others, provides a debate on the value of such books. Certainly the six teachers in this study used various books from reading schemes as the material to be read during the interaction. Nevertheless, the emphasis of this discussion concerns the role of the understanding adult.

What should the teacher do as she responds to the reading of the child? Wragg (1979) argues that the teacher does already take many appropriate decisions.

Classroom decisions are taken in microseconds as teachers process a colossal amount of information. What is staggering is not merely that the human brain is capable of such an incredible feat, but that many of the decisions are not at all bad.

(Wragg 1979; Guardian 18.9.79)

In the context of hearing children read what might some of these decisions be?

The initial decision must be concerned with details of where the interaction is to take place and the positioning of teacher and child. All the teachers in this study heard children read at the teacher's desk, although, Teacher B did recall that this might be contrary to advice provided during initial training. Importantly it is the ability of the teacher

to remain in contact and control of the class which is crucial. The teacher needs to be able to display the withitness which Kounin (1970) argues is a key factor in classroom management. She therefore needs to position herself so that she is able to see the class and respond to any event that requires her attention.

The child reading to the teacher should be side by side rather than face to face (Veatch, 1978). Not only does this clear the path of vision to the rest of the class but also as Veatch argues it is better psychologically to work side by side which establishes the feeling of unity, of working together, with the book in front of them. Face to face might imply in opposition to one another. The majority of interactions observed did follow this format although as was previously indicated, in features of the interaction, on occasions the child and/or book were inappropriately positioned. Working side by side does then provide the togetherness the emotional link, and sometimes the physical contact (West Sussex, 1976) which provides the relevant educational setting for the activity to proceed.

If the interaction is to provide a meaningful activity for both teacher and child then the distractions noted by King (1978) Southgate et al (1978) and Gray (1979) must be kept to a minimum thus ensuring that the teacher has few verbal asides. Her attention remains centred upon the child reading and his performance. This therefore makes a prior demand upon the teacher that the rest of the children in the class are organised in such a manner that they are purposefully engaged in other activities. However, the teacher is still likely to have a number of interruptions to hearing children read and Resnick (1972) argues that she will have to respond to these interruptions in order to maintain an adequate degree of contact with the children. The important aspects are that the interaction is not dominated by teacher asides as was evident in a number of Teacher C interactions and that child initiated interruptions do not interfere with the

reader as was apparent with Teachers E and F.

The mean time for the one hundred and fifty six interactions was four minutes and thirty six seconds. This time of circa five minutes does perhaps provide an indication of an appropriate time for the teacher to consider for each interaction, a time which is similarly proposed by Veatch (1978) in America for the individual conference. Although there may be arguments put forward to lengthen the interaction to meet specific needs, nevertheless, the outcome of such lengthening is to reduce the time available for other interactions. It might also be argued that shorter interactions can provide meaningful teaching events and examples were provided earlier, e.g. A23 one minute eighteen seconds and B19 one minute twenty seconds, which might demonstrate this. However, in general, if the teacher is to develop relationships, observe, assess, teach and record then a period of time closer to five minutes might be required. This emphasis upon time, however, must not be seen as detracting from the qualitative aspects of the interaction (Boydell, 1978). It is the way in which the teacher responds to the child reading which is of most importance.

It would seem to be appropriate that the teacher should provide an appropriate opening welfare move to the interaction. This would serve to make manifest one of the stated purposes of the interaction, which the teachers in the survey suggested was to reinforce the one to one relationship. The manner in which the move is uttered and the actual words spoken may also indicate the empathy of the teacher for the child. Of course, the teacher and the child meet in other circumstances as well as hearing children read, they also develop a relationship over a period of time and therefore a very explicit opening welfare move may not always be called for. Indeed it might be argued that to over emphasise this aspect of the interaction may lead to a false opening. The example of A10, provided earlier, indicates a simple limited opening welfare move.

Teacher Where did we
 get to?

Neil Look at the necklace
 said Big Red Wing.

However, within the context of the established relationships between Teacher A and Neil, together with the manner in which the move was provided, this may be sufficient to convey many messages to the reader. It is important, for affective reasons, that the child feels he is being welcomed and that the scene is being set for an instructional interaction with an element of personal warmth.

Following the opening welfare move the teacher might direct the child to read as in A3.

Teacher Now then Yolande we've had a little rest haven't we, Eh?

Yolande Yes.

Teacher Right, lets see how much you've remembered, Eh?

Yolande Mummy (miscues Mother) and Daddy come
 (miscues came) in.

Teacher Good.

However, at other times it might be worthwhile bringing the child's attention to a previous read. This might take the format of making reference to phonic/word recognition problems which were diagnosed by the teacher and which were recorded for subsequent teaching. Thus in A1.

Teacher What does that begin with?
 Try to match up the blue word with the blue word.

Clinton thank (miscues track)

Teacher No, no, no.
 What does it begin with?
 First letter.
 mm.

Clinton tank (miscues track).
Teacher No.
Clinton trunk (miscues track).
Teacher /tr/
Sound it.
Clinton /tr/ /a/ /ck/ track, back, sack.
Teacher Good boy.
Right.

This pre-reading part of the interaction might, however, take the form of the teacher asking a number of comprehension questions which, as in the example E4, range from simple recall, "What's the name of the two children in the story?" to a question which in appearance make demands of inference, "How do you know they have only been once?" There are also questions which relate the story content to the child's own experience, "Have you been on a farm at all?" The complete pre-reading part of the E4 interaction demonstrates this use of comprehension questions.

Teacher What's the book called?
Do you remember?
Mark The Friendly Farmer.
Teacher The Friendly Farmer.
Where have we got up to now?
What's the name of the two children in the story?
Mark Simon and Elizabeth.
Teacher Elizabeth.
And where are they going?
Mark To the farm.
Teacher What does that word say?
(pause)
Simon and Elizabeth are going to -----

Mark Visit.

Teacher Visit a farm.
Where was the farm? In the town or the country?

Mark Country.

Teacher In the country.
Have you been on a farm at all?

Mark Yes.

Teacher You have.

Mark I have been loads of times.
My friend works on a farm.

Teacher How manytimes have they been to a farm?
(aside) Diane will have to do what she should do.

Mark Once.

Teacher How do you know?
How do you know they have only been once?

Mark Because they ask can we see things.

Teacher Yes.
Can we read this and it might tell us.

The use of part of the interactional time being devoted to teaching arising from earlier diagnosis or the asking of a variety of comprehension questions might be viewed as an optional element within the interaction.

Once the child begins to read from the text, then miscues are likely to be made which will make a demand upon the teacher to decide upon a response. As a first reaction to a miscue it might be appropriate for the teacher to wait. This waiting allows time for the child to self-correct which, as has been indicated earlier, may be an important attribute of reading development (Clay, 1972). Glynn (1980) also argues for the notion of delaying the timing of teacher attention to error - thus allow time for the child to self-correct. This is very clearly demonstrated in Al.

Clinton

Look at the necklace,
said Big Red Wing.
It may help you to find where
Sun Dew has gone.
The string is not / / filled.

Teacher Good boy.

In this example Clinton hesitates / / for twelve seconds before cueing the word "filled". By waiting, Teacher A gave Clinton time to consider, by whatever means, and then self-correct. A more immediate response by the teacher would have denied Clinton this opportunity to have developed his reading strategies.

When a child miscues, however, the miscue may be of substitution rather than of hesitation as above. The child having substituted and carried on reading, the teacher must again decide whether to bring the miscue to the child's attention. If the child does not return to the miscue and self-correct should the teacher intervene? The example provided above A3 indicates an occasion when the teacher does not intervene despite two miscues of substitution occurring,

Yolande

Mummy (miscues Mother) and Daddy come
(miscues came) in.

Teacher Good.

The miscue "Mummy" may be a dialectical variation from the written text which the teacher ignores. The second miscue retains many of the graphic, syntactic and semantic features of the text word and because it preserves the essential meaning receives no teacher response. In this example the fact that Yolande has been absent from school and was just restarting oral reading to her teacher may have influenced the decision to ignore the miscues. However, what is being suggested here is that the teacher might ignore 'good errors' (Hood, 1978), such as dialectical variations and those which preserve the essential meaning of the text. The teacher would, nevertheless, need to keep a close check on these errors in order to ensure

that they do not remain with the child over a long period of time and become habitual through systematic practice. Clay (1972) reminds us of the need to check on the direction and pace of each child's learning path. A good error may be so only at a certain point in the child's development, later the same error may become a 'not so good error' (to use Hood's terminology).

There will also be miscues uttered which are seen as not so good errors,

These undesirable errors may be referred to, respectively, as a substitution error that is not contextually appropriate, a nonsense error, and no response.

(Hood 1978; p 261)

These not so good errors, Hood argues, signal a need for instructional attention a view which, from observation of the teachers in this study, would appear to be shared. In Al as an example

Clinton	said Little Red Wing Sun Dew may by (miscues be)
Teacher	may
Clinton	be looking for seeds
Teacher	Yes.

the miscue "by", for the text word 'be', although it has grapho-phonetic similarities does not preserve the essential meaning of the text. The teacher therefore intervenes by use of a word recognition move and the miscue word is corrected by the child. It may be an appropriate maxim that the teacher might provide a verbal move to assist the child if the miscue is a 'not so good error'.

Although the above maxim may be a useful starting point for the teacher, confronted by a not so good error, it does not provide a complete picture. The analysis of teacher verbal moves indicates that the teacher may use a number of different moves to assist the child. Providing the word,

word recognition, phonic analysis, comprehension and negative feedback can and were each used as instructional guides to the child. Is there a preferred response from each of these possibilities?

The word recognition move was noted in this study to be frequently followed by the child correcting his miscue. This correction by the child occurred in 66% of responses by the child to word recognition moves of all six teachers and as much as 80% of responses with Teacher A. This move does, of course, keep open the use of all three cue systems although it may implicitly stress the use of contextual cues, e.g. D 24.

Carl Fun in the New / /

Teacher (aside) That's okay, right.
Fun in the New

Carl New House.

Teacher That's right.

By taking the child back in the text the context is re-emphasised and this together with the intonation provided by the teacher would seem to be helpful to the child.

A move which indicates to the child that phonic analysis might be appropriate is limiting the cue systems which are being suggested to the child. However, this move was followed in 50% of all instances with a correct response by the child. Frequently this move would stress the beginning sound, e.g. C 14.

Donna See, See, See
See Dick

Teacher /w/

Donna work

This emphasis on the beginning sound was stated by Clay (1972) as appropriate instructional strategy and may be the salient clue to the deciphering of words (Marchbanks and Levin, 1965). Biemiller (1970) following his study of oral reading errors argues the need to encourage children to use graphic information as much as possible in order to develop from the earlier stages of reading development which suggest a predominant use of contextual information. The move may be useful for that reason.

Another move which may be helpful to the child is quite simply to provide information that he is wrong by the use of negative feedback, e.g. E14.

Ian		Pack (miscues Weigh)
Teacher	No.	
Ian		Weigh the packet of tea You can / /

In this move no instructional advice is given to the child although the move does bring to the child's attention the fact that he has miscued. The child is then left to reconsider the miscue and to choose for himself the information from the text which he will utilise. This move may, however, be important as it provides information to the child as to whether his prediction has worked or not worked (Smith, 1971).

The use of comprehension moves during the interaction, rather than at the beginning or end, was infrequently utilised by the teachers in this study. It may be that the use of such a move, possibly due to its length, may disrupt the child's involvement with the text. Use of the move may, therefore, distract rather than assist the child in attending to the cue systems. However, as it was so infrequently used in this study it is inappropriate to be more definite than suggest the move may be of some use in a limited number of circumstances after the other possible moves

have been discounted. An example of this move is found in B3, however, the teacher follows up with a supplementary phonic move and it is not possible to detect which move was most useful to the child.

Craig for your shop?
Can you make a /t/-/t/

Teacher What sort of shop? a /t/

Craig toy shop

Finally, the teacher may provide the word for the child following his miscue. This move was frequently utilised particularly by Teachers C and D and it may be that the use of such a move on a limited number of occasions does help the child to retain a link with the text. However, if it is used too frequently the child may become dependent upon the teacher as a provider of words as was noted earlier, C26 analysis of teacher verbal moves, and as can be seen in C10.

Sean were as baby (miscues busy)

Teacher No. busy

Sean busy
as//

Teacher they were as busy
as //
could

Sean could be.

In this example the teacher does attempt preferred moves of negative feedback "no" and word recognition "they were as busy as" however, following these moves she provides the word. Indeed Teacher C, because of her frequent use of providing the word, may have led children to expect the answer if they waited long enough. This move would, Yetta Goodman (1970) argues, hinder the child's attempt to discover reading strategies, it may also discourage self-correction.

As the child reads, self-corrects, corrects and completes his reading, opportunities will arise for the teacher to provide information that he is right. She will, therefore, be acting as an information provider (Smith, 1971). However, the information would appear as positive feedback and is, therefore, not only providing information but is also giving praise and encouragement to the child. Glynn (1980) states quite clearly when this positive feedback should be given (he draws upon the unpublished work of McNaughton (1978) in this listing). He suggests providing praise contingent upon:

- a) correct performance (e.g. sentences or pages read correctly)
- b) self-correction of errors, and
- c) error correction following a prompt.

(Glynn 1980; p 5)

In this study of six teachers positive feedback was the most frequently used move apart from asides. The teachers did use positive feedback at certain predictable moments it was argued in the section on the analysis of teacher verbal moves. These predictable moments were similar to those put forward by Glynn. They were used to confirm a child's self-correction or miscue correction following a teacher move. They were also used to praise the correct performance of a sentence read in the case of the weakest readers and a page read in the case of more able readers. The use of positive feedback appeared to provide a dual message, yes you are reading correctly, and also, keep on reading. Finally, they were used to praise the child upon the completion of his read. These moves appeared to the writer to provide useful information to the child and act as an encouragement in his reading. Others might argue that this use of positive feedback provides useful information to the child (Smith, 1971) or appropriate reinforcement (Skinner, 1968). In addition, providing it is uttered in a minimum form, e.g. "yes" "mm" in order to minimise disruption to the child, it can be helpful to his reading.

- Teacher Yes you do because you once wrote about it didn't you, climbing trees? Dangerous that, you have to take care, you have to be careful.
- John I look for trees like that.
- Teacher With a shape so that you can get your foot in easily. Is that what you do? Do you go up high?
- John In Epping Forest I went round with my Dad and there's this tree and there's branches sticking out the side and it's like steps you just walk up.
- Teacher Was it like a playhouse there or did you make one?
- John No we just used the trees.
- Teacher That sounds nice I like the idea of that.

These areas which are questioned by the teacher relate quite clearly to the areas to be examined during the individual conference which Veatch (1978) postulates namely personal identification, comprehension skills and mechanical skills. Veatch subsequently puts forward an extensive list of questions that might be asked under each heading. However, she does not suggest that all the questions should be asked within a single conference. Nor does she argue that the areas need to be explored in a set order. Importantly she believes it is the depth to which an area is explored which is the best for reading growth. It might, therefore, be appropriate for the teacher to question the child on personal experiences, comprehension and/or word recognition and phonics as they relate to the text. The questioning attempts to explore in some depth specific aspects rather than to deal superficially with numerous aspects of the text.

As the interaction is brought to a close it would seem to be apposite that a closing welfare move is provided. This would provide a logical balance to the opening welfare move and act to confirm the relationship that was developed during the interaction. Of course, as was frequently evident in this study, the closing of the interaction often contained a number of moves with positive feedback, welfare and direction being utilised as in Cl6.

Helen (reads on) or iron and twelve pounds of steel,
and a smith to hammer and a smith to
hold.

Teacher Well done.
You are getting on well with this book Helen.
Would you like to finish to the end of the story?

Helen Yes.

Teacher I think you could manage that.
Good girl.
Well done Helen.

Nevertheless, the interaction is being clearly but not abruptly terminated by the teacher and Helen is both praised as well as having her opinion sought. A sequence of closing moves including positive feedback and welfare moves might therefore be appropriate.

The suggestions which have been put forward cannot be seen as a definitive statement, however, they may provide guidelines for a teacher when hearing children read. The suggestions which have been put forward are:-

- 1 The teacher needs to position herself so that she can see the complete class.
- 2 The teacher and child should work side by side with the book to be read in front of them.
- 3 The number of teacher asides should be minimised by the prior organisation for the other children in the class.
- 4 The interaction should last for circa five minutes although it is the qualitative aspects of the interaction which are of most importance.
- 5 The teacher should provide an appropriate opening welfare move to reinforce the one to one relationship and indicate the empathy of the teacher for the child.
- 6 An optional reference to the previous read or the present read by use of phonic, word recognition or comprehension questions might be provided.

- 7 When the child miscues a word the teacher might:-
- (i) Wait, thus allowing the child time to self-correct.
 - (ii) Ignore good errors such as dialectical variations and miscues which preserve the essential meaning of the text.
 - (iii) Provide a verbal move to assist the child if the miscue is a not so good error.
- 8 When the child miscues with a not so good error the teacher might (in order of preference):-
- (i) Adopt a word recognition move thus keeping open use of any cue system; grapho-phonetic, syntactic or semantic.
 - (ii) Provide the suggestion of phonic analysis thus concentrating on the grapho-phonetic cue system.
 - (iii) Provide negative feedback as a source of information.
 - (iv) Use a comprehension question to assist the child towards meaning and/or recognition of a word.
 - (v) Provide the word as a means of retaining a link with the text.
- 9 The teacher might provide positive feedback (preferably in a short form e.g. "yes" "mm" etc.):-
- (i) To confirm a child's self-correction.
 - (ii) To confirm a child's miscue correction following a teacher verbal move.
 - (iii) To praise a correct performance e.g. sentences or pages (dependent upon progress of child reading) read correctly.
 - (iv) To praise the child upon the completion of his read.
- 10 The teacher should provide sufficient directions in order to sustain and develop the interaction.
- 11 On completion of the read the teacher might question the child on personal experiences, comprehension and/or word recognition and phonics as they relate to the text.

12 The teacher should provide an appropriate sequence of closing moves which might include both welfare and positive feedback.

Perhaps the main danger in providing such a list is that it might be regarded as a check list of points to be covered. This is not its purpose. Within the context of the classroom when confronted by a specific individual child the teacher will need to adjust according to her professional judgements and use those suggestions which appear to be most relevant. However, the list might provide a framework from which those judgements might be made. The list was, of course, constructed on the basis of what teachers actually do when hearing children read and some evaluation as to what was helpful to the child.

If, as Clay (1972) suggests, the child's reading progress is partly determined by the way in which he responds to the text.

The child gradually learns to respond to more of the rich sources of cues in the text, to search actively for the cues, to relate one to another with greater precision and to increase the accuracy with which he makes his decisions about what to notice and what to ignore.

(Clay 1972; p 125)

Then the teacher may, by her use of guiding verbal moves, be influential in assisting or hindering the child's search for cues and consequently his reading progress. Clay subsequently concludes that:-

Children who fail at reading do not all have damaged brains. At least half if not more, have developed inefficient behaviour responses for finding, using, checking and correcting information as they read.

(Clay 1972; p 164)

Might the teacher by her careful and considered use of verbal moves help the child towards efficient behaviour responses? It calls perhaps for the good intuitive teacher (Smith, 1973). However, the suggested list might

provide the framework which clarifies the actual teacher behaviour during hearing children read and, therefore, make explicit what was previously implicit in Smith's suggestion of responding to what the child is trying to do.

12. Summary.
 - 1 This research studied the dyadic interaction of hearing children read in infant classrooms, Introduction and p 46.
 - 2 Six teachers from three randomly selected infant/primary schools were the subjects, p 47.
 - 3 One hundred and fifty six interactions from naturalistic settings were observed, audio-recorded and transcribed, pp 46-58.
 - 4 Teacher interviews took place at the end of each recording session, p 52.
 - 5 The format for presentation of transcriptions was described, pp 53-54.
 - 6 An alternative methodology, involving a more sustained observation and shared analysis of a single classroom, was suggested as a future development, pp 57-58.
 - 7 A small scale survey using a questionnaire was described and the findings outlined, pp 59-86.
 - 8 The organisation of the classroom environment was noted as an important precursor to hearing children read, pp 87-90.
 - 9 (i) A descriptive system to account for the teacher verbal moves in hearing children was developed and outlined, pp 91-104.
(ii) This system describes the teacher verbal moves in terms of their pedagogical function, p 92.
(iii) The teacher verbal moves were classified under three main headings: pedagogical, feedback and asides, pp 92-93.
(iv) Pedagogical moves were further subdivided into six areas concerned with welfare, directions, providing words, word recognition, phonics and comprehension, pp 92-93.
(v) Feedback moves were evident as positive or negative feedback, p 92.
(vi) Descriptors for these moves and examples were provided, pp 93-103.
- 10 Welfare moves were most often found at the start and completion of a read, pp 105-109.

- 11 Direction moves were the most frequently used pedagogical teacher move and served to direct and control the interaction, pp 109-113.
- 12 Providing the word moves deny the opportunity for self-correction and can lead to a teacher led reading of the passages, pp 115-117.
- 13 (i) The most frequently used word recognition move was for the teacher to restart the phrase/sentence for the child, p 117.
(ii) Word recognition moves of this type may occur after substitutions, omissions, insertions or hesitations, pp 118-119.
(iii) The child was able to correct his reading in 66% of all instances where word recognition moves were provided by the teacher, p 119.
- 14 (i) Phonic moves occurred most frequently after miscues of substitution or hesitation and most usually emphasised the initial letter(s), p 120.
(ii) The success rate following phonic moves was 50%, p 121.
- 15 (i) Comprehension moves were most frequently noted at the end of a read.
(ii) Comprehension questions were asked to ascertain:-
 - (a) if the child understood a specific word, p 125.
 - (b) if the child can relate the text to his own experience, pp 125-126.
 - (c) if the child had understood the text, p 126.
- 16 (i) Positive feedback was the most frequently used teacher verbal move, p 104.
(ii) Positive feedback may occur at relatively predictable moments:-
 - (a) when the child self-corrects a miscue, pp 127-128.
 - (b) when the child corrects a miscue after a teacher pedagogical move, p 128.
 - (c) when the child (especially a weak reader) satisfactorily reads a line/sentence, p 128.
 - (d) when the child completes a page and/or total read, p 128.

- 16 (iii) Positive feedback was most often given in a simple form eg "good", "yes", "mm" and, therefore, provides a minimum of interruption to the child reading, p 129.
- 17 Negative feedback was most usually provided as an immediate response to a miscue, p 127.
- 18 Weakest readers receive more positive feedback and negative feedback than ablest and average readers, pp 130-131.
- 19 (i) Asides were used for two main purposes:-
- (a) to direct, control and organise other children in the classroom, they are teacher initiated moves, p 132.
 - (b) to respond to a pupil initiated move which is seeking assistance, p 132.
- (ii) Asides occurred at a rate of 12.8 per interaction, pp 131-132.
- (iii) Asides may distract the teacher from the child reading and thus the reader may be denied the support he requires, pp 133-134.
- 20 Non-response to a miscue occurs:-
- (a) because the teacher's attention is elsewhere, p 135.
 - (b) when the child's substitution miscue is regarded as a good error, pp 135-136.
- 21 Weakest readers were heard reading more frequently than average or ablest readers, pp 137-140.
- 22 The mean time spent on the 156 hearing children read interactions was 4 minutes 36 seconds, p 141.
- 23 The range of time for all observations was 1 minute 18 seconds to 14 minutes 40 seconds, pp 141-142.
- 24 The quality of the interactions (which might be explored through an analysis of the transcriptions) may be of more importance than the time spent, pp 142-147.
- 25 The position of the teacher, child and book during hearing children read was noted to be an important organisational aspect of the interaction, pp 148-151.

- 26 Children placed their reading cards under the line being read in one hundred and twenty of the interactions, pp 151-152.
- 27 Each teacher kept a record of the child's progress by noting the book and page read, additionally Teacher A, E and F kept a record of some miscued words and phonic problems, pp 152-157.
- 28 Differences between the teaching styles of the six teachers were evident, subjectively from a perusal of transcripts and more objectively from the profiles of teacher verbal moves and pedagogical moves, pp 158-202.
- 29 Teacher A frequently used pre-read and post-read exchanges to develop mechanical and comprehension skills. She allowed time for the child to self correct, made frequent use of word recognition and phonic moves and a limited use of asides, pp 162-169
- 30 Teacher B spent least time, of the six teachers, on hearing children read, mean 2 minutes 24 seconds. She allowed a limited amount of time for the reader to consider his miscues before responding with an eclectic use of word recognition, phonic and providing word moves. She used asides, 1.4 per read, less frequently than any other teacher in the sample, pp 169-173.
- 31 Teacher C's interactions were dominated by asides, 25.7 per read. Children were given little time or encouragement to consider contextual cues. The most frequently used pedagogical moves were providing the word and phonics. The emphasis of the interaction appeared to be centred on word accuracy, pp 173-181.
- 32 Teacher D made frequent use of providing the word moves. She allowed children insufficient time to consider their own strategies. Phonic and word recognition moves were often immediately followed by providing the word moves. Frequent asides, 19.7 per read, meant that Teacher D occasionally missed what was being read, pp 181-186.
- 33 Teacher E frequently used pre-read and post-read exchanges which were dominated by comprehension moves. Of the other pedagogical

moves word recognition was used most frequently. An emphasis upon reading for and with meaning was evident, pp 186-194.

- 34 Teacher F demonstrated an eclectic approach to hearing children read. Each of the pedagogical moves was used and none appeared to be dominant, pp 194-200.
- 35 An instrument for the analysis of teacher verbal moves in hearing children read was outlined. The use of the instrument was demonstrated and a number of limitations was indicated, pp 203-217.
- 36 A suggestion of guidelines, which a teacher might use when hearing children read, was put forward, pp 218-238.

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