ANALYSIS OF HAUSA READING FLUENCY AMONG JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS OF KADUNA STATE WITH TEACHING IMPLICATIONS

BY

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DEPARTMENT OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCE EDUCATION

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA NIGERIA

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BY

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A DISERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES, AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT FOR THE AWARD OF MASTERS DEGREE OF EDUCATION IN LANGUAGE ARTS (HAUSA)

DEPARTMENT OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCE EDUCATION

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA NIGERIA

NOVEMBER, 2016

DECLARATION

I declare that this study "Analysis of Hausa Reading Fluency among Junior Secondary School Students in Kaduna State with Teaching Implications" is my original work supervision of Prof. Mohammed Sadiq and Dr. Ramlatu Jibir-Daura of the Department of Arts and Social Science Education. It has not been presented anywhere for the award of higher degree in any form.

All quotations and other sources of information have been duly acknowledged in text and a list of references provided.

____________________ ________________

HAYATU ISHAQ ZAHARADDEEN **Date**

CERTIFICATION

This dissertation entitled "Analysis of Hausa Reading Fluency Among Junior Secondary School Students in Kaduna State With Teaching Implications" meets the regulations governing the award of Master's Degree in Language Arts (Hausa) of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria has and approved is for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

____________________ ______________

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my dear parent late Hajiya Fatima and Imam mal. Hayatu who laid the foundation for my education, may Allah forgive their wrong deeds and bless them with Jannatul Firdaus, Ameen. This work is also dedicated to my darling wife Rahmatu and my lovely daughter Ummusalma who had to suffer less attention in the course of the academic pursuit.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to analyse the Hausa reading fluency of Junior Secondary School II students with teaching implications. It attempted to find out the JSS students' reading fluency levels based on such aspects as reading rate, accuracy and prosody. The study adopted descriptive design method and used a sample size of 180 students across six Junior Secondary Schools classes. The Curriculum-Based Measurement reading fluency test by (Stanley Deno, 1985) and Multidimensional Fluency Rubric by (Rasinski & Johnston, 2009) were adopted in measuring the students' reading fluency. Three different Hausa reading passages from three Hausa novels: "So Aljannar Duniya", "Jiki Magayi" and "Shaihu Umar" were adopted as instruments of the study. Chi-square and descriptive statistics were used in testing the hypotheses and analyzing the data of the study. The study discovered that JSS students read Hausa texts slowly but correctly though without proper prosody. It finally recommended the addition of Hausa reading fluency in the JSS curriculum and to establishment of a Hausa reading fluency benchmark. To enable the students and the teachers to test and know their fluency improvements from time to time, the study finally recommended the recruitment of more Hausa teachers as well as improvisation reading materials in teaching.

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OPERATIONAL DEFINATION OF TERMS

1) **Reading Fluency:** This is defined as the ability to read text with accuracy, appropriate rate, and with good expression.
2) **Reading Rate:** This refers to the number of words read correct per minute or a given time.
3) **Accuracy:** It the ability to recognize or decode words correctly.
4) **Prosodic:** It refers to the ability of readers to read a text with good phrasing and intonations to sound like natural speech. Expression or prosodic also mean the students' ability to follow punctuation and read with feeling as if sounding like natural speech.
5) **Automaticity:** This is defined as the ability to do things without having to think about them at a conscious level. When we do something automatically, the mind isn't occupied with the small details of the task.
6) **Reading Fluency Benchmark:** It is the minimum level of performance on a test to be considered.
7) **Decoding** defined as process of identify words in printing to the corresponding sounds of each letter.
8) **Multidimensional Fluency Scale:** This refers to a score guide used in rating the reader's expression, volume, smoothness, phrasing, and pace.
9) **Dynamic Indicator of Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS):** This is a set of procedures and measures for assessing the acquisition of early literacy skills from kindergarten through sixth grade.

ABBREVIATIONS

CBM	Curriculum-Based Measurement
DIBELS	Dynamic Indicator of Basic Early Literacy Skills
EGRA	Early Grade Reading Assessment
FLD	Fluency Development Lesson
FORI	Fluency Oriented Reading Instruction
GGSS	Government Girl Secondary School
GJSS	Government Junior Secondary School
GORT	Gray Oral Reading Test
GSS	Government Secondary School
JNR	Junior Secondary School
MDFS	Multidimensional Fluency Scale
NAEP	National Assessment of Educational Progress
NICHHD	National Institute for Child Health and Human Development
NRF	National Reading Panel
ORF	Oral Reading Fluency
QRI	Qualitative Reading Inventory
UBEC	Universal Basic Education Commission
USAID	United States Agency International Development
WCPM	Word Correct Per Minute
WRPM	Word Read Per Minute

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Reading serves a wide range of purposes in the lives of different categories of people who are literate. Reading is an important aspect that most of knowledge is acquired through it (Mohammed, 1999). In school, it is the basis for learning different subjects. Whatever the aspect of life one is considering, one discovers that the ability to read efficiently enhances individual ability to function in an effective manner. Oyetunji (2011) states that the majority of students seem to struggle with reading, they read slowly and effortfully, they do not engage in any pleasure reading outside of their formal study requirements.

Fluency is a necessary aspect of successful reading as it allows readers to read with speed, accuracy and proper expression (National Reading Panel, 2000; Rasinski, 2004). The National Reading Panel (NRP, 2000) identifies reading fluency as one of the five key components to overall reading achievement. Several scholars (Rasinski, et al., 2005; Rasinski & Hoffman, 2003) strongly support the notion that non-fluent readers are ultimately unable to comprehend what they read. Reading fluency improves overall reading proficiency at all school levels (Goering & Baker, 2010; Morris & Gaffney, 2011; Rasinski, et al., 2005). Reading fluency is one of the defining characteristics of good readers, and a lack of fluency is a common characteristic of poor readers.

Differences in reading fluency not only distinguish good readers from poor, but a lack of reading fluency is also a reliable predictor of reading comprehension problems (Stanovich, 1991). Reading is an important aspect of academic activities, and comprehending a text is an essential skill needed to succeed in school. Today, most of the requirements in all subject areas of study throughout the school day involve reading. Rasinski and Padak, (2001) stated that increasing and improving a student's comprehension depends on their reading fluency. A non-fluent reader might have trouble with comprehending what they reads and can result in misunderstanding important complex texts such as job advertisements, manuals, and medicine instructions.

James (cited in Mohammed, 1991) states that most of knowledge is acquired through reading. In Hausa community one can be called literate only when he/she is able to read and write either in Arabic script, *Ajami* or Roman letters and failure to attain any of these, such a person is called illiterate(Mohammed, 1991). Faster or more fluent readers have better comprehension, they are overall better readers than those students with slower, difficult reading abilities (Rasinski & Padak, 2001).

Recent research shows that fluency depends on the ability to group words appropriately during reading. This means that fluent readers not only recognize words quickly, but also know where to place emphasis or pause during reading. Word recognition is necessary but not sufficient for fluent reading. The reader must construct meaning from the recognized words. Fluent readers can do both tasks at the same time. They can do this because of efficient word recognition and oral language skills. For years, teachers thought that if students could learn to decode words accurately, they would be successful in reading printed text. The assumption is often made that early adolescents are at a satisfactory level of fluency in reading.

Many people, especially teachers, have expressed concern about low reading competence among students. Many students do not acquire the skills necessary for achieving proficiency; In fact, at less than 4% of students in some of the African countries can comprehend what they read. The problem reflects in our schools, where 79% of Hausa students tested by Early Great Reading Assessment (EGRA) to read a Hausa text were unable to read a single word (EGRA, 2013). Also, Nigerian Union of Teachers (2014) complains on the low rate of the students reading.

Therefore, the present study examined the reading fluency of JS II students in Giwa Inspectorate Division of Kaduna State, purposely to analyse their fluency level based on the fluency benchmark. Because reading literacy is not only a foundation for basic learning, but also a prerequisite for successful participation in most areas. .

1.2 Statement of the Problem

It is painful to hear a student dragging to read a sentence word by word. As Mohammed (1991) observes faster reading is one way of making a child very successful in reading and the faster one reads and comprehends, the more successful one becomes academically. Students who read slowly often fail to complete their work, lose interest in school, and seldom read for pleasure (Moats, 2001). Many experts (Goering & Baker, 2010; Rasinski, Rikli, & Johnston, 2009; Rasinski, et al., 2005) have stated that a lack of reading fluency appears to be the area of greatest impairment in reading. Many people, especially teachers as well as some educational bodies such as, Universal Basic Education Commission (2011), EGRA (2013), and Nigerian Union of Teachers (2014) have concerned about the poor level of students' reading.

The Universal Basic Education Commission (2011) has reports that Nigerian pupils read at the speed of less than 80 words per minutes as against 360 words per minute attained by secondary school students in Britain. EGRA (2013) also reports that the percentage of students that read with at least 80% comprehension was less than 4% in some of the African countries. The same (EGRA, 2013) finds that 79% of Hausa primary pupils tested to read a Hausa text were unable to read a single word in the reading fluency assessment. The saddest thing is that, some adults do not achieve reading fluency even in their first language (Daura, 2005).

Even though, reading fluency has traditionally been viewed as a primary schools skill, it often continues to be a problem in junior secondary as well as the senior secondary schools (Goering & Baker, 2010; Rasinski et al., 2009; Roundy & Roundy, 2009). Daura (2005) sees fluency as an issue for adult beginning readers, intermediate readers, and for some who read at more advanced Adult Basic Education levels. Similar to that, some scholars have the view that fluency needs to be a concern for teachers at all school levels (Rasinski, Padak, McKeon, Wilfong, Friedauer, Heim, 2005). Students who do not achieve reading fluency at a young age are at a considerable disadvantage in all of their academic pursuits (Roundy & Roundy, 2009).

Since reading fluency is still a challenge in secondary schools and is also a significant variable in the students' reading and overall academic development, the present study sets out to analyse the Junior Secondary School students' reading fluency based on the necessary aspect of the reading fluency such as reading rate, accuracy and prosody. The findings may tell us whether the students have mastered these necessary aspects efficiently, and if not, what areas need to be improved. This is because reading fluency is one of the five key components to overall reading achievement (National Reading Panel, 2000).

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study are to:

1. Examine the junior secondary school students' reading rate in reading Hausa texts.
2. Identify the reading accuracy of junior secondary school students in reading Hausa texts.

3. Analyze the reading prosody of junior secondary school students when reading Hausa texts.

1.4 Research Questions

This study hopes to answer the research questions below:

1. What is the reading rate of junior secondary school students in reading Hausa texts?
2. What is the reading accuracy of junior secondary school students in reading Hausa texts?
3. What is the reading prosody of junior secondary school students when reading Hausa texts?

1.5 Research Hypotheses

1. $H0_1$: There is no significant difference between the students' reading rate and the fluency bench mark of JS II students when reading Hausa materials.
2. $H0_2$: There is no significant difference between the students reading accuracy and the fluency bench mark of JS II students in reading Hausa texts.
3. $H0_3$: There is no significant difference between the students' reading prosody and the fluency bench mark of JS II students in reading Hausa materials.

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study examined the level of Hausa reading fluency of JS II students, based on the fluency benchmark. Therefore, by conducting the present research, it is hoped to be of great significance particularly to junior secondary school students, teachers, educational institutions as well as governments in many ways:

This study could encourage the students to read extensively to improve their level of reading fluency if they know their level of it may also serves as a yardstick for teachers teaching Hausa in knowing their students' strengths and weaknesses on the reading fluency through the findings of the study. Furthermore, it may enable the schools and governments to know the problems associated with the students' reading fluency for further enhancement.

1.7 Scope of the Study

The study has specifically been designed and limited to JS II schools students of Giwa Inspectorate Division of Kaduna state. Secondary schools level was chosen based on the assumption that it is stable enough in terms of reading ability as Rasinski et al (2005) states that reading fluency is a significant variable in secondary students' reading and overall academic development. JSS I students have not been chosen because they have just registered and are not familiar with the secondary school level and the JSS III are busy preparing for JSCE.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviewed the related literature on reading fluency and its components such as reading rate, accuracy, prosody, theories of reading and fluency instruction.

2.2 Theories of Reading

Reading theories can be placed into three main groups namely: the bottom-up theory, the top-down theory and the interactive theory (Harris 2005: 26). The next subsection describes each of the reading theories.

2.2.1 Bottom-Up Theory

The perception of the reading process has gone through transformational phases over the years. For instance, between the 1950s and early 1960s researchers and educators regarded reading largely as a bottom-up process. The bottom-up (decoding) theory assumed that the text is singularly important in the reading process. It was believed that one cannot ‘read’ unless one first understands the code (i.e. the writing system). This theory posited that readers deal with the text by first identifying the smallest units of words after which they continually integrate them into more complicated units. For example, readers identify letters, and then combine many letters to form words, after which they combine words to construct phrases, and then join phrases to form a sentence, sentences to paragraphs and finally paragraphs to form the whole text. Meaning is obtained along the process but the overall meaning is achieved at the end of the process (Harris 2005: 26).

The bottom-up model describes information flow as a series of stages that transforms the input and passes it to the next stage without any feedback or possibility of later stages of the process influencing earlier stages (Stanovich, 1980). In other words, language is viewed as a code and the reader's main task is to identify graphemes and convert them into phonemes. Consequently, readers are regarded as passive recipients of information in the text. Meaning resides in the text and the reader has to reproduce it.

2.2.2 Top-Down Theory

In the 1970s, the bottom-up process of reading was challenged by the top-down reading process. The argument was that phonological processing or the ability to decode letters and words is important but not sufficient for proficient reading. Thus, the top-down process proposed that reading comprehension depends almost always on the readers' prior knowledge of the topic of the text. It was believed that the reading process begins in the head of readers, who use their background knowledge to construct the meaning of the text. Thus, according to this view the focus was on the interaction of the readers' background knowledge and the text for meaning-making (Harris 2005: 27). Mature readers perceive words as different parts of meaning instead of a set of letters and they are able to recognize words almost automatically. Unlike the bottom-up idea which focuses on decoding issues, the top-down view emphasizes using background knowledge, making inferences, interpretations and predictions, drawing conclusions, monitoring comprehension, seeking clarifications and so on, while reading.

In this view beginning readers, compared to mature readers, rely on the context to recognize words because they are yet to fully learn that words function as units (Graves et al. 1998: 14). Stanovich 1994; Stanovich 2000) suggesting that as readers become more skilled at recognizing words they do not need context to identify words. Once they have developed a large sight vocabulary and mastered the letter-sound patterns of the language used for the written text, they can recognize words accurately and automatically independent of context (Caldwell 2007: 134). Poor readers who overuse context clues do not sometimes recognize a new word they are trying to identify because readers need to recognize most of the other words accurately for them to use context to identify an unfamiliar word (Caldwell 2007: 135).

The top-down theories adopt a constructivist view, an idea which is based on the belief that learning occurs when learners are actively involved in a process of meaning and knowledge construction rather than passively receiving information. Constructivism shares both cognitivist and schema's views. The former refers to the thinking and mental processes learners use to understand new information or experiences, and learn new things (Robinson, Molenda and Rezabek 2008). It involves what goes on in the learners' minds before, during and after learning (Ormrod, 2008: 163).

In addition to the idea that learners are active participants in the learning process, constructivists posit that understanding a text is also a constructive process (Graves et al. 1998: 8). That is, we do not passively "receive" meaning; we construct meaning while we read, and it is an ongoing process, involving modifications and revisions. It relies on both bottoms-up and top-down processes. Here readers are compared to a builder, who are said to be active as they construct meaning from a reading text (based on the ideas the author has presented) just as a builder constructs a house according to the picture created by the architect. Thus, as readers read, they are actively involved in considering what is being read, linking the information they are obtaining from the text with already known concepts, topics and events. It is believed that the level of the readers' engagement with the text depends on how difficult the text is. Besides, constructivists regard reading as a social practice which involves when you read, what you read, who you read with, why and how you read. Thus, the meaning that readers construct from the text is subjective as it is influenced by the reading context, readers' experiences, mental constitution and other factors (Cambourne 2004: 25) which are usually different from one person to another. As a result, it is uncommon that two readers construct exactly the same meaning from a text, except perhaps with informational material (Graves et al. 1998: 9). Readers are seen as active participants in the reading process. An example of a typical top-down theory is schema theory.

The concept of schema is one of the fundamental ideas of cognitive psychology. The theory is concerned with the storing of information in the mind and the schema idea focuses on how what is known helps to obtain new knowledge. In other words, prior knowledge is seen as important to learning a new concept. Schemata/schemas (plural of schema) are described as 'brain networks connecting related meanings' (Lindsay and Norman 1994 in Reutzel and Cooter 2003: 254). Each schema is linked to other affiliated schemata constituting an individual's distinctive and interrelated network of knowledge and experiences. For this reason, the size and content of each schema is determined by individuals' past chances to acquire prior knowledge (Reutzel and Cooter 2003: 254). Thus, in reading, readers interpret what is being read by relating and usually matching it to their existing schemata (Scott 2001: 1).

Anderson and Pearson (1984: 58) claim that schemata help readers to figure out what they read, relate the new information to previous knowledge, determine the importance of information to a text, make inferences and retain the information. The implication of this is that readers who do not have well developed schemata are likely to struggle in meaning-making. In addition, readers may still fail to attain effective reading even if they have schemata because schema is cultural specific and is part of a particular reader's cultural background (Carrell and Eisterhold 1983: 556). This may be true to some extent, yet readers' lack of prior knowledge on a topic does not mean that they cannot read and understand a text on that topic. It was argued that the main source of processing difficulty, particularly with second language readers, is a lack of schema activation whether students have familiar background knowledge or not (Carrell, 1988; Alderson & Urquhart 1988). In essence, irrespective of students' cultural background in a language, it is essential that teachers help students build prerequisite knowledge or remind them of what they already know before introducing a new concept.

2.2.3 Interactive Model of Reading

In the 1980s and 1990s the top-down idea was challenged by the interactive theory. Researchers (e.g. Ruddell and Speaker 1985; Rumelhart 1985) proposed that the reading process is an interactive or a transactive process whereby meaning is accessed from the text by integrating the top-down and the bottom-up processes (Rumptz 2003: 3). That is, to better understand texts, readers need to apply top-down (high-level macro) and bottom-up (low-level) processes simultaneously. Reading is both "perceptual and cognitive processes" (Rumelhart 1985: 722). Readers attain understanding of the text by concurrently integrating information from different sources which include word-level knowledge, syntactic knowledge and different kinds of schemata that they have internalized (Rumelhart 1994: 882).

Good readers depend on both the text and their prior knowledge as they construct meaning. Thus, learners should be taught how to interact with texts and engage their background knowledge while reading; they should also be given the kinds of texts and tasks that enhance this interplay of text and background knowledge. The interactive model also accommodates the recent social view of reading. Reading is social in nature in that it is a transaction between readers' and cultural meanings of the author. The experiences that readers bring to reading to help them achieve meaning are generally cultural in nature and the authors' meanings are also influenced by their culture. Thus, both the author and readers are influenced by personal and social experiences. The social and cultural aspects of reading can be traced to the social learning theory (Nassaji 2003: 268).

2.3 Reading Fluency

A fluent speaker when with one who is less fluent anxious about speaking in public and renders a presentation in a slow, word by- word monotone. This less fluent speaker makes it considerably more difficult for listeners to comprehend the presentation; they have fewer verbal cues to use and will have to listen more closely and intensely to make sense of the speech. Indeed, listeners may find themselves drifting away from the presentation altogether if the effort required to understand is too great.

The National Institute for Child Health and Human Development (2000) defined reading fluency as the ability to read text with accuracy, appropriate rate, and with good expression. The National Reading Panel (2000) also defined reading fluency as the ability to read a text quickly, accurately, and with proper expression, while the Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2005) defined reading fluency in relation to speech, as it refers to the ability to speak a language easily, well and quickly. What can be noticed from these definitions is that fluency is characterized by smoothness, easiness and accuracy in reading.

Wolf and Katzir-Cohen (2001) provide a comprehensive working definition of fluency:

> In its beginnings, reading fluency is the product of the initial development of accuracy and the subsequent development of the automaticity in underlying sub-lexical processes, lexical processes, and their integration in single-word reading and connected text. These include perceptual, phonological, orthographic, and morphological processes at the letter-pattern and word level, as semantic and syntactic processes at all word level of accuracy and rate where decoding is relatively effortless; where oral reading is smooth and accurate with correct prosody; and where attention can be allocated to comprehension. (p.219).

Wolf and Katzir-Cohen emphasize that in many earlier information-processing models of reading fluency a central focus was on the lower levels of processing (at micro level or at sub-lexical level). Another important dimension in the authors view is that reading fluency can be considered as a multi-componential skill. This kind of developmental and componential view on reading fluency may serve its purposes in highlighting this complex phenomenon and in planning assessment and interventions for non-fluent readers. However, the definition poses difficulties for empirical validation, as it seems to cover every process and subskill involved in reading.

Daura (2015) defined reading fluency as the ability to read with efficiency and ease. Reading fluency encompassed the speed or rate of reading as well as the ability to read materials with expression. Meyer & Felton defined fluency as "the ability to read connected text rapidly, smoothly, effortlessly, and automatically with little attention to the mechanic of reading such as decoding" (1999 p.284).

Most of the definitions of reading fluency describe it largely in terms of three major components: reading rate, accuracy or word recognition, and reading prosody (Daane, Campbell, Grigg, Goodman, & Oranje, 2005; Samuels, 2006). Once readers are able to develop their reading skills to the point that fluent reading is characteristic of their abilities, oral reading can be accentuated by expression and voice inflection (Griffith & Rasinski, 2004). Orally reading in a manner that exhibits prosody and expression causes the reader to be able to fully experience and enjoy the reading process. Prosody is the general linguistic term that is used to describe the rhythmic and tonal features of speech (Dowhower, 1991). Fluency is often described by the extent to which appropriate expression and phrasing can be heard in a person's voice when reading aloud. Fluent readers embed prosodic or melodic features of spoken language stress, pitch variations, intonation, rate, phrasing, and pausing in their voices (Dowhower, 1991; Schreiber, 1991; Schreiber, 1980).

Prosody component is the ability to read with prosody; that is, with appropriate expression or intonation coupled with phrasing that allows for the maintenance of meaning (Cowie, Douglas-Cowie, & Wichmann, 2002; Miller & Schwanenflugel, 2006, 2008). Prosody is a linguistic term to describe the rhythmic and tonal aspects of speech: the "music" of oral language. Indeed, some anthropologists have claimed that speech prosody served as the protolinguistic base from which music itself may have emerged (Simpson, Oliver, & Fragaszy, 2008). Prosody captures the rise and falls of pitch, rhythm, and stress the pausing, lengthening, and elision surrounding certain words and phrases that is found in the pull of linguistic communication (Hirschberg, 2002).

Prosodic features are variations in pitch (intonation), stress patterns (syllable prominence), and duration (length of time) that contribute to expressive reading of a text (Allington, 1983; Dowhower, 1991; Schreiber, 1991).

Pitch needs to be considered relative to a speaker's voice range and native language. Language features such as tones in tone bearing languages such as Chinese will affect measured pitch. Declarative sentences or statements are usually signaled by an initial rising and then falling pitch (called pitch declination or, simply, declination). Yes-no questions are usually marked by sustained rising pitch, but this rising pitch is not obligatory for all question types (Miller & Schwanenflugel, 2006).

Another prosodie feature is duration. Vowels in stressed words are usually longer than in unstressed words (Temperley, 2009). Stressed syllables tend to also have greater intensity, or volume (Cooper & Paccia-Cooper, 1980). Duration has to be taken in context with the speaker's overall speaking rate. Thus, faster readers will have shorter segment durations than slower readers. Stress is a property in reading that "makes one syllable in a word more prominent than its neighbors" (Himmelmann & Ladd, 2008, p. 248).

Pausing is noted by a spectrographic silence in oral reading beyond that invoked by some consonant combinations. Slow speakers make more pauses, and people differ considerably as to whether they make sentence internal pauses in speech (Krivokapic, 2007). Regardless, intrasentential pauses tend to be shorter than intersentential ones (Cooper & Paccia Cooper, 1980). Pauses tend to be larger both preceding and following syntactically complex phrases and as information load increases (Cooper & Paccia-Cooper, 1980; Zvonik & Cummins, 2003). Still, the study will not expect readers to pause midsentence simply because they have completed a complex noun phrase. Neither a pause in mid sentence a reading error in long, complex sentences shall be considered. The study has suggested that most midsentence pauses among the readers are related to decoding abilities (Miller & Schwanenflugel, 2008).Question, exclamation, and other meanings beyond the semantics of the words being spoken. When these features are present and appropriate in oral reading, the reader is reading prosodically or "with expression". Struggling readers are often characterized as reading in a monotone without expression or with inappropriate phrasing.

The word reading accuracy in the fluency component refers to the ability to recognize or decode words correctly. Strong understanding of the alphabetic principle, the ability to blend sounds together (Ehri & McCormick, 1998), the ability to use other cues to the identity of words in text (Tunmer & Chapman, 1995) and knowledge of a large bank of high frequency words is required for word reading accuracy. According to Worthy & Broaddus, (2002) Accuracy is the student's ability to accurately identify words within the context of a passage he encounters. In order to competently read with accuracy, readers need to have a thorough vocabulary that enables them to recognize high-frequency words and other words that follow typical grapho-phonic rules. Rapidly identifying these words is critical in achieving accuracy. The reader needs to possess a firm understanding of grapho-phonetic rules that can direct the manner in which word identification occurs.

Some children have developed accuracy word pronunciation skills but read slowly. For these children, decoding is not automatic or fluent, therefore, the students and may perform in the following ways:

1) They read less text than peers and have less time to remember, review or comprehend the text.
2) They expect more cognitive energy than peers trying to identifying individual words; and
3) They may be less able to retain text in their memories and less likely to integrate those segments with other parts of the text (Mastropieri, Leinart, & Scruggs, 1999).

The automaticity with which a reader can recognize words is also as important as word reading accuracy. It is not enough to get the word right if a great deal of cognitive effort is required to do so, because the effort and attention involved in phonemically decoding words or in guessing at words from context, distract the reader's attention from building a coherent representation of the meaning of the text (Schwanenflugel, Hamilton, Kuhn, Wisenbaker, & Stahl, 2004). Well-practiced words are recognized automatically (Kuhn & Stahl, 2000, LaBerge & Samuels, 1974), which implies that recognition occurs very quickly, and with little cognitive effort.

Most educators quantify rate in terms of reading speed either the number of words read correctly per minute or the length of time it takes for a reader to complete a passage.

As readers develop proficiency with reading, their ability to read more rapidly significantly improves. As readers improve in regard to their ability to read fluently, reaction time regarding text identification decreases at a corresponding rate. Initially, in acquiring their literacy skills, students generally experience rapid gains regarding speed (Naslund & Smolkin, 1997). This is largely due to the simplicity of the books emergent readers focus on. The books are deemed simple due to the emphasis on high-frequency words. As students begin to encounter more difficult books, they are unable to necessarily match those initial speed increases at the same rate. This is largely due to the fact that they are developing their word recognition skills for words that are not as frequently present in text. However, as proficiency with text improves, it allows one to become increasingly more able to read at a rate that would be deemed fluent.

Speed refers to the student's ability to identify words quickly. Reading fluently requires a student to read fairly rapidly while accurately identifying a large percentage of the words. Readers who are able to read at a rapid rate should be able to utilize appropriate phrasing (Welsch, 2006). The reader needs to read with smoothness and expressiveness that contributes to the overall sound of the reading. This reading should even have a musical quality as it is read with appropriate phrasing and proper pace (Worthy & Broaddus, 2002).

Note: Some researchers emphasized the contribution of automaticity to fluent reading (see e.g., Torgese, Wagner, Roshotte, Voeller, & Convway, 2001a), whereas others stress the role of prosody when reading connected texts (see e.g., Allington, 2006). Automaticity refers to a process during which conscious cognitive effort or attention is not required. LaBerge and Samuels (1974) suggested in their classic article that repetition is the key to automatic processes. During early stages of reading development, decoding and word recognition are slow and laborious; however, through practice these processes become automated. In the area of cognitive psychology fluent reading is often conceptualized on the basis of the dual-rote model as reliance on visual-orthographic word recognition (Castles & Coltheart, 1993).

The role of prosody in reading fluency is currently not precisely known. The most straightforward explanation is that prosody reflects the reader's understanding of the texts meaning. However, Schwanenflugel, Hamilton, Kuhn, Wisenbaker and Stahl (2004) reported that although prosody was related to individual differences in word-reading efficiency, individual differences in prosody did not independently contribute to the reading comprehension. In addition, prosody seems to be difficult to assess reliable (Torgesen & Hudson, 2006).

(Chard, Vaughn, & Tyler, 2002; Kuhn & Stahl, 2000; National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000) Research reviews have established that reading fluency is a critical component of learning to read. And fluent reader can maintain this performance for long periods of time, retains the skill after long periods of no practice, and can generalize across texts. A fluent reader is also not easily distracted and reads in an effortless, flowing manner. When students are reading text fluently, they are not spending time decoding words. Decoding is a lower-level reading task that has negative impact on fluency (Rasinski & Stevenson, 2005). The same negative impact holds true for reading accuracy in text. (Wise; Sevcik; Morris; Lovert;

Wolf; Kuhn; Meisinger ; Schwanenflugel, 2010) found that even when students read words accurately, the effort to do so can have a negative effect on fluency. When a student is reading either a small amount or large amount of words accurately, if the reading is not automatic, he or she is expending energy on the task, specifically decoding. This expended energy limits cognitive capacity that would otherwise be used for comprehension (Rasinski & Stevenson, 2005).

2.4 Skills for Fluent Reading

Proficient reading with fluency requires students to efficiently combine a series of sub-skills. In order to read fluently, readers need to able to be cohesively combine reading elements. Without the ability to apply a number of reading skills, including sight word recognition, phonemic awareness and other crucial skills, readers are rarely able to transcend into the fluent reader stage.

Students need to be able to possess proficient phonemic awareness skills which allow them to build the foundational skills necessary for fluent reading. Phonemic awareness is the ability to comprehend the sub-syllabic or phonemic segments of speech (Scholes, 1998). Readers that are proficient with phonemic awareness are able to complete rhyme activities and other activities that compare the various ways the sounds combine to make words. Oftentimes, readers that develop these skills are those individuals that were frequently read aloud to before and during the process of becoming competent readers. Phonemic awareness is largely a foundational skill that must be accentuated by those individuals instructing reading to students. Students that are able to internalize the phonemic components of words can apply these general rules to decoding other words that are encountered through reading.

Additionally, phonological processing is a critical component of word identification. Phonological processing is the ability to decode phonetically by utilizing the sounds comprising words to identify the entire word. Students with difficulties in fluency frequently experience a difficulty phonologically processing encountered words (Catts, Adlof & Weismer, 2006). Low-average readers generally lack the phonological skills with above average readers proficiently utilize in the reading process (Savage, Frederickson, Godowin, Patni, Smith, & Tuersley, 2005). Although automaticity occurs when readers are able to transcend “sounding out” words or depending entirely on letter sound relationships, it is still critical that they are able to use phonetic strategies to make accurate predictions regarding text identification. Therefore, students must be able to depend upon their phonological processing skills to be able to become fluent reader. This skill must be developed continuously as one becomes a more fluent.

One of the critical sub skills of fluent reading is the ability to automatically recognize words, especially those words deemed to be sight words (Chard et. al., 2002). Sight words are those words that occur frequently in text and sometimes are referred to as high-frequency words (Nicholson, 1998). As students are exposed to words more and more through extensive practice, those words that are frequently present in text become automatically identified by the reader (Schatschneider & Torgesen, 2004). Oftentimes, words that occur frequently in text do not follow the regular phonetic patterns of the Hausa language, and therefore, readers need to become familiar with these words automatically (Johnston, 1998). Once the students are able to accurately recognize those words that are prevalent in text, they are generally able to build their skills and apply more mental effort to identifying words that are more difficult in nature. The ability to read fluently is a complex interplay of a variety of tasks. Students need to be able to translate letters into sound combinations that equate to words. Combining these sound combinations into recognizable words requires a level of proficiency regarding the phonemic elements of words.

2.5 Reading in Hausa Language

Right from the days of pre-colonial Nigeria, there have been efforts to promote literacy in Hausa. Hausa language is one of the widely spoken and a major language in Northern Nigeria. It is a language that is used as a medium of instruction in adult literacy classes in some states in Northern Nigeria. There are newspapers such as *Gaskiya ta fi Kwabo*, magazines and literary books such as the *Magana Jari Ce* and *Iliya Dan Maikarfi* written in Hausa language to be read for the purposes of information, education and entertainment (Abdulkarim, 2012). Therefore the present study aims to analyze Hausa reading fluency of JSS II students

Abdulkarim (2012) stated that the existence of these entire literacy pieces makes it appealing for a Hausas to seek to read works prepared in the language so that they could understand the content put into such literary piece.

Munnir (2013) stated that students introduce into Hausa reading activities from first term of class 3 which makes the pupils ready for reading. This start by introducing some pictures to the pupils and the students describe how the pictures are look like, the students' sentence expression on how the pictures look like are written by teacher on the chalkboard and letter on the pupils read the written sentences. Some time picture books used and orally read what the pictures are about by the pupils. The pupils introduce in real reading in the second and third term after the plenty of such practice.

Short story books written by experts such as "Bala da Babiya," "Ka kara karatu," and "Ka koyi karatu" are used and the books suit the age, and maturity of the pupils in this level. In order to to make the students concentrate on what they read they are expected to answer questions after the reading and this will enable teacher to know whether the pupils have understood the story or not.

2.6 Fluency in Primary and Secondary Schools

Reading fluency has traditionally been viewed as a primary schools skill, but it often continues to be a problem in junior secondary school as well as into the senior secondary school years (Goering & Baker, 2010; Rasinski et al., 2009; Roundy & Roundy, 2009). Students who are not competent readers by the end of primary four are not likely to achieve full proficiency as readers. They go on to say that as students' progress through middle class (4-6), junior secondary school, and on into senior school, the shift from "learning to read" to "reading to learn" takes place (Goering & Baker, 2010). This implies that those students who do not achieve a level of proficiency by middle class (4-6) fail to become fluent readers and their ability to understand printed information is substantially limited as adults.

Many experts (Gaffney & Morris, 2011; Goering & Baker, 2010; Rasinski et al., 2009) agree that middle school and secondary students require classroom reading activities that are befitting teenagers who may be socially self-conscious. Goering (2010) states that secondary students are acutely self-conscious and their awareness of peers often inhibit their willingness to present, read aloud, or perform before their class. However, Rasinski (2003) identifies teacher modeling of effective reading for students, multiple opportunities for students to practice in a classroom setting, and focus on appropriate phrasing to complete the process.

2.7 Miscue Analysis

A miscue is any unexpected calling of a word or section of text. A miscue "says" something other than the exact printed text. Miscue analysis focuses specifically on "cueing systems" used by the reader. The three cueing systsms used in miscue analysis are the same as those used to describe work done by readers in running records. The cueing systems are labeled slightly differently, as the graphophonic system (visual cues in running records), the syntactic system (syntax or structure cues in running records), and the semantic system (meaning cues in running records). (Gunther, 2006).

During oral reading, students often say something other than what is actually printed in the book. Such "miscues" can be used to help teachers make decisions about upcoming reading instruction. Miscue analysis describes a variety of procedures that attempt to identify how readers process print by analyzing their oral reading errors (Wixson, 1979). Miscue Analysis also refers to a process of diagnosing a child's reading. It is based on the premise of analyzing the errors a child makes during oral reading (Watson, 2010). When a child reads orally, the teacher learns a great deal about whether the child is making sense of what is being read by looking closely at the types of errors the child makes. By using the miscue analysis method, a teacher will be much more capable of assisting the children who experience difficulty.

Miscue analysis procedures provide a structure for the analysis of oral reading errors. Oral reading errors have been renamed miscues because it is believed that they are not random errors, but rather are cued by the interaction between thought and language in the reader as written material is processed (Goodman & Burke, 1972). It is assumed that both expected and unexpected oral reading responses are produced by the same process (Goodman & Goodman, 1977).

Deviations from text during oral reading are not simply random mistakes (Goodman, 1969), but form patterns that reveal useful information about children's reading abilities. A relaxed version of miscue analysis can take as little as ten minutes to administer and score. This kind of information provides a profile of the reader's strengths and weaknesses which in turn gives important clues as to the range of strategies students use during reading (Argyle, 1989).

Miscue analysis procedures are specifically designed to identify and evaluate the strategies used by a particular reader to process written material (Goodman, 1969, 1973; Goodman & Burke, 1972; Page, 1975). Certain elements may differ somewhat among the various miscue analysis procedures currently in use, but the basic methodology remains the same. The following is a summary of the basic procedure as outlined by Goodman (1973).

1. A reading passage providing a continuity of meaning is selected for the reader. The selection must be somewhat difficult and long enough to generate a minimum of 25 miscues.

2. The selection is retyped and each line is numbered to correspond with the appropriate page and line from the original text, to be used as a code sheet for recording miscues.

3. The reader is informed that the reading will be unaided and that s/he will be asked to retell the story after s/he has finished reading. The code sheet is marked as the reader reads the selection. The reading and retelling are tape recorded for future reference.

4. The reader is permitted to retell the story without interruption. Following the unaided retelling, the reader is asked probing questions designed to explore areas omitted in the retelling.

5. The miscues are coded.

6. Miscue patterns are studied, interpreted, and translated into instruction. Each miscue is coded on the basis of the answers to a specific set of questions. The exact number of questions varies from procedure to procedure, but the nature of the questions remains constant. The *Reading Miscue* inventory utilizes the following nine questions:

1. Dialect - Is a dialect variation involved in the miscue?

2. Graphic Similarity - How much does the miscue look like? What was expected?

3. Sound Similarity - How much does the miscue sound like what was expected?

4. Intonation - Is a shift in intonation involved?

5. Grammatical Function - Is the grammatical function of the miscue the same as the grammatical function of the word in the text?

6. Correction - Is the miscue corrected?

7. Grammatical Acceptability - Does the miscue occur in a structure which is grammatically acceptable?

8. Semantic Acceptability - Does the miscue occur in a structure which is semantically acceptable?

9. Meaning Change - Does the miscue result in a change of meaning?

(Goodman& Burke, 1972, 49-50)

Miscue analysis is less concerned with the number of miscues than with the *type* of miscues. Good readers don’t necessarily transact with text in a word-by word manner. Many good readers skip words, substitute words, mis-call words and still gain a high level of meaning from a text. Miscue analysis honors the reasons behind miscues and the information documented is used to further the reading success of the given student (Gunther, 2006).

Examiner should consist in coding helps when it is time for analysis; therefore, just decide on a system that is easy to use. Keeping up with the reader is a consideration code should be kept simple. Checkmarks, circles, slashes, and underlining work well for these purposes (Argyle, 1989).

2.7.1 Types of Miscues

Jan, (2005) classified reading errors into hesitation, omission, reversal and substitution. But Zahn (2009) & Weber (1970) classified reading errors into insertion, omission, reversal and substitution**.** Argyle (1989) categorized miscue into correction, insertion, omission, repetition, reversal and substitution.

Insertion: As the child is reading, he will insert a word or two that isn't on the page

Substitution: are real words that are substituted for the stimulus word; A substitution occurs when the student replaces one word with a different word

Repetition: A child repeats a word or portion of the text.

Mispronunciation: are words that are misread mispronunciation is when the student speaks a word incorrectly

Hesitation A hesitation is where the student pauses longer than they should before a word. If words not read within 3 seconds are counted as errors

Reversal: are two adjacent words that are read out of order. A reversal occurs when the student reads two words in reverse order.

Correction: During the oral reading, the child realizes he has made an error and re-reads the word without prompting

Omission: are words skipped of not read; if a student skips an entire line, each word is counted as an error. An omission occurs when the student skips past a word in the text.

Self-corrections, Insertions, Repetitions, Dialect, speech impairments, Punctuation errors, were not counted as errors (Jan, 2005).On the other hand misread proper nouns (particular name), and addition were not count as errors, also the student is not penalized for different pronunciation due to dialect, articulation, or second language preference (Maryland University, 2000).

2.8 Reading Fluency Assessment

Assessment is defined as the on-going process of gathering information to identify student strengths and or skills. Assessment is more informal than evaluation and provides a collage of the student’s work over a period of time. The goal of assessment is to observe and record positive outcomes. Assessment is a dynamic, continuous process leading to appropriate instructional goals. Teachers need to listen to students read aloud to make judgments about their progress in reading fluency (Zutell & Rasinski, 1991).

Fluency assessments must have some degree of reliability and validity. Users of the assessments must be assured that the results they obtain are reliable that the results will provide consistent measures of fluency and will not vary because of imperfections in the assessment itself. Users must also be assured that the assessments are valid that they actually measure reading fluency. The assessments themselves should resemble the ways in which reading fluency is defined, as it defined in terms of the three key components: accuracy in reading, rate in reading and prosody in reading (Rasinki, 2004).

The assessments must be efficient in administration, scoring, and interpretation. Assessments should be as quick and easy to use as possible. If they are not, teachers may not find time to use them or may use them in ways that are inconsistent with their intent. Thus, quick and easy assessments will allow teachers to gauge students' progress and maximize teaching time so that academic progress can be made (Rasinki, 2004).

Recognizing the need for a reading assessment that was valid and time efficient (CBM) assessing intended to apply in this study for measuring the students reading fluency, because this approach is clearly focused on reading fluency as its has also been called an Oral Reading Fluency (ORF) assessment. Stanley Deno (1985) developed the approach.

2.8.1 Reading Rate and Accuracy Assessment

Rasinski (2004) stated that rate and accuracy are among the main components used to assess students' reading fluency. Further defined, accuracy pertains to the number of words read correctly and rate pertains to the number of words read in a minute or minutes. When a student's oral reading fluency is assessed, the student is timed and the words read correct per minute constitute the oral reading fluency score (Baker et al., 2008; Rasinski & Padak, 2001).

Rasinski (2004) stated that rate determine by calculating the total number of WCPM and comparing the student's performance against the target norms. While accuracy determine by dividing the number of words read correctly per minute (WCPM) by the total number of words read and the number will be a percentage. Readers who score within 97-100% range (independent level). Readers who score within the 90-96% range (instructional level). Those readers who score below 90% range (frustration level).

2.8.2 Measure Scale of Reading Rate and Accuracy

Measures of reading fluency like Curriculum Based Measures (CBM; Deno, 1985), Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS; Good & Kaminski, 2002), Gray Oral Reading Test (GORT; Wiederholt & Bryant, 1992, 2001) are largely measure fluency by taking only two components of reading fluency; reading rate and accuracy into account, while reading prosody has not incorporated. WCPM measures considered being reliable and generally valid in scoring reading rate and accuracy fluency (cf. Shelton Altwerger, & Jordan, 2009). For the sake of current study and the future research, the study describes two measure scales for reading rate and accuracy.

A. Dynamic Indicator of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS)

According to Kim et al. (2010), one of the most frequently used measures of oral reading fluency is the DIBELS assessment. This specific assessment tool has been used widely to meet the criteria of the assessment component of the No Child Left behind Act of 2001, Reading First. Research studies have shown that DIBELS Oral Reading Fluency is an indicator of children's overall reading skills development (Kim et al., 2010).

The ORF portion of the test is a standardized, individually administered test of accuracy and fluency with connected text. The passages are calibrated for the goal level of reading for each grade level. Student performance is measured by having the students read a passage aloud for one minute. The number of correct words per minute from the passage is the oral reading fluency score (University of Oregon, n.d.b).

The test is given three times a year by the classroom teacher or reading specialist using a Palm Pilot and a book for the students with specific text. This test is given to all third, fourth, and fifth grade students enrolled at the school during the testing window. The students read the passage specific to the testing period from a book. The teacher has the same text on a Palm Pilot screen and records needed information on that device. The teacher reads scripted instructions to the student and he or she begins to read. When the student reads the first word, the teacher touches that word on the screen indicating either correct or incorrect pronunciation and a built in timer begins. The teacher follows along as the student reads and touches any word the student reads incorrectly.

The teacher taps it again if the student self corrects and reads the word correctly. If the student pauses for three seconds, the teacher tells the student the word and touches it on the screen. All words that are touched turn red and indicate errors in reading. Words that are omitted are also marked; however, words that are inserted are not recorded. At the end of one minute, the last word read is marked on the screen with a bracket and the number of words correct per minute is calculated.

This test is given in the rainy and dry session of the school year to establish benchmark oral reading fluency levels, the test is administered in the two sessions in other to monitor the students' reading fluency improvements; throughout the year the teacher can use the same technique to monitor the student's fluency progress. During a progress monitoring test the student reads only one passage to receive a score.

DIBELS ORF tests have norm-referenced scores that dictate the reading level for each student. There are three levels, which include benchmark, strategic, and intensive. These levels indicate the minimum level of proficiency at that level. A benchmark score indicates a student is at low risk for reading failure, a strategic score indicates a student is at some risk for reading failure, and an intensive score indicates a student is at high risk for reading failure. The levels are color coded green, yellow, and red respectively. These data are uploaded to a database that contains the scores for both benchmark and progress monitoring. Scores for students are available for all DIBELS tests taken at each grade level during the time they have been enrolled at the school. Summary reports are available for teachers as well as individual student reports, which are provided to parents.

The Oral Reading Fluency (ORF) component of the DIBELS assessment assesses a student's ability to read fluently and accurately (Langdon, 2004). The students are asked to read continuously for a period of one minute. Accuracy is maintained by the teacher's use of a stopwatch. The teacher documents any miscues the student makes during the allotted period of time. The ORF score is then constructed based on the number of correctly read words produced by the student during the assessment time.

B. Curriculum-Based Measurement (CBM)

Recognizing the need for a reading assessment that was valid and time efficient, Stanley Deno (1985) of the University of Minnesota developed an approach referred to as Curriculum-Based Measurement (CBM). Because this approach is clearly focused on reading fluency, it has also been called an Oral Reading Fluency (ORF) assessment. The CBM/ORF approach assessment is like the IRI, requires the reader to read grade-level text orally. However, the CBM/ORF only takes 60 seconds. During this period, the teacher or person administering the test marks the reader's uncorrected errors and then counts the total number of words read correct per minute, (WCPM). The assessment is so quick; it can be repeated at one sitting on different passages (see appendix).

2.8.3 Prosody Assessment

Fluent readers embed prosodic or melodic features of spoken language stress, pitch variations, intonation, phrasing, and pausing in their voices (Dowhower, 1987, 1991; Schreiber, 1980, 1987, 1991; Schreiber & Read, 1980). Although fluency rubrics may not be as precise as assessments of decoding accuracy and reading rate, they do provide valid measurements of the third component of reading fluency prosodic reading.

There are two basic ways to measure reading prosody: rating scales and spectrographic measures. In the classroom, rating scales are relied upon for evaluation, and the NAEP Oral Reading Fluency Scale is the most common measure (Pinnell et al., 1995). This 4-point scale distinguishes reading that sounds primarily word by-word from reading that occurs in "larger, meaningful phrase groups" (Pinnell et al., 1995, p. 15).

Another popular rating scale that focuses more on the prosodic characteristics of oral reading is the Multidimensional Fluency Scale (Rasinski, Rikli, & Johnston, 2009; Zuteil & Rasinski, 1991). This scale consists of four separate 4-point subscales that distinguish phrasing and expression, smoothness and accuracy, and pacing. These scales are then summed to represent children's overall ratings of fluency.

(Rasinski et al. 2009) have reported inter-rater agreement within 2 points to be 86%. More recently, however, Klauda and Guthrie (2008) added to that 1 indicating that the child read with no mood or tone to a 4 indicating that the child read the "whole or nearly the whole passage in an expressive manner that created a mood or tone that seemed in accord with the author's intention" (p. 314). Unfortunately, even after collapsing two points on the scale, the researchers were only able to achieve 79% agreement so it is unclear whether this revised scale will have sufficient reliability to add a degree of precision to fluency ratings. Whether rating scales will ever have the precision necessary for them to add meaning fully to measurement of reading fluency beyond text reading speed and accuracy (see also Fuchs et al, 2001) is a concern, but it is an avenue that needs to be pursued. Still, it's believed that these more complex scales are the general direction in which rating scales of prosody need to go.

Prosody is a characteristic of spoken language typically measured in terms of loudness, duration, pitch, and pause (Couper-Kuhlen, 1986). And since standards in measuring reading prosody have not yet been set, researchers have used a variety of methods to measure prosodic skills. The following sections discuss and evaluate educational prosody research that has developed through common methods for measuring prosodic ability. Techniques for measuring prosodic features in reading are not standardized, and researchers are still experimenting with the best ways to directly measure prosody (cf.; Benjamin & Schwanenflugel, 2010; Dowhower, 1987; Koriat et al., 2002; Miller & Schwanenflugel, 2006; Ravid & Mashraki, 2007; Smith, 2004; among others) probably because there is little consensus about which prosodic features ought to be measured.

One method of directly measuring prosody, is to create a prosodic *map* of a text based on expert readings and then simply score children's oral reading according to their relative conformity to the map (Ravid & Mashraki, 2007). This method can be useful for purposes of a single study, but might be too labor intensive for larger studies and may not be appropriate for drawing generalizations of prosodic behavior across several texts.

2.8.4 Measure Scales of Reading Prosody

Hudson et al. (2005) recommend methods for measuring each of the three components in the fluency definition: accuracy, rate, and prosody. Therefore, rating scales have been developed with the goal of formally incorporating prosody into the reading fluency measure account. Such rating scales succeed in adding this third dimension of fluency in addition to rate and accuracy that more traditional measures have not incorporated, and the recent research suggests that

WCPM method alone may not be as valid as reading fluency measures that also take prosody into account (Benjamin & Schwanenflugel, 2010; Miller & Schwanenflugel, 2006; 2008; Valencia et al., 2010). In fact prosody can be measured by using rubric scale like the Multidimensional Fluency Scale (Zutell & Rasinski, 1991) or through a checklist that incorporates appropriate emphasis, appropriate tone, punctuation, appropriate inflection, appropriate vocal tone to illustrate characters' mental states, and appropriate pausing. The most common rating scales are as follow:

A. Allington's Fluency Scale.

The Allington Fluency Scale (Allington, 1983; Allington & Brown, 1979) was originally designed as part of a larger reading program entitled *FACT: A Multi-Media Reading Program* (Allington & Brown, 1979) and was adapted from an earlier scale by Mark Aulls (1978).

Allington's (1983) scale is a measure scale of reading fluency in addition to other measures of reading rate and accuracy. Allington's revision resulted in a scale with possible scores ranging from one to six on a single dimension. The scale is largely a continuum ranging from "word by word" reading (Allington, 1983, p. 559) to reading with appropriate phrasing, attention to punctuation, emphasis, and imitating normal speech. Allington (1983) recommends score of one through four as not fluent while a score of five or six indicates fluent reading. The teachers and researchers who use this scale are likely to determine their own criteria based on curricular standards.

The scale's purpose is to provide both researchers and educators with a means of measuring oral reading fluency with an emphasis on fluency in reading connected texts (Allington, 1983). Allington hoped to allow for greater precision in assessing fluency aside from a simple dichotomous distinction of reading being fluent or not. Thus, based on material published by Aulls (1978) and Allington (1983; Allington & Brown, 1979), it appears that the scale could be used either for informal assessment of students who struggle with fluent reading or more formal assessment, which would require multiple raters to ensure reliability.

B. National Assessment of Educational Progress Fluency Scale

The NAEP fluency scale was developed for the 1992 NAEP study of children's oral reading (Pinnell et al., 1995), NAEP Fluency Scale consists of four levels to which raters can rate students' oral reading. Level 1 indicates that the student "reads primarily word-byword. Occasionally two-word or three-word phrases may occur, but these are infrequent and or they do not preserve meaningful syntax" (Pinnell et al., 1995, p. 15). In contrast, level 4 indicates that the student "reads primarily in larger, meaningful phrase groups. Although some regressions, repetitions, and deviations from text may be present, these do not appear to detract from the overall structure of the story. Preservation of the author's syntax is consistent. Most of the story is read with expressive interpretation" (p. 15). A score of 1 or 2 on the scale indicates that a student is not reading fluently; a score of 3 or 4 on the scale indicates that a student is reading fluently (Pinnell et al., 1995; Daane et al., 2005).

C. The Multidimensional Fluency Scale

The Multidimensional Fluency Scale was originally developed and published by Zutell and Rasinski (1991), though its start when Rasinski slightly modified Allington's (1983; Allington & Brown, 1979) scale by adding several additional descriptive dimensions to it (without changing point values) for his dissertation research in (Rasinski, 1985). Through the years, several permutations have arisen: the 1991 version of the scale allowed educators to rate readers on three dimensions of fluency: phrasing, smoothness, and pace. In 2004 an adaptation was published (Rasinski, 2004) which was based on four dimensions of fluency: expression and volume, phrasing, smoothness, and pace. Finally, Rasinski and his colleagues more recently published a modified edition of the scale (Rasinski et al., 2009), termed the “Multi-Dimensional Fluency Scoring Guide.” This scale, like the 1991 version, assessed readers on three dimensions: phrasing and expression, accuracy and smoothness, and pacing. This accuracy component is the newest addition to the scale, and appears to fall in line with many definitions of fluency which incorporate accuracy, reading rate, and prosody (e.g., Hudson et al., 2005; Kuhn et al., 2010; NICHHD, 2000). Including accuracy in the scale also sets the MDFS apart from scales like the NAEP and Allington scales, discussed above.

The purpose of the scale, as described in Rasinski (2004), is to assess reading fluency. The author especially focuses on the scale as a method for assessing prosody or expression something which, unlike reading rate and accuracy. The author claims that a 60 second reading sample (or less) is all that is necessary to make a reliable and valid assessment of the child’s fluency.

The most recent iteration of the MDFS (Rasinski et al., 2009) is comprised of three dimensions (see Appendix 1), with four levels within each dimension. The final rating, then, is the sum of the ratings of levels across the three dimensions with a possible total score ranging from 3-12. This study will adopt only the MDFS (Rasinski et al., 2009) first dimension (phrasing and expression) in assessing and scoring the students’ reading prosody, since it has already adopted WCPM for scoring the remaining dimensions (rate and accuracy), and this dimension has four level and the sum of the ratings of this levels has the possible total score ranging from 1- 4(see Appendix 5). Previous versions of the scale differ somewhat in their descriptions of the dimensions and levels. The original MDFS (Zutell & Rasinski, 1991) is quite similar to the current version and is also comprised of three dimensions, while a later adaptation (Rasinski, 2004) includes four dimensions rather than three. For this four dimensional version, the author states that a score lower than 8 is indicative of poor oral reading fluency while scores of 8 or above are indicative of adequate progress in oral reading fluency.

2.9 Methods of Teacching Reading Fluency

Many experts (Kostewicz & Kubina, 2010; LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; Morris & Gaffney, 2011; Roundy & Roundy, 2009) agree that repeated reading is a type of fluency instruction that leads to improved reading fluency. Roundy and Roundy (2009) report that repeated reading is effective because by reading the same passage over and over the number of word recognition errors decreases, reading speed increases, and oral reading expression improves. The repeated reading method is based on the 1974 study by LaBerge and Samuels that explains that a high level of automaticity is attained as a result of iterative cycles of readings. Roundy and Roundy (2009) also posit that non-fluent readers may actually benefit the most from the repeated reading method. They add that research has found that the repeated reading of a particular passage can effectively improve students' overall reading fluency.

2.9.1 Repeated Readings

The basic method of repeated readings, which most other RR interventions are rooted in, was developed by Samuels (1979) with theoretical basis in the automaticity theory of LaBerge and Samuels (1974). The method involves that a text of interest for the reader is divided into many, equally long passages. The reader reads aloud the first passage to a literate person, the reader is determined, marks errors simultaneously, and records the rate of words read correctly and errors on a graph following the reading. The procedure is repeated with the same passage until the reader reaches predetermined performance criterion of words read correctly per minute and then the next passage is introduced with the same procedure. According to Samuels (1979), emphasized speed above accuracy in the method even though accuracy was also measured.

When Samuel developed the method, he tried the method on the children with reading difficulties. Each of them chose a story to practice on. The stories were divided into passages of 50–200 words, depending on the reading level of each student. The students trained reading with the method of RRs and the performance criterion of 85 words per minute. Besides, the first reading of each new passage was faster than the first reading of the previous passage.

Samuels described his method and reported his findings in an article published in the

Reading Teacher in 1979 and reissued in 1997 as a classic study in reading. Following the first publication a new emphasis initiated in the reading field where repetition or practice was underlined; a hallmark of the original method and the basis for newer versions. Since then, many studies on Samuels' original method, and other varied forms of it, have been published and most of them have indicated improvements in reading fluency, and sometimes comprehension, following the interventions (Dowhower, 1997).

2.9.2 Tutor-Based Reading

Tutor-based readings are RR methods in which more able readers help less able readers to improve reading, examples are *paired reading* (Topping, 2006) and *peer-tutoring* (Simmons et al., 1995). In paired reading the child selects the reading material as an attempt to increase motivation for reading. The child reads the text chorally with his parent or another literate person which serves as a tutor. If making an error, the tutor reads the incorrectly read word correctly and the child repeats the correction. If the child makes no error for a while the tutor stops reading along such that the child reads alone until another error is made, then the same error correction procedure is repeated and the child and the tutor reads chorally again. Praise is delivered contingent on correct reading (Topping, 2006). According to Topping, the idea behind paired reading is that the tutor serves as a reading model and gives continuous prompt when the child is reading correctly whilst the child also practices independent reading. A review by Topping in 1995 (as cited in Topping, 2006) of the impact of paired reading on reading performance revealed uncertain results regarding fluency where some studies displayed improved reading fluency following paired reading while other resulted in no changes. However, the results for accuracy and comprehension were more promising.

In peer-tutoring, the non fluent reader is instructed by a fluent reading peer, for example a classmate or a friend of the same age. Typical instructional components of peer-tutoring involve short repeated timings of reading, counting rate of words read correctly and errors, providing corrective feedback following errors, graph the performance and reinforce correct reading. Besides, the whole procedure is executed by a peer but not by an adult (Simmons et al., 1995). In a study by Simmons, a group of students scored significantly higher on reading fluency and comprehension tests after receiving peer-tutoring than two control groups receiving explicit teaching and traditional reading instruction, whereas no significant difference were between the control groups.

2.9.3 Fluency Development Lesson

The Fluency Development Lesson (FDL) is a direct fluency instruction model developed by Rasinski, Padak, Linek, and Sturtevant (1994) is use for the students experiencing difficulties in fluency and learning to read. For ten to fifteen minutes per day, students and teachers work with a daily text in which the teacher models reading the text for students and gradually releases responsibility for reading the text from himself to his students. Eventually the students perform the text, and engage in word study and further practice of the passage at home. In a yearlong implementation of the FDL in urban second grade classrooms where students were generally experiencing difficulty in learning to read, students doing the FDL regularly and with fidelity made substantial progress in reading fluency and overall reading achievement when compared with their previous year's progress and when compared with students not engaged in the FDL but doing other reading related tasks during the time otherwise devoted to the fluency instruction (Rasinski, Padak, Linek, and Sturtevant, 1994).

2.9.4 Fast Start

Fast Start is an adaptation of the FDL and intended for use by parents at home with their beginning readers (Padak & Rasinski, 2005; Rasinski, 1995; Rasinski & Padak, 2004). Parents and their children work with a daily fluency text (chosen by the teacher for its literary and poetry qualities; normally a nursery rhyme or poem). Parents are taught to read the poem to their children several times with their children looking on, read the poem with their children aloud several times, and eventually have their children read the poem to them several times. This repeated and assisted reading is then followed by a brief study of some of the words from the rhyme. Research has demonstrated the effectiveness of Fast Start in promoting early reading (Rasinski, 1995). One study in particular, found Fast Start to be most beneficial among children who were struggled the most in acquiring early reading skills (Rasinski & Stevenson, 2005).

In a 12 week implementation of the program at home, Rasinski and Stevenson (2005) report that the most at-risk students engaged in Fast Start made significantly more progress in word recognition and fluency than students not doing Fast Start at home but receiving the same reading instruction in school. In fact, the Fast Start students made nearly twice the gain in fluency (automaticity) than students not engaged in Fast Start. The teachers in the Fast Start program did play a critical role in teaching the parents the program, supplying the materials, and supporting and encouraging parents in their implementation of the program.

2.9.5 Fluency Oriented Reading Instruction

Fluency-Oriented Reading Instruction (FORI) (Stahl & Heubach, 2005) is an instructional fluency model, like the Fluency Development Lesson, incorporates repeated and assisted (partner) reading. Instead of poetry or other short text selections used in the FDL, the texts employed in FORI are simply the basal reading stories that are part of the students' regular reading curriculum. This feature made the identification and employment of texts for fluency practice simple for teachers. In FORI a basal reading selection is read to the students by the teacher and then followed by a brief discussion of the story. Students then read the story several times on their own, at home and in school, in various modes (e.g., echo reading with the teacher, alternating pages while reading with a partner, reading alone, as a play). Following several readings of the passage students engage in worksheets and journal work related to the story that had been read under the direction of their teacher.

In a two year implementation study of FORI in 14 second grade classrooms, Stahl and Heubach (2005) found greater than expected growth in reading achievement in every classroom. It should also be noted that a substantial number of students in the study were reading significantly below grade at the beginning of each year of the study. Yet, by the end of the study, only two students were not reading at their assigned grade level. Despite the repetitive reading of basal texts, students and teachers had positive attitudes toward the lesson format.

2.9.6 Readers Theatre

(Garrett & O'Connor, 2010; Keehn, et al., 2008; Young & Rasinski, 2009) stated that Readers Theatre is an instructional practice that develops fluency and promotes overall reading growth while increasing self confidence in struggling readers. Keehn et al. (2008) describe Readers Theatre as a way to involve students in the oral reading of a text in preparation for a reading performance before an audience. Garrett and O'Connor (2010) say that Readers Theatre is different from traditional theater in that it requires no costumes, props, or actions other than facial expressions or gestures by the performers. Keehn et al. (2008) posit that in the method the teacher actively coaches and provides direction for expressiveness during rehearsals, Readers Theatre offers the modeling that is important to fluency development. They recommend that while students practice reading in repertory groups, the teacher actively listens to the oral reading and coaches students in expressiveness and phrasing. This feedback, they say, is important to students' fluency growth. Young and Rasinski (2009) claim that repeated and assisted practice involved in rehearsal will improve accuracy and automaticity in word recognition.

Flynn (2004) says that Readers Theatre is more interesting to perform and to watch when the dialogue is emphasized by appropriate movements such as hand waving, pointing fingers, shrugs, raised fists, scratched heads, snapping fingers, or wiped brows. Flynn (2004) adds that any relevant gestures contribute not only to a more dynamic performance but also to increased retention of the material. Flynn claims that any printed text that is rehearsed, equals repetition, which brings about learning and increased oral reading fluency.

2.10 Review of Previous Research

This study attempted to analyse Hausa reading fluency of JSS students of Kaduna state. Below are reviews of some empirical studies that are so much related with this study.

2.10.1 Previous Studies

National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) (1995) carried out a research on reading fluency across the grade levels students. The NAEP (1995) reported that 44% of fourth graders are lacking in reading fluency; only 28% of eighth graders and 34% of twelfth graders achieve proficient reading standards. A staggering number of elementary, middle and high school students demonstrate difficulty in coping with on-grade level reading demands and expectations. "Struggling secondary readers often have challenges in all areas of reading: decoding, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension" (Archer et al., 2003, p. 89). There is similarity in the present study and NAEP (1995) in term of models of reading fluency analysis. However, unlike the present study NAEP (1995) was concerned with students across the middle grade level not with the JSS II students of different schools.

Rasinski, & Hofman (2003) carried out a study on the students' reading fluency levels of ninth-grade students. It means to find out if fluency could be still be an issue in the English reading difficulties experienced by large numbers of students beyond the elementary grades and to find out whether the source of their difficulties in reading stem from a lack of reading fluency. They tested 303 students using one minute reading, also known as Curriculum-Based Measurement (CBM) in reading or Oral Reading Fluency (ORF) Assessment (Deno, 1985; Deno,Mirkin, & Chiang, 1982; Marston, 1989; Rasinski, 2004).

Based on the assessment, they found that only 13 (4.3%) of the students read to the expected benchmark of eighth-grade students, while the highest frequency of 199 (95.7%) of the students read at the rate below eighth-grade students benchmark. It appears that the students were able to decode words quite accurately. And normally, 90-97% word-recognition accuracy level is considered to be an instructional level. The finding was cleared that these students, as a whole, had not achieved a level of fluency that would be considered normal or average for their grade level. Rasinski, & Hofman (2003) differs from the present study in terms of the participants. Unlike this study which concerned with Hausa reading fluency level of JSS II students, while Rasinski, & Hofman (2003) study concerned with whether the source of students English reading difficulties of students stem from a lack of reading fluency. They all concerned with measuring students fluency level based on the fluency variables (reading fluency rate, accuracy and prosody).

The Nigeria Northern Education Initiative (NEI), with support from the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID), collaborated with SUBEB, the Ministry of Education, the College of Education and others to conduct the Early Grade Reading Assessment on Primary 3 in February and March 2011 in Bauchi and Sokoto states. EGRA measures various skills that are necessary for the children to read fluently and understand what they read.

The related Hausa reading fluency of EGRA (2011) research findings shown that the pupils' average, in Bauchi was able to correctly say the sounds of only 6 letters of the Hausa alphabet per minute. In Sokoto, the average score was 4 correct letters per minute. The majority of the pupils could not read any syllables. 7 out of 10 children in Bauchi and 8 out of 10 children in Sokoto could not read any words of a short Hausa story. Fewer than 10% could read the story with good comprehension. EGRA (2011) and the present study differs because their subject are not the same, they are drawn from different proficiency, EGRA (2011) used students primary students, while the present study was concerned with JSS II students. And they related in term of models of measuring various aspects that are necessary for the students to read Hausa fluently.

2.11 Theoretical Frame Work

The theoretical framework for this study is based on automaticity theory. The idea behind automaticity always sees automatic word recognition as the centre for constructing fluency. The idea believed that conscious cognitive effort or attention is not required during the process of reading and when a process becomes more automatic, less attention can therefore be given to other processes or task (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974). When we do something automatically, the mind is not occupied with the small details of the task. For instance when riding a bicycle we do not have to concentrate on turning the pedals, balancing and holding on the handlebars but instead those processes are automatic and we can concentrate on watching the road and traffic around us. They always sees They sees fluent reader as one whose decoding processes are automatic, and requiring no conscious attention or mental effort (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974). Quick and effortless word identification is important in this theory, because when one can read words automatically, one's limited cognitive resources can be used for comprehension (e.g., NICHD, 2000).

Automaticity refers to student's ability to recognize words rapidly with little attention required to the word's appearance. The ability to read words by sight automatically is the key to skilled reading (Ehri, 1998). Automaticity could also be defined as quick, correct and effortless word recognition at the single word level. It also defined as the ability to perform a task without significant demands on attention and as a memory phenomenon (LaBerge & Samuels 1974). Automaticity refers to knowing how to perform some arbitrary task at a competence level without requiring conscious effort i.e. it is a form of unconscious competence. Moreover, if students is automatic or is skilled reader, multiple tasks may being performed at the same time, such as decoding the words, comprehending the information, relating the information to prior knowledge of the subject matter (Samuel, 2004).

Therefore, the question is that what are the qualities that make for automaticity? According to Logan (1997; see also Moors and DeHouwer, 2006), processes are considered to be automatic when they possess four properties: speed, effortlessness, autonomy, and lack of conscious awareness.

The first property is speed, which is thought to emerge concurrently which accuracy as learners engage in practice (Logan, 1988). As automaticity develops, whether in terms of reading, perceptual-motor activities, or another skilled task, the learners' performance not only becomes accurate, it gets faster. However, this increase in peed is not limitless. Rather, the learning curve for these tasks follows what is known as the power low; this "states that reaction time decreases as a function of practice until some irreducible limit is reached. Speed increase throughout practice, but the gains are largest earlier on, and diminish with further practice" (Long, 1997, p. 123).

The second attribute of automaticity is effortless (Logan, 1997). This refers to the sense of ease with which a task is performed and to the ability to carry out a second task while carrying out the first, automatic one. If a person is able to accomplish two task at ones be seen into this way; Fluent readers lack a sense of struggle in recognizing most of the words they encounter in text. This effortlessness in word recognition is derived, in part, from unitization, a process that involves collapsing some of the sequential steps used to identify words (Cunningham, Healy, Kanengiser, Chizzick and Willitts, 1988). Slow, algorithmic sequential word identification processes are seemingly replaced by a shift toward direct single step retrieval of large units (such as words and phrases) in long term memory. These retrieved skills essentially outpace the slower algorithmic word identification processes and can be completed more quickly (Logan, 1988).

In addition to rate and effortlessness, automatic processes are also autonomous; that is, they occur without intention, beginning and running to completion independent of the direction or intent of the person undertaking the act (Logan, 1997). In contrast, a known autonomous process is deliberate, allowing an individual to maintain control over the act and deciding whether it occurs. In the case of reading, fluent readers have little choice but to recognize word as they encounter them whereas beginning readers do not find reading to be an obligatory act. For example, fluent readers often find themselves inadvertently reading the text that run along the bottom of a news program, although they are eventually able to use they available cognitive resource to inhabit it. Disfluent readers, on the other hand, are either unable to process the text at all or may find their intentional resources excessively preoccupied by it (Schwanenflugel & Ruston, 2008). However, autonomous processing of words come early in the development of reading, perhaps even before children are truly fluent readers (Schwanenflugel, Morris, Kuhn, Strauss and Sieczko, 2008). Indeed, continued lack of autonomy of lexical processing is an indicator that the child (or adult) is not yet a fluent reader (Schwanenflugel et al., 2006).

The final characteristic of automaticity is lack of conscious awareness (Logan, 1997). Once lower level word recognition skill become automaticity, the conscious awareness of the sub kills that comprise them disappears. Disfluent readers tend to be keenly aware of the steps they need to undertake to determine the words in text and find the process to be slow and deliberate (e.g Chall, 1999). However, because word recognition has become automatic for fluent readers, they are able to identify nearly every word they encounter without conscious effort.

Although each of these four properties can be applied to automatic word recognition, it is important to remember that these attributes develop on a continuum, as well as different rates, so that reader who have had " an intermediate amount of practice may be somewhat fast, somewhat effortful, somewhat autonomous, and partially unconscious" (Logan, 1997, p. 128). Further, as readers gain skill and are exposed to more texts, automaticity may expand.

Effortlessness is essential in becoming a fluent reader. It enables individuals to achieve the ultimate stages of fluency (Naslund & Smolkin, 1997).

In another addition, as students become more proficient readers, they progress through a series of stages in becoming fluent readers. Initially, the student enters the *non-accurate stage*. During this stage, a student has difficulty recognizing words regardless of the amount of time made available for the student to do so (Samuels, 1979). These readers are unable to generate meaning from text appropriately. The common perception of these individuals is that they are young children that are beginning to develop their reading skills.

Once a student is able to recognize words in print with precision, he has progressed into the *accuracy stage*. Generally, this early accuracy regarding word identification requires tremendous mental effort and considerable attention. The word for word method of decoding is laborious and time consuming for the reader (Allinder et. al., 2001). Consequently, these students read with increased attention to the print, thereby making their oral reading seem laborious. Comprehension is severely inhibited by the inability of students, during this stage, to comprehend text thoroughly. Instead mental energy is consumed with word identification.

Students beginning to recognize words with accuracy are impaired in their ability to read fluently. Expression while reading is not characteristic of students at this stage. Students tend to read aloud in a monotone voice, completely disregarding appropriate phrasing or expression. Instead, students are focused on identifying the print; therefore, the student’s mental efforts are being utilized entirely to identify text and not thoroughly comprehend it. Readers at this stage may be able to identify the words but invariably lack the ability to fully comprehend them.

Students progressing into the *automatic stage* of reading begin to group words to contribute to their ability to read fluently (Worthy & Broaddus, 2002). The stage is characterized by fast and accurate reading with expression and the reader is capable of decoding the printed words automatically or without attention. A reader on automatic stage is said to read fluently and is even capable of using his attention to comprehend what he is reading since decoding is automatic (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; Samuels, 1979, 2002). Initially, readers are generally able to recognize isolated words or parts of words. As readers become more proficient at word recognition, they can automatically recognize words. Once individual words are identified accurately, students are able to begin grouping words. By grouping words, they can make the gradual transition from identifying individual words to reading meaningful phrases. Uses of these skills enable the reader in developing the ability to fluently read text. The theoretical framework used in this study is diagrammatically presented in figure 2.1 by the researcher.

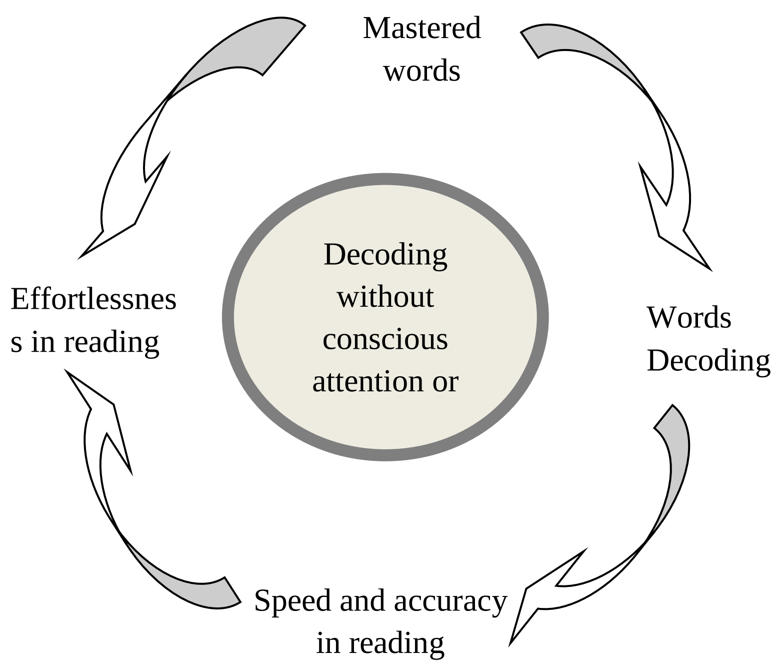

Figure 2.1: Diagram of the Automaticity Theoretical Framework Proposed by (Hayatu, 2016).

Figure 2.1 show that automaticity characterized by: speed, effortlessness, accuracy and lack of conscious awareness. Therefore, any student who possesses these characteristics can be said who attained fluency. During this stage, students are able to recognize print automatically. These readers can proficiently combine a number of reading skills, such as sight word recognition and contextually identifying words (Whitaker, Harvey, Hassell, Liner, & Tutterrow, 2006). Generally, during this stage, the student's oral reading rate is equivalent to or possibly even faster than the student's normal speaking rate.

2.12 Gains from the Literature Review

Table 2.1 gave at a glance, gain of related literature in order to avoid plagiarism and do a proper acknowledgements of authors reviewed in the study, this contained author reviewed, aspect reviewed, and aspect applicable to the study**.**

Table 2.1: Showing the Gains from the Literature Review

S/N	**Author Reviewed**	**Aspect Reviewed**	**Aspect Applicable to the study**
1	Abdulkarim,2012	Reading materials	
2	Alinder et al, 2001	Stage of automaticity	Reading in Hausa language
2	Allingoton & Brown,1979	Reading scale	Framework
4	Allington, 1983	Reading prosodic	Measure scale of prosody
5	Anderson Person, 1984	Top-down reading theory	Reading fluency Theories of reading
6	Anderson, 2006	Fluency	
7	Argyle, 1989	Miscue	Reading fluency
8	Aulls, 1978	Reading scale	Miscue analysis
9	Baker et al, 2008	Fluency score	Measure scale of prosody
10	Benjamin & Schwanenflugel, 2010	Assessment of reading	Rate and accuracy assessment Measure scale of prosody
11	Caldwell, 2007	Top-down reading theory	Theories of reading
12	Cambourne, 2004	Top-down reading theory	Theories of reading
13	Cambridge Dictionary, 2005	Fluency	
14	Catts et al, 2006	Phonological process	Reading fluency
15	Cf Altwerger & Jodan, 2009	WCPM	Fluency skills

16	Chard et al, 2002	Fluent reader	Rate and accuracy assessment
17	Daan, 2005	Fluency level	Reading fluency
18	Daly et al, 2006	Fluency	NAEP fluency scale
19	DeHouwer, 2006	Automaticity	Reading fluency
20	Deno, 1985	CBM	Fraework
21	Dowhower, 1991	Reading prosody	Rate and accuracy assessment
22	Flynn, 2004	Fluency model	Reading fluency
23	Gaffiney & Morris, 2011	Sec.sch.reading	Method of reading fluency
		activities	Fluency in prim. And sec. sch.
24	Garret & Connor, 2010	Fluency model	
25	Goering &Baker, 2010	Reading fluency Skills	Method of reading fluency
26	Goodman & Burke, 1977	Miscue	Fluency in prim. And sec. sch.
27	Goodman, 1973	Miscue	Miscue analysis
28	Graves et al 1998	Top-down reading	Miscue analysis
		theory	Theories of reading
29	Griffith & Rasinski, 2004	Reading prosody	
30	Gunther, 2006	Miscue	Reading fluency
31	Harris & Hodges, 1995	Comprehension as	Miscue analysis
		reading component	Reading fluency and
32	Harris, 2005	Reading theories	comprehension
33	Hasbrouck & Tindal, 2006	Norms	Theories of reading
34	Hudson et al, 2005	Fluency scale	Reading assessment
35	Jan, 2005	Miscue type	Measurement scale of prosody
35	Jibir-Daura, 2005	Reading fluency	Miscue analysis
36	Johnston, 1998	Word automaticity	Reading rate
37	Keehn et al, 2010	Fluency model	Fluency skills
			Teaching method of reading
38	Kim et al, 2010	DIBELS	fluency
39	Koriat et al, 2002	Measure scale	Measure scale of reading
40	Kostewicz & Kubina, 2010	Repeated reading	Prosody assessment
41	Kuhn et al, 2010	Fluency assessment	Method of reading

42	LaBerge & Samuel, 1974	Automaticity	Multidimensional fluency scale
43	Laing, 2002	Stage of automaticity	Framework
44	Langdon, 2004	DIBELS	Framework
45	Logan, 1997	Feature of automaticity	Measure scale of reading
46	Maryland University, 2000	Miscue	Framework
47	Miller & Schwanenflugel, 2006	Reading assessment	Miscue analysis Measure scale of prosody
48	Moors & DeHouwer,2006	Automaticity	
49	Morris & Gaffney,2011	Repeated reading	Framework
50	Munnir, 2013	Reading instruction	Method of reading fluency
51	NAEP,1992	Rubric	Reading in Hausa language
52	Nassaji, 2003	Interactive reading theory	NAEP Fluency scale Theories of reading
53	NICHHD, 2000	Rubric	
54	NRP, 2000	Fluency components	Multidimensional fluency scale Reading fluency and
55	Ormord, 2008	Top-down reading theory	comprehension Theories of reading
56	Oyetunji, 2011	Introduction	
57	Padak & Rasiski, 2005	Fluency model	Introduction
58	Pikulski & Chard, 2005	Fluency	Method of reading fluency
59	Pinnel et al., 1995	Fluency level	Fluency & comprehension
60	Ransinki et al, 2009	Introduction	NAEP fluency scale
61	Rasinki, 2004	Prosody	Introduction
62	Rasinski & Stevenson, 2005	Components of fluency assessment	Prosody assessment Reading assessment
63	Rasinski et al, 1994	Fluency model	
64	Rasinski et at, 2005	Fluency model	Method of reading fluency
65	Rasinski, 1991	Decoding	Teaching method of fluency
66	Rasiski & Paddak, 2001	Fluency score guide	Reading fluency
67	Rasiski et al, 2009	Rate scale	Multidiamesionan fluency scale

68	Rasiski, 2003	Fluency	Multidiamesionan fluency scale
69	Ravit & Mashraki, 2007	Reading modeling	Fluency in prim. and sec. sch.
70	Reutzel & Cooter, 2003	Top-down reading theory	Fluency in prim. And sec. sch. Theories of reading
71	Robinso et al, 2008	Top-down reading theory	Theories of reading
72	Roudy & Roudy, 2009	Fluency	
73	Ruddell & Speaker, 1985	Interactive reading theory	Fluency in prim. And sec. sch. Theories of reading
74	Rumptz, 2003	Interactive reading theory	Theories of reading
75	Sadiq, 1991	Introduction	
76	Samuel, 1979	Automaticity	Introduction
77	Samuel, 1997	Comprehension as Reading component	Framework Reading fluency and
78	Samuel, 2002	Stage of automaticity	comprehension
79	Samuel, 2004	Fluency construction	Framework
80	Savege, 2005	Phonological skills	Framework
81	Schatschneider & Torgesen, 2004	Extensive reading	Fluency skills Fluency skills
82	Schreiber, 1991	Reading prosody	
83	Schwanenflugel & Ruston, 2008	Fluency	Reading fluency Framework
84	Schwanenflugel et al, 2006	Automaticity	
85	Scott, 2001	Top-down reading theory	Framework Theories of reading
86	Simith, 2004	Prosody	
87	Simmons et al, 1995	Reading method	Measuring prosody
88	Stahl & Heubach, 2005	Fluency model	Method of Reading fluency
89	Stanovich, 1991	Introduction	Method of Reading fluency
90	Stanovich, 2000	Bottom up reading	Introduction

		theories	Theories of reading
91	Topping, 2006	Model	
92	University of Origon, n.d.b	WCPM	Method of Reading fluency
93	Valencia et al, 2010	Reading assessment	Measure scale of reading
94	Watson, 2010	Comprehension as reading component	Measure scale of prosody Reading fluency and
95	Welsch, 2006	Miscue	comprehension
96	Whitaker et al, 2006	Stage of fluency	Miscue analysis
97	Wise, 2010	Reading rate	Framework
98	Wixson et al, 1979	Miscue	Reading fluency
99	Worthy & Broaddus, 2002	Accuracy	Miscue analysis
100	Young & Rasinski, 2009	Fluency model	Reading fluency
101	Zahn, 2009	Miscue type	Method of Reading fluency
102	Zutell & Ransiski, 1991	Multidiamesionan fluency scale	Miscue analysis Measure scale of prosody

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the research methods and instruments used in collecting the data of the study, the validity and reliability of the instruments, population and sample involved in the study, and statistical procedure for analyzing the data.

3.2 Research Design

This study adopts a descriptive design, because it is non experimental based research. It aims at identifying and assessing the variables such as reading rate, accuracy and prosody.

3.3 Population

The population for this study comprises all JS II public schools students of 2014/2015 session in Giwa Inspectorate Division, Kaduna state. The zone has the total number of twenty five public junior secondary schools with a population of 3652 students. Out of this number, 2203 are boys while the remaining 1449 are girls (Giwa Inspectorate Division, 2015). Table 3.1 below shows the number of schools and their populations.

Table 3.1 Population of Schools in Giwa Inspectorate Division

S/N	Name of School	No. of Boys	No. of Girls	Total
1	G S S Gangara	87	35	122
2	G S S Yakawada	126	24	150
3	G S S Fatika	80	20	100
4	G S S Kaya	76	22	98
5	G J S S Kidandan	52	12	64
6	G J S S Galadimawa	25	05	30
7	G J S S Iyatawa	26	03	29
8	G J S S Kakangi	36	06	42
9	G S S Giwa	168	82	250
10	G J S S Maraban Guga	60	40	100
11	G J S S Danmahawayi	52	12	64
12	G J S S Shika	118	182	300
13	G J S S Yansarki	35	10	45
14	G J S S Bomo	255	80	335
15	G S S Jama’a	135	65	200
16	G G S S Samaru (JNR)		366	366
17	G S S Kwangila (JNR)	100	85	185
18	G S S Sakadadi	85	19	104
19	G J S S Basawa	149	69	218
20	G J S S Hunkuyi	180	119	299
21	G J S S Kudan	172	108	280
22	G J S S D/Kudan	92	50	142
23	G J S S Kauran Wali	31	09	40
24	G J S S T/Sani	33	18	51
25	G J S S Wazata	30	08	38
	TOTAL	**2203**	**1449**	**3652**

Source: Giwa Inspectorate Division, 2015

Table 3.1: Shows the population of the junior secondary schools in Zaria Inspectorate Division, which comprised boys, girls and mixed schools form all the local governments under the zone. The zone has twenty five junior secondary schools with 3652 students of 2014/2015 session.

3.4 Sample and Sampling Procedure

Five (5) percent of the population was randomly selected as the sample size of the study, which comprised 180 students across six secondary schools in the zone. This is in line with Curry cited in Garba (2013) that the target population of 1001-5000 is 5%. The area of the study consists three local governments namely Giwa, S/Gari and Kudan. The subjects have chosen in this study represent not only the population of the selected six schools but the entire population of the secondary school students in Giwa Inspectorate Division. The students were chosen from each of the three parts of the zone which comprises three local governments. Therefore, two schools were chosen from each of the local government. On the other hand, the schools have the same entry qualifications and the same syllabus; the schools are boys, girls and mixed schools. 30 students were selected from each of the schools. Table 3.2 below shows the schools selected and the numbers of the students randomly selected.

Table 3.2 Population of Samples Schools

S/N	Name of Schools	No. of Boys	No. of Girls	Sample Boys	Sample Girls	Total No. of Sample Schools
1	G J S S Kudan	172	108	15	15	30
2	G G S S Samaru (JNR)		366		30	30
3	G S S Giwa (JNR)	168	82	15	15	30
4	G S S Kwangila (JNR)	100	85	15	15	30
5	G J S S Hunkuyi	180	119	15	15	30
6	G J S S Maraban Guga	60	40	15	15	30
	Total			**75**	**105**	**180**

Table 3.2: Shows the sample population of this study, form the three local governments under the zone, and thirty students were randomly selected from each of the school, which comprised six junior secondary schools with 180 students.

3.5 Research Instrument

Three different Hausa reading passages from three Hausa novels: “So Aljannar Duniya”, “Jiki Magayi” and “Shaihu Umar” were adopted as the instruments of this study. Curriculum-Based Measurement Reading Fluency Test technique by (Deno, 1985) and Multidimensional Fluency Scale (Rasinski & Johnston, 2009) were adapted to measure and assess the students’ fluency. CBM was adapted to measure two components of the students reading fluency (reading rate and accuracy).While Multidimensional Fluency scale was adopted for assessing the students’ reading prosody as the last component of the reading fluency. (See Appendices 1A & 1B).

3.6 Data Collection Procedure

Five weeks were used in collecting the data; while two research assistants were trained who assisted the researcher in assessing the students. Guided reading passages were used for the students, while the examiner used score guide to mark uncorrected errors such as mispronunciations, substitutions, word insertions, reversals, omissions made by the students, and any word not attempted or responded to read by a student for 2-3 seconds and pronounced by the examiner was recorded as an error. The study adopted modification of Curriculum-Based Measurement fluency test technique and Multidimensional fluency scale were adopted in testing the students' fluency as follow:

i. Thirty (30) students were selected randomly from each of the six selected schools and codes were given to each student instead of his/her name according to their schools' tag. Example: The First school, students were coded as: A1, A2, A3…. The Second school B1, B2, B3…and the Third school C1, C2, and C3….
ii. A stop watch was used to time student reading which was recorded on tape.
iii. Three different Hausa passages (guided reading passages) of an approximately 189 - 241 words were given to each participant to read one-in-one as a reading fluency test. (Seen Appendices 2A-2C).
iv. The students were asked to read the first passage loudly for 60 seconds, and this is exactly how they read the second and the third passages.
v. As the students read, the teacher used pencil to mark his/her score sheet by putting / through the words read incorrectly and also corrected where it is necessary and they were asked to stop after one minute and a pause sign was used (**)**) sign indicate where the students stopped.

vi. Reading fluency components (reading rate, accuracy and prosody) were considered in assessing the students.

vii. WCPM formula and Multidimensional fluency Scale's range were used to score the students' reading average during the test.

viii. The students reading rate was determined by subtracting the WCPM from WRPM (WCPM – WRPM = WCPM) and compared the student's performance against the target norms of JS II in Hasbrouck & Tindal (2006).

ix. The students' reading accuracy was determined by dividing the number of words read correct per minute (WCPM) by the total number of words read per minute and multiply by 100, (the WCPM ÷ WRPM × 100 = accuracy %). Comparing the student's performance against the target norms in (appendix 5).

x. The prosody was determined by Multidimensional fluency Scale's range. The scale has four dimensional levels, this level has the possible total score ranging from 4-12.The first dimension of this scale (phrase and expression) was adopted in scoring the students' prosody (See Appendix 1A).

3.7 Pilot Study

The pilot study was conducted on twelve students from two junior secondary schools; (GSS Basawa and GSS Bomo), which ascertained the validity and reliability of the instrument, Hausa passages of 189-241 words was given to each participant to read one-on-one as a reading fluency test. Curriculum-Based Measurement (CBM) oral reading fluency test and Multidimensional fluency scale were used to measure the students reading fluency and later on analyzed and determined the reliability coefficient of the instrument. Figure 3.1 is the Scores of the Pilot Study of this research.

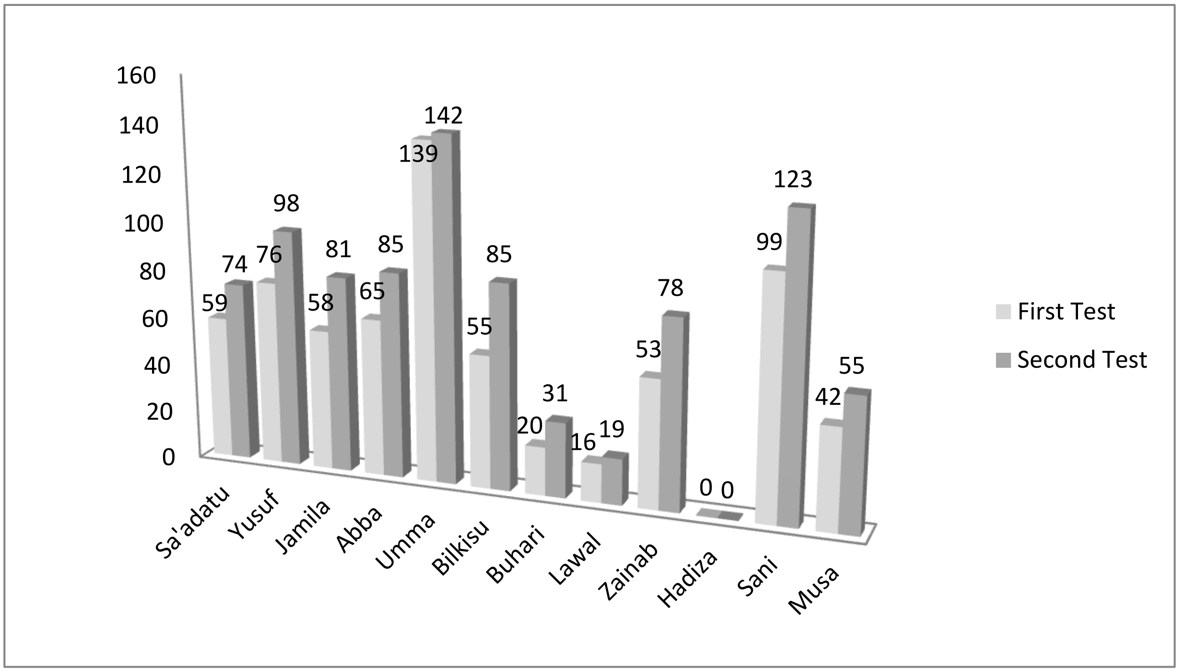

Figure 3.1: Participants and Their Scores of the Pilot Study

3.8 Validity of the Research Instrument

The validity of the instruments was determined by expert's opinions which include the researcher's supervisor and colleagues. The criticism and suggestion made improved the structure and standard of the instruments.

3.9 Reliability of the Instrument

Reliability of the instrument for this study was established by using test re-tests of reliability method, and Spearman's Rank Correlation statistics adopted in analyzing the pilot study's result. Consequently, a reliability coefficient of 0.94 was obtained after the first and the second tests were correlated. The result provided the effectiveness of the instrument indicated that there is positive relationship between the tests results. Stevens (1986) stated that instrument is considered reliable if it lies between 0 and 1.

3.10 Statistical Procedure for Data Analysis

The study employed descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies and percentages and chi-square in analyzing the data and testing the hypotheses of the study. The analytical descriptive approach it used in form of frequency and percentage, while chi-square adopted for testing the hypotheses of the study. Decision of rejection or failing to reject of any of the hypotheses fixed at the 0.05 level of significance.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Instruction

The data gathered via the students' reading fluency test analysed based on the research questions of the study, according to the frequency and percentage of students.

4.2 Data Presentation

The data gathered for this study were presented in table 4.1 to 4.3**.** Table 4.1 presents the data obtained from the students' reading fluency test based on their reading speed.

Table 4.1 Students' Scores in Reading Speed Component According to Samples Schools

Grade of Reading Speed	Scores (wcpm)	GSS Kwangila	GJS Hunƙuyi	GGSS Samaru	GJSS M/Guga	GSS Giwa	GJSS Kudan	Total	%
Slow	0-66	12	20	8	12	15	22	89	49%
Moderate	67-132	18	9	18	15	15	6	81	45%
High **(Expected Benchmark)**	133+	0	1	4	3	0	2	10	6 %
Total		30	30	30	30	30	30	180	100%

Table 4.1 shows the overall results of students' reading speed according to the samples schools of this study, the students read at three levels of speed (slow, moderate and high), the table also indicates range of scores from least (0-66) to high (133+). The words ranged from 0-66 is considered slow while 66-132 is considered moderate and 133 above is considered high. Table 4.2 presents the data obtained from the students' reading fluency test based on their reading accuracy.

Table 4.2 Students' Scores in Reading Accuracy Component

Grades of Accuracy	Level of Accuracy	GSS Kwangila	GJS Hunƙuyi	GGSS Samaru	GJSS M/Guga	GSS Giwa	GJSS Kudan	Total	%
Inaccurate (Frustration)	0-89	2	13	10	9	10	9	53	29%
Accurate (Instruction)	90-97	17	6	13	13	11	10	70	39%
V. Accurate (Independet)	98-100	11	11	7	8	9	11	57	32%
Total		30	30	30	30	30	30	180	100

Table 4.2 Indicate the overall reading accuracy results based on the samples schools of the study. The reading accuracy rated at three levels (inaccurate, accurate and very accurate). The range of scores from 0-89 is considered inaccurate while 90-97 is considered accurate and 98-100 is considered very accurate.

Table 4.3 presents the data obtained from the students' reading fluency test based on their reading prosody.

Table 4.3 Students' Scores in Reading Prosody Component

Grades	Levels of Students' Prosody (Expression)	GSS Kwangila	GSS Hunkuyi	GSS Samaru	GSS M/Guga	GSS Giwa	GSS Kudan	Total	Percentage (%)
V.Good	Read with good expression and sound like natural language with good intonation throughout the text.	6	5	8	3	7	3	32	18%
Good	Sound like natural language and mid-sentence pauses for breath with reasonable intonation throughout the better part of the passage.	8	4	10	9	9	7	47	26%
Poor	Begin to sound like natural language in some areas of the text with improper or inadequate intonation.	14	8	9	8	4	9	52	29%
V. Poor	Trying to make sound like natural lang. Reads with flat and unnatural intonation. may be frequently word by word or can't read a single word throughout reading.	2	13	3	10	10	11	49	27%
Total		30	30	30	30	30	30	180	100%

Table 4.3 shows the overall reading prosody results based on the schools' frequency and percentage. The prosody rated at four grade levels (v. good, good, poor, and very poor).

4.3 Data Analysis

In an attempt to provide satisfactory answers to the research questions of this study. The data gathered from the reading fluency test of the sampled students were analysed based on analytical descriptive statistic, according to the students' frequency and percentage as followings:

Research Question One:

What is the reading rate of junior secondary school students in reading Hausa materials?

Descriptive statistics in form of frequency and percentage was employed to answer this question. Table 4.4 presents the level of the students' reading rate obtained through their reading fluency test.

Table 4.4: Students' Reading Speed Levels Based on Correct Words Read Per Minute

Grade of Reading Speed	Scores (WCPM)	Frequency	Percentage
Slow	0-66	89	49%
Moderate	67-132	81	45%
High (Expected Benchmark)	133+	10	6 %
Total		180	100%

The above table is represented graphically by Figure 4.1 below.

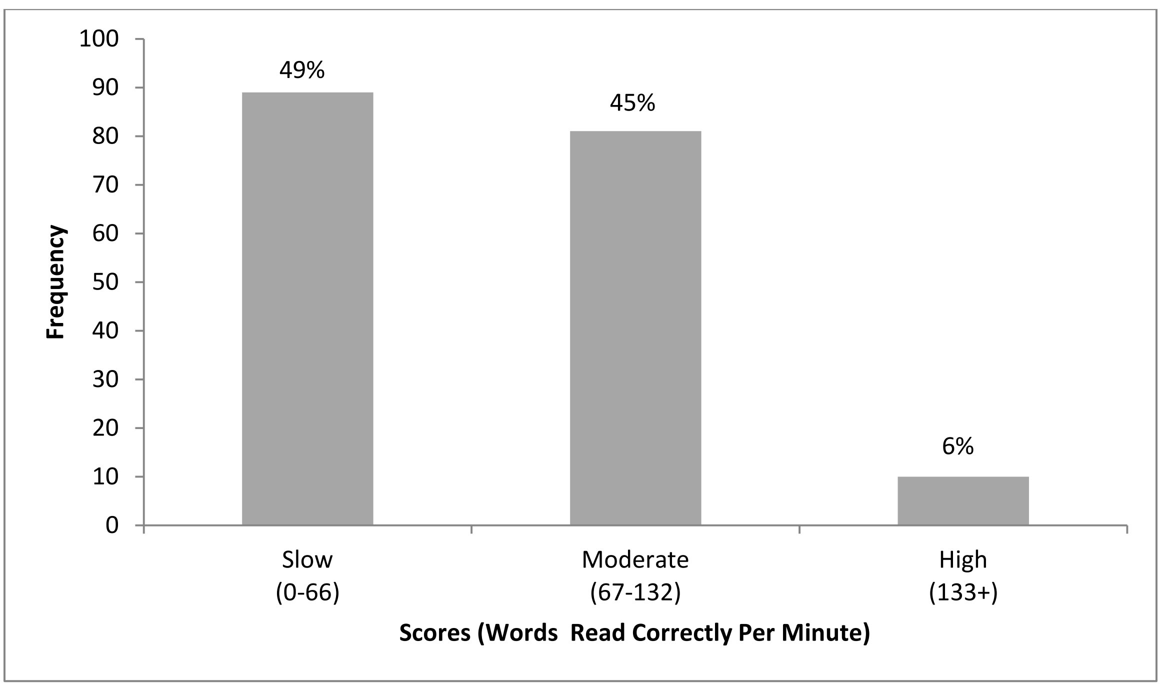

Figure 4.1 Levels of Students' Reading Speed

Table 4.4 and figure 4.1 shows the levels of students' reading speed, the students read at three levels of speed (slow, moderate and high), the table also indicates range of scores from least (0-66) to high (133+). The words ranged from 0-66 is considered slow while 66-132 is considered moderate and 133 above is considered high. The table and figure revealed that the highest frequency 89 (49%) of the students read Hausa texts slowly, while 45% of the students scored moderate, and the least frequency 10 (6%) of the students scored high. This revealed that highest frequency and percentage of the students read Hausa materials slowly, and this answers the research question that says **"**What is the reading rate of junior secondary school students in reading Hausa materials**?"**

Research Question Two: What is the reading accuracy of junior secondary school students in reading Hausa texts?

Table 4.5 presents the students' reading accuracy levels according to their frequency and percentage.

Table 4.5: Students' Reading Accuracy Levels Based on their Frequency and Percentage

Grades	Level of Reading Accuracy	Frequency	Students' Percentage
Inaccurate (Frustration)	0-89	53	29%
Accurate (Instructional)	90-97	70	39%
V. Accurate (Independent)	98-100	57	32%
Total		180	100%

Table 4.5 is represented graphically by Figure 4.2 bellow

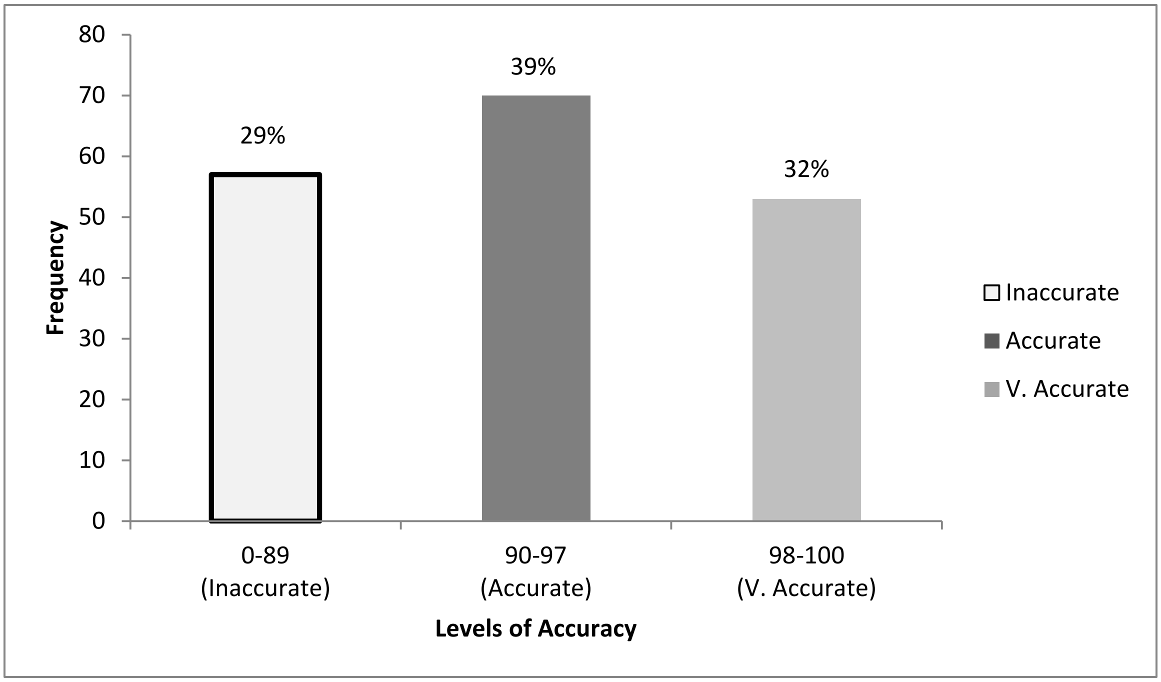

Figure 4.2: Levels of Students' Reading Accuracy by Frequency and Percentage

Table 4.5 and Figure 4.2 shows the levels of students' reading accuracy (inaccurate, accurate and very accurate). The range of scores from 0-89 is considered inaccurate while 90-97 is considered accurate and 98-100 is considered very accurate. The table and the figure indicates that the least frequency 53 (29%) of the students scored inaccurate, while the highest frequency 70 (39%) of the students scored accurate, and 32% of the students scored very correctly. Therefore, this revealed that the highest frequency and percentage of the students read Hausa text correctly but slowly, and this answered the research question that says **"**What is the reading accuracy of junior secondary school students in reading Hausa texts?"

Research Question Three:

What is the proper reading prosodic of JS I students when reading Hausa texts?

Table 4.6 presents the levels of students' reading prosody according to their frequency and percentage.

Table 4.6: Students' Reading Prosody Levels According to Frequency and Percentage

Grades	Scores	Levels of Students' Prosody	Frequency	%
V. Good	4	Read with good expression and sound like natural language with good intonation throughout the text.	32	18%
Good	3	Sound like natural language and mid-sentence pauses for breath with reasonable intonation throughout the better part of the passage.	47	26%
Poor	2	Begin to sound like natural language in some areas of the text with improper or inadequate intonation.	52	29%
V. Poor	1	Trying to make sound like natural lang. Reads with flat and unnatural intonation and frequently word by word reading throughout.	49	27%
Total			180	100%

Table 4.6 reflected graphically by figure 4.3 below. The figure is shows the levels of students' reading prosody.

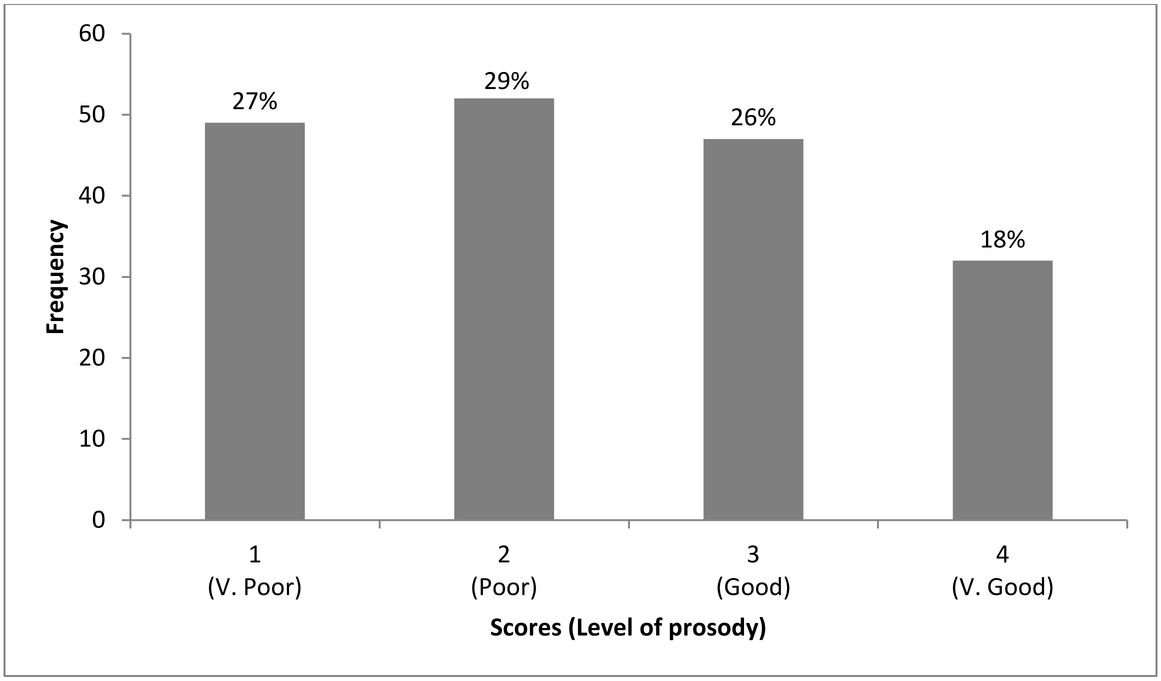

Figure 4.3: Levels of Students' Reading Prosody by Frequency and Percentage.

Table 4.6 and figure 3 shows the levels of students' reading prosody, rated at four grade levels (very poor, poor, good and very good). 1 mark is considered Very Poor, 2 marks is considered Poor, while 3 marks is considered Good, and 4 marks is considered Very Good. The table and the figure shows that 27% of the students scored 1 (very poor), the highest frequency 52 (29%) of the students scored 2 (poor), while 26% of the students scored 3 (good), and the least frequency of 32 (18%) of the students scored 4 (very good). Therefore, this reveals that the highest frequency of the students read Hausa texts without proper prosody and this answer the research question that says "What is the proper reading prosody of JS II students when reading Hausa texts?"

4.4 Test of Hypotheses

Chi-square at probability of P = 0.05 was employed to test the three null hypothesis formulated for this study. The result of chi-square is presented in table 4.7-4.9 as following:

Hypothesis I

1. $H0_1$: There is no significant difference between the students' reading rate in Hausa and the fluency bench mark of JS II students.
2. $H1_1$: There is significant difference between the students' reading rate in Hausa and the fluency bench mark of JS II students.

Table 4.7 Chi-square on the Students' Reading Rate and Fluency Benchmark

Variables	N	O	E	Dv	Df	X^2	P	Remark
X	180	12000	23940	-11940	179	7875.895	0.000	Significant

Chi-Square=7875.895, DF=179, p=0.000 ($P<0.05$)

Table 4.7 indicated that the calculated chi-square is X^2 =7875.895, while P- value is P = 0.000, and this P- value is less than ($P<0.05$) chosen by this study. This shows that there is significant difference between the students' reading rate and the fluency benchmark of JS II students in reading Hausa materials.

Hypothesis II

1. $H0_2$: There is no significant difference between the students reading accuracy and the fluency bench mark of JS II students in reading Hausa texts.
1. $H1_2$: There is significant difference between the students reading accuracy and the fluency bench mark of JS II students in reading Hausa texts.

Table 4.8 Chi-square on the Students' reading accuracy and Fluency Benchmark

Variables	N	O	E	Dv	Df	X^2	P	Remark
X	180	15441	16200	-759	179	1301.256	0.000	Significant

Chi-Square=1301.256, DF=179, p=0.000 ($P<0.05$)

According to table 4.8, the chi-square was calculated is X^2 = 1301. 256 with the P- value of P= 0.000. This revealed that the P- value (0.000) was less than (P<0.05) and this shows that there is significant difference between the students' reading accuracy and the fluency benchmark of JS II students in reading Hausa text.

Hypothesis III

1. $H0_3$: There is no significant difference between the JS II students' proper reading prosody and the fluency bench mark of JS II students.
2. $H1_3$: There is significant difference between the JS II students' proper reading prosody and the fluency bench mark of JS II students.

Table 4.9 Chi- Square Test on Students' Reading Prosody and Reading Fluency Benchmark of Junior Secondary Student II

Variables	N	O	E	Dv	Df	X^2	P	Remark
X	180	410	540	-130	179	113.3333	0.0009	Significant

Chi-Square=0.113.3333, DF=179, p=0.0009 (P<0.05)

Table 4.7 revealed that the calculated chi-square is X^2 = 113.3333 and the P- value of P= 0.0009 recorded at df of 179. The P- value P= 0.0009 was less than p< 0.05.Hence, the null hypothesis was rejected. This means, there is significant difference between the students' reading prosody and the fluency bench mark of JS II students when reading Hausa materials.

4.4 Summary of Findings

The followings are the summary of the findings from the outcome of the analyses of this study based on the research questions and the hypothesis:

1. The study revealed that the students read Hausa texts slowly; they read at speed of less than fluency bench mark of JS II students.
2. The second finding revealed that students read Hausa text correctly but slowly.
3. The students read Hausa texts without proper prosody; some time they read word by word throughout the texts.

4.5 Discussion of Findings

The first finding shows that the students read Hausa texts slowly; they read at speed of less than fluency bench mark of JS II students (50 percentile) which is 133 WCPM developed by (Hasbrouck & Tindal, 2006) (see Appendix 4), some of the students do not read a single word (see appendices). This study agreed and confirmed (EGRA, 2013) report, that 79% pupils can't read a single word, therefore, the study confirmed that the same reading insufficiency also exists in secondary school levels. However, a similar finding by U.S National Assessment Education Progress, reported that, 38% of fourth grades and 29% of eighth grades read below their expected reading benchmarks in U.S (National Center for Education Statistics, 2005).

The finding, indeed, broke new grounds by discovering the JSS II students' reading speed level and no Hausa fluency benchmarks exist for JSS. Therefore, the study calls for establishing Hausa fluency benchmarks, which will give opportune to the students to test their reading speed time to time and also teachers to test the students' fluency improvement, as Rasinski (2002) states that reading rate may be an indicator of fluent or disfluent reading. Therefore, reading rate can be a tool for assessing students' performance. As cleared by Oyetunji (2011) that the majority of students seemed to struggle with reading; they read slowly and effort-fully did not engage in any pleasure reading outside their formal study requirements. As Mohammed (1991) observed that faster reading is one way of making a child very successful in reading and the faster one reads and comprehend, the more successful one becomes academically.

The second finding shows that students read Hausa materials correctly but slowly. This result confirmed what Rasinski, & Hofman (2003) discovered, that grade nine students read texts accurately. The area of disparity between Rasinski, & Hofman (2003) and this study is that the purpose and the subjects; Rasinski, & Hofman (2003) research conducted to find out if lack of reading fluency is the source of grade nine students difficulties in reading while this study examine JSS II students reading fluency levels. LaBerge & Samuels (1974) states that it is not enough for readers to read the words in text accurately; they also need to read the words automatically (with speed). Therefore, necessary actions need to be taken as recommended in this study. And this finding has broken a new ground by discovering the students’ reading accuracy level.

The third finding shows that the students read Hausa texts without proper prosody; some time they read word by word throughout the texts. The result confirmed Abram (2012) who conducted a related study. According to his study, the both groups of males and females students in his study lost ground with regards to prosody as they read without good or proper prosody.

The finding has broken a new ground by discovering the students’ reading prosody level for the further assistance and this could be insisted through wide and deep reading practice just as Rasinki (2012) stated that Prosody is developed through wide and deep reading practice. As readers read widely they encounter different texts that require different prosodic elements to read with appropriate expression and meaning. As readers read deeply (reading one text several times), they gradually recognize and embed into their reading the prosody elements that allow for a meaningful and expressive rendition of the text.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presented the summary of study, conclusion, and implications, with recommendations. This chapter also provided areas for further study.

5.2 Summary

The study was undertaken in order to Analyse Hausa Reading Fluency among Junior Secondary Schools Students of Kaduna State with Teaching Implication. It attempted to find out the JSS students' reading fluency levels based on such aspects as reading rate, accuracy and prosody. The study adopted descriptive design method and used a sample size of 180 students across six Junior Secondary Schools classes. Three different Hausa reading passages from three Hausa novels: "So Aljannar Duniya", "Jiki Magayi" and "Shaihu Umar" were adopted as instruments of the study. Chi-square and descriptive statistics were used in testing the hypotheses and analyzing the data of this study. The study discovered that JSS students read Hausa texts slowly but correctly though without proper prosody. It finally recommended the addition of Hausa reading fluency in the JSS curriculum and to establishment of a Hausa reading fluency benchmark. To enable the students and the teachers to test and know their fluency improvements from time to time, the study finally recommended the recruitment of more Hausa teachers as well as improvisation reading materials in teaching.

4.3 Implications of the Findings

This study analysed Hausa reading fluency of JSS II students, base on the fluency benchmark. Therefore, the implications are discussed in relation to the students, Hausa teachers, curriculum developers, as well as schools.

5.4.1 Implication for Students

This study discovered that the students read Hausa texts slowly, without proper prosody but correctly and no Hausa fluency benchmarks as well as reading fluency curriculum exist for JSS. Therefore, the curriculum of Hausa reading fluency and fluency benchmarks proposed by this study will give opportune to the students test their reading speed time to time and also teachers to test the students' fluency improvement. (See Appendix 6).

5.4.2 Implication for Teachers

The straight and weaknesses discovered in the students' reading fluency will help the teachers to recognize the kind of assistance the students need and without discovering the weaknesses; teachers may not be instructing their students in a manner that will truly promote their reading fluency level.

5.4.3 Implication for Curriculum Developers

Reading fluency improves overall reading proficiency, this study also dicovered that reading fluency is not subject of instructions in junior secondary schools. Therefore, the study can inspire curriculum planers to include Hausa reading fluency in the secondary school's curriculum as a curriculum proposed by the present study. (See Appendix 6).

5.5 Conclusion

This study now discovered that students read Hausa texts slowly but correctly, though they read without proper prosody; as they read with improper or inadequate intonation. Therefore, these students read below the expected benchmark of JSS II students.

5.6 Recommendations

Considering the poor level of JSS students' reading fluency, the followings recommendations are made based on the findings:

1. A Hausa reading fluency benchmark should be established for Junior Secondary Schools classes especially JSS II to monitor the students' reading progress.
2. Hausa reading fluency should be added in the schools' curriculum as well as to be a subject of instruction in Junior Secondary Schools. This is because children need to practice reading every day to become fluent readers. The class timetable should include at least one hour per day for reading.
3. In the absence of schools' Hausa reading textbooks, the students should be provided with some or improvised with Hausa reading textbooks or throw-away Hausa Magazines, Newspapers and so on, because students cannot practice reading without reading materials. Education authorities should ensure that Hausa books are provided to every student, so that they can practice reading every day in their classrooms.
4. More Hausa teachers should be employed and trained on how to teach reading fluency, and provide them with ongoing support.
5. Teachers should adopt learner centre approaches to teaching reading where emphasis is more on students' active participation in class activities. More emphasis should be placed

on doing, role play, storytelling, songs stimulation and dramatization. In addition to this, students should be encouraged to read Newspapers, Novels, Magazines, etc to improve on their reading fluency.

5.7 Suggestion for Further Study

Below are the areas suggested for further studies:

1. There is need for similar study that will cover a larger size than this study considered "Analysis of Hausa Reading Fluency across Junior Secondary School Students in Kaduna State with Teaching Implications."
2. A similar study should be conducted on Federal Government Unity Schools, Private Schools and Government Senior Secondary Schools.
3. Another study can be considered on the effect of reading fluency on students' performance.

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APPENDIX 1A

2009 Multidimensional Fluency Rubric

A.	**Phrasing and Expression**
4	Reads with good expression and enthusiasm throughout the text. Sounds like natural language throughout the text. Varies expression and volume to match his or her interpretation. Generally well-phrased and meaningful; mostly in phrase, clause, and sentence units, with adequate attention to expression.
3	Makes text sound like natural language throughout the better part of the passage. Mixture of run-ons, mid-sentence pauses for breath, and possibly some choppiness; reasonable stress/intonation.
2	Begins to use voice to sound like natural language in some areas of the text but not others. Generally two and three word phrases, which break up the reading; improper or inadequate stress and intonation; fails to mark tile ends of sentences, clauses, and phrases.
1	Little sense of trying to make text sound like natural language. Tends to read in a quiet voice and/or monotonic, unenthusiastic reading, with little sense of phrase boundaries. May be frequent word-by-word reading or run-on word calling with no attention to expression.
B.	**Accuracy and Smoothness**
4	Generally smooth and accurate reading with a few decoding breaks; word and structure difficulties are resolved quickly, usually through self-correction. Smooth phrasing enhances the interpretation.
3	Occasional decoding breaks in smoothness caused by difficulties with specific words and/or syntactic structures. Additions or deletions are minimal and usually resolved. Smoothness includes attention to phrases.
2	"Rough spots" in text where extended pauses, hesitations, sound outs, etc., may be frequent and disruptive. Student may add or delete words without correcting. There may be a combination of rough and smooth spots with little attention to phrasing.
1	Extended pauses, hesitations, sound-outs, repetitions, or multiple attempts MAY be present. Words may be changed, added and/or deleted without notice. The reader does not attend to the smooth delivery of phrases.
C.	**Pacing**
4	Consistently conversational; appropriate rate throughout reading. Pace enhances the meaning of the text.
2	Mixture of appropriately quick and overly slow or fast reading. Attention to the effect of pace on meaning throughout most of the text.
3	Generally inappropriate speed for the text. Pays little attention to the effect of speed on the meaning of the text.
1	Inappropriate speed; slow and laborious or run-on. Ignores the effect of speed on the meaning of the text.

Source: Rasinski & Johnston (2009)

APPENDIX 1B

Curriculum-Based Measurement Reading Fluency Approach.

1. Find a passage(s) of approximately 250 words written at the student's grade placement. Submit the passage to a text readability formula to estimate its grade appropriateness.

2. Ask the student to read the passage for one minute. Emphasize that the text should be read aloud in a normal way, and not faster than normal.

3. Mark any uncorrected errors made by the student. Errors include mispronunciations, substitutions, reversals, omissions, or words pronounced by the examiner after a wait of 2-3 seconds without an attempt or response from the student. Mark the point in the text the student has come to after one minute of reading.

4. Repeat steps 1 and 2 with two different passages (optional). If you choose to repeat the process, use the median or middle score for analysis.

5. Determine accuracy by dividing the number of words read correctly per minute (WCPM) by the total number of words read (WCPM + any uncorrected errors). This number will be a percentage.

6. Determine the rate by calculating the total number of WCPM.

Source: Deno (1985)

APPENDIX 2A

Guided reading (1)

UMURNI: Buɗe murya daidai gwargwado ka/ki karanta wannnan labarin cikin minti ɗaya, a karanta da sauri kuma da kyau, da zarar an ce fara kuma a tsaya da zarar an ce tsaya.

YA YI AIKI DA MAGANIN

Ran nan da dare kafa duk ta ɗauke, sai Abubakar ya tashi, ya wanke hannunsa da maganin da Tausayinka-da-sauki ya ba shi, ya fita sai gidan malam Shehu, ya shiga shamaki ya ga ɗakin da Kyauta yake. Ya shiga ya iske duk suna barci. Sai ya kware jikinsa; ya shafe shi da hannunsa. Ya ɓallo almakashi daga ratayensa, ya datsi gashin kansa. Ya fita abinsa.

Ya sake shiga cikin gida kuma, ya tafi ɗakin Zainabu ya iske ta tana sharar barci, "ta ce wane ne?" Ya ce "Ni ne Abubakar wanda kika ci fuska tasa. Kin sani sabo da ke ce na bar garin nan, na shiga duniya, na sha kowace irin azaba. Amman na komo in shaida maki ranar sakayyya ta zo. Ki ji abin da zan gaya miki, don ki sani ba wanda zai ci fuskata ya zauna lafiya. . Ɗanki da kika haifa zai zama lalatacce. Don albarka kuka same shi, amma zai zama la'ana, zai jawo muku abin kunya da ɓacin rai, har wata rana zai zama sanadin kisan ubansa !" Sai ya juya akan sawunsa ya fita abinsa. Da asuba Zainab ta farka tana zullimi a ranta.

APPENDIX 2B

Guided reading (2)

UMURNI: Buɗe murya daidai gwargwado ka/ki karanta wannnan labarin cikin minti ɗaya, a karanta da sauri kuma da kyau, da zarar an ce fara kuma a tsaya da zarar an ce tsaya.

SO ALJANNAR DUNIYA

"Mhm ! Wannan zamani, Allah ya sauwaƙa. Yarinya ki zauna kina zancen aurenki, sai ka ce hirar nono da mai. Don haka fa ba ma son sa ɗiyarmu makarantar boko. In kun yi karatu sai ku ce kun fi kowa. Me kuka ɗauke mu ne?"

"Haba Inna! In ba mu ɗauke ku komai ba, to wa za mu ɗauka komai? Inna in ba don karatu ba da yanzu ina sayar da nono. In wuni ina yawo ga yunwa ga wahala, ga rashin sutura, da ɗan zane fingil. Yanzu fa dubi gidan nan. Da ni da Giɗe da ba mu yi karatu ba, ma gyara gidan nan? Ma kai Baba da Goggo Makka. Badi kuma dake da Goggo karama. Inna ko kin san kudin da nake ɗauka a wata daya shi ne kuɗin da kike samu a shekara?"

"Shekara Boɗaɗo! Haba, wasa kike yi. Ni na san dai aikin da kike yi, na san kina samun kuɗi. Kun gama ɗakunan da kuke yi? Mu ba mu san kome za ku yi da su ba har yanzu." "Gini da kuke gani wajen shan magani ne. Inna ni kam zan tafi yanzu; amma na yi maki alkawari zan zo har gida in gaya miki abin da muke nufi da shan magani."

APPENDIX 2C

Guided Reading (3)

UMURNI: Buɗe murya daidai gwargwado ka/ki karanta wannnan labarin cikin minti ɗaya, a karanta da sauri kuma da kyau, da zarar an ce fara kuma a tsaya da zarar an ce tsaya.

MAHAIFIYATA TA GAN NI

Sai ta dube ni ta ce, "Umar ! kai ne?" Sai ta fashe da kuka. Ni dai ina tsaye ina mamaki, sai na ji jikina ya yi sanyi. Na tambayi Abdulkarim, "Wace ce wannan? Ina dalilin da take kuka?" Sai uwata ta amsa ta ce, "Ni ce mahaifiyarka, shekarun nan da yawa ina neman ka, sai yau Allah ya haɗa mu." Ta yi wuf ta rungume ni, ni dai na kasa magana.

Sai Abdulkarim ya ce mu tafi masauki. Da muka tafi hankalinta ya komo, ta yi ta ba ni labarin abin da ya same ta duka. Ni kuma na gaya mata nawa. Sa'annan na ce "Yanzu dai sai na kai ki gida, in Allah ya yarda." Sai ta ce "Kayya na rabke. Na sani ba zan koma gida ba, amma tunda dai na gan ka ya ishe ni kai dai Allah ya kai ka gida, ka ga sauran danginka." Na ce "Kada ki ce haka, Allah ya sauwaka." Ashe karfinta ya rigaya ya kare, saboda wahalar da ta sha, ga kuma murnar gani na ta yi mata yawa. Daga nan ba ta ƙara tashi ba. Ashe Allah ne ya sa muna da rabon ganawa. Bayan kwana kaɗan sai ta rasu. Muka yi mata sutura. Da ta yi bakwai muka miƙa. Ni dai tafe na ke kawai, amma zuciyata tana cike da abin da ya auku gare ni. Kwanci tashi, ba abin da ya same mu a hanya har muka kai Murzuk.

APPENDIX 3A

SCORE GUIDE (1)

Name of Student……………………………………...Class……………Age…...……………..

School…………………………………….Sex……………Date………………..Time: 1minute

YA YI AIKI DA MAGANIN

Ran nan da dare kafa duk ta ɗauke, sai Abubakar ya tashi, ya wanke hannunsa da 16
maganin da Tausayinka-da-sauki ya ba shi, ya fita sai gidan malam Shehu, ya shiga 30
shamaki ya ga ɗakin da Kyauta yake. Ya shiga ya iske duk suna barci. Sai ya 46
kware jikinsa; ya shafe shi da hannunsa. Ya ɓallo almakashi daga ratayensa, ya 59
datsi gashin kansa. Ya fita abinsa. 65

Ya sake shiga cikin gida kuma, ya tafi ɗakin Zainabu ya iske ta tana sharar 80
barci, "ta ce wane ne?" Ya ce "Ni ne Abubakar wanda kika ci fuska tasa. Kin sani 97
sabo da ke ce na bar garin nan, na shiga duniya, na sha kowace irin azaba. Amman 114

na komo in shaida maki ranar sakayya ta zo. Ki ji abin da zan gaya miki, don ki 132
sani ba wanda zai ci fuskata ya zauna lafiya. . Ɗanki da kika haifa zai zama 147
lalatacce. Don albarka kuka same shi, amma zai zama la'ana, zai jawo muku abin 161
kunya da ɓacin rai, har wata rana zai zama sanadin kisan ubansa !" Sai ya juya 175
akan sawunsa ya fita abinsa. Da asuba Zainab ta farka tana zullimi a ranta. 189

FLUENCY SCORE

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="3">ACCURACY</td><td colspan="3">Words Read Per Minute (WRPM) ………………No. of Errors…………….
WCPM………………… ÷ WRPM………………. × 100 = ………………..%</td></tr>
<tr><td>Independent Level 98%</td><td>Instructional Level 90 to 97%</td><td>Frustration Level Less than 90%</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">RATE</td><td>1 Passage WCPM</td><td>2 Passage WCPM</td><td>3 Passage WCPM</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">MULTIDIMENSIONAL FLUENCY SCALE …………………………………………………</td></tr>
</table>

APPENDIX 3B

SCORE GUIDE (2)

Name of Student………………………………………..............Class…………. Age……..........

School……………………………………………Sex. ……………Date…………Time: 1minute

SO ALJANNAR DUNIYA

"Mhm ! Wannan zamani, Allah ya sauwaƙa. Yarinya ki zauna kina zancen aurenki, 12
sai ka ce hirar nono da mai. Don haka fa ba ma son sa ɗiyarmu makarantar boko. In 29
kun yi karatu sai ku ce kun fi kowa. Me kuka ɗauke mu ne?" 43

"Haba Inna! In ba mu ɗauke ku komai ba, to wa za mu ɗauka komai? Inna in ba 61
don karatu ba da yanzu ina sayar da nono. In wuni ina yawo ga yunwa ga wahala, 78
ga rashin sutura, da ɗan zane fingil. Yanzu fa dubi gidan nan. Da ni da Giɗe da ba 96
mu yi karatu ba, ma gyara gidan nan? Ma kai Baba da Goggo Makka. Badi kuma 112
dake da Goggo karama. Inna ko kin san kudin da nake ɗauka a wata daya shi ne 130
kuɗin da kike samu a shekara?" 134

"Shekara Boɗaɗo! Haba, wasa kike yi. Ni na san dai aikin da kike yi, na san kina 151
samun kuɗi. Kun gama ɗakunan da kuke yi? Mu ba mu san kome za ku yi da su ba 168
har yanzu." "Gini da kuke gani wajen shan magani ne. Inna ni kam zan tafi yanzu; 184
amma na yi maki alkawari zan zo har gida in gaya miki abin da muke nufi da shan 202
magani." 203

FLUENCY SCORE

ACCURACY	Words Read Per Minute (WRPM) ………………No. of Errors…………….. WCPM………………… ÷ WRPM………………. × 100 = ………………..%		
	Independent Level 98%	Instructional Level 90 to 97%	Frustration Level Less than 90%
RATE	1 Passage WCPM	2 Passage WCPM	3 Passage WCPM
MULTIDIMENSIONAL FLUENCY SCALE…………………………………………………………			

APPENDIX 3C

SCORE GUIDE (3)

Name of Student………………………………………...Class……………Age…....……………..

School…………………………………….Sex……………Date………………..Time: 1minute

MAHAIFIYATA TA GAN NI

Sai ta dube ni ta ce, “Umar ! kai ne?” Sai ta fashe da kuka. Ni dai ina tsaye ina 19
mamaki, sai na ji jikina ya yi sanyi. Na tambayi Abdulkarim, “Wace ce wannan? 33
Ina dalilin da take kuka?” Sai uwata ta amsa ta ce, “Ni ce mahaifiyarka, shekarun 48
nan da yawa ina neman ka, sai yau Allah ya haɗa mu.” Ta yi wuf ta rungume ni, ni 67
dai na kasa magana. 71

Sai Abdulkarim ya ce mu tafi masauki. Da muka tafi hankalinta ya komo, ta yi 86
ta ba ni labarin abin da ya same ta duka. Ni kuma na gaya mata nawa. Sa’annan na 104
ce “Yanzu dai sai na kai ki gida, in Allah ya yarda.” Sai ta ce “Kayya na rabke. Na 123
sani ba zan koma gida ba, amma tunda dai na gan ka ya ishe ni kai dai Allah ya kai 143
ka gida, ka ga sauran danginka.” Na ce “Kada ki ce haka, Allah ya sauwaka.” Ashe 159
karfinta ya rigaya ya kare, saboda wahalar da ta sha, ga kuma murnar gani na ta yi 176
mata yawa. Daga nan ba ta ƙara tashi ba. Ashe Allah ne ya sa muna da rabon 193
ganawa. Bayan kwana kaɗan sai ta rasu. Muka yi mata sutura. Da ta yi bakwai 208
muka miƙa. Ni dai tafe na ke kawai, amma zuciyata tana cike da abin da ya auku 225
gare ni. Kwanci tashi, ba abin da ya same mu a hanya har muka kai Murzuk. 241

FLUENCY SCORE

ACCURACY	Words Read Per Minute (WRPM) ………………No. of Errors…………….. WCPM………………… ÷ WRPM………………. × 100 = ………………..%		
	Independent Level 98%	Instructional Level 90 to 97%	Frustration Level Less than 90%
RATE	1 Passage WCPM	2 Passage WCPM	3 Passage WCPM
MULTIDIMENSIONAL FLUENCY SCALE ………………………………………………………			

APPENDIX 4

Reading Accuracy Norms

Independent Level	Instructional Level	Frustration Level
98 to 100% accuracy	90 to 97%	Less than 90% accuracy

From: QRI-3, 2001, pp. 68 & 64. Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.

APPENDIX 5A

Results of the First School: GSS Kwangila (jnr)

Participants	Score (WCPM)	WRPM	Percentage of Accuracy	Reading Prosody (Score)
1	16	20	80	2
2	75	77	97	3
3	90	91	99	2
4	92	95	97	4
5	85	90	94	3
6	54	60	90	2
7	108	109	99	4
8	77	84	92	2
9	53	57	93	2
10	93	93	100	3
11	57	57	100	3
12	88	90	98	3
13	45	51	88	2
14	57	58	98	2
15	34	37	91	1
16	89	92	97	2
17	58	63	92	2
18	95	100	95	4
19	110	112	98	4
20	79	79	98	3
21	97	98	99	2
22	57	62	92	2
23	67	71	94	2
24	79	79	100	2
25	65	68	96	1
26	86	89	97	2
27	92	99	93	4
28	63	64	98	3
29	52	55	95	3
30	72	74	97	4

APPENDIX 5B

Results of the Second School: GJSS Hunƙuyi.

Participants	Score (WCPM)	WRPM	Percentage of Accuracy	Reading Prosody (Scores)
1	38	44	86	1
2	97	97	100	4
3	46	48	96	1
4	139	140	99	4
5	53	57	93	1
6	54	55	98	2
7	82	84	98	2
8	0	0	0	0
9	19	24	79	1
10	44	46	96	2
11	38	45	84	1
12	50	53	94	3
13	103	105	98	4
14	16	19	84	1
15	104	106	98	4
16	0	0	0	0
17	0	0	0	0
18	26	30	87	1
19	0	0	0	0
20	0	0	0	0
21	13	19	68	1
22	94	95	99	4
23	52	58	89	2
24	86	87	99	3
25	104	104	100	3
26	49	60	82	2
27	43	44	98	2
28	80	83	96	2
29	64	65	98	3
30	87	92	95	2

APPENDIX 5C

Results of the Third School: GGSS Samaru (jnr).

Participants	Score (WCPM)	WRPM	Percentage of Accuracy	Reading Prosody (Scores)
1	86	89	88	2
2	61	73	89	4
3	110	113	97	4
4	54	56	96	4
5	136	141	96	4
6	129	134	96	4
7	163	164	99	3
8	31	36	86	1
9	72	85	85	2
10	119	120	99	3
11	99	103	96	3
12	77	84	92	2
13	68	75	91	2
14	101	108	94	3
15	85	86	99	2
16	58	86	67	2
17	55	59	93	4
18	84	86	98	4
19	96	103	93	4
20	27	36	75	1
21	87	98	89	2
22	78	88	89	3
23	24	33	73	1
24	95	96	99	3
25	58	65	89	3
26	112	114	98	3
27	122	123	99	3
28	135	140	96	3
29	63	69	91	2
30	59	63	94	2

APPENDIX 5D

Results of the Fourth School: GJSS Maraban Guga.

Participants	Score (WCPM)	WRPM	Percentage of Accuracy	Reading Prosody (Scores)
1	97	98	99	3
2	139	141	99	3
3	86	87	99	2
4	73	75	97	2
5	90	92	98	3
6	109	112	97	3
7	86	89	97	2
8	72	72	100	1
9	21	26	81	1
10	15	19	79	1
11	66	69	96	2
12	42	47	89	1
13	20	25	80	1
14	147	151	97	3
15	109	114	96	3
16	36	37	97	1
17	96	99	97	2
18	24	35	69	2
19	147	148	99	4
20	129	136	95	3
21	43	53	81	2
22	75	80	94	2
23	109	112	97	4
24	74	75	99	3
25	0	0	0	0
26	10	14	71	1
27	37	38	97	1
28	97	98	99	4
29	89	93	96	3
30	0	0	0	0

APPENDIX 5E

Results of the Fifth School: GSS Giwa (Jnr).

Participants	Score (WCPM)	WRPM	Percentage of Accuracy	Reading Prosody (Scores)
1	94	97	97	4
2	6	12	50	1
3	16	21	76	1
4	102	104	98	3
5	53	55	96	2
6	59	61	97	2
7	104	106	98	3
8	0	0	0	0
9	82	84	98	3
10	21	42	50	1
11	71	73	97	3
12	106	108	98	4
13	0	0	0	0
14	0	0	0	0
15	116	120	97	3
16	15	23	65	1
17	25	37	68	1
18	6	19	32	1
19	18	23	78	1
20	87	89	98	3
21	102	109	94	4
22	60	62	97	3
23	103	103	100	4
24	81	81	100	4
25	55	57	96	4
26	89	91	98	3
27	67	70	96	2
28	68	73	93	3
29	105	105	100	4
30	58	64	91	2

APPENDIX 5F

Results of the Sixth School: G J S S Kudan.

Participants	Score (WCPM)	WRPM	Percentage of Accuracy	Reading Prosody (Scores)
1	16	20	80	2
2	34	37	91	1
3	66	69	97	1
4	65	68	96	2
5	64	65	98	2
6	59	64	95	2
7	163	164	99	3
8	31	36	86	1
9	66	79	85	2
10	119	120	99	3
11	0	0	0	0
12	10	14	71	1
13	37	38	97	1
14	97	98	99	4
15	89	93	96	3
16	0	0	0	0
17	94	97	97	4
18	6	12	50	1
19	16	21	76	1
20	102	104	98	3
21	53	55	96	2
22	93	93	100	3
23	57	57	100	3
24	64	46	98	3
25	45	51	88	2
26	57	58	98	2
27	34	37	91	1
28	139	140	99	4
29	53	57	93	1
30	54	55	98	2

APPENDIX 6A

Curriculum of Hausa Reading Fluency Proposed by this Study for JSS II Students

Topic	Objectives	Activities		Teaching and Learning Material	Evaluation Guide
		Teachers	Students		
Cut-out Story Materials	1.Recognize & decode words effortlessly 2.Reading the story with speed 3.Develop the ability to understand the message of the story	1.Prepare the students for the content of the story they are going to read 2.Discuss the pictures that company the pictures 3.Gating the students to think of some vocabulary items that will appear in the story 4.Teacher read the story clearly & loudly, while the students follow silently in their copies 5.Time the students 6.Ask the students to read the story loudly in pair or small groups 7.Ask few question from the story	1.Discuss the pictures that accompany the story assigned to them 2.Discuss some vocabulary items that appeared in the story 3.Read the story loudly & quickly within the time given 4. Discuss the first post-reading questions. Working in pairs or groups before answering the questions 5. Read the story multiple times	1.Story cut-out materials 2.Time reading chart 3.Stopwatch	1.The students would be timed to read within the time given 2.They would be asked to say what the story is about

APPENDIX 6B

Curriculum of Hausa Reading Fluency Proposed by this Study for JSS II Students

Topic	**Objectives**	**Activities**		**Teaching and Learning Material**	**Evaluation Guide**
		Teachers	**Students**		
Folktale Materials	1.Decode words correctly & 2.Read smoothly	1.Assign a reading material to the students 2. Discuss some vocabulary items that will appear in the folktale materials 3.Take note on the students reading errors & correct them	1.Discuss some vocabulary items that will appear in the folktale & read them silently 2.Read the text correctly & slowly 3.Re-read the corrections made by the teacher 4.Say what the folktale is about 5.Read the text multiple times	1.Folktale materials 2.Teacher's guide/miscue chart 3.Story books on folktale	1.The students would be asked to read correctly & as the students read, the teacher score their uncorrected errors and mispronunciations made by the students

APPENDIX 6C

Curriculum of Hausa Reading Fluency Proposed by this Study for JSS II Students

Topic	Objectives	Activities		Teaching and Learning Material	Evaluation Guide
		Teachers	Students		
Poetry	1.Read with proper intonation 2.Read smoothly 3.Understand the theme of the poem 4.Ability to use readers theatre process	1.Assign a poem to the students 2.Coach & provide direction for expressiveness during the students rehearsals	1.Read with meaningful phrase, intonation, & punctuation 2.Read with demonstration	1.Poem material 2.Other anthologies	1.The students would be asked to read with appropriate intonation and rhythm