ABSTRACT
            A study investigated the use of story impressions as
a prereading writing activity to determine the story comprehension
and recall of 96 seventh- and eighth-grade students. Students in the
experimental group were given a set of story-relevant "impressions"
(clue words) prior to reading a narrative passage and were asked to
formulate a written story of their own (called a story-guess) based
upon the provided set of clues. Students in a second treatment
condition were given the set of story impressions and asked to make a
list of their predictions about the story without composing a story
of their own. A third group (the control group) read the story
without any preview activity. Results revealed that story impressions
when paired with composing a story-guess produced the highest level
of story comprehension and recall for both above and below average
readers. Results also supported the composing aspect of the story
impressions technique as important to its overall effectiveness.
(Three tables and two figures of data are included; 41 references are
attached.) (Author/KEH)

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Effects of Prediction Combined with Story Composing

Versus Listing Predictions as Prereading Activities

on Subsequent Story Comprehension

Peter R. Denner

Department of Education

Idaho State University

William J. McGinley

School of Education

University of Michigan

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authors.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this investigation was to examine the use of story-impressions as a prereading writing-activity on seventh- and eighth-grade students story comprehension and recall. Students in the experimental group were given a set of story relevant "impressions" (clue words) prior to reading a narrative passage and were asked to formulate a written story of their own (called a story guess) based upon the provided set of clues. Students in a second treatment condition were given the set of story impressions and asked to make a list of their predictions about the story without composing a story of their own. A third group (the control group) read the story without any preview activity. The story impressions when paired with composing a story-gue_s produced the highest level of story comprehension and recall for both above and below average readers. The pattern of results supported the composing aspect of the story impressions technique as important to its overall effectiveness.

Effects of Prediction Combined with Story Composition

Versus Listed Predictions as Prereading Activities

on Subsequent Story Comprehension

Research on <u>prereading</u> activities has yielded an emerging body of work which suggests that inducing reader's to activate and to make connections between their prior knowledge and the text can facilitate reading comprehension (Hansen, 1981; Langer, 1980; Langer, & Nicolich, 1981). The most frequently examined prereading activities have been <u>previews</u> (Graves & Cooke, 1980; Graves, Cooke, & LaBerge, 1984, McCormick, 1989, Neuman, 1988), and the setting of purposes for reading in the form of <u>predictions</u> (Biskin, Hoskisson & Modlin, 1976; Davidson, 1970; Freeman, 1982; Nichols, 1983; Olshavsky & Kletzing, 1979; Shanahan, 1986; Stauffer, 1975). In general, such activities have been shown to enhance subsequent reading comprehension.

More recently, reading professionals have begun to focus on prereading activities that go beyond building or activating readers' pre-existing knowledge to ones that have the additional potential to influence the processes by which readers use their knowledge once activated (McCormick, 1987, pp. 293-294; McGinley & Denner, 1987; Pehrsson & Denner, 1989, pp. 51-53; Wood, 1984). The present study is aimed at the further exploration of one such prereading activity, called story impressions (McGinley & Denner, 1987), which uses both prediction and prewriting to enhance students' reading comprehension. Prewriting as a prereading

activity may be especially beneficial because of its potential to affect the processes employed by readers as they make use of their activated story-relevant knowledge. In fact, the present study is an attempt to determine whether the **composing process** itself, rather than the mere testing of predictions, is an essential aspect of the effectiveness of the story impressions prereading activity.

Reading as a Composing Process

Current approaches to understanding reading comprehension processes have focused on their connections to writing processes. Tierney and Pearson (1983) have compared reading and writing on the basis of their shared composing properties. While contending that few would disagree that writers compose meaning, they have proposed a view of reading in which readers also compose the meaning of a text in front of them (p. 34). Tierney and Pearson argued that good reading involves several processes that are also characteristics of good writing. According to their view, proficient readers, like proficient writers, often plan or set goals prior to reading, draft an initial understanding of the meaning that they are making, align by taking a stance or perspective on the meaning being composed, revise and refine the meaning of the text that they are developing, and monitor the plausibility of the interpretation that they are constructing.

Others have supported this view, conceptualizing the relationship between comprehension and composition by way of (1)

the process-oriented thinking skills that each one requires (Shanahan, 1984; Squire, 1983); (2) the generative cognitive processes involved in building relations between the text and what the reader already knows during reading and writing (Wittrock, 1983); and (3) the similar kinds of knowledge of which both readers and writers make use (Rubin & Hansen, 1984). Such comparisons support the view that reading should no longer be thought of as a receptive, text-based activity involving processes largely unlike the generative, composing processes associated with writing.

The Influence of Writing on Reading

If similar kinds of processes are critical to expertise in both reading and writing, as many researchers now contend, there may be great value in trying to interrelate them. The value lies in the potential for processes used in one to be transferred to the other (Rubin & Hansen, 1984). As a result, researchers have begun to investigate the general influence of writing upon reading comprehension (Tierney & Leys, 1986); the extension and develop of reading comprehension through writing during or after reading (Konopak, Martin, & Martin, 1990; Wittrock, Doctorow, & Marks, 1978; Wittrock, 1983); and the use of expository writing to improve expository reading (Taylor, 1982; Taylor & Beach, 1984). However, to date, few studies have examined the potential of writing as a prereading activity.

In one study examining the effects of writing as prereading, Gould, Haas, and Marino (1982) demonstrated that when students wrote a letter about the way people may have lived in a particular historical setting (Oregon in 1845 in this instance) as a form of schema-building before reading a related text, they recalled the text better than students who wrote on topics unrelated to the text. The authors concluded that writing as a prereading activity promotes the active integration of prior knowledge with the information in the text.

In terms of Tierney and Pearson's (1983) model of reading as a composing process, writing as prereading activity might be understood as an attempt to shape the thinking processes that children use during reading. In other words, certain kinds of writing done before reading may help readers adopt a constructive mental set for reading and induce them to transfer processes, like drafting, used in composition to reading comprehension. Theoretically, the use of writing as a process preview could encourage readers to begin composing the meaning of a text prior to reading--to plan or draft (Tierney & Pearson, 1983) their reading in the way that writers plan or draft their writing and to engage in the process of text world production (Kucer, 1985). The daft could then be confirmed or revised by the readers as they interact with the details of the actual story. In this way writing as a rereading activity can be seen as a warm up to reading as an active composing process.

In an attempt to use prewriting to facilitate story comprehension, McGinley and Denner (1987) have proposed a writing approach to previewing a story designed to facilitate construction of an anticipatory model of the story on the part of the reader. The prereading writing-activity stimulates the readers to approximate the events of the to-be-read story by providing them with fragments of the actual content of the story in the form of story impressions. The story fragments are clue words and telegraphic phrases that, once assembled, enable the readers to form an overall impression of how characters and events interact within the story. As an illustration, Figure 1 presents a set of story-impressions for "Never Trust A Lady" by Victor Canning (1977).

After reviewing the set of story impressions, readers express their predictions about the to-be-read story by composing a story of their own (called a story guess). As a consequence, the readers receive some relevant clues about the story's content and structure without having large portions of the plot told to them, and they must also actively interpret the clues through their own writing activities. The object of the preview is not for the readers to guess the exact relationship among events and characters but simply to compare their own story-guesses while reading to the author's actual account (a revision process). In this way, the story impressions prereading technique attempts to

accentuate the interconnections among the writing and reading processes as a means to enhance reading comprehension.

In a recent investigation of the story impressions prereading/writing activity (Denner, McGinley & Brown, 1989), it was found that second-grade students, who engaged in the act of processing the story-impressions clues into a written story-guess prior to reading an assigned story, afterwards answered significantly more comprehension questions and thereby demonstrated greater story-recall than students who simply read the story. The effect was the same for both impressions-related and impressions-unrelated test items. Examination of the match between the readers' written story-guesses and the author's actual text demonstrated that the facilitative effect on comprehension occurred whether or not the readers accurately guessed the contents of the author's story. Hence, writing as prereading can influence subsequent story comprehension and the effect is not limited to the recall of anticipated story content.

Left open in the Denner, McGinley and Brown (1989) study, however, was the question as to whether the effectiveness of the story impressions prereading activity was largely due to the evaluation and revision of the readers' own predictions, to the activation and application of composition-related processes, or to the combination of these factors. A major purpose of the present study, in addition to extending the findings of the Denner, McGinley and Brown study to older (junior high school)

readers and to more complex narrative passages, was to better understand the processing mechanisms responsible for the improved story comprehension following participation in the story-impressions prereading activity. The study, therefore, attempted to determine whether composing a story guess added substantially to the effectiveness of the story impressions preview technique over and beyond the advantages attributable to prior knowledge activation and to the predictions resulting from the presentation of the story impressions (clue words) themselves. It was predicted that readers, who both reviewed a set of story-related impressions and composed a written story guess of their own as a prereading activity, would exceed the reading comprehension performance of readers, who reviewed the same set of story impressions, but who merely listed their predictions based on the clues without composing a story guess of their own.

Reading ability was also included as a factor in this study because of its potential to moderate the effects of any preview technique. Below-average readers might be expected to benefit most from the story-impressions preview activity, while above-average readers might not require such as a preview because proficient readers tend to make predictions and be interactive readers when reading anyway (Rumelhart, 1984). An alternative reason for investigating the effects of reading ability was that the story-impressions technique might prove to be more effective for the better readers because their written story-guesses might

be expected to match more closely the author's tale (Pehrsson &
Denner, 1985). Hence, in addition to reading ability, this study
also examined the degree to which students' written story guesses
must resemble the author's actual story for the previewing method
to be effective. Although reading ability was not shown to be a
factor in the Denner, McGinley and Brown (1989) study using
second-grade readers, the kinds of differences between proficient
and less proficient readers found in the second grade might be
expected to undergo developmental changes as the reading process
matures; hence, the effectiveness of a the story-impressions
preview technique might be quite different for junior high school
at different levels of reading capability. As a consequence, an
assessment of the potential for such a moderating influence on
the effectiveness of the previewing activities at the junior high
school level was an additional purpose of the present
investigation.

<div align="center">METHODS</div>

Subjects

A combined total of 96 seventh and eighth grade students
participated in this study. They were drawn from classes at two
junior high schools from the same city in southeastern Idaho.
All students were volunteers who consented to participate in the
study. The students were first blocked according to their grade
level and their reading ability (above versus below median) based
upon their current standardized reading achievement test scores,

and then randomly assigned to the three treatment conditions
(story impressions with composition of a written story-guess,
story impressions with written prediction, or a read only control
group).   The total number of subjects per treatment condition was
32 (16 above median readers, and 16 below median readers).

<u>Materials</u>

The passage used in this investigation was a short story by
Victor Canning (1977) entitled "Never Trust a Lady".   The
readability of the 1687 word passage, as computed by the Fry
(1978) and Dale-Chall (1954) formulas, was within the seventh to
eighth grade range.   The story told the a tale of a locksmith
named Horace who has a mania for rare, old books.   Once a year he
steals jewels to pay for the books.   This year, however, he is
caught by a pretty young lady who tricks him into opening a safe.
Horace is later arrested for the jewel robbery and ends up as the
assistant prison librarian because no one believed his story
about the young lady claiming to be the owner of the house.

For each sentence of the story, normative ratings of the
"structural importance" (SI) were computed according to
procedures outlined by Johnson (1970).   This involved asking 28
college students to rate each text sentence (divided into pausal
units) as to its importance to the overall meaning of the
passage.   The college students were assigned to one of three
subgroups having the task of eliminating 1/4, 1/2, or 3/4 of the
sentence units that were least important to the overall semantic

content of the story. A count of the number of times a sentence
unit was retained rather than eliminated provided the measure of
its structural-importance. Based on these ratings, six levels of
structural-importance (SI) were identified for the experimental
passage (Johnson, 1970).

The story impressions (clues) were developed from the set of
story-units rated at the highest level (level 1) of
structural-importance. The 40 (level 1) units were arranged
according to the order in which they occurred in the story.
Fifteen units were then selected which provided significant clue
information about the setting, characters and major elements of
the plot. The objectivity of the selection process was checked
by having a second person also choose fifteen units. The percent
of initial agreement between the independently selected sets of
story units was approximately 87 percent, indicating sufficient
objectivity for the purposes of this investigation. The raters
then reached a consensus on the final set of story-impressions.
The average SI rating of the level 1 story-units chosen for use
as clues did not differ significantly from the average SI rating
of those level 1 units not chosen. The selected story-units were
next reduced to a single word or telegraphic phrase. A maximum
of three words was used per impression. Finally, the clues were
arranged vertically and marked with arrows to indicate clue
order. Figure 1 presents the set of story-impressions extracted

from the story "Never Trust A Lady" (Canning, 1977) that were
used in the present investigation.

Insert Figure 1 About Here

Instruments

A 52-item completion test was developed using sentences
extracted from the story with an important word or phrase omitted
from each one. Of the 55 items, 13 items are directed to the
clues supplied by the story impressions, while 42 items assess
recall of information unrelated to the story-impressions. The 42
unrelated items consisted of 14 items randomly selected from
story units rated high (levels 1 & 2) in structural importance,
14 items from story-units rated medium (levels 3 & 4), and 14
items from story units rated low (levels 5 & 6) in structural
importance.

Procedures

The story-impressions with written story-guess group was
first presented an example set of story impressions unrelated to
the to-be-read selection. The process of composing a story-guess
using the sample clues was then explained. Next, the students
were encouraged to offer suggestions as to how the impressions
might be connected. Following this, they were shown an example
story-guess, which had been previously written by a student using
the sample set of story-impressions. After this, the set of

story-impressions for "Never Trust A Lady" was distributed. The
students were then instructed to link the clues together in the
manner demonstrated and to generate a written story-guess of
their own. The students were further told that they should focus
on the content of their stories and not worry about grammar,
spelling or other writing mechanics. Each student wrote their
own story guess without interacting with the other students in
the room. The total process took about forty-five minutes, with
approximately 30 minutes devoted to having the students write
their stories.

During the same time period, the students in the
story-impressions prediction-only group reviewed the same set of
story-impressions and were asked to write down in list form their
predictions about the plot of the to-be-read story prior to
reading it. Review of the clues and the listing of their
predictions took 15-20 minutes. The students in the read-only
control group continued to attend their regular classes until the
second phase of the study.

After writing their stories or making their predictions, the
students in the two preview treatment groups were given a copy of
"Never Trust A Lady" to read for the first time. At the same
time, the students in the reading-only group were assembled into
a common area and given instruction appropriate to their assigned
treatment condition. These students then read the story without
reviewing the story-impressions. When all students finished

reading the assigned story, they were asked to complete the same
55 item completion test.   All students were given exactly 50
minutes to complete this second phase of the study.

Story Analysis

The proximity of the student-author stories was measured
using a modification of a scoring technique developed by Pehrsson
(1982).   This was also the rating method employed previously by
Denner, McGinley, and Brown (1989) as a student-author proximity
measure.   The students' written story guesses were evaluated by
assigning a proximity score to each pausal unit (Johnson, 1970)
of their stories.   Individual story-units received a rating of 3
(high match) when the student's unit was the same or very similar
to the specifics of an unit of the author's story and were
consistent with the author's overall story plan.   A rating of
2 (moderate match) was given to a student's story unit that was
similar to a story-unit of the author's story, yet contributed
more to the student's own plot development than to a plot
resembling the author's.   A rating of 1 (low match) was assigned
when a student's story unit referenced the same idea as a unit of
the author's story but developed it in a way quite different from
or contrary to the author's narrative.   Finally, zero points were
awarded (no match) when the student's story-unit was unrelated to
any of the author's story-units.   The ratings were then tallied
to obtain a total reader-author proximity score.   The number of
matching units (units with a score of 1 or higher) were also

tallied.   The average degree of match between the students's and author's stories was computed by dividing each student's total proximity score by the number of story-unit matches.

Design

The design was a 2 (above average versus below average reader) by 3 (story-impressions with composition of a story-guess, story-impressions with prediction versus reading-only) generalized randomized block design (Kirk, 1982). The dependent measures derived from the completion test were: (1) recall of impressions related items, and (2) recall of items unrelated to the story impressions, and (3) total recall.   The three dependent measures were analyzed separately using ANOVA procedures.   All post hoc mean comparisons were made using the Newman-Keuls procedure.   The significance level for all tests was set at alpha = .05.   As follow up analyses, Pearson product-moment correlations were used to examine the relations among the completion test scores and the student/author proximity scores of the students in the story impressions plus composing preview condition.

Scoring

Students' responses to each item on the completion test were counted correct if they contained the omitted word or phrase, or its semantic equivalent.   Variations in phrasing and synonyms were also considered correct when they did not alter the meaning of the original story sentence.   The reliability of the scoring

procedure was assessed by having an independent rater rescore all
of the students' test performances. The two sets of ratings were
then correlated for total recall performance using Pearson
product-moment correlation procedures. The correlation was r =
.97, p < .01 (n = 96), indicating sufficient interrater
reliability for the purposes of the present investigation.

The interrater reliability of the scoring procedure for
evaluating reader-author story proximity was also assessed by
having a second rater rescore all of the students' stories. The
correlation between the two independent ratings was r = .92, p <
.01 (n = 32).

<div align="center">RESULTS</div>

Preliminary analyses indicated no significant effects due to
junior high school or to grade level on any of the dependent
measures so the effects of school and grade were eliminated as a
factors in the following analyses.

Table 1 presents the means and standard deviations of the
completion test scores for the three treatment groups by reading
ability level. The 2 (above average versus below average
readers) by 3 (story-impressions with composition of a
story-guess preview, story-impressions with prediction-only
preview versus no preview reading-only) ANOVA for total recall
performance on the completion test revealed a significant main
effect for reading ability, $F(1,90)$ = 13.95, p < .05, and a
significant main effect for preview condition, $F(2,90)$ = 5.87, p

< .05, $\underline{MSe}$ = 64.54. The interaction was not significant, $\underline{F}$(2,90) = 1.03, $\underline{p}$ = .36. Post hoc mean comparisons indicated that only the mean of the story-impressions with composing preview group ($\underline{M}$ = 41.5) significantly ($\underline{p}$ < .05) exceed the mean of the no preview control group ($\underline{M}$ = 34.6) in total recall performance. The mean of the story-impressions with listing predictions preview group ($\underline{M}$ = 38.3) fell between the means of the other two conditions without differing significantly from either of them. The results support the use of story-impressions plus composing a written story guess (McGinley & Denner, 1987) as a prereading activity for both above and below average readers. In addition, the results suggest that composing a hypothetical story is superior to listing predictions about the story content when clues to the content of a narrative are given in the form of story-impressions. The results also confirm the findings of Denner, McGinley, & Brown (1989) and extend them to junior-high school readers.

Insert Table 1 About Here

A separate 2 x 3 ANOVA was conducted for the number of impressions-related items recalled. This analysis disclosed a significant main effect for reading level, $\underline{F}$(1,90) = 12.30, $\underline{p}$ < .05, a significant main effect for preview condition, $\underline{F}$(2,90) = 9.00, $\underline{p}$ < .05, and a significant reading level by preview

interaction, $F(2,90) = 3.65$, $p < .05$, $MSe = 5.02$. Post Hoc mean
comparisons indicated that both the story impressions group with
composing ($M = 10.0$) and the story impressions predicting-only
group ($M = 9.4$) recalled significantly ($p < .05$) more
impressions-related items than students in the reading-only
condition ($M = 7.7$), without differing significantly from each
other. Post hoc analysis of the interaction effect revealed that
above-average readers exceed below-average readers in recall of
impression-related items in all conditions except for the story-
impressions with composing group where the below average readers
($M = 10.1$) actually outperformed the above-average readers ($M = 9.9$), although not significantly. Figure 2 presents a graph of
the interaction. For below average readers, the story-
impressions with composing group ($M = 10.1$) and the story-clues
with predicting group ($M = 8.3$) both outperformed ($p < .05$) the
read-only control group in recall of impressions-related items.
No other differences were found to be significant.

The results suggest that attention to impression related
information is one element contributing to the improved recall of
below average but not of above average readers in the story-
impressions plus composing preview condition. Moreover, the
story impressions with composing preview technique enabled below
average readers to recall as many high importance impressions
related items as the above average readers under any of the
treatment conditions. These findings also show that providing

students with a set of story relevant impressions (clue words and phrases) and asking them to make predictions enhanced recall of impression-related items when compared to a no preview condition; thus demonstrating that predicting prior to reading influences the recall of prediction related items.

A further 2 x 3 ANOVA was conducted for the recall of items unrelated to the story-impressions. The results disclosed a main effect for reading ability, $F(1,90) = 12.28$, $p < .05$, and a main effect for preview condition, $F(2,90) = 4.10$, $p < .05$, $MSe =$ 39.21. The interaction was not significant. Post hoc mean comparisons revealed that only the mean of the story-impressions with composing preview group ($M = 31.4$) significantly exceed ($p <$ .05) the mean of the no preview control group ($M = 26.9$). The mean of the story-clues plus listing predictions group ($M = 28.9$) fell between the others without differing significantly from either of them. These resul's imply that the beneficial effects of the story impressions preview were not limited to increased recall of impressions-related story elements.

Reader/Author Proximity

The relations among the student author proximity measures and the completion test scores were evaluated for students in the story-impressions plus composing preview condition, using Pearson product-moment correlations. Table 2 presents the means and standard deviations for the student/author proximity scores. The intercorrelations among the proximity scores and the students'

recall scores are presented in Table 3.   The results revealed
small but significant positive correlations among the proximity
measures and total recall, and also small, significant, positive
correlations among the proximity measures and recall of items
unrelated to the story impressions.   No significant correlations,
however, were found among the proximity measures and the recall
of impressions related items.

Insert Table 2 About Here

Insert Table 3 About Here

DISCUSSION

In concert with our prediction and with the findings of
Denner, McGinley, & Brown (1989), the results of the present
study demonstrated that the story impressions preview method
(story impressions plus composition of a written story guess) is
an effective prereading activity for both above and below average
readers.   The results extend the findings of Denner, McGinley, &
Brown (1989) to junior-high school readers.   They also suggest
that composing a written story-guess is an important aspect of
the effectiveness of this previewing technique.

The significant interaction between preview method and
recall of impressions related items indicated that attention to

impression related information was a factor contributing to the
improved performance of below average readers, but not above
average readers, in the story-impressions plus composing preview
condition. This finding is contrary to that of Denner, McGinley
and Brown (1989) who did not find a moderating influence for
reading ability on impressions related items for second grade
students. At the junior high school level, the story impressions
with composing preview technique enabled below average readers to
preform as well on the high importance impressions related items
as the above average readers under any of the treatment
conditions.

Story Impressions Plus Composing

An important issue examined in this study was whether the
composing aspect (story guess part) of the story impressions
preview technique contributed to its overall effectiveness, over
and beyond the effects that might be attributed to the activation
of relevant prior knowledge or to the testing out of predictions
based on the readers' review of the story impressions themselves.
The pattern of results supported the composing aspect of the
story impressions technique as important to its overall
effectiveness. Only the preview group that both reviewed the
story relevant impressions and composed a written story guess of
their own significantly exceed the no preview treatment condition
in total recall performance and in recall of both impressions-
related and impressions unrelated story elements.

The composing aspect of the story impressions with written
story guess preview appears to engage students in the building of
a tentative model or "rough draft" of the meaning of the text
(Tierney & Person, 1983). In essence, writing with story-
impressions as a form of prereading activity encouraged readers
to begin composing the meaning of text prior to reading- to plan
and to draft their reading in a way that writers plan and draft
their writing; and as a consequence it encouraged them to adopt a
more constructive, model building approach to the process of
understanding the story when it was subsequently read. By
producing a "rough draft" of the text, the readers were required
to use their relevant background knowledge appropriately. Once
devised, the readers also had the "rough draft" available as a
mental model to refine and adjust (a revision process) as they
encountered the actual story. Hence, it would appear that the
story impressions with composing preview method is an effective
preview method because it promotes the application and transfer
of processes associated with writing to the reader's reading.

Listing Predictions Only

The results of the present study indicated that the listing
of predictions based on a set of story relevant clues (story
impressions) only enhanced the recall of impressions related
information when compared to the no preview control condition.
This result is in agreement with the findings of Shanahan (1986),
who found that having third grade students predict the answers to

passage relevant questions as a prereading activity only enhanced recall of information cued by the questions, and did not affect recall of non-cued passage information. Are the beneficial effects of making predictions prior to reading limited to the enhancement of prediction relevant information? The scant evidence available so far would seem to support such a selective attention hypothesis. Future research on prediction as a prereading activity should examine this issue further using other types of dependent measures, such as readers' subsequent ability to derive inferences appropriate to the author's story.

Reader/Author Story Proximity

For students in the story impressions with composing preview, we also examined whether closeness of match between the students written story guesses and author's actual story affected their story comprehension and retention. The findings were somewhat contrary to those of Denner, McGinley and Brown (1989) who found that the reader/author proximity measures were not related to any of their comprehension measures for second grade students. However, the findings were in concert with those of Denner, McGinley and Brown with respect to the relationship between the reader/author proximity measures and recall of impression-related items.

The fact that in the present study the proximity scores were not found to be related to performance on the impressions related test items but were found to be related to performance on the

items not directly related to the story impressions supports the idea that the story-impressions prereading/writing activity functioned more as a preview to an interactive reading process, having broad influence on the reader's relationship to the authors text, than as a preview to the stories specific content (as contained in the story-impressions). In this respect, the findings support the conclusion of Denner, McGinley, and Brown (1989) that the effectiveness of the story impressions technique was not due simply to the fact that readers paid more or closer attention to the clue words contained in the story impressions when they read the actual story.

Upon further inspection of the written story guesses, the positive correlation between the reader/author proximity scores and the recall of story-elements from the author's story that were not directly related to the story-impressions themselves, may have been due to the readers' application of plot units (Lehnert, 1981; Reiser, Black, & Lehnert, 1985) similar to the author's in their own attempts to make sense of the story impressions. In attempting to compose their own story guesses, the students in the story impressions plus composing preview group were faced with decisions like any writer. They had to select a plot schema for their story and fill it in with the essential actions of the story (Tierney & Person, 1983). They had to determine what events to include and in what order, and they had to decide how to resolve the story. The slight positive

correlations may reflect a slight advantage in comprehension gained by those student who in their own written stories anticipated the general plot of the actual story. However, the fact that the correlations were small suggests that it was not absolutely necessary for the students to guess the authors' plot structure for the story impressions with composing preview to be beneficial.

General Conclusions

The effectiveness of prereading activities may depend not only on their ability to cause readers to activate relevant knowledge prior to reading but also on the extent to which they prepare the reader to apply that knowledge. The findings suggest that story impressions as a previewing activity may be effective because it induces students to engage in processes associated with writing as they read. Thus it helps them to see that reading, much like their own writing, is an interactive composing process (Tierney & Pearson, 1983). Below average readers appear to be helped most by this technique

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Table 1

<u>Mean Completion Test Scores by Preview Method and Reading Ability</u>
<u>Level</u>

Groups	n	Total		Impressions Related		Impressions Unrelated	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
No Preview Control	32	34.6	10.4	7.7	3.1	26.9	7.8
Low Readers	16	30.2	10.6	6.4	2.5	23.8	8.4
High Readers	16	39.1	8.2	9.1	3.0	30.1	5.9
Impressions/Predicting	32	38.3	7.3	9.4	1.9	28.9	5.8
Low Readers	16	35.1	6.4	8.3	1.5	26.8	5.6
High Readers	16	41.5	6.6	10.6	1.7	30.9	5.4
Impressions/Composing	32	41.5	7.8	10.0	2.2	31.4	6.0
Low Readers	16	39.9	7.4	10.1	1.9	29.8	5.8
High Readers	16	43.1	8.0	9.9	2.4	32.9	5.9

Table 2

Mean Reader/Author Proximity Scores

	Story Impressions With Composing Preview		
	n	M	SD
Total Proximity	32	39.3	10.8
Number of Matches	32	18.1	2.1
Average Proximity Per Match	32	2.2	.4

Table 3

Intercorrelations Among Reader/Author Proximity Scores and the Completion Test Scores of Students in the Story Impressions Plus Composing Preview Condition .

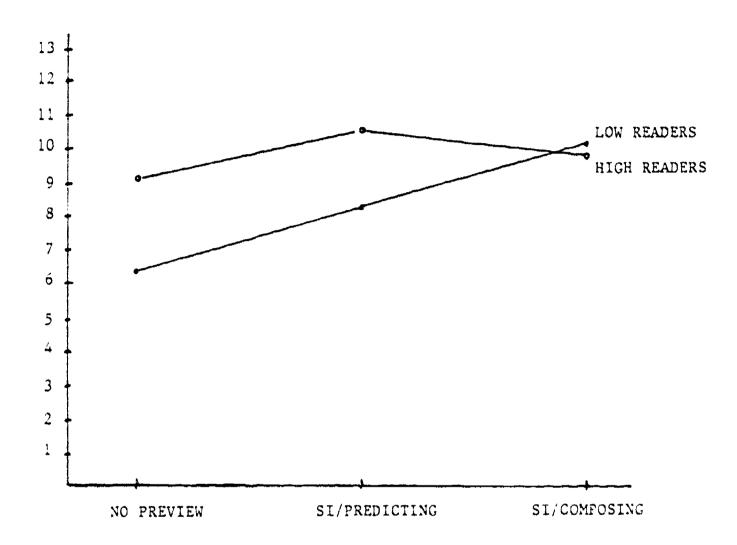| Factors	1	2	3	A	B	C
1 Total Recall	–	.85*	.98*	.45*	.31*	.32*
2 Impressions Related Items		–	.74*	.28	.23	.16
3 Impressions Unrelated Items			–	.31*	.37*	.36*
A Total Proximity				–	.77*	.92*
B Matches					–	.47*
C Average Proximity Per Match						–

* p < .05

FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1. Story impressions for "Never Trust A Lady," by Victor
Canning.

Figure 2. Interaction of preview method and reading ability Level
on the recall of impressions related story elements.

HORACE DENBY
|
LOCKSMITH
|
BUY EXPENSIVE BOOKS
|
KNEW ABOUT HOUSE
|
$15,000 IN JEWELS
|
FOUND KITCHEN DOOR
|
SAFE
|
SNEEZING
|
HEARD VOICE - HAY FEVER?
|
WOMAN IN DOORWAY
|
PROMISE NEVER AGAIN
|
FORGOTTEN THE COMBINATION
|
HANDED HER JEWELS
|
HORACE ARRESTED
|
FINGERPRINTS
|
NO ONE BELIEVED STORY
|
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