Implementation of Evidence-Based Book-Reading Strategies by Head Start Teachers: Benefits of Professional Development and Effect on Children's Literacy Outcomes

by

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Abstract

Evidence strongly supports shared book-reading (SBR) as an opportune intervention for developing early literacy and language development in at-risk preschool-aged children. Many teachers of high-risk preschoolers, however, lack the instructional skills and evidence-based strategies essential for the most effective storybook experience. Twenty-three teachers and 354 students in low-income, urban, center-based programs participated in a randomized control investigation of the (a) effects of ongoing professional development/coaching (PD/C) and education status on teachers' implementation of evidence-based SBR strategies, and (b) students' early literacy outcomes given teachers' level of implementation of SBR strategies. Multiple regression analysis demonstrated that PD/C contributed to teachers' SBR practices. Teachers' educational status also contributed to SBR implementation. This study also found that teachers' implementation of shared book-reading strategies contributed to students' early literacy outcomes. Specifically, students' scores in name writing, rhyme awareness, vocabulary, and print/book awareness were positively affected by teachers' implementation of evidence-based SBR strategies. Implications of findings and future directions for continual research are discussed.

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

With the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Commissioner of Education was instructed to carry out a survey to discover inequalities of educational opportunity based on a child's race, ethnicity, and religion in United States public schools at the time. The report, Equality of Educational Opportunity (1966), later shortened to the Coleman Report, was groundbreaking in that the principal focus of attention was not only on the differences in schools, teacher characteristics, or segregation matters but also the educational outcomes based on a youth's race. The Coleman Report found that minority youth enter school with an educational deficiency, due primarily to their home environments, and they leave school with an even wider educational deficiency, due primarily to their low-quality educational environments. Indeed, these findings catapulted early childhood preschool programs for minority children, specifically those living in poverty. Although over the last 50 years, research has demonstrated positive outcomes for children served in high-quality early learning environments like the Perry Preschool Project and the Abecedarian Project (Brooks-Gunn, 2003; Rouse, Brooks-Gunn, & McLanahan, 2005). Concern still persists that federally-funded programs like Head Start, Early Head Start, and Title I have not achieved the same successes as earlier, smaller-scale projects. For example, the most recent Head Start Impact Study indicated small to moderate effects on several measures of cognitive development and small to no effects on social skills and behavioral problems (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services [USDHHS], 2010). These results are

consistent with earlier research indicating that Head Start's impact on IQ and other cognitive measures fades out in the elementary grades (Zigler & Muenchow, 1992).

Accountability in Early Childhood

Given the amount of federal dollars allocated to early childhood, policymakers have increasingly stressed the importance for high-quality, federally-funded preschool programs. For example, the 1990s witnessed an increase in accountability for early learning outcomes among preschool programs, including Head Start, with the passage of Goals 2000: Educate America Act (PL 103-227). The Act provided resources to states and communities to ensure that all students reached their full potential, and is based on the premise that students will attain higher levels of achievement when more is expected of them. Goals 2000 established a framework to identify academic standards, to measure student progress, and to provide student support to meet standards (Paris, 1994). The first goal in Goals 2000 is that by the year 2000 all children will begin school ready to learn. The Goal 1 Technical Planning Group identified five areas of development integral for school readiness, including motor development, social and emotional development, approaches towards learning, language development, and general knowledge. In another example, Congress required in the 1998 reauthorization of Head Start that benchmarks and early learning goals ensue (Grisham-Brown, Hallam, & Pretti-Frontczak, 2008). Further emphasis on school readiness occurred with the passage of the Good Start, Grow Smart Initiative (2002), an outgrowth of the No Child Left Behind Act (PL 107-110). The Good Start, Grow Smart Initiative ([GSGS]; USDHHS, 2003) targets Head Start and early childhood development programs that assist children from low-income backgrounds and draws attention to the need for

young children to have the opportunity to learn fundamental skills that will prepare them for success in school.

School Readiness Skills

As discussed, specific school readiness skill requirements resulted from the increase in educational standards and policies to measure and account for high-quality, effective programming. Although the concept of "school readiness" has engendered considerable national attention (Hojnoski & Missall, 2006), there is general consensus around five early learning and developmental domains: (a) physical well-being and motor development; (b) social and emotional development; (c) approaches to learning; (d) language development; and (e) cognition and general knowledge (Kagan, Moore, & Bredekamp, 1995). Whereas all of the school readiness domains are critical for optimal school entry, the language development domain has garnered much attention because of the long-term impact of literacy and language on later academic success (e.g., Scarborough, 2001, Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998).

Preschool children experiencing difficulties with acquiring early literacy and language skills are at an increased risk of entering kindergarten without the foundational skills necessary

Importance of Language Development in Early Childhood

skills are at an increased risk of entering kindergarten without the foundational skills necessary for continued academic success. In addition, children with poor foundational reading skills at kindergarten tend to remain poor readers, only widening the gap between those students who have strong literacy skills and those who do not (Badian, 2000; Scarborough, 2001; Snow et al., 1998). Findings indicate that early reading failure continues throughout a child's academic career (National Early Literacy Panel, [NELP] 2009; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998, 2001). For example,

Juel (1988) found a high probability that poor readers at the end of first grade were the same students performing poorly at the end of fourth grade. In another longitudinal study, Cunningham and Stanovich (1998) followed a cohort of children from Grade 1 to 11 and found that 1st-grade reading ability was reliably linked to 11th-grade exposure to print. The long-term impact of poor reading skills in preschool and elementary school can also lead to student disengagement and increased numbers of high school drop-outs (Scarborough, 2001; Snow et al., 1998).

Findings have demonstrated high degrees of stability in literacy skills over time and the importance that early literacy and language skills have on continued reading success (Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998). This highlights the importance for interventions of early literacy and language skills especially for children being served in early intervention service programs, specifically Early Head Start and Head Start. These programs serve low-income, predominately non-White, children and those with limited English proficiency. Researchers (e.g., Snow et al., 1998) consider these as characteristics that place children "at-risk" for having difficulties acquiring early literacy and language skills.

Professional Development for Early Childhood Educators

National initiatives such as Early Reading First and the Early Childhood Educator

Professional Development Program have funded professional development opportunities for
early childhood educators. These initiatives target individuals who educate at-risk populations, in
an effort to increase teacher effectiveness and student outcomes. Programs and grants like these
arose from research demonstrating that teacher quality in early childhood leads to better

outcomes for young children (Whitebook, 2003a, 2003b). Although the National Association for the Education of Young Children ([NAEYC], 2006) standards emphasize the importance of high levels of formal education and specialization in early childhood, the reality is that many early childhood educators are not highly educated, especially Early Head Start, Head Start, and Title I preschool teachers. The limited number of preschool teachers with higher education degrees arises because certification requirements for early childhood educators are nonexistent in some states. In addition, preschool teachers have generally lower salaries than do elementary school teachers, and thus these teachers have lower status (Snow et al., 1998). Given this conundrum, professional development for early childhood educators must work on improving the current work force.

Targets for Early Childhood Professional Development

In a recent literature review, Zaslow and colleagues outlined the four targets of early childhood professional development (Zaslow, Tout, Halle, Whittaker, & Lavelle, 2010). Their review found that effective professional development efforts target one or more of these areas:

(a) improving the human and social capital of early childhood educators; (b) strengthening the institutions or organizations providing the professional development; (c) strengthening early educator practices to improve children's outcomes in specific developmental domains (e.g., early literacy, mathematics, social/behavioral); and (d) improving the overall quality of early childhood settings. The third target of professional development identified by Zaslow et al. (2010), strengthening early educator practices related to specific outcomes, is the focus of the present study. This professional development area focuses on the implementation of specific

curricula, practices, activities, and/or content related to student outcomes. Research on professional development that targets this area is interested in learning whether children's academic and/or social outcomes change and whether their development is affected when early educators are given professional development to implement specific curricula or instructional practices.

Professional development is synonymous with in-service training and staff development. Topics for professional development tend to be eclectic with an emphasis on specific methods of teaching reading which might include methods for classroom management, designing lessons, and conducting cooperative learning activities (National Reading Panel, 2000). According to the National Reading Panel ([NRP], 2000) in order for professional development to be effective it must produce desirable changes in both the teachers and the students. A valuable finding from the NRP (2000) report indicated that when teacher outcomes showed significant improvement so too did student outcomes. In the present study, the professional development model of Joyce and Showers (1980) was the foundation and premise for the targeted activities. Best practices in professional development include: (a) training over an extended period of time, (b) an embedded mentor component to provide the teacher with demonstrations, assistance, and feedback in the classroom, and (c) regular meetings for discussion regarding instructional issues and individual students.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was twofold. First, this study extends current knowledge about effective teacher professional development by evaluating the benefits of a combined training-

and-coaching approach on teachers' implementation of evidence-based literacy and language strategies during shared book reading with Head Start children. Second, it investigated the effects of evidence-based early literacy and language strategies, including a shared book-reading approach that combines dialogic reading and print referencing. The following literature review addresses the background of emergent literacy and specific skills strategies for implementing evidence-based early literacy and language practices, specific components for effective training and coaching for early childhood staff, and the relevant studies about shared book reading.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

Background of Emergent Literacy

The language acquisition research that began during the 1960s and early 1970s at Harvard's Center for Cognitive Studies gave birth to a new perspective of reading acquisition termed "emergent literacy." Prior to this time (beginning in the 1920s), much emphasis was placed on the "reading readiness" philosophy which analyzed literacy skills from the perspective that formal reading begins after biological maturation. In this way, the reading readiness philosophers postulated two things:

First, it leads them to conceptualize the early reading period (and the behaviors of the child during this period) as precursors to 'real' reading or writing, implying that only after the child has mastered the various subskills of reading readiness does the real part begin. Second, and closely related, it tells teachers and parents that learning to read and write begins in a school-like setting where these readiness skills can be taught. Thus, materials designed for use with young children either in home, school or school-like settings are inevitably modeled on formal, sequenced, direct instruction (Teale & Sulzby, 1986, p. xiv).

In contrast, the emergent literacy perspective views children's early literacy experiences as paramount for later reading success. An emergent literacy perspective views the development of literacy skills as emerging along a developmental continuum beginning prior to formal schooling in the preschool period (birth to 5 years). In addition, an emergent literacy perspective views reading, writing, and oral language occurring concurrently through young children's exposure to and experiences in literacy-rich social environments. The social, interactive, and reciprocal interactions between a child and adult, as well as the child's independent investigation of

language, are fundamental tenets to emergent literacy research and findings (see Teale & Sulzby, 1986 for full review). In general, an emergent literacy perspective rests on the belief that very young children are in the process of becoming literate, and that the preschool developmental stage is the cornerstone for reading and writing in a conventional sense. In 2006, the Center for Early Literacy Learning published an article entitled "Frameworks for developing evidence-based early literacy practices" (Dunst, Trivette, Masiello, Roper, & Robyak, 2006). In this document, the authors detailed a model for describing early communication, language, and literacy development of young children from birth to 5 years of age. Of importance is their distinction of the five overlapping age ranges and three phases of literacy development (preliteracy, emergent literacy, and early literacy) (Dunst et al., 2006). For the purpose of this analysis, the terms emergent literacy and early literacy skills will be used interchangeably (which is consistent with current research) to denote all of the literacy skills, behaviors, and settings that are predictive for later reading success.

Key Emergent Literacy Skills

Researchers and organizations (Adams, 1990; Dickinson & Neuman, 2006; Dunst et al., 2006; NELP, 2009; Snow et al., 1998; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998, 2001) have identified skills that are essential for reading success. Snow and colleagues (1998) identified weaknesses in oral language, phonological awareness, and alphabet knowledge as prime targets of intervention to prevent the occurrence of significant reading problems. More recently, the National Institute for Literacy published a comprehensive report of the research pertaining to the developmental precursors to reading, writing, and spelling (NELP, 2009). In Table 1, the early literacy skills

identified by NELP are denoted. The skills, in general, are important because they demonstrate a relationship to later conventional literacy skills. The first six early literacy skills (i.e., alphabet knowledge, phonological awareness, rapid automatic naming, writing or writing name, and phonological memory) had medium to large predictive relationships with later conventional literacy and maintained their predictive power when the role of other variables was accounted for (i.e., IQ, socioeconomic status). Following the first six variables, five additional early literacy skills were moderately correlated with at least one conventional literacy skill later in life.

Table 1

National Early Literacy Panel (2009) Early Literacy Skills and Definitions

Early Literacy Skill	Definition
Alphabet Knowledge (AK)*	Knowledge of the names and sounds associated with printed letters.
Phonological Awareness (PA)*	The ability to detect, manipulate, or analyze the auditory aspects of spoken language (including the ability to distinguish or segment words, syllables, or phonemes), independent of meaning.
Rapid Automatic Naming (RAN) of letters or digits*	The ability to rapidly name a sequence of random letters or digits
RAN of objects or colors*	The ability to rapidly name a sequence of repeating random sets of pictures of objects (e.g., "car," "tree," "house," "man") or colors
Writing or Writing Name*	The ability to write letters in isolation on request or to write one's own name
Phonological Memory*	The ability to remember spoken information for a short period of time.
Concepts about Print	Knowledge of print conventions (e.g., left–right, front–back) and concepts (book cover, author, text).
Print Knowledge	A combination of elements of AK, concepts about print, and early decoding.
Reading Readiness	Usually a combination of AK, concepts of print,

	vocabulary, memory, and PA.
Oral Languaga	The ability to produce or comprehend spoken
Oral Language	language, including vocabulary and grammar.
Visual processing	The ability to match or discriminate visually
Visual processing	presented symbols.

Note. The early literacy skills which had medium to large predictive relationships with later conventional literacy skills as indicated by the results of the research review. Adapted from "Developing early literacy: Report of the National Early Literacy Panel," by National Early Literacy Panel, 2009. Published by the National Institute for Literacy.

The NELP (2009) publication has reaped both positive and negative reviews. Although the intent of this paper is not to discuss the merit or findings of the report, it is worth discussing some of the opposing thoughts to the publication. Teale, Hoffman, and Paciga (2010) and Dickinson, Golinkoff, and Hirsh-Pasek (2010) have concerns with the narrow scope of early literacy variables that were found to correlate with later conventional reading skills. Although Teale et al. (2010) agree with the findings of the report, they too have concerns regarding the potential implications of the report on policy decision-making, textbook manufacturing, and overall teachers' practices. According to Teale et al. (2010), the NELP report is insufficiently clear and overly narrow. They also argue that early childhood staff and policymakers are not always equipped with the knowledge to determine how to translate research findings into best practices for preschool children. They make a comparison between important skills, such as alphabet knowledge and phonological awareness which have been long-standing components of effective early literacy instruction, with less meaningful skills, such as rapid automatic naming of letter/digits and objects/colors. The authors state that these variables are not equal in importance, yet the report does not do a sufficient job delineating between the two. Lastly, the authors are

also concerned that early childhood stakeholders will interpret the 11 literacy variables as the *only* skills necessary for later reading success (Teale et al., 2010). Similarly, Dickinson et al. (2010) judged the NELP report to be overly narrow and inadequate in its depiction of language in early literacy development for three reasons:

(a) By focusing strictly on the size of direct effects, it fails to describe the pervasive impact of language, which often fosters reading through indirect mechanisms; language has impacts on a range of abilities that underpin multiple aspects of early reading; (b) the narrow developmental time frame that the panel was directed to analyze does not reflect the duration of the language effect; and (c) the report highlights rapidly developing codebased factors, potentially reducing the attention that practitioners will give to more slowly developing linguistic and background knowledge. (p. 305).

Dickinson et al.'s (2010) concerns are valid given the additional publication of *Early beginnings: Early literacy knowledge and instruction* (Goodson, Layzer, Simon, & Dwyer, 2009), the guide for practitioners written to communicate the report's findings to a broader audience. Although the NELP authors (Lonigan & Shanahan, 2010) disagree with the claims discussed above and by others (e.g., Neuman, 2010; Pierson & Hiebert, 2010), an important take-away message is that early literacy development occurs through a closely intertwined system of skills (Dunst et al., 2006; Snow et al., 1998; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998, 2001) and that all of these are prerequisites for successful conventional reading success.

Domains of Early Literacy

There are two domains of early literacy skills, code- and meaning-related skills. The code-related skills include alphabet knowledge, print concepts, phonological awareness, and letter-sound knowledge, whereas the meaning-related skills include vocabulary, grammatical understanding, and narrative. In all, researchers postulate that these two separate components

(code-related and meaning-related) influence each other, and influence the development of conventional reading and writing. Early literacy instruction and interventions should strive to promote both code- and meaning-related skills to be most effective (Dickinson & McCabe, 2001; Justice, Sofka, & McGinty, 2007). Table 2 denotes the code- and meaning-related skills, their definition, and specific instructional strategies that can be utilized to strengthen these core areas of emergent literacy.

Table 2

Domains of Early Literacy Definitions and Instructional Strategies

Early Literacy Skill	Definition	Early Literacy Instructional Strategy Examples		
Code-Related				
Alphabet Knowledge	Knowledge of the individual alphabet letters (upper- and lower-case)	 Interact with letters on a magnet board Alphabet blocks building and manipulations Similarities (and differences) of letters Ask children to find the letters in their name Name and familiar word writing Name letters in familiar words 		
Print Concepts	Knowledge of the rules governing the forms and functions of print	 Differentiate print from pictures Review of print directionality Point to print while reading Identify space between two words Explanation of how to read (e.g., where to begin 		

Phonological Awareness	Awareness of (or sensitivity to) the phonological segments of spoken language, including words, syllables, rimes, and phonemes	 reading, turning of the page) Nursery rhymes Use of hand and body movements to emphasize sounds and syllables Alliteration and rhyming activities: "go together" and "sounds like" Picture sorts- sorting pictures into groups that begin with the same sound Games to detect, identify, or produce rhyme or alliteration 		
Letter-Sound	Knowledge of the	 Point out initial sound in 		
Awareness	systematic linkages	words and children's names		
	between letters and sounds	 Sound games and songs 		
Meaning-Related				
Vocabulary	Words that children	 Define unfamiliar words 		
	understand (receptive	 Use concrete examples and 		
	vocabulary) and use (expressive vocabulary).	pictures to explain unknown vocabulary		
Grammatical	Understanding the system	 Model use of complex 		
Understanding	of rules governing	sentences		
	language (e.g., syntax and morphology)	• Expansion of noun phrases		
	morphology)	and verb phrases		
		• Emphasize word endings		
Narrative	Communication abilities	(e.g., -ing, -ed, -est, etc.)Opportunities for children to		
Natiative	that represent fictional or	predict stories		
	personal accounts	 Child-level independent 		
	personal accounts	book reading		
		Expansion of children's		
		comments		
		Big books		
		Talk with children		
Note Darana & Marrow, 2002.	Contar for Early Literacy Learnin	og (CELL): Ezell & Justice (2005):		

Note. Barone & Morrow, 2003; Center for Early Literacy Learning (CELL); Ezell & Justice (2005); National Institute for Literacy (2009)

Analysis from longitudinal descriptive studies (e.g., Storch & Whitehurst, 2002) link specific emergent literacy skills to later development in reading and writing. These analyses indicate that school-age decoding and reading comprehension are differentially affected by children's emergent literacy abilities. Specifically, researchers have determined that code-related skills predict later decoding abilities and meaning-related abilities predict later comprehension abilities.

Characteristics of Effective Professional Development

Over the last 40 years, researchers (e.g., Cooper, 2008; Garet et al., 2001; Showers, Joyce, & Bennett, 1987; Zaslow et al., 2010) and national organizations (e.g., National Reading Panel, 2000; National Staff Development Council, 2001) have studied and summarized the "best practices" in effective professional development. For example, Garet et al. (2001) characterized effective professional development training opportunities as those which are (a) sustained over time; (b) on site; (c) customized to the target audience; (d) gradual and based on constructivist principles; (e) grounded in the content and pedagogical skills of teaching; (f) honoring of teachers' creativity and autonomy; (g) incorporating non-evaluative observations; and (h) using pupil assessment data to evaluate effectiveness of pedagogical changes. In another example, Zaslow et al (2010) suggests that professional development in early childhood may be more effective when it entails the following characteristics: (a) there are specific and articulated objectives for professional development; (b) teacher practice is a focus; (c) entire schools and programs participate to ensure coherence; (d) the intensity and duration of the professional development match the complexity and novelty of the content; and (e) educators are given the

tools to conduct child assessments and data interpretation. It is apparent from these two examples that some convergence is evident, yet there are some differences. In 2003 Guskey conducted an analysis from the lists of 13 national organizations (e.g., Education Testing Services, Eisenhower Professional Development Program, U.S. Department of Education, National Partnership for Excellence and Accountability in Teaching, and others) of "effective professional development," and concluded that there was not clear consensus on the criteria for effective professional development. Guskey even noted contradictions in characteristics between lists.

Although there is not clear consensus on the specific characteristics of professional development, especially the processes of professional development, many researchers agree that effective professional development entails the four components outlined by Joyce and Showers (1980, 2002). Beginning in the 1980s, Joyce and Showers began testing and hypothesizing that regular, weekly seminars, or coaching sessions, would allow for application of the skills learned during staff development (see Showers 1982, 1984). This line of research arose from the authors' (and other researchers') realization that fewer than 10% of teachers implemented the teaching strategies and curriculum learned through staff development training opportunities (Joyce & Showers, 1996). Through a review of the literature at that time, Joyce and Showers (1980) postulated that "to be most effective, training should include theory, demonstration, practice, feedback, and classroom application" (p. 379). The authors also postulated that there is a reciprocal relationship between many of the training components. For example, during the coaching and follow-up component, demonstration, practice, and feedback are all essential

elements for a successful coaching relationship. This indicates that all of the elements are essential for effective professional development training.

Early Literacy Professional Development and Coaching

Research evaluating the effectiveness of professional development on the language and literacy development of at-risk preschoolers has evolved over the years. In more recent years, research has emphasized the use of experimental designs, specifically randomized control trials, in an effort to increase the internal validity of the findings. The results from Zaslow et al.'s (2010) literature review identify similarities within the literature on early literacy and language development regarding the effects of professional development and coaching. Most notably, research has shown that early childhood educators must be trained and supported to execute evidence-based early literacy practices. Findings from experimental research has proven that professional development and coaching play an integral factor and impact the literacy and language characteristics of teachers' practices (e.g., Neuman & Cunningham, 2009; Neuman & Wright, 2010; Powell, Diamond, Burchinal, & Koehler, 2010).

In the following section, I will analyze the early literacy professional development and coaching literature from the last 10 years. The criteria for review included published research in peer-reviewed journals or book chapters that explicitly outlined the content of the professional development and coaching procedures for preschool teachers. A total of 10 studies were utilized to investigate the specific processes of professional development (Table 3). In keeping with Joyce and Showers' framework, the four components of professional development and coaching (i.e., theory; demonstration; practice and feedback; and coaching and follow-up) are used to

organize the specific findings from the review. The teaching strategies and skills varied from alternative language and literacy curricula (i.e., Assel, Landry, Swank & Gunnewig, 2007; Domitrovich, Gest, Gill, Bierman, Welsh, & Jones, 2009), specific emergent literacy teaching strategies (i.e., Hsieh, Hemmeter, McCollum, & Ostrosky, 2009), various classroom literacy and language practices (i.e., Jackson, Larzelere, St. Clair, Corr, Fichter & Egertson, 2006; Landry, Anthony, Swank, & Moseque-Bailey, 2009; Landry, Swank, Smith, Assel & Gunnewig, 2006; Neuman & Cunningham, 2009; Neuman & Wright, 2010; Powell et al., 2010), and finally an evaluation of a shared storybook reading intervention (i.e., Wasik, Bond, & Hindman, 2006). *Theory*

Theory simply refers to the rationale, or theoretical base for the practice, and the basic description of the processes underlying the specific instructional strategies or skills. Readings, lectures, courses, and discussions are all useful means to present the theory behind a teaching skill or instructional strategy. Joyce and Showers (2002) hypothesize that the "study of theory facilitates skill acquisition by increasing one's understanding of demonstrations, by providing a mental image to guide practice and clarify feedback, and by promoting the attainment of executive control" (p. 73).

Review of the 10 studies found a wide range in the formats and duration for the rationale and explanation of the early literacy and language strategies that were taught. Of the 10 studies evaluated, some used multiple workshops (n=4), credit-based courses (n=3), monthly sessions (n=1), individual lesson explanations (n=1), or a combination of workshops during the summer months and monthly sessions during the academic school year (n=1). In addition, some

researchers experimented with current technological advances by using satellite broadcasts and internet-methods for theory transmission. For example, Jackson et al. (2006) utilized a 15-week national satellite broadcast of *Heads Up! Reading* (HUR; National Head Start Association, 2000) to promote evidence-based literacy practices. In another example, Landry et al (2009) utilized a 9-course online professional development training method, eCIRCLE, to train teachers in multiple states simultaneously. The online professional development, eCIRCLE, was adapted from the face-to-face CICRLE workshops used in previous research studies (Landry, Swank, Smith, Assel, & Gunnewig, 2006).

It is currently a widespread understanding that one-day workshops are the most ineffective method for the transfer of skill acquisition. The current review determined that current research is not using one-day workshops. Nonetheless, the duration of the theory component of professional development varied from a 2- or 4-day, 8-hour workshops (e.g., Assel et al., 2007; Domitrovich et al., 2009; Powell et al., 2010) to year-long professional development sessions that occurred on a monthly basis (e.g., Landry et al., 2006).

Demonstration

The second component for effective professional development entails the demonstration or modeling of the teaching skill or strategy. Demonstration occurred through the use of videotapes (Domitrovich et al., 2009; Jackson et al., 2006; Landry et al., 2009; Neuman & Cunningham, 2009; Neuman & Wright, 2010), modeling in settings that simulate the classroom, or through live enactments in the teachers' classroom (Assel et al., 2007; Hsieh et al., 2009;

Wasik et al., 2006). In all, demonstration and modeling is believed to facilitate the understanding of the theory of the practice (Joyce & Showers, 1990, 2002).

Practice and Feedback

To effectively master skills, practice of instructional strategies is essential (Joyce & Showers, 2002). Joyce and Showers discovered, however, that independent practice does not lead to mastery alone, yet practice with an individual observing and providing feedback does. Practice at this level occurs during training sessions in simulated environments and situations. Ongoing feedback is key for continual success during the modeling stage or the level of acquisition diminishes. Joyce and Showers (1980) state that "feedback alone does not appear to provide permanent changes, but regular and consistent feedback is probably necessary if people are to make very many changes in their behavior" (p. 384).

Providing teachers opportunities to practice new early literacy and language strategies and skills is a common practice. All but one study (Assel et al., 2007) specified that the professional development seminars/workshops allowed time for practice. Additionally, many studies included opportunities for practice during coaching sessions in which the coach observed and then provided feedback. Coaches' feedback typically consisted of constructive criticisms and reinforcement of teachers' positive skills. For example, Assel (2007) provided two types of feedback ("glows" and "grows") to provide reinforcement for effective implementation and to identify areas in which the teacher needed additional practice.

Coaching and Follow-up

Continual and regular, in-class assistance by an individual, typically referred to as a coach or mentor, is an effective method for high implementation fidelity of the teaching strategies reviewed during professional development trainings. All of the studies reviewed evaluated the effects of coaching (or mentoring) on teachers' early literacy and language instructional practices and on student outcomes or classroom environments. The impact of coaching was statistically significant in all studies that evaluated coaching. The impact of coaching will be discussed below in more detail; however, it is also of merit to highlight that the intensity (and duration) of coaching varied substantially from one study to the next. For example, Hsieh et al. (2009) utilized high-intensity coaching sessions for a short duration (35 min, 2-3 times per week for a 3-week period), whereas Neuman and Wright's (2010) coaching sessions were longer in duration and for a rather short period (3 hr per week for 10 weeks).

Table 3

Professional Development and Coaching Literature

Citation	De	sign		Professional Development				Coaching Duration	Child-level Intervention	Teacher Fidelity
	E	Q	Format	Duration	Practice	Demonstration	Feedback			J
Assel, Landry, Swank & Gunnewig (2007) 1	X		Workshop	8 hrs (4-days)	Not Specified	In vivo	Written	1.5 hrs (2 x month)	Curriculum	Curriculum Fidelity Checklists
Domitrovich, Gest, Gill, Bierman, Welsh, & Jones (2009)	X		Workshop	8 hrs (4-days)	Yes	Videotaped models & In vivo	Verbal	4 hrs (weekly)	Curriculum	Curriculum Fidelity Observations
Hsieh, Hemmeter, McCollum, & Ostrosky (2009)		X	Individual	35 mins 2-3x week (3 week period)	Yes	In vivo	Written	35 mins 2-3 x week (3 week period)	Emergent literacy teaching strategies	Observation Checklists
Jackson, Larzelere, St. Clair, Corr, Fichter & Egertson (2006) 1	X		Live broadcasts (in-service and credit- based)	3 hrs (15 weeks)	Yes	Videotaped models	No	2-4 hrs (4-6 times in 2 month period)	Classroom literacy & language practices	ELLCO ECERS-R
Landry, Anthony, Swank, & Moseque- Bailey (2009) ¹	X		Online sessions	2 hrs (2 x month)	Yes	Videotaped models	Written	2 hrs (2 x month)	Classroom literacy & language practices	CIRCLE TBRS
Landry, Swank,		X	Interactive, small-	8 hrs (4-days)	Yes	Not specified	Written	1 h (weekly)	Classroom literacy &	Observations

Smith, Assel & Gunnewig (2006)		group workshops and sessions	(summer) & monthly (year)				or (2 x month)	language practices	
Neuman & Cunningham (2009) ¹	X	Credit- based Course	3 hrs (15 weeks)	Yes	Videotaped models	Written	1-1.5 hrs (weekly)	Classroom language & literacy practices	ELLCO CHELLO
Neuman & Wright (2010) ²	X	Credit- based Course	3 hrs (10 weeks)	Yes	Videotaped models	Written	3 hrs (weekly)	Classroom language & literacy practices	ELLCO
Powell, Diamond, Burchinal, & Koehler (2010) ³	X	Workshop	8 hrs (2 days)	Yes	No	Written	1.5 hrs (7 sessions) or Video Feedback	Classroom language & literacy practices	ELLCO
Wasik, Bond & Hindman (2006)	X	Workshop	2 hrs (9 sessions)	Yes	In vivo	Written & Oral	2 hrs (monthly)	Shared book- reading	Coded Observation

Note. E = Experimental Design; Q = Quasi-Experimental Design. ELLCO = Early Language and Literacy Classroom Observation (Smith, Dickinson, Sangeorge, & Anastasopoulous, 2002); ECERS-R = Early Childhood Environment Rating Scale-Revised (Harms, Clifford, & Cryer, 1998); CIRCLE TBRS = CIRCLE-Teacher Behavior Rating Scale (Landry, Crawford, Gunnewig, & Swank, 2000); CHELLO = Child/Home Early Language and Literacy Observation (Neuman, Dwyer, & Koh, 2007).

1 Studies comparing PD vs. PD+ Coaching vs. Control. 2 Studies comparing PD vs. Coaching vs. Control. 3 Studies comparing PD + Onsite Coaching vs. PD + Remote Coaching vs. Control.

Impact of Coaching

The effect of coaching and its impact on teachers' transfer of knowledge, skills, and practice is of great interest to policymakers, educators, and researchers. The work by Neuman and Wright (2010) specifically found that coaching improved the structural characteristics (i.e., literacy environment, number of books, print) of quality literacy practices, but not the process characteristics (i.e., teacher interaction and engagement). In addition, the positive effects were still present 5 months post-coaching sessions signifying true transfer of skills. Nonetheless, there is some research to dispel these findings. For example, Hsieh and colleagues (2009) conducted a single-case study that assessed the effects of in-classroom coaching on early childhood teachers' use of emergent literacy teaching strategies. Specifically, they grouped multiple emergent literacy strategies into three clusters (Cluster A: vocabulary, comprehension, and narrative structure; Cluster B: phonological awareness and alphabetical principle; and Cluster C: print concepts and written language) and "coached" these strategies separately using a multiple baseline design across the three clusters, replicating the design with each of five teachers. Because there were three clusters of emergent literacy strategies, taught separately, the researchers also included a "maintenance" phase. This phase was assessed at least once every three sessions following the completion of the intervention for each cluster of strategies, with the longest maintenance phase lasting 11 sessions. During the maintenance phase, the teacher was observed engaging in the emergent literacy activities previously learned, but the coach did not provide feedback. Interestingly, teachers' use of previously taught emergent literacy strategies decreased in most cases, in some instances close to or at their baseline rates. Findings like these

lead researchers to question how long and how extensive professional development and coaching should be to have lasting affects.

Although the longevity of coaching affects has yet to be determined, research has shown that coaching does, indeed, impact the overall transfer of skills. Joyce and Showers (2002) denote that only when coaching and feedback occur does a teacher's capacity for knowledge, skill, and the transfer of strategies occur with 95% of participants (Table 4).

Table 4

Training Components and Attainment of Outcomes

Components	Outcomes					
	Knowledge	Skill	Transfer			
Study of Theory	10%	5%	0%			
Demonstration	30%	20%	0%			
Practice & Feedback	60%	60%	5%			
Coaching	95%	95%	95%			

Note. Adapted from "Designing training and peer coaching: Our needs for learning" by B. Joyce & B. Showers, 2002, In *Student achievement through professional development* (3rd Ed), p. 78. Published by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

In all, findings from Joyce and Showers and others confirm the importance of coaching on the skill transfer for educators, in general, and preschool educators, in particular.

Shared Book-Reading

Shared book-reading refers to the active involvement and shared interaction between an adult and child or group of children during book-reading that focuses on the context of the story

as well as the words, pictures, and other language and literacy-focused skills. Other terms that have the same meaning include *interactive reading, book sharing, reading aloud, storybook reading, adult-child storybook reading,* and *book-reading interactions* (Ezell & Justice, 2005). For the purposes of this research, the term *shared book-reading* has been chosen to emphasize the social, interactive qualities of the session, but also to emphasize the book-reading component of the activity.

Research reports and policy documents such as the National Research Council's document, *Preventing reading difficulties in young children* (Snow et al., 1998); the position statement, *Learning to read and write: Developmentally appropriate practices for young children*, jointly prepared by the International Reading Association (IRA) and the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) (1998); and, most recently, the report from the National Early Literacy Panel (2009), *Developing early literacy: Report of the National Early Literacy Panel*, encourage and support providing young children with high-quality shared book-reading opportunities. Shared book-reading has garnered an extensive amount of attention because research has shown that shared reading with young children may affect several key areas of their language and literacy development.

Extant research has shown that shared book-reading consistently increases student's expressive vocabulary/language (e.g., Hargrave & Senechal, 2000; Karweit, 1989; Mol, Bus, de Jong, 2009; Whitehurst, Arnold, et al. 2004), receptive vocabulary/language (e.g., Karweit, 1989; Wasik & Bond, 2001), alphabet knowledge (e.g., Aram, 2006; Justice & Ezell, 2002; Neuman, 1999), print concepts (e.g., Justice & Ezell, 2002; Neuman, 1999; Valdez-Mechaca &

Whitehurst, 1992), name writing (e.g., Aram, 2006), phonological awareness (e.g., Aram, 2006), and story comprehension (e.g., Karweit, 1989; Morrow, O'Connor, & Smith, 1990). Positive gains have shown to be longitudinal in nature (e.g., Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998) and evident in foreign countries/languages (e.g., Aram, 2006; Aram & Biron, 2004; Hargrave & Senechal, 2000; Valdez-Menchaca and Whitehurst; 1992). Additionally, shared book-reading provides an opportune interaction for the development of language, in both a decontextaulized (text is grounded in explanations and personal narratives) and contextualized (information is knowledgeable to all individuals and typical of everyday conversations) manner (Ezell & Justice, 2005).

Shared Book-Reading Elements

Ezell and Justice (2005) state that "reading books with young children is one of the single most important things that adults can do to ensure children's timely development of oral language and emergent literacy skills, both of which are necessary for success in school and, ultimately, in life" (p. xii). Through interactions during shared book-reading, children foster skills that extend past preschool. Evidence supports that academic skills are gained during shared book-reading (e.g., Aram, 2006; Hargrave & Senechal, 2000; Justice & Ezell, 2002; Karweit, 1989; Mol et al., 2009; Neuman, 1999; Wasik & Bond, 2001; Whitehurst, Arnold, et al. 2004); however, through shared book-reading children also foster interpersonal relationships that support school adjustment (Birch & Ladd, 1997), cognitive student outcomes (Cornelius-White, 2007; Howes, Galinksy, & Kontos, 1998), as well as language skills (Sroufe, 2000). As defined above, shared book-reading is an interactive experience between a child or group of children and

an adult. Ideal shared book-reading opportunities foster active participation by all participants. While the adult reads, he or she poses questions to the child or group of children in developmentally-appropriate ways, querying questions about what will happen next (prediction); posing questions about the child's own experiences and those of the adult; and emphasizing conversations about the text (e.g., letters, words) and pictures in the book. The physical arrangement and comfort level of the participants allow for ease in reading. Children are seated in a manner in which they can view, hear, and actively participate in the book-reading experience. Additionally, the adult ensures that the shared book-reading experience elicits excitement and curiosity about the book by varying the pace and volume of his or her voice. In all, the shared reading experience is gratifying to all participants.

Five elements of shared book-reading are essential for effective reading. These include: (a) physical arrangement, (b) social involvement, (c) materials selected, (d) reading style, and (e) conversation (Ezell & Justice, 2005).

Physical Arrangement

The set-up of the reading opportunity must support the interactive nature of shared book-reading. To ensure that everyone has sufficient access to the reading material, teachers (or a parent) and the child or group of children must be seated in such a way that both can view the book. For a group of children, sitting close to the teacher in an organized way (e.g., each child seated on a letter of the letter rug) allows for optimal engagement. For a small-group (2-3 children) reading, children can sit on either side of the teacher. Ensuring that all children can see and actively participate deters disengagement and inattention; therefore avoiding behavior

problems. Attention and forethought should be made by the teacher when choosing a location for shared book-reading experiences, as it is also important for the area to be quiet and void of other distractions (Ezell & Justice, 2005).

Social Involvement

Shared book-reading provides an opportunity for social involvement and positive, rewarding interactions between a teacher and a child or group of children. Extant literature supports the importance of positive teacher-child relationships on the cognitive, social and behavioral outcomes of preschool children and school success (Birch & Ladd, 1997; Bredekamp & Copple, 1997; Cornelius-White, 2007; Pianta & Stuhlman, 2004). Research conducted by Hamre and Pianta (2001) suggests that early teacher-child relationships (e.g., in Kindergarten) are unique predictors of academic and behavioral outcomes in early elementary school, with effects through eighth grade, only emphasizing the importance of teacher-child relationships during the formative, preschool years.

The following positive interactions during shared book-reading not only support the teacher-child relationships but also build children's interest in books and reading, in general. First, conversation turn-taking teaches children about listening and respecting others. Through conversations, children are provided with opportunities to learn more about their teacher and the other children in their classroom and to practice their language skills. Second, praise and acknowledgment of children's responses, questions, and needs during shared book-reading builds children's confidence and ability in language and literacy-related skills, as well as their self-esteem. Positive relationships that provide a balance between teacher and child talk and

encourage children's opinions create an accepting atmosphere which harbors children's comfort-level, supporting children's risk-taking when acquiring new skills. Lastly, shared book-reading nurtures teacher responsiveness, warmth, and affection. Teachers can foster responsiveness by actively responding to children's needs, cues, and bids for attention. Shared book-reading also supports teacher's warmth and affection towards the child or group of children through laughter, smiles, pats on the back, indications of approval, and terms of endearment (Ezell & Justice, 2005).

Materials Selected

Shared book-reading is an opportune time to extend children's knowledge of novel topics and subjects. Through thoughtful book selection, teachers can capitalize on shared-reading as an opportunity to extend children's interests as well as vocabulary and language. When selecting books for children it is advised to consider books that are appealing and interesting for preschool-aged children (with colorful and appealing illustrations) as well as those that contain age-appropriate text (Ezell & Justice, 2005). Shared book-reading is also an opportune time to capitalize on the classroom's print-rich environment. Print-rich describes preschool and elementary classroom environments that provide children access to meaningful literacy activities with a variety of texts and literacy props (Wolfersberger, Reutzal, Sudweeks, & Fawson, 2004). Literacy props include felt boards, puppets and other stuffed animals for shared book-reading. Additionally, physical examples of vocabulary words (e.g., a stuffed swan for a discussion of animals that live in ponds) and active participation of children during learning activities assist with comprehension and involvement by the child or group of children. During shared book-

reading time, teachers can capitalize on the interactive nature by providing opportunities for children to actively contribute to the learning activity.

Reading Style

Books appropriate for preschool-aged children are full of exciting, adventurous storylines that maintain children's attention and curiosity. Teachers who capitalize on the nature of preschool-level books with reading expressions draw excitement and curiosity to the reading session. Reading expression includes varying one's pitch and vocal inflection to draw attention to the characters in the book (e.g., impersonate a big grizzly bear or a little girl). Another technique - altering and varying one's volume of speech to signify emotion, expression or a character's personality - creates curiosity for the shared-reading experience. Changing the pace of the reading is a third technique to create suspense, urgency, and excitement, as well.

Teachers' display of mutual regard and emotion builds lasting teacher-child relationships. This may occur by laughing with the child or group of children when something silly occurs in the story or by showing expressions of disappointment, sadness, or being afraid when something disappointing occurs. Lastly, teachers who capitalize on the rhythmic qualities of many rhyming books not only extend children's phonological awareness but also letter-sound awareness (Ezell & Justice, 2005).

Conversation

Effective shared book-reading sessions promote conversations (e.g., listening and turn-taking) that extend beyond the printed words in the text. Valuable learning opportunities arise when teachers elicit responses, questions, comments, and extend children's thoughts through

cognitively challenging conversations. These rich linguistic environments enhance children's language and emergent literacy skills by giving children an active role in their learning (Ezell & Justice, 2005; Massey, 2004; Morrison, Bachman, & Connor, 2005). For example, students in Head Start and Title I classrooms where teachers asked more *wh*-questions (who, what, where, when, why) than yes-no questions or imperatives (commands such as "Be quiet" or "Sit down") tended to score higher on measures that predict later reading success (Connor, Morrison, & Slominski, 2006). Examples like this highlight the importance of cognitively challenging conversation that extends children's current knowledge. During shared book-reading, teachers can utilize props and flashcards to extend children's expressive and receptive vocabulary.

Two popular shared book-reading strategies, dialogic reading and print referencing, have been developed and researched. Both strategies have distinctive benefits and characteristics, as discussed below.

Dialogic Reading

Whitehurst and his colleagues (Whitehurst, Arnold et al., 1994; Whitehurst, Epstein, et al., 1994; Whitehurst et al., 1988; Zevenbergen & Whitehurst, 2003) have studied a shared book-reading approach called dialogic reading. Dialogic reading involves gradually shifting the storytelling role from the adult to the child by asking many kinds of questions during storybook reading. Specifically, dialogic reading entails (a) asking open-ended questions and giving prompts; (b) following child's answers with additional questions; (c) modeling, repeating and expanding child's responses; (d) defining and labeling new vocabulary words; (e) giving praise, feedback, and encouragement; (f) providing follow-up activities that reinforce, summarize, and

provide opportunities for additional practice with newly acquired vocabulary words; and, (g) having fun during the reading experience (Ezell & Justice, 2005; Gormely & Ruhl, 2005; Whitehurst et al., 1988). It is believed that dialogic reading facilitates active student involvement and social interactions based on Vygotskian ideas (Gormley & Ruhl, 2005). Through these social interactions between the teacher and the student(s), children's language and vocabulary are broadened.

Research has shown that dialogic reading strategies assist in oral language and vocabulary development for low-income children (e.g., Lonigan & Whitehurst, 1998; Whitehurst, Arnold, et al., 1994; Zevenbergen & Whitehurst, 2003) and with students with language delays (e.g., Hargrave & Senechal, 2000; van Kleeck & Vander Woude, 2003). In 2001, Wasik and Bond evaluated a shared book-reading intervention termed "interactive book reading" with low-income, 4-year-old children. After 15 weeks, children in the intervention group scored higher than did children in a no-treatment comparison group on the *Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test-III* (PPVT-III; Dunn & Dunn, 1997) and a receptive vocabulary measure developed by the authors. A few years later, a similar large-scale study conducted by Wasik, Bond, and Hindman (2006) found positive results on the PPVT-III (Dunn & Dunn, 1997) and on the *Expressive One-Word Picture Vocabulary Test-Revised* (EOWPVT-R; Garnder, 1990). This study also highlighted that Head Start teachers can be trained to implement strategies that have positive effects on children's literacy and language development.

Print Referencing

An additional technique, print referencing, occurs during shared book-reading and requires the adult to explicitly and implicitly refer to the concepts and conventions of print.

Ezell and Justice (2000) described the five specific teacher behaviors necessary for conducting print referencing instruction/interventions: (a) ask questions about print; (b) make comments about print; (c) pose requests about print; (d) point to print when talking about the story; and, (e) track the print when reading. Several studies have found print referencing to be an effective intervention for encouraging emergent literacy skills such as word awareness, print concepts, and alphabet knowledge (e.g., Ezell, Justice, & Parsons, 2000; Justice & Ezell, 2000, 2002) in typically-developing and at-risk children.

In one of their well-known studies, Justice and Ezell (2002) used print-referencing techniques to increase print awareness in at-risk preschool children. Thirty children were enrolled in an 8-week, print-focused book reading intervention utilizing verbal print-referencing behaviors as outlined by Ezell and Justice (2000). At the conclusion of the intervention, children were found to have made significant gains on measures of print recognition, words in print, and alphabet knowledge. It is important to note that although the participating children were from low-income backgrounds, they were selected for participation based on average scores on the PPVT-III (Dunn & Dunn, 1997) and *Expressive One-Word Picture Vocabulary Test-Revised* (EOWPVT-R; Gardner, 1990 as cited in Justice & Ezell, 2002). Similar benefits have also been found with children from middle-class backgrounds (e.g., Ezell & Justice, 2000; Justice & Ezell, 2000).

Statement of the Problem

Extensive research has shown that preschool children experiencing difficulties with acquiring early literacy and language skills are at an increased risk of entering kindergarten without the foundational skills necessary for continued academic success. Juxtaposed with these findings is the knowledge that children with poor foundational reading skills in Kindergarten tend to remain poor readers, with the gap widening through elementary school between those students who have strong literacy skills and those who do not (Badian, 2000; Scarborough, 2001; Snow et al., 1998). Given these findings, federally-funded preschool programs (e.g., Head Start) have been granted the responsibility and task of closing the education gap between children living in poverty and their middle-class peers. Research on preschool-level teacher education and credentials; however, indicate that the teachers who educate our most needy preschool children are those with the least amount of education and knowledge of evidence-based, academic teaching strategies (Whitebook, 2003a, 2003b). Given this conundrum, national initiatives such as Early Reading First and the Early Childhood Educator Professional Development Program have funded professional development initiatives in such preschool programs. In addition, research reports and policy statements by the National Research Council (Snow et al., 1998); the collaboration report by the International Reading Association (IRA) and the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) (1998); and, most recently, the report from the National Early Literacy Panel (2009), encourage and support providing young children with high-quality shared book-reading opportunities. Shared book-reading has garnered an extensive amount of attention because research has shown that shared reading with young

children may affect several key areas of their language and literacy development (e.g., Hargrave & Senechal, 2000; Justice & Ezell, 2002; Whitehurst, Arnold, et al. 2004; Valdez-Mechaca & Whitehurst, 1992), name writing (e.g., Aram, 2006), and phonological awareness (e.g., Aram, 2006). Shared book-reading is aligned with an emergent literacy perspective which views reading, writing, and oral language as a process that occurs concurrently through young children's exposure to and experiences in literacy-rich social environments (Teal & Sulzby, 1986). As mentioned above, however, the teaching force in many federally-funded programs is unprepared to instruct in a manner that aligns with evidence-based practices.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the effectiveness of professional development training and coaching on teachers' instructional practices, specifically shared book-reading implementation. Additionally, the study examined students' early literacy outcomes given shared book-reading as the opportune intervention method.

Research Questions

Two specific research questions were analyzed in the research project.

- 1. To what extent does a professional development and coaching (PD/C) intervention contribute to Head Start teachers' implementation of evidence-based shared book-reading (SBR) strategies, after controlling for the effects of teachers' education status?
- 2. To what extent does Head Start teachers' level of implementation of evidence-based SBR strategies influence students' emergent literacy outcomes?

CHAPTER 3

Methods

Full Project Description

The present study is a secondary analysis of data collected during 2009-10 as part of a larger project, entitled Exemplary Model of Early Reading Growth and Excellence (EMERGE; Gettinger & Stoiber, 2007). EMERGE was a four-year program (2007-11) designed to increase early literacy skills for low-income, preschool-aged children. Funded as part of the Early Reading First (ERF) initiative through the Office of Elementary and Secondary Education, EMERGE was a partnership among the Co-Principal Investigators (Co-PIs; Maribeth Gettinger at the University of Wisconsin-Madison and Karen Stoiber at the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee), the Social Development Commission-Head Start of Milwaukee, and an Educare Early Learning Center in Milwaukee. Consistent with the mission of ERF, the EMERGE program was developed to prepare young children (ages 3-5) from low-income, predominately minority families to enter kindergarten with the necessary early reading skills to prevent later reading difficulties. This was achieved through four main goals of the program. The first goal was to support Head Start teachers' implementation of evidence-based strategies to promote the development of four early literacy skills that are highly predictive of reading success (i.e., phonological awareness, oral language, alphabet awareness, and print awareness). The second goal was to create high-quality, literacy-rich environments that support the development of children's literacy and language competence. The third goal was to provide continual professional development and ongoing literacy coaching to all teachers to ensure program

fidelity. The final goal was to collect screening, progress-monitoring, and outcome data to identify children in need of more intensive instructional support and to monitor the effectiveness of the intervention.

To conduct program evaluation, additional classrooms of similar characteristics were randomly selected and used as control classrooms. The control classroom teachers (lead and aides) did not receive ongoing professional development and coaching (PD/C) from the Co-PIs or the Literacy Coaches, but they were provided with the theme-related books. Additionally, all assessments were conducted in the control classrooms in the same manner as the EMERGE classrooms. Assessors and coders were blind to classroom assignment (control versus experimental condition) to prevent assessor/coder bias during testing and shared-reading coding. It was the original intent that the aforementioned randomized control trial would consist of a pretest-posttest design (for teacher and students). However, Head Start administrators preferred to begin the PD/C before all parent consents were received. Therefore, the present study is an analysis of the effectiveness of PD/C given two distinct time periods (after 6-8 weeks of PD/C and at the conclusion of one academic school year).

The author served as a Research Assistant for the EMERGE project from 2007 to 2011.

During this time, the author assisted in the development and administration of testing and coding procedures, conducted literature reviews, and prepared monthly newsletters for EMERGE families.

Participants

Participants in the study were drawn from a sample of preschool-aged children (n = 286) and teachers (n = 16) enrolled in the EMERGE project during the 2009-10 school year as well as a Control group of like-aged peers (n = 126) and teachers (n = 7). All of the students enrolled in the above-mentioned early learning centers were invited to participate in the data-collection activities for evaluating EMERGE. Those children whose parents gave consent, by returning the parental signed consent form, were included in the evaluation component; all students in the classrooms of participating teachers received the EMERGE intervention irrespective of their participation in testing and observation. Across all EMERGE classrooms, 240 children (83.9%) had parent consent to participate, while 114 children (90.5%) in Control classrooms had parent consent. Approximately 10% of EMERGE students (n = 24) dropped out over the course of the year, and 6% of Control students (n = 7).

Demographic information for all respondents (students and teachers), including gender, ethnicity, highest degree and years of experience, is presented in Table 5. The students across both the EMERGE and Control classrooms were between 30 and 59 months of age at the start of the school year. Although a large percentage of students' racial demographic information was missing ($n_{\text{EMERGE}} = 91, 37.9\%$; $n_{\text{Control}} = 93, 81.6\%$); the population of children in the Head Start classrooms is 85-90% African American, so it is likely that the majority of "missing" data were students of African American descent. The teacher sample (EMERGE and Control) was comprised of majority female educators ($n_{\text{EMERGE}} = 15$; 93.8%; $n_{\text{Control}} = 7$; 100%) with varying degrees of educational experience and years of experience (ranging from 2 to 35 years).

Table 5

Participant Characteristics

	EMI	Control			
Students		240	n =	114	
	n	%	n	%	
Gender:					
Female	118	49.2	65	57	
Male	122	50.8	49	43	
Ethnicity:					
African American	112	46.7	7	6.1	
Caucasian	19	7.9	7	6.1	
Hispanic	11	4.6		4.4	
Other	7	2.9	5 2	1.8	
Missing	91	37.9	93	81.6	
Age (in months):					
30 -35	13	5.4	10	8.8	
36 - 41	76	31.7	29	25.4	
42 - 47	90	37.5	44	38.6	
48 - 53	32	13.3	20	17.5	
54 - 59	29	12.1	11	9.6	
	EMI	ERGE	Co	ntrol	
Teachers	n = 16		n	n = 7	
	n	%	n	%	
Gender:					
Female	15	93.8	7	100	
Male	1	6.3	-	-	
Ethnicity:					
African American	10	62.5	4	57.1	
Caucasian	5	31.3	-	-	
Hispanic	1	6.3	-	-	
Other	-	-	2	28.6	
Missing	-	-	1	14.3	

Bachelor's Degree:				
No Degree	7	43.8	4	57.1
Degree	9	56.3	3	42.9
Years Experience:				
1 - 5	1	6.3	-	-
6 -10	3	18.8	3	42.9
11 - 15	1	6.3	3	42.9
16 - 20	4	25.0	-	-
21 - 25	4	25.0	-	-
26 - 30	2	12.5	-	-
31 – 35	1	6.3	1	14.3

Instrumentation

Information from two primary data-collection procedures was used in the present study to address the research questions: (a) systematic coding of teacher behaviors and interactions during video-recordings of shared book-reading sessions, and (b) standardized measures of children's language and early literacy skills. Data were collected for all teachers and students (EMERGE and Control) in Fall 2009 (September/October/November) and Spring 2010 (April/May).

Teacher Shared Book-Reading Fidelity Measure

The author and two other UW-Madison School Psychology graduate students completed the coding of teacher literacy behaviors and responsiveness during video-recorded shared book-reading sessions. The coders participated in a three-step iterative training process to (a) refine the coding procedures and (b) ensure adequate inter-rater reliability. The first step involved a thorough review and explanation of the shared book-reading (SBR) coding procedures. Next, the coders independently viewed and rated one video-recording using a preliminary version of the

SBR coding procedure. One Co-PI (Gettinger) acted as the master coder for evaluating the accuracy of ratings which met or exceeded the criterion of 80% accuracy and identified areas in which large disagreements in coding occurred. The second step involved a joint meeting during which the coders and Co-PI discussed the areas of disagreement and agreed on revisions and rewordings to clarify the coding procedures. Following this meeting, the coders independently viewed and rated a second video-recording. Agreement with the master coder was > 80% for each coder for the second recording. The coders and Co-PI met for a third session to review the final revisions in the coding procedure. Subsequent to these sessions, the coders viewed and coded multiple SBR digital recordings which were distributed randomly to coders. Each video-recording was coded independently by two individuals. Inter-coder agreement was consistently above 80% for each coded dimension (see below). When disagreements between coders occurred, the master coder (Co-PI) determined the final code to be used in data analyses.

Stoiber, n.d.) was developed specifically for the EMERGE project to measure two broad dimensions of the shared book-reading experience: (a) teacher behaviors and interactions that focus on emergent literacy and language skills, and (b) teacher responsiveness and managerial skills. The Co-PI (Gettinger) developed the measure based on extant shared-reading literature (e.g., dialogic reading and print-referencing strategies), evidence-based emergent literacy strategies (i.e., SOAP strategies), and existing measures of classroom quality (e.g., CLASS and ELLCO; see below). Each dimension is broken down into categories with specific indicators (e.g., characteristics, behaviors, and interactions).

The teacher literacy behaviors and interactions domain consists of six categories: (a) *motivation for reading the book* (4 indicators; "Teacher conveys the idea that reading is fun – arouses excitement and curiosity about the story."); (b) *oral language and vocabulary* (5 indicators; "Teacher focuses on target vocabulary words for the book."); (c) *phonological awareness* (5 indicators; "Teacher plays with words or sounds in the book, such as rhyming games."); (d) *letter knowledge* (4 indicators; "Teacher provides opportunities for children to name and/or find letters in the book."); (e) *print and book awareness* (4 indicators; "Teacher points to the print and occasionally runs finger along the text while reading."); and (f) *comprehension of story or content of book* (4 indicators; "Teacher asks children to make predictions before/during reading,"). This domain was derived from extant shared-reading literature, specifically dialogic reading and print-referencing strategies, as well as evidence-based emergent literacy instruction (i.e., SOAP strategies). Table 6 provides references that support each category on the *SBR Coding Procedure* (Gettinger & Stoiber, n.d.)

The teacher responsiveness and managerial skills domain consists of five categories: (a) tone of voice (3 behaviors; "Teacher shows an absence of abruptness [keeps moderate pace; does not 'cut off."; (b) nonverbal communication (4 behaviors; "Teacher has physical proximity [sits close to children, makes eye contact with children]."); (c) conversations (3 behaviors; "There is a balance between teacher and child talk (teacher does not talk to a degree that prevents children from talking; follows children's lead as appropriate."); (d) noticing and engaging children (4 behaviors; "Teacher gives mild directives or cues [not reprimands] to engage children who are off-task."); and (e) responsiveness (3 behaviors; "Teacher responds to children's cues

[acknowledges children's appropriate bids for attention; observes children's frustration or impatience and responds to this; reads children's gestures and facial expressions accurately]."). (See Appendix A.) The teacher responsiveness and managerial domain consists of evidence-based teacher behaviors and teacher-child relationships observed in high-quality early learning centers typically assessed by the *Classroom Assessment Scoring System Pre-K Version (CLASS*; Pianta et al., 2008) and *Early Language and Literacy Classroom Observation* (ELLCO; Smith et al., 2002). Table 6 also lists reference sources for each category in this domain.

Table 6
Shared Book-Reading Dimensions, Categories, and Derivation

Domain	Categories	Research Support for Category
Teacher Literacy Behaviors and Interactions		
Benaviors and interactions	I. Motivation for reading the book	Ezell & Justice, 2005; Whitehurst et al., 1988
	II. Oral language and vocabulary	Lonigan & Whitehurst, 1998; NELP, 2009; NRP, 2000; Whitehurst et al., 1988
	III. Phonological awareness	Justice & Pullen, 2003; NELP, 2009; NRP, 2000; Whitehurst, Epstein et al., 1994
	IV. Letter knowledge	Ezell, Justice, & Parsons, 2000; Justice & Ezell, 2000, 2002; NELP, 2009, NRP, 2000
	V. Print and book awareness	Ezell, Justice, & Parsons, 2000; Justice & Ezell, 2000, 2002; NELP, 2009, NRP, 2000

	VI. Comprehension of story or content of book	NRP, 2000; Whitehurst, Arnold et al., 1994; Zevenbergen & Whitehurst, 2003
Teacher Responsiveness and Managerial Skills		
	I. Tone of voice	Cornelius-White, 2007; Ezell & Justice, 2005
	II. Nonverbal communication	Cornelius-White, 2007; Ezell & Justice, 2005; Pianta, 1994
	III. Conversations	Connor et al., 2006; Ezell & Justice, 2005; Justice & Ezell, 2000, 2002; Massey, 2004; Morrison et al., 2005
	IV. Noticing and engaging childrenV. Responsiveness	La-Paro et al., 2004; Webster-Stratton et al., 2001 Cornelius-White, 2007; Ezell & Justice, 2005; Gallagher & Mayer, 2008; Pianta, 1994

Using this procedure, book-reading sessions were coded using both checklist and Likert rating scale formats. The checklist format identified a set of observable behaviors (indicators) within each category that were checked as *occurring* (1) or *not occurring* (0), or rated using a 3-point Likert scale to indicate level of occurrence: (0) *does not occur*; (1) *occurs ineffectively and/or 1-2 times*; and (2) *occurs often and effectively*. The resulting Category Score was the sum of scores across all behaviors within the category. Additionally, a global 4-point Likert rating was determined for each category. The Category Rating reflected the overall extent to which the teacher exhibited behaviors within the category during the SBR session, specifically (1) *not at*

all, or rarely; (2) a little; (3) a lot, and (4) extremely, or almost always. All category scores were summed to produce a Total Category Score for each dimension (Teacher Literacy Behaviors and Interactions possible range = 0-46; Teacher Responsiveness and Managerial Skills possible range = 0-16); the category ratings are summed to produce a Total Category Rating score for each dimension (Teacher Literacy Behaviors and Interactions possible range = 6-24; Teacher Responsiveness and Managerial Skills possible range = 5-25).

Child Assessment Measures

A number of measures were used to evaluate a wide range of students' emergent literacy and language abilities. Testing was completed by undergraduate and graduate students (including the author) enrolled in school psychology or education-related programs at the UW-Madison and UW-Milwaukee. The examiners participated in two half-day training sessions conducted by the Co-PIs. During these sessions, examiners were provided with the testing protocols and administration/scoring procedures and materials included in one testing bag. During the training, detailed explanations of the administration procedures occurred as well as supervised practice administrations prior to the actual testing sessions. During fall and spring testing periods, measures were administered to children during two 20-min sessions conducted across two consecutive days. All testing protocols were double-scored for accuracy. In the following sections, the early literacy and language assessments utilized for the present study are discussed in detail.

Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test-III¹. The PPVT-III (Dunn & Dunn, 1997) is a norm-referenced measure of an individual's receptive vocabulary in standard English and can be used as a screening test of verbal ability. The PPVT-III may be administered to an individual between the ages of 2.5-90 years and comes in two forms (IIIA, IIIB). The test is fairly simple and quick to administer. Items on the PPVT-III query various vocabulary concepts (e.g., island, rectangle) and different parts of speech (e.g., nouns, verbs). The examiner shows the student four pictures and asks that he/she point to the named concept. The manual provides standard scores, age equivalents, percentile ranks, normal curve equivalents, and stanines. For the purposes of this research, standard scores were used for analysis (M = 100; SD = 15). Internal consistency ($\infty = 100$), alternate-form (100), and test-rest (100), alternate-form (100). Correlations with other tests provide evidence of concurrent validity. For example, the PPVT-III is highly correlated (100) and 1000 for Forms A and B, respectively) with the Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children, Third Edition (WISC-III).

Phonological Awareness Literacy Screening-PreKindergarten. The PALS-PreK (Invernizzi, Sullivan, Meier, & Swank, 2004) measures preschoolers' knowledge of literacy skills that are predictive of kindergarten reading (r = .70). Three subtests, Name Writing, (possible score range = 0-5), Alphabet Knowledge (possible score range = 0-26), and Rhyme Awareness (possible score range = 0-10) were used as part of the assessment battery for the present study. For the Name Writing portion of the PALS-PreK, the examiner asks the student to write his/her name

¹ Although a more recent Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT-IV; Dunn & Dunn, 2007) was published during the EMERGE project study, the Co-PIs decided to continue to use the PPVT-III (Dunn & Dunn, 1997) for consistency purposes among cohorts.

and to show the adult where on the paper the child's name is written. Only the child's written name is scored (0 = writing is an unrecognized scribble; 1 = writing has moved beyond aimless scribbling; 2 = name consists of one (often first letter of name) or (still less than 50%) correct letter(s) in the name; 3 = name consists of many (more than 50%) correct letters; 4 = name is generally correct; and 5 = name is written correctly with no letter reversals, backward formations, or mirror-image writing). To administer the Alphabet Knowledge subtest, children are asked to identify (name) both upper- and lower-case letters presented in random order. A child's score is equivalent to the number of correct letters names stated. Only the child's score on the upper-case Alphabet Knowledge subtest was used in the current study. For the 10-item Rhyme Awareness subtest, the examiner showed the child five pictures and named the objects in each one (e.g., cat-hat-whale-ring). The examiner then asks the child to point to the picture that rhymes with the first object presented (e.g., cat-hat). The child receives one point for each correct rhyming pair.

Story and Print Concepts Task. The SPCT (Zill, McKey, & O'Brien, 2003) is an adaption of a measure developed by Mason and Stewart (1989) which measures a student's understanding of print concepts as well as story comprehension. The storybook used for this study was Little Bear's Wish by E.H. Minarik. This measure was also used in the Family and Child Experiences Survey (FACES) study designed to evaluate Head Start outcomes. On this measure, children are asked 14 questions to assess their knowledge of book/print concepts (e.g., "I'm going to read this story to you. Point to where I should start to read.") and comprehension of the story (e.g., "Where does Little Bear want to drive the big red car?"). Most items have a possible score from

0 to 1, but four items have a possible score from 0 to 2, therefore the total possible score is 18. Internal consistency reliability was .74 and correlated with PPVT-III scores (r = .69) based on the *FACES* 2000 administration (Zill et al., 2003).

Summary of Teacher and Child Outcome Variables

The purpose of the present study was to analyze teacher's emergent literacy instruction, specifically through shared book-reading, on students' emergent literacy skills. Given that the present study was a secondary analysis of data from a larger project (see Gettinger & Stoiber, 2007 for review), the author selected variables from those discussed above for analyses (Table 7). At the teacher level, Fall and Spring SBR video recordings were used to analyze teachers' implementation of evidence-based early literacy strategies. The *SBR Coding Procedure's* Total Category Score for the Teacher Literacy Behaviors and Interactions domain (Gettinger & Stoiber, n.d.) was used in the current study to focus specifically on the literacy-related characteristics of the shared-reading experience. At the student level, the Fall and Spring early literacy measures were used in the analyses.

Table 7

Teacher and Student Variables

Participant	Variable	Measure	Abbreviation	Score Range
Teacher				
Child	Total Score	SBR Coding Procedure	SBR-Total	0 - 46
Ciniu	Receptive Vocabulary	PPVT-III	PPVT-III	M = 100; SD = 15

Name Writing	PALS-PreK NW	PALS-PreK NW	0 - 5
Alphabet Knowledge	PALS-PreK AK	PALS-PreK AK	0 - 26
Rhyme Awareness	PALS-PreK RA	PALS-PreK RA	0 - 10
Print Awareness and Story Comprehension	SPCT	SPCT	0 - 18

Procedure

Table 8 presents a monthly outline of testing and intervention activities between the EMERGE and Control classrooms.

Table 8

EMERGE vs. Control Monthly Comparison

				2009	9-10 Sc	hool Ye	ear			
Condition	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	March	April	May
Participa	nt									
EMERGE										
Teacher ^a	Orientation	PD/C	PD/C	PD/C	PD/C	PD/C	PD/C	PD/C	PD/C	PD/C
			Over in the Meadow (SBR recording)						Mud (SBR recording)	
Student ^b			arly Literacy sessments						Spring Literacy As	
Control Teacher ^c	Orientation			Over in the Meadow (SBR recording)					Mud (SBR recording)	
Student ^d	6 : 10	1	Fall Early Literacy Assessments							Spring Early Literacy Assessments

Note. PD/C = Professional Development and Coaching. ${}^{a}n = 16$, ${}^{b}n = 240$, ${}^{c}n = 7$, ${}^{d}n = 114$.

Teacher Training and Coaching

The EMERGE professional development component aimed to enhance teachers' understanding of language and literacy development and to support their application of evidencebased practices in their classrooms. Three specific, inter-related professional development goals embodied the training: (a) to increase teachers' knowledge and skills related to emergent literacy SBR practices, literacy-rich environments, and progress-monitoring; (b) to provide ongoing coaching, modeling, feedback, and collaborative support in the teachers' classrooms to promote implementation of EMERGE procedures; and, (c) to ensure long-term implementation of the EMERGE practices in the classroom once the project discontinues. During the 2009-10 school year, the 10-month training occurred once a month (August-May) for 3.5 hours on the first Friday of each month. The trainings were conducted by the Co-PIs and were attended by the Literacy Coaches, Head Start educational supervisors, as well as all the EMERGE classroom teams (lead teacher and aide). The topics of the sessions varied from emergent literacy skills and strategies to effective classroom management methods, and included sessions on progressmonitoring. The trainings were designed to combine didactic training with collaborative planning among teachers and whole-group sharing of successful classroom practices (see Appendix B for session template). The contents/topics of the 10 sessions are denoted in Table 9.

Table 9

EMERGE Monthly Professional Development Session Topics

Month	Session Topics
August	Orientation and 2009-10 Overview

September	Promoting vocabulary development (oral language and vocabulary): The "O" in SOAP
October	Promoting print awareness: The "P" in SOAP
November	Promoting oral language (oral language and vocabulary): The "O" in SOAP
December	Creating positive, engaging, and literacy-rich classroom environments
January	Progress-monitoring I: The key to promoting success with SOAP for all children
February	Promoting sound awareness: The "S" in SOAP
March	Promoting alphabet knowledge: The "A" in SOAP
April	Progress-monitoring II: The key to differentiating instruction

The four elements of Joyce and Showers (1980, 2002) were captured during the EMERGE professional development and coaching and will be discussed below.

May

Wrap-up and 2010-11 preview

Theory. EMERGE's conceptual framework was based on an emergent literacy perspective that posits that children must encounter exposure to and interactions with print, engage in a literacy-rich environment, as well as participate in coherent, intentional instruction of emergent literacy and language strategies to prevent later reading difficulties. The theoretical underpinnings of the professional development training arose from a synthesis of several comprehensive reports, including *Teaching Our Youngest* (Early Childhood-Head Start Task

Force, 2002), Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children (Snow et al., 1998), Teaching Children to Read (NRP, 2000), and Put Reading First: The Research Building Blocks for Teaching Children to Read (Armbruster, Lehr, & Osborn, 2003) (Gettinger & Stoiber, 2007).

This review provided evidence for four foundational skills: phonological awareness, oral language, alphabet knowledge, and print awareness, denoted by the acronym SOAP. The letters in SOAP stand for sound awareness (rhyming, alliteration, segmenting, blending); oral language and vocabulary (vocabulary development, expressive language, listening comprehension); alphabet knowledge (letter recognition); and print and book awareness (Gettinger & Stoiber, 2007).

Demonstration. Video vignettes (typically of the literacy coaches implementing the specific session topic effectively) were used as a method of demonstration. The video vignettes were used twice during the PD sessions - once during the explanation of the general practices and strategies and, again, to discuss how the research-supported practices were implemented (see Appendix B for review of the session template).

Coaching and follow-up (including practice and feedback). On-site early literacy coaching, mentoring, and collaborative planning with the literacy coaches occurred on a weekly basis for approximately 2 hours (per EMERGE classroom). The objectives of the literacy coaching were to (a) model strategies, (b) monitor implementation integrity through observations, and (c) provide scaffolded, individualized support for teachers through goal-setting. Each week, the coach observed the classroom teacher engage in an EMERGE-related component (e.g., shared book-reading, SOAP skills, small-group activity) and provided

feedback. In addition, coaches demonstrated evidence-based book-reading for one book per theme as shown in the EMERGE Schedule (Appendix C).

Teacher Shared Book-Reading Instruction

The Shared Book-Reading Manual (Appendix D) was provided at the beginning of the year (August) to all EMERGE classroom teachers. This manual provided a variety of strategies that teachers were encouraged to use to promote young children's development of early literacy and language skills (i.e., SOAP skills), as well as general guidelines to encourage dialogic and print-referencing techniques during shared-reading sessions. Additionally, each EMERGE book included a laminated activity card or book-reading guide. On one side of the guide were strategies for focusing on SOAP skills and 2-4 specific vocabulary words to teach, whereas the other side contained ideas for interacting with children and getting them involved during book-reading².

The EMERGE curriculum was divided into eight thematic units (e.g., *Staying Well, Staying Safe*; *Families and Celebrations*) which consisted of four or five weeks of instruction. During each week of a particular theme, theme-related books, vocabulary words, and focus alphabet letters were delineated for teachers' instructional purposes. The list of books associated with the EMERGE project as well as the target vocabulary words and letters can be found in Appendix C. Additionally, the books that the Literacy Coaches modeled, termed *demonstration books* (discussed in "Teacher Training and Coaching"), are underlined.

² Although teachers within the Control condition received books; they did not receive the book-reading guides that accompanied the books.

Shared Book-Reading Digital Recordings and Coding

For this study, two shared-reading experiences were digitally recorded in EMERGE and Control classrooms. The two books were *Over in the Meadow* (recorded in October/November) and *Mud* (recorded in April). (See Appendix E for book-reading guides). The teachers were instructed to conduct their shared-reading period with their whole classroom (group of students) as they typically would. The coding of the shared-reading digital observations occurred during February and May/June by the author and two other UW-Madison School Psychology graduate students.

Child Assessments

Trained individuals administered the battery of early literacy and language assessments in Fall 2009 (September/October) and Spring 2010 (April/May).

Analysis

For the first research question, a multiple regression analysis procedure was used to examine the extent to which the professional development and coaching component of EMERGE contributed to teachers' implementation of evidence-based shared reading strategies (Fall and Spring scores), after controlling for the effects of teachers' educational level (bachelors degree vs. no bachelors). For the Spring analysis only, teachers' Fall SBR Total scores were also used as a control variable. For the second research question, a series of multiple regression analyses were conducted (one for each measured literacy/language outcome) to examine the extent to which teachers' implementation of evidence-based shared reading strategies (Spring SBR scores)

contributed to children's literacy performance after controlling for the effects of children's Fall literacy scores.

CHAPTER 4

Results

Preliminary Student Analysis

As explained previously, there was 8.8% attrition in children across both EMERGE and Control classrooms from Fall to Spring testing. Independent t-tests were conducted to compare Fall scores on each literacy measure between students who dropped out of the study (n = 31) and those who were present for both Fall and Spring testing. As indicated in Table 10, no significant differences were found between the two groups on any literacy measure. This analysis did not reveal a potential bias in children who dropped out of the study toward lower overall skills.

Table 10

Early Literacy Assessment Pretest Means and T-test Analysis

	Fall Only $(n = 31)$		Full Year $(n = 323)$			
Early Literacy Assessments	M	SD	M	SD	t value	p value (2-tailed)
Name Writing	1.33	(1.49)	1.23	(1.48)	.27	.79
Alphabet Knowledge	5.35	(6.88)	6.87	(8.58)	95	.34
PPVT-III	85.03	(12.04)	88.91	(14.98)	-1.39	.16
Story and Print Concepts	4.68	(2.71)	4.51	(3.32)	.27	.79
Rhyme Awareness	3.84	(1.77)	3.74	(2.40)	.22	.83

Main Results

The following section describes the results from the study in relation to the primary research questions and predictions.

Effects of Coaching and Professional Development

Research Question 1: To what extent does a professional development and coaching (PD/C) intervention contribute to Head Start teachers' implementation of evidence-based shared book-reading (SBR) strategies, after controlling for the effects of teachers' education status?

Prediction 1: Based on the extant professional development literature, I predicted that the teachers receiving PD/C would implement the SBR strategies with higher fidelity as measured by the *Shared Book Reading Coding Procedure* than would the teachers in the Control condition. Given the potential impact of teachers' educational attainment level (bachelor's degree vs. no degree), this was used as a control variable. A summary of the analyses supporting this prediction is presented below. Table 11 presents the means, standard errors, and standard deviations for Fall and Spring SBR scores by condition (EMERGE vs. Control) and by education level (bachelor's degree vs. no degree).

Table 11

Teachers' Shared Book-Reading Scores by Condition and Education Level

	Fall SBR	Fall SBR Scores		R Scores	
	M (SE)	SD	M (SE)	SD	_
Condition:					_
EMERGE	21.06 (1.51)	6.03	27.00 (1.44)	5.78	

Control	13.86 (2.44)	6.47	19.14 (2.60)	6.89
Education:				
Bachelor's Degree	19.33 (2.05)	7.11	27.83 (1.76)	6.09
No Bachelor's Degree	18.36 (2.10)	6.98	21.09 (1.95)	6.46

Figure 1 presents the distribution (median, minimum, maximum, and outliers) of Fall and Spring SBR scores by condition. Two outliers are evident in the Fall scores for the Control teacher group (see Figure 1). The teacher with the highest score within the Control group had 33 years of experience and was in her final year of work towards a bachelor's degree during the time of this study. Additionally, she was of African-American descent like many of the teachers. In contrast, the lowest-scoring Control teacher held an Associate's degree with 12 years of teaching experience. She classified her ethnicity as other, Asian to be specific. Figure 1 presents the distribution (median, minimum, maximum, and outliers) of Fall and Spring SBR scores by education status. Two outliers are evident in the Spring SBR scores for teachers without bachelor's degrees (see Figure 2). The teacher with the highest Spring SBR score within the group of teachers without bachelor's degrees had 16 years of experience, was Hispanic, and received the PD/C through the EMERGE program. In contrast, the lowest-scoring non-bachelor's degree teacher on Spring SBR scores only had 7 years of teaching experience, was African-American, and received no PD/C as a function of being in the Control group.

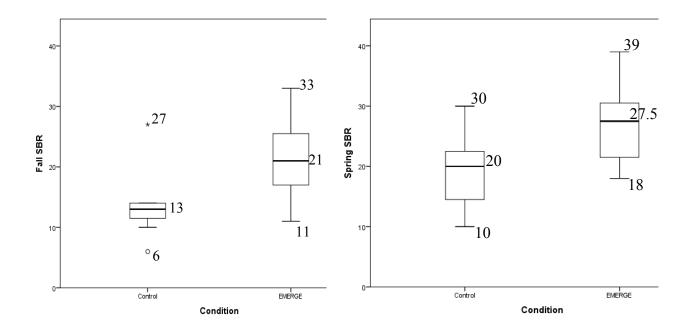


Figure 1. Teachers' shared book reading total scores scatter plot by condition. Presents the distribution (median, minimum, maximum, and outliers) of Fall and Spring SBR scores by condition.

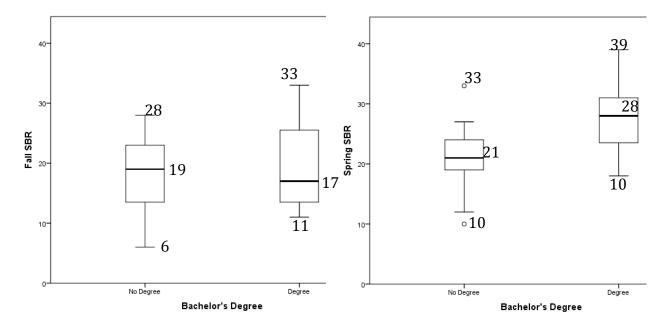


Figure 2. Teacher's shared book reading total scores scatter plot by education level. Presents the distribution (median, minimum, maximum, and outliers) of Fall and Spring SBR scores by teachers' education level.

To examine the effects of Condition (EMERGE vs. Control) and Education (bachelor's degree vs. no degree) on SBR strategies, a 2 (Condition) x 2 (Education) analyses of variance (ANOVA) was conducted using Fall (analysis #1) and Spring (analysis #2) SBR scores as dependent variables. In the Fall, main effects were found for Condition (F $_{1,19}$ = 6.38, p = .02), but not for education level or an interaction effect, p > .05. In the Spring, main effects were found for both Condition (F $_{1,19}$ = 7.67, p = .01) and Education (F $_{1,19}$ = 6.66, p = .02). Again, there was not a significant interaction effect in the Spring, p > .05.

Table 12

Teachers' Shared Book Reading Two-Way ANOVA Analysis

	Fall SBR	Fall SBR Scores		Spring SBR Scores	
	\overline{F}	p value	F	<i>p</i> value	
Condition	$F_{1,19} = 6.38$.02	F _{1,19} =7.67	.01	
Education	$F_{1, 19} = 0.63$.44	$F_{1, 19} = 6.66$.02	
Interaction	$F_{1,19} = 3.50$.08	$F_{1, 19} = 0.32$.58	

Point-biserial correlations among Fall SBR scores, Spring SBR scores, treatment condition, and education level were calculated to measure the association among variables (see Table 13). There was a moderate, statistically significant correlation between Condition and both Fall (r = .49, p = .01) and Spring (r = .53, p = .01) SBR scores. As expected, a positive association was found between teachers Fall SBR scores and their Spring scores (r = .46, p = .02). Finally, a

significant relationship was found between teacher's education level and Spring scores (r = .49, p = .02).

Table 13

Correlations Among Condition, Education Level, and Shared Book Reading Scores

	Education Status ^a	Condition	Fall SBR Total Score
Condition	.12		
Fall SBR Score	.07	.49 *	
Spring SBR Score	.49 *	.53 **	.46 *

 $^{^{}a}$ n = 23.

The results of two multiple regression analyses are presented in Table 14. For the Fall analysis, Fall SBR scores were used as the dependent variable with education status and condition as predictor variables are presented. For the first analysis, teacher's educational attainment level (bachelor's degree vs. no degree) was entered first and then condition (EMERGE or Control). For the Fall SBR scores, teachers' educational status did not explain significant variance in teachers' implementation of evidence-based SBR strategies. When controlling for degree, condition was found to explain significant variance in teachers' practices ($F_{2,20} = 3.18$; p < .05). For the Spring, the Spring SBR scores were used as the dependent variable and Fall SBR scores, education status, and condition as predictor variables. Fall SBR Total Scores were entered first, then teachers' educational attainment level (bachelor's degree vs. no degree), and lastly condition (EMERGE or Control). As shown in Table 14, as expected, Fall

^{*} p < .05. ** p < .01.

SBR scores explained significant variance (18%; p < .03) in teachers' Spring SBR scores. The model including Fall SBR scores and teachers' education status (Δ R² for education = .21; p < .01) accounted for 37% of the variance. Lastly, the Δ R² attributed to treatment condition (.09; p < .08) was not significant. The model including all three predictors (Fall SBR scores, education, and treatment condition) explained 44% (p = .001) of the variance in teachers' SBR scores in the spring; yet was not significant.

Table 14

Regression Analyses with Teachers' Educational Level and Condition as Predictors of Shared

Book Reading Scores

	Variables	F for Model	p value	R^2	Adj R ²	$\frac{\Delta}{R^2}$	F Change	p value
Fall SBR Total Score	Step 1 Education	$F_{1,21} = .11$.75	.01	.00			
	Step 2 Condition	$F_{2,20} = 3.18$.06	.24	.17	.24	$F_{1,20} = 6.22$.02
Spring SBR Total Score	Step 1 Fall SBR	F _{1,21} = 5.69	.03	.21	.18			
	Step 2 Education	$F_{2,20} = 7.34$.00	.42	.37	.21	$F_{1,20} = 7.29$.01
	Step 3 Condition	$F_{3,19} = 6.67$.00	.51	.44	.09	$F_{1, 19} = 3.48$.08

Regression coefficients are reported in Table 15 for each of the book-reading observational periods (Fall and Spring). For Fall, only condition contributes positively to the variance in teachers' SBR scores (β = .49. p < .05). For predicting teachers' Spring SBR scores, model 2 in which Fall SBR scores and teachers' degree attainment were entered is the best model for predicting teachers' level of implementation in the Spring. Further analyses indicate the extent to which each of the two independent variables contributes to the model. Table 15 indicates the betas (β) for the model. Interestingly, degree contributes most to the Spring Scores (β = .46) with Fall SBR Total Scores contributing to a lesser extent (β = .43).

Table 15

Regression Coefficients for Educational Level and Condition as Predictors of Literacy Scores

	Predictor	В
	Variable	_
Fall SBR ^a	1. Education	.01
	2. Condition	.49 *
Spring SBR ^b	1. Fall SBR	.43 * .46 **
	2. Education	.46 **

^aF_{1,20} = 6.22, Adjusted R² = .17, p = .02; ^bF_{1,20} = 7.29, Adjusted R² = .01, p = .01. * p < .05. ** p < .01.

Relationship Between Teachers' Level of Implementation of SBR Strategies and Student Outcomes

Research Question: To what extent does Head Start teachers' level of implementation of evidence-based SBR strategies influence students' emergent literacy outcomes?

Prediction: I predicted that higher implementation of evidence-based SBR strategies by teachers (Spring SBR Total Score) would be associated with more positive emergent literacy outcomes for children (Spring measures). As explained below, this prediction was supported for four of the measured outcomes (Name Writing, PPVT-III, Rhyme Awareness, and Story and Print Concepts).

Table 16 presents the means, standard errors, and standard deviations for Fall and Spring (shaded columns in table) early literacy measures for all participating classrooms and by condition (EMERGE and Control).

Table 16

Teachers' Spring Shared Book Reading Scores and Early Literacy Scores for Children in Their Classroom

	All Classrooms		EMI	ERGE	Control	
	n =	23	n =	= 16	16 n =	
	Fall	Spring	Fall	Spring	Fall	Spring
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Literacy Measure:						
Name	1.21	2.38	1.06	2.49	1.55	2.14
Writing	(.69)	(.73)	(.06)	(.76)	(.73)	(.66)
Alphabet	7.15	12.46	7.37	13.93	6.66	9.10
Knowledge	(3.32)	(4.59)	(3.46)	(4.31)	(3.19)	(3.45)
PPVT-III	89.42	93.33	89.52	94.93	89.21	89.69
	(4.96)	(5.41)	(4.23)	(4.27)	(6.72)	(6.27)
Rhyme	3.64	4.94	3.57	5.37	3.80	3.96
Awareness	(.98)	(1.06)	(1.00)	(.90)	(.97)	(.65)
Story and Print	4.43	6.70	4.40	10.80	4.50	5.34

Concept (1.67) (1.92) (1.79) (7.30) (1.45) (1.30)

Pearson Product-Moment Correlations were calculated to examine the linear relationship between teachers' Spring SBR scores and their students' Spring early literacy scores. As shown in Table 17, moderate correlations were found between teachers' SBR scores and children's scores on Rhyme Awareness (r = .53, p = .01) and the Story and Print Concepts Task (r = .44, p = .04).

Table 17

Correlations Among Teachers' Spring Shared Book Reading Scores and Students' Early

Literacy Outcome Scores

	Spring Early Literacy Outcome Scores				
	Name Writing	Alphabet Knowledge	PPVT-III	Rhyme Awareness	SPCT
SBR Total Score ^a	.32	.19	.14	.53**	.44*

 $^{^{}a}$ n = 23.

The results of a series of multiple regression analyses (with Spring scores on five literacy measures as the dependent variables, and Fall performance on each literacy measure and teachers' Spring SBR scores as predictor variables) are presented in Table 18. For each analysis, Fall literacy scores were entered first, then teachers' SBR scores derived from coding their Spring book-reading period. As shown in Table 18 and as expected, children's Fall literacy scores explained significant variance in their Spring scores ($R^2 = .35$ [Rhyme Awareness] to .66

^{*} p < .05. ** p < .01.

[Alphabet Knowledge]). The Δ R² attributed to teachers' SBR scores was significant for four of five literacy measures: Name Writing (Δ R² for education = .11; p < .01); PPVT-III (Δ R² for education = .09; p < .03); Rhyme Awareness (Δ R² for education = .11; p < .05), and Story and Print Concepts (Δ R² for education = .09; p < .03). Interestingly, teachers' use of evidence-based SBR strategies did not explain significant variability in children's Spring Alphabet Knowledge scores (after controlling for Fall Alphabet Knowledge).

Table 18

Regression Analysis with Fall Literacy and Spring Shared Book Reading Scores as Predictors of Spring Literacy Scores

	Variables	F for Model	p value	R ²	Adj R ²	$\frac{\Delta}{R^2}$	F Change	p value
Name Writing (NW)	Step 1 Fall NW	F _{1,21} = 27.78	.00	.57	.55			
	Step 2 Spring SBR	$F_{2,20} = 21.62$.00	.68	.65	.11	$F_{1,20} = 7.22$.01
Alphabet Knowledge (AK)	Step 1 Fall AK	F _{1,21} = 40.29	.00	.66	.64			
(7111)	Step 2 Spring SBR	$F_{2,20} = 20.38$.00	.67	.64	.01	$F_{1,20} = .82$.38
PPVT-III	Step 1 Fall PPVT- III	F _{1,21} = 30.89	.00	.59	.57			
	Step 2 Spring SBR	$F_{2,20} = 21.62$.00	.68	.65	.09	$F_{1,20} = 5.59$.03
Rhyme Awareness (RA)	Step 1 Fall RA	F _{1,21} = 11.06	.00	.35	.31			
(1111)	Step 2 Spring SBR	$F_{2,20} = 8.67$.00	.46	.41	.11	$F_{1,20} = 4.46$.05
Story and Print Concepts	Step 1 Fall SPC	F _{1,21} = 32.85	.00	.61	.59			
Concepts	Step 2 Spring SBR	F _{2,20} = 22.92	.00	.70	.67	.09	$F_{1,20} = 5.67$.03

Regression coefficients are reported in Table 19 for each of the early literacy outcomes. For Name Writing, Fall NW contributes most to Spring NW scores (β = .76, p < .00), while teachers SBR scores contribute slightly (β = .34, p < .01). For Alphabet Knowledge, student's Fall scores only contribute to their Spring scores (β = .80, p < .00). For PPVT-III, student's Fall scores (β = .83, p < .00) and teachers' Spring SBR scores (β = .30, p < .05) both contribute significantly. For Rhyme Awareness, students' fall scores (β = .45, p < .05) and teachers' SBR strategies (β = .37, p < .05) contributed to their Spring scores. Lastly, students' Story and Print Concepts Spring scores were affected by both the students' Fall Scores (β = .73, p < .00) and teachers' SBR implementation (β = .30, p < .05)

Table 19

Regression Coefficients with Students' Fall Literacy and Teachers' Spring Shared Book Reading

Scores as Predictors of Students' Spring Literacy Outcomes

	Predictor Variable	В
Name Writing (NW) ^a	 Fall NW Spring SBR 	.76** .34**
Alphabet Knowledge	1. Fall AK	.80**
(AK) ^b PPVT-III ^c	2. Spring SBR 1. Fall PPVT-III	.12
	2. Spring SBR	.30*
Rhyme Awareness	1. Fall RA	.45*

$(RA)^d$	2. Spring SBR	.37*	
Story and Print	1. Fall SPC	.73**	
Concepts ^e	2. Spring SBR	.30*	

 $^{^{}a}$ F $_{1, 20}$ = 7.22, Adjusted R² = .65, p = .01; b F $_{1, 20}$ = .82, Adjusted R² = .64, p = .38; c F $_{1, 20}$ = 5.59, Adjusted R² = .65, p = .03; d F $_{1, 20}$ = 4.46, Adjusted R² = .41, p = .05; e F $_{1, 20}$ = 5.67, Adjusted R² = .67, p = .03. * p < .05. ** p < .01.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

This study examined the impact of professional development and coaching on Head Start teachers' shared book-reading practices and, in turn, students' early literacy outcomes. Eleven Head Start sites were randomly assigned to two conditions (intervention and control). This resulted in two groups of teachers, one group (n = 16) that received weekly coaching and monthly professional training and another group that did not receive professional development/coaching (PD/C). The intervention and control teachers' scores on a SBR observation instrument, *SBR Coding Procedure*, were analyzed to determine the effect, if any, of PD/C. Additionally, the students' scores on measures of alphabet knowledge, name writing, phonological awareness, receptive vocabulary, and print concepts were analyzed to determine if teachers' use of evidence-based SBR strategies, irrespective of condition, contributed to literacy outcomes.

The goal of this study was to contribute to the growing literature base regarding the impact of teacher professional development and coaching on teachers' instructional practices.

Specifically, it was the intent of the study to examine Head Start teachers' implementation of evidence-based practices as a function of receiving professional development training and coaching as outlined by Joyce and Showers (1980, 1996). It was hypothesized that the teachers receiving training would have higher implementation of effective SBR strategies. Additionally, this research project hoped to confirm previous research findings documenting the benefits of shared book-reading on early literacy outcomes. Shared book-reading interventions purport to

positively affect young children's code- and meaning-related language and early literacy development (Snow et al., 1998; IRA/NAEYC, 1998; National Early Literacy Panel, 2009). *Effects of Coaching and Professional Development*

Over the last 40 years, researchers (e.g., Cooper, 2008; Garet et al., 2001; Showers, Joyce, & Bennett, 1987; Zaslow et al., 2010) and national organizations (e.g., National Reading Panel, 2000; National Staff Development Council, 2001) have studied and summarized the "best practices" in effective professional development. Although a clear consensus on "best practices" has not been surmised, recently the National Professional Development Center on Inclusion (NPDCI) developed and disseminated a definition of professional development. The NPDCI definition states: "Professional development is facilitated teaching and learning experiences that are transactional and designed to support the acquisition of professional knowledge, skills, and disposition as well as the application of this knowledge in practice" (NPDCI, 2008, p. 3).

It seems fitting based on the above definition that I hypothesized that teachers receiving the PD/C would have higher implementation fidelity, also referred to as "application of knowledge," as measured by the *SBR Coding Procedure*'s Total Score. Indeed, the teachers receiving PD/C had higher implementation of evidence-based SBR practices as gauged by their overall mean scores on the *SBR Coding Procedure* in the Fall and Spring. Additionally, the effects of the PD/C were found to be fairly immediate and moderate to strong. This is evidenced in the *SBR Coding Procedure*'s Fall scores for the EMERGE teachers which were found to be statistically higher than those for the Control condition following just 6-8 weeks of PD/C. More importantly, these findings are similar to past research. Although there was no standardized or scripted withdrawal

of support from the coach in the spring, the treatment teachers were intentionally receiving increasingly less and less scaffolding as the year progressed in order to move teachers toward independent implementation. With this gradual decrease in scaffolded support over the course of the year, the interventional effects slowly dissipated as well. Juxtaposed to this finding is the realization that Control teachers also displayed marked increases in shared-book reading behaviors, even though they were not receiving PD/C. Anecdotally, but of importance is the fact that the EMERGE project provided books and literature-related materials to the Control classrooms. It seems feasible that the simple inclusion of reading-related materials assisted with the facilitation and implementation of reading and language instruction by the teachers within the Control classrooms. This hypothesis is also confirmed because the specific teacher literacy behaviors that substantially increased (e.g., vocabulary, book awareness) are those in which little support and training is needed, while those that require support and coaching (i.e., phonemic awareness) did not substantially increase (see Appendix F).

Effects of Educational Level on Teacher Performance

National initiatives in K-12 (NCLB, 2001), as well as early childhood (e.g., reauthorization of Head Start, PL 110-134, 2007) emphasize the importance of teacher training (i.e., degree) and qualifications on students' academic performance. Given these initiatives, I hypothesized that teachers' educational level may contribute to their implementation of evidence-based SBR practices. For this reason, educational level (bachelor's degree vs. no degree) was used as a control variable in the analysis of professional development training and coaching on teachers' SBR practices. The results of this study indicate that having a bachelor's degree contributed to

teachers' SBR practices for the Spring observation only. Research on the relationship between teacher credentials (e.g., college degree) and classroom practices and student outcomes has found mixed results. Published work prior to 2000 found that teachers with more formal education provide higher-quality care than do those with less formal education (NICHD Early Child Care Research Network, 1996; Phillips, Mekos, Scarr, McCartney, & Abbott-Shim, 2000; Phillipsen, Burchinal, Howes, & Cryer, 1997). A more recent project (Brown, Molfese, & Molfese, 2008) found that preschool teachers' educational attainment (bachelor's degree vs. no degree) did not have a large impact in all skill areas of interest (literacy and mathematics). In the Brown et al. (2008) study, four areas were assessed in literacy and mathematics (letter identification, enumeration, cardinality, and numeral recognition); teacher education was related to only one component of the literacy domain (letter identification). In another example, a replicated secondary data analysis was conducted to analyze seven large data sets using similarly defined variables to explain the effects of teacher education on classroom quality and children's skills (Early et al., 2007). Early et al.'s (2007) study found mixed results. In some cases, teachers with a bachelor's degree had lower quality classrooms compared with teachers without a degree. For academic outcomes, none of the seven studies found an association between teachers' highest degree and receptive language skills (as measured using the PPVT). Two studies reported significant differences between teachers with degrees versus those without a degree on a prereading measure (Woodcock-Johnson Letter-Word Identification), and five of the seven studies found no association between early math skills (Woodcock-Johnson Applied Problems) and

whether the teacher had a bachelor's degree. This information indicates that further research is paramount to understanding the effects of teacher education on their teaching practices.

When examining the present results, it is interesting that significant effects of educational level were only found in the Spring. A number of hypotheses could account for this finding. One potential hypothesis is that those teachers with a bachelor's degree had a deeper understanding of teaching practices at the beginning of the school year, but it was simply not accounted for in the Fall video-recording. A second hypothesis is that those teachers without a bachelor's degree simply did not understand the meaningfulness of shared book-reading experiences, irrespective of treatment condition. It could be hypothesized that at first these teachers followed along with the purpose of the project; however, their lack of teacher preparation courses led to underestimated beliefs about shared-book reading effectiveness.

Implementation of Evidence-Based SBR Practices and Literacy Outcome

The purpose of this research project was also to examine the relationship between teachers' implementation of evidence-based SBR strategies and students' literacy behaviors. Given that a multitude of research reports and policy documents (IRA & NAEYC, 1998; NELP, 2009; Snow et al., 1998) encourage and support providing young children with high-quality shared-reading opportunities as a way to promote development of literacy skills, the original authors utilized this intervention strategy. Shared book-reading has garnered an extensive amount of attention because research has shown that shared-reading with young children may affect several key areas of their language and literacy development. This project's shared book-reading model was rooted in two evidence-based strategies, dialogic reading and print referencing, in hopes of

increasing multiple emergent literacy components of literacy and language development (i.e., both code-focused and meaning-related skills). The present study found that name writing, phonemic awareness, receptive vocabulary, and print/book concepts were significantly impacted by teachers' shared book-reading practices. These findings are similar to those of previous researchers who found increases in the same early literacy and language areas.

Name Writing. It may seem surprising that children's name writing abilities would be affected by teachers' implementation of evidence-based SBR practices; however, previous studies of shared-reading interventions have also observed positive effects on children's namewriting abilities (e.g., Aram, 2006). The positive effect of SBR on name writing can also be interpreted within a developmental context. Researchers have discovered that children's first experiences with the alphabet occurs in a somewhat sequential manner. Typically, students' experience of the alphabet/name writing begins with the ABC song and then with the knowledge of the letters of their first name. Justice, Pence, Bowles, and Wiggins (2006) tested four hypotheses to characterize influences on the order with which low-income preschool children learn names of individual letters. The hypotheses include: "(a) own-name advantage, which states that children learn those letters which occur in their own names, (b) the *letter-order* hypothesis, which states that letters occurring earlier in the alphabet string are learned before letters occurring later in the alphabet string, (c) the *letter-name pronunciation effect*, which states that children learn earlier those alphabet letters for which the name of the letter is in the letter's pronunciation, and (d) the *consonant-order hypothesis*, which states that children learn earlier letters for which corresponding consonantal phonemes are learned early in phonological

development" (p. 374). The authors used the Alphabet Knowledge subtest of the Phonological Awareness Literacy Screening- PreK (PALS-PreK) and evaluated the four hypotheses using a linear logic test model (LLTM). Results found that the *own-name advantage, letter-order hypothesis*, and *letter-name pronunciation effect* were all significant. Specifically, the first letter of the child's name was 11 times more likely to be known than a letter not in that child's name (own-name advantage). In addition, letters in the first half of the alphabet string (A-M) had a slightly higher percentage correct (29%) than letters in the second half (26%). Thus, it is possible that the results related to children's name writing reflect a development progression of letter knowledge acquisition rather than resulting from being exposed to letters in books.

Alphabet knowledge. Alphabet knowledge was the only early literacy area that was not found to be significantly impacted by teachers' implementation of shared-reading strategies. This finding is not surprising given that teachers' emphasis on alphabet knowledge skills during book reading was relatively weak, as compared to the other areas (for review of SBR Coding Procedure scores, see Appendix F). Additionally, past research has found that teachers and parents focus less on code-related skills than on meaning-related skills when reading books aloud to children (Hindman, Connor, Jewkes, & Morrison, 2008). This finding was present even when books included a strong alphabet and phonological emphasis. Unlike the Hindman et al. (2008) study, the present study's two books, Over in the Meadow and Mud, do not lend themselves to a high emphasis on letter knowledge. Interestingly, however, other coded-related skills (name writing, phonemic awareness, and print/book concepts) were significantly impacted by teachers'

SBR strategies. Thus, this particular finding regarding alphabet knowledge warrants further investigation.

Receptive vocabulary. That children's vocabulary outcomes were highly associated with teacher implementation of evidence-based SBR strategies is not surprising. As mentioned above, teachers and parents emphasize more meaning-related skills during book reading than code-focused skills (Hindman et al., 2008). Additionally, the shared book reading approach in EMERGE incorporated dialogic reading strategies. Dialogic reading is a well-researched shared-reading approach for increasing oral language and vocabulary development for low-income children through the use of language prompts and open-ended questions (e.g., Lonigan & Whitehurst, 1998; Whitehurst, Arnold et al., 1994; Zevenbergen & Whitehurst, 2003).

Phonological awareness. Phonological awareness, specifically rhyme awareness, was modestly affected by teacher implementation of SBR strategies. Research conducted by Justice and colleagues (see Justice & Ezell, 2000, 2002; Justice & Kadaeravek, 2002; Justice & Pullen, 2003) demonstrate that an embedded focus on print or code-related skills during reading can have a positive effect on increasing this emergent literacy area. For the present study, both of the books, *Mud* and *Over in the Meadow*, lent themselves to rhyming activities especially for those teachers in the intervention group whom had access to the book-reading guides (see Appendix E).

Story and print concepts. Print referencing is a technique for emphasizing print and book awareness during a shared-reading experience. The results of the present study indicate that teachers' implementation of evidence-based SBR strategies contributed to students' story and

print concepts outcome scores. This finding can most likely be explained by the fact that the measurement of story and print concepts used an authentic book-reading context that was similar to the observed book-reading period. In other words, there was overlap between the measurement procedure and the observed book-reading procedure. Additionally, much research has purported print referencing techniques such as print meaning (e.g., print function, environmental print, concept of reading), book organization (e.g., page order, title of book, author's purpose), letters domain (e.g., names of letters, sounds), word domain (e.g., word identification, long vs. short words) as key characteristics for honing code-related skills (Zucker, Ward, & Justice, 2009).

Limitations

This study has several limitations that warrant mention. First, the *SBR Coding Procedure* was developed specifically for the EMERGE project, and, as such, there are limited data concerning reliability and validity of the measure. The 2009-10 school year was the first use of the coding procedure; therefore, additional revisions are needed to ensure that all of the essential components to emergent literacy instruction are included. To expand on this limitation, the *SBR Coding Procedure* is specific to the EMERGE project and the evidence-based shared book-reading strategies (dialogic reading and print referencing) that the original authors (Gettinger and Stoiber) developed through a literature review of other book-reading observational tools.

Although shared book reading observational tool development is a burgeoning area of research (see below), the lack of reliability and validity is still deemed as a limitation.

A second general limitation of the present study is the sample. The present study only sampled Head Start teachers in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, therefore, compromising the generalization of the findings to teachers and students in other early learning centers. Recent research has found that students at various ability levels can prosper from various emphases during book-reading experiences. In one example, Hindman et al (2008) proposed that tailoring book reading to children's ability level may be more promising than implementing a standard approach to SBR. The teachers in the present study did not tailor their book reading to the specific needs of each individual child.

Third, given that the EMERGE project was not only a research project but an opportunity to provide professional development and training for teachers, multiple books were used during the shared book-reading recordings. To control for the possible effects of the book content/emphasis, the same book could have been used across the multiple video-recordings to truly measure changes in teachers' implementation of evidence-based early literacy strategies. This did not occur, as the goal of the project was to enrich children's knowledge of a wide variety of books and topics. However, it also made the growth comparison analysis difficult as no two books are the same and each has the potential to emphasis different early literacy and language skills (e.g., rhyming versus letter knowledge).

A fourth limitation is that only two time periods (Fall and Spring) were video-recorded to obtain data on teacher implementation of SBR practices. Ideally, more frequent video-recordings would have provided more in-depth information about teacher performance across various books. This data could have been utilized for tailoring coaching sessions and follow-up

discussions in the monthly professional development meetings. Additionally, more frequent video-recordings could have provided a more frequent check on teachers' book-reading and their ongoing implementation of evidence-based practices on a more regular basis.

A final limitation is the lack of multiple-method (e.g., surveys, interviews, observations) data-gathering procedures which would elicit richer demographic information about teachers. Specifically more information about their degree, socio-economic status, and beliefs about the intervention would have been useful. This additional information about teacher characteristics could have been used in analyzing the influence these characteristics/beliefs had on their implementation of evidence-based SBR strategies.

Implications of Findings and Future Directions

First and foremost, the present study evaluated the present level of performance of the teachers for one academic school year. These findings indicated that the professional development and coaching component of the EMERGE study impacted the teachers' implementation of evidence-based book-reading strategies. Given the limitations discussed above, one can assume that the intervention was effective in changing the practices of early childhood teachers. Indeed, to truly impact change we must ensure that this change is long-term. Although literacy coaches slowly increased EMERGE teachers' autonomy and provided less scaffolding and assistance as the project concluded, additional studies should include long-term analysis of teacher practices one year or longer following PD/C if the effects of PD/C are, indeed, long-term.

Although there is much debate in the literature regarding the importance of teachers' degree status, educational policies have stood firm in their stance about the importance of preschool teachers having at least a bachelor's degree. I agree about the importance of having bachelor degrees because of the greater knowledge base and understanding that a person acquires through obtaining a degree; however, research is mixed on the effects for preschool students' outcomes. This conundrum contributes to the debate about the value of a bachelor's degree, particularly in certain educational settings. Although this study confirms that teachers' educational degree serves as a proxy for one's ability to learn from a college-like professional training program, closer inspection on defining degree is paramount for this area of research to truly contribute to the field. First, researchers must fine-tune the definition of degree given the various ways in which educational status (e.g., bachelor's degree vs. no degree; comparing various areas of study; CDA vs. bachelor's degree vs. post-bachelorate) is presently operationalized in the literature. Secondly, all bachelor degrees cannot and should be equally weighted. An individual with a degree in Early Childhood Special Education would most likely serve students differently than a teacher with a bachelor's degree in Science. Additionally, a bachelor's degree earned in 1982 is not equivalent to a bachelor's degree earned in 2012. With the continual evolvement of practices and beliefs, the degree type and year of graduation most likely affects individuals' practices; however, data must support these hypotheses and is an area in which further investigation is needed.

Along with research evaluating the long-term effects on teacher outcomes, the continuation of studies that follow students, especially at-risk students who have participated in research

studies, is important. Studies like the Perry Preschool Project and the Abecedarian Project, both longitudinal studies (Brooks-Gunn, 2003), have catapulted research about preschool education. These studies and others like it formed the groundwork for additional work to now research the long-term impact of specific components of high-quality early learning environments. The current study emphasized an early literacy intervention, shared book reading, which found positive outcomes in several areas. It also is significant in its approach of combining two evidence-based shared book-reading approaches (dialogic reading and print-referencing) to target both code-focused and meaning-related literacy skills. Additional studies should continue to research this type of interventional approach so that a growing research base may be formulated. It is also paramount to measure the impact of preschool literacy interventions on students as they enter kindergarten, continue their educational careers, and enter into adulthood.

The present study and others like it (e.g., Hindman et al., 2008) warrant additional research regarding teachers' focus on code- and meaning-related skills during book-reading. Interestingly, this study found that teachers' emphasized some code-related skills but not all. Additional research should extend these findings to determine the extent to which shared book-reading instruction provides the most effective context for promoting code-related, early literacy skill development.

Lastly, continual work on developing standardized shared book-reading observational tools is paramount. To date, a few observational tools have been published, including the *Adult/Child Interactive Reading Inventory* (ACIRI; DeBruin-Parecki, 2006), the *Observation Measure of Language and Literacy Instruction-Read Aloud Profile* (OMLIT-RAP; Goodson, Layzer, Smith,

& Rimdzius, 2006), the *Early Language and Literacy Classroom Observation* Pre-K Toolkit (ELLCO Pre-K; Smith, Brady, & Anastasopoulos, 2008), and the *Systematic Assessment of Book Reading* (SABR; Justice, Zucker, & Sofka, 2010). Each of these makes a contribution to analyzing shared-reading and it is believed that continual analysis using these tools will be helpful. Of special importance is analyzing these observational tools by educators and administrators in efforts of determining their effectiveness and usefulness in preschool settings.

The Shared Book Reading Coding Procedure (Gettinger & Stoiber, n.d.) is a simple tool that measures not only teacher behaviors and interactions but also teacher responsiveness and managerial skills. Video-recordings of teachers' shared-reading interactions can later be coded by a lead teacher and/or administrator and then used for coaching purposes. The tool also is very specific to the evidence-based early literacy skills that are important, unlike some of the other tools mentioned above. For example, the ELLCO Pre-K is a global rating of the classroom environment with one subscale that focuses on the shared reading process while the ACIRI is meant for analysis of parent-child dyad during shared-reading interactions. It will be crucial for further studies to include the usefulness of these tools for preschool educators and staff; therefore, providing researchers and the community with a valid and reliable tool.

Conclusion

Research evaluating the effectiveness of professional development on the language and literacy development of at-risk preschoolers has evolved over the years. In more recent years, research has emphasized the use of experimental designs, specifically randomized control trials, in an effort to increase the internal validity of the findings. Most notably, research has shown

that early childhood educators must be trained and supported to execute evidence-based early literacy practices. This study confirms that professional development and training, specifically in the form of ongoing coaching, is effective in promoting teachers' implementation of evidence-based book-reading strategies. Interestingly, teachers' educational level was also found to be important in predicting teachers' abilities to implement effective SBR practices. Finally, the results of the present study also demonstrate that teachers' effective book-reading strategies have a positive impact on multiple literacy outcomes, thus underscoring the importance of this common preschool activity on at-risk children's literacy and language development.

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Appendix A: Shared Book-Reading Activity Coding Procedure

CLASSROOM CODING: SHARED BOOK-READING

Date:	Coder:	-
Book Title:		
Teacher:	Number of Adults:	
Length of Video:	Approximate Number of Children:	
behaviors and interactions that responsiveness and managerial preview the session during the finally, code teacher responsive Note any special circumstances	book-reading (SBR) is coded on two broad dimension focus on emergent literacy and language skills, and skills. View each videotaped SBR session three time first viewing; (b) next, code teacher literacy behavioreness. So or general comments about the observation below, he teacher doing the book reading.	(b) teacher nes: (a) ors; and (c)
General Observations or Con	nments:	

TEACHER LITERACY BEHAVIORS AND INTERACTIONS

I.	Motivation for Reading the	: Book [Checi	k each behavid	or if it occurs most of the time, i.e., at					
least 5	0%.]								
	Teacher conveys the idea that reading is fun – arouses excitement or curiosity about the story.								
	Teacher seems to have fun.								
	Children seem to enjoy the stor	y time (i.e., me	ost children, n	nost of the time).					
	Teacher uses expression, gestur								
CATEGORY SCORE (possible score = 4)									
To what extent did the teacher promote children's motivation for reading the book?									
	1	2	3	4					
	not at all, or rarely	a little	a lot	extremely, or almost always					

II. Oral Language and Vocabulary

Circle 0, 1, or 2 for each indicator.	Does	Occurs	Occurs
Sum ratings to determine	not	ineffectively	often and
category score.	occur	and/or1-2 times	effectively
Teacher makes connections between concepts in the story and children's experiences (<i>This story is about a Hungry Caterpillar. Have you ever seen a caterpillar?</i>)	0	1	2
Teacher accurately, verbally explains vocabulary words that children may not know.	0	1	2
If the teacher demonstrates what words mean without explanations, code as 1 (e.g., shows a "sad face" when reading/saying the word "sad").			
Teacher provides opportunities for all children to respond orally by asking simple open-ended questions (not "yes-no" questions), incorporating choral responding, etc	0	1	2
Teacher calls attention to pictures and encourages children to think about or talk about pictures (e.g., name objects in pictures, describe pictures, etc.).	0	1	2
Teacher focuses on target vocabulary words for the book:	0	1	2
CATEGORY SCORE			
(possible score = 10)			

III. Phonological Awareness

Circle 0, 1, or 2 for each indicator. Sum ratings to determine category score.	Does not occur	Occurs ineffectively and/or 1-2 times	Occurs often and effectively
Teacher points out rhyming and/or alliteration (i.e., words that start with the same sound) in the story.	0	1	2
Teacher plays with words or sounds in the book, such as rhyming games (<i>This story is called Matt the Cat. Matt the Cat is wearing a h</i> .).	0	1	2
Teacher uses children's names (or other familiar words) to focus on alliteration and/or rhyming (<i>This story is about Maia. Who has a name that starts the same as Maia?</i>).	0	1	2
Teacher asks children to clap out (or move in some similar manner) syllables or sounds in words.	0	1	2
If children move or do motions in rhythm with words/phrases (without an explicit focus on individual syllables, sounds, or words), code as 1.			
CATEGORY SCORE (possible score = 8)			

To what extent did the teacher promote phonological awareness during SBR?					
	1	2	3	4	
	not at all, or rarely	a little	a lot	extremely, or almost always	

IV. Letter Knowledge

Circle 0, 1, or 2 for each indicator. Sum ratings to determine category score.	Does not occur	Occurs ineffectively and/or 1-2 times	Occurs often and effectively
Teacher makes connections or matches letters in children's names (or other familiar words) and letters in words in the book.	0	1	2
Teacher talks about/points out letters in words (i.e., names letters and may give the sound of the letter).	0	1	2
Teacher provides opportunities for children to name and/or find letters in the book.	0	1	2
Teacher focuses on target letters for the week:	0	1	2
CATEGORY SCORE (possible score = 8)			

To what extent did the teacher promote letter knowledge during SBR?						
1	1 2 3 4					
not at all, or rarely	a little	a lot	extremely, or almost always			

V. Print and Book Awareness

Circle 0, 1, or 2 for each indicator. Sum ratings to determine	Does not	Occurs ineffectively	Occurs often and
category score.	occur	and/or 1-2 times	effectively
Teacher calls attention to the parts (e.g., front, back) or characteristics (e.g., big book, soft cover book) of the book.	0	1	2
Teacher points to, and/or reads, and/or asks about the title , author , illustrator .	0	1	2
Teacher points to the print and occasionally runs finger along the text while reading.	0	1	2
Teacher demonstrates and verbally explains and/or asks children how to read a book , e.g., "Now I'm going to turn the page." or "Where do I start reading on this page?"	0	1	2
CATEGORY SCORE (possible score = 8)			

To what extent did the teacher promote print and book awareness during SBR?					
1	2	3	4		
not at all, or rarely	a little	a lot	extremely, or almost always		

VI. Comprehension of Story or Content of Book

Circle 0, 1, or 2 for each indicator.	Does	Occurs	Occurs
Sum ratings to determine	not	ineffectively	often and
category score.	occur	and/or 1-2	effectively
		times	
Teacher gives children opportunity to actively participate, i.e.,			
may use gestures, props, creative dramatics, flannel board, etc.	0	1	2
Teacher encourages children to talk about the book, e.g., to			
link events, characters, and the content of the book to their	0	1	2
personal experiences. Note that this will often occur by asking			
questions throughout SBR about the content of the book.			
Teacher asks children to make predictions before/during			
reading. Note that children do not need to verbalize their	0	1	2
predictions.			
Teacher asks children to complete parts of sentences and/or			
say phrases that are repeated throughout the book. Note that	0	1	2
some books do not have repetitive content and may not lend			
themselves to this occurring.			
CATEGORY SCORE			
(possible score = 8			

To what extent did the teacher promote story comprehension during SBR?					
1	2	3	4		
not at all, or rarely	a little	a lot	extremely, or almost always		

SUMMARY SCORES

TOTAL SCORE (all category scores summed together; possible range = 0-46):	
TOTAL RATING (all category ratings summed; possible range = 6-24):	

TEACHER RESPONSIVENESS AND MANAGERIAL SKILLS

1.		oice [Check each indica at least 50%.]	ator if it characterizes	most of the videotaped	d period of
	Teacher use appropriate	es warm and calm voice).	e (appropriately loud o	or soft; gentle, peacefu	l, and mild, when
——ne	Teacher's gative).	s voice conveys respect	and interest (sincere,	genuine, respectful; no	ot sarcastic or
	Teacher s	shows an absence of abr	ruptness (keeps moder	rate pace; does not "cu	t off").
	CATEGO	ORY SCORE (possibl	e score = 3)		
Н	ow would yo	ou rate the quality and ap	opropriateness of the te	eacher's tone of voice	during SBR?
	1	2	3	4	5
VE	ERY LOW	LOW AVERAGE	AVERAGE HI	GH AVERAGE V	ERY HIGH
ins: pos	w if any tances of sitive licators	Some instances of positive indicators, but with some negative episodes	Some instances of positive indicators, with few if any negative episodes	Mostly positive indicators, with few if any negative episodes	Almost always positive indicators

II.	Nonverbal Communication [Check each indicator if it characterizes most of the videotaped period of time, i.e., at least 50%.]					
	•	behavior, gestures, and I" with children; touches		• •		
	Teacher sn easily with	niles and laughs with chachildren).	ildren (smiles frequer	ntly; smiles naturally a	nd warmly; laughs	
	Teacher ha	as physical proximity (s	its close to children; n	nakes eye contact with	children).	
	CATEG	ORY SCORE (possibl	le score = 3)			
How	would you r	ate the quality and appro	priateness of the teach SBR?	ner's nonverbal comn	nunication during	
	1	2	3	4	5	
V	ERY LOW	LOW AVERAGE	AVERAGE I	HIGH AVERAGE	VERY HIGH	
in: po	ew if any stances of ositive dicators	Some instances of positive indicators, but with some negative episodes	Some instances of positive indicators, with few if any negative episodes	Mostly positive indicators, with few if any negative episodes	Almost always positive indicators	

III.		tions (Listening, Turners most of the videotape	<u> </u>	U, 2	dicator if it
as		encourages children to to tions; listens to children;			
	Teacher gives directions or asks questions in developmentally-appropriate manner (does not repeat unnecessarily or "nag"; repeats as necessary; does not "talk down" to children or "over their heads").				
	prevents ch	balance between teachen ildren from talking; follows ORY SCORE (possible possible po	ows children's lead as		degree that
	CATEG	OKI SCOKE (possion	= 5016 - 3)		
Но	ow would yo	ou rate the quality and ap	propriateness of the te	eacher's conversation	s during SBR?
	1	2	3	4	5
VE	ERY LOW	LOW AVERAGE	AVERAGE I	HIGH AVERAGE	VERY HIGH
ins. pos	w if any tances of sitive licators	Some instances of positive indicators, but with some negative episodes	Some instances of positive indicators, with few if any negative episodes	Mostly positive indicators, with few if any negative episodes	Almost always positive indicators

IV.	Noticing and Engaging Children [Check each indicator if it characterizes most of the videotaped period of time, i.e., at least 50%.]
	Teacher notices and responds to positive behavior (uses words and expressions to show approval; comments on something positive about children; directs attention to positive behaviors). Note: To check this indicator, there should be at least 3 instances of explicit approval of group or individual behavior.
	Teacher scans the group frequently (scans or looks around the group often; is aware of less effective activities/interactions).
	Teacher gives mild directives or cues (not reprimands) to engage children who are off-task.
	Children are engaged (paying attention, answering/asking questions, participating appropriately), i.e., most children, most of the time.
	CATEGORY SCORE (possible score = 4)

How would	you rate the quality and	d appropriateness of n	noticing and engaging	g children?
1 VERY LOW	2 LOW AVERAGE	3 AVERAGE	4 HIGH AVERAGE	5 VERY HIGH
Few if any instances of positive indicators	Some instances of positive indicators, but with some negative episodes	Some instances of positive indicators with few if any negative episodes	Mostly positive i, indicators, with few if any negative episodes	Almost always positive indicators

V.	V. Responsiveness [Check each indicator if it characterizes most of the videotaped period of time, i.e., at least 50%.]				
		responds to children's laren's frustration or imparaccurately).			
	understand	es appropriate magnit; responds with genuine rate with the action).			
	Teacher re	sponds evenly among od girls).	children (fairly evenly	to "easy" and challeng	ging children and
	CATEG	ORY SCORE (possib	le score = 3)		
F	How would	you rate the quality and	appropriateness of the	teacher's responsiven	ess during SBR?
	1	2	3	4	5
VE	ERY LOW	LOW AVERAGE	_	HIGH AVERAGE	VERY HIGH
ins pos	w if any tances of sitive licators	Some instances of positive indicators, but with some negative episodes	Some instances of positive indicators, with few if any negative episodes	Mostly positive indicators, with few if any negative episodes	Almost always positive indicators
SUMMARY SCORES					
summi	ng the categ	es: (a) indicate the total ory scores (possible range so to 25).			

TOTAL SCORE (all category scores summed together; possible range = 0-16): ______
TOTAL RATING (all category ratings summed; possible range = 5-25): _____

l eacher:		
Date of videotaping:		
LITERACY BEH	AVIORS AND INTERACTIONS	
DIMENSION	SCORE	RATING
Motivation for book reading		
Oral language and vocabulary		
Phonological awareness		
Letter knowledge		
Print and book awareness		
Comprehension		
TOTAL		
RESPONSIVENE	SS AND MANAGERIAL SKILLS	
DIMENSION	SCORE	RATING
Tone of voice		
Nonverbal communication		
Conversations		
Noticing and engaging children		
Responsiveness		
TOTAL		

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Appendix B: EMERGE Professional Development Session Template

(using Oral Language as example)

- I. Successes and challenges over the last month
- II. Let's get focused on oral language:
 - A. What is oral language?
 - B. Why is <u>oral language</u> important?
 - C. What are some developmental expectations for children's development of <u>oral</u> language?
 - D. What are some of the challenges/problems in <u>oral language</u> development children might experience? *
 - *For topics related to an aspect of classrooms (i.e., classroom environment or implementation of progress-monitoring), these questions focus on expectations and challenges within classrooms (not children)
- III. Let's take a look at practices for promoting <u>oral language</u> during book reading:
 - A. Videotape viewing
 - B. Discussion of video-tape general practices/strategies and specific strategies focused on <u>oral language</u>
- IV. Research-supported practices for promoting oral language:
 - A. During book reading [re-play videotape to demonstrate implementation]
 - B. Throughout the day
- V. Taking stock of what you do to promote oral language:
 - A. During book reading
 - B. Throughout the day
- VI. Oral Language: Goal setting, strategy development, planning

Appendix C: Theme Schedule

THEME I: FRIENDS AND SCHOOL					
Week	Weekly Topic	Focus Letters	Vocabulary Words	Shared Reading and	
				Demonstration	
				Books**	
				Off to School, Baby Duck	
1	Schedule, Routine, Rules	NIA	SIP, DUCK	The Kissing Hand	
		NA	SWING, HAND	Time for School,	
				<u>Mouse</u> **	
				Owen	
	Places in the			Don't Let the	
2	Classroom		CORNER,	Pigeon Drive the	
		NA	DENTIST	Bus	
			PIGEON, BUS	<u>I Went</u> <u>Walking</u> **	
				Owen and Mzee Best Friends	
3	Getting to Know Classmates	N n (name) C c (class)	<u>N</u> AP,	<u>Big Smelly</u> <u>Bear</u> **	
			<u>N</u> EST, <u>C</u> UP, <u>C</u> AGE	Bruno Munari's ABC	
				No David	
4	Getting Along	F f (friend)	<u>F</u> OOD, <u>N</u> O	My Friend Rabbit	
		J j (join)	<u>F</u> RIENDS, A <u>N</u> IMALS	<u>Up, Down, and</u> <u>Around</u> **	
_				Have You Filled	
5	E 1 0	cumulative	DUCKET	a Bucket Today	
	Expand &	review of	BU <u>C</u> KET	Fill a Bucket	

Explore the	4 letters	<u>F</u> ILL,	
Theme		<u>C</u> ELEBRATE	Knuffle Bunny: A
			Cautionary Tale
		<u>F</u> USSY	,
		_	I Ain't Gonna
			Paint No More**

THEME II: INSIDE ME AND OUTSIDE ME				
Week	Weekly Topic	Focus Letters	Vocabulary	Shared Reading
			Words	and
				<u>Demonstration</u>
				Books**
6	Parts of the Body	E e (elbow) L l (leg)	<u>E</u> LEPHANT, GORI <u>L</u> LA G <u>L</u> OBE, <u>E</u> LBOW	From Head to Toe I Love My Hair <u>Little Yoga</u> **
	Five Senses	T t (touch)	<u>T</u> REMBLING, SKIN	The Skin You Live In
7	rive Senses	X x (xylophone)	<u>T</u> ICKLISH, BRIGH <u>T</u>	Bright Eyes, Brown Skin
				<u>In a Dark, Dark</u> <u>Wood</u> **
	Feelings/Emotions and Movement	I i (inside)	Q UAKE, LEOTARD	Hilda Must Be Dancing
8		Q q (quiet)	<u>I</u> NSIDE, TW <u>I</u> NS	Marvelous Me, Inside Out
				<u>Dan, the Flying</u> <u>Man</u> **
		cumulative		
		review of	OYS <u>T</u> ER,	Incredible Me
9	Expand & Explore the Theme	10 letters	E <u>X</u> PLORE, <u>L</u> EADER	ABC: I Like Me
			_	<u>Crazy Hair Day</u> **

	THEME III: MAKE IT, BUILD IT				
Week	Weekly Topic	Focus Letters	Vocabulary Words	Shared Reading and <u>Demonstration</u> <u>Books</u> **	
10	Shapes	O o (octagon) Z z (zigzag)	<u>O</u> VER, MEAD <u>O</u> W, <u>O</u> LD <u>Z</u> IG <u>Z</u> AG	Over in the Meadow It Looked Like Spilt Milk** Bear in a Square	
11	Colors	R r (red) V v (violet) P p (purple)	<u>P</u> IECE, <u>R</u> IBBON <u>P</u> EDESTRIAN, WINDSHIELD	Shapes and Colors My Car Freight Train** Max Found Two Sticks	
12	Numbers, Measuring, and Making Things	D d (dig) U u (under)	VAC <u>U</u> UM, <u>U</u> NDER <u>D</u> AZZLING, <u>D</u> IGGER	Alphabet Under Construction Dazzling Diggers <u>Bean Thirteen</u> **	
13	Tools and Machine	M m (machine) W w (work)	<u>W</u> OBBLED, PEDAL <u>M</u> ACHINE, <u>W</u> ORK	Duck on a Bike My Truck is Stuck** Machines at Work	
14	Expand & Explore the Theme	cumulative review of 19 letters	ROAD, DUMP VEHICLE, LIMOSINE	Road Builders Cool Cars <u>Not a Box</u> **	

THEME IV: FAMILIES AND CELEBRATIONS					
Week	Weekly Topic	Focus Letters	Vocabulary Words	Shared Reading and <u>Demonstration</u> <u>Books</u> **	
15	My Family	S s (sisters) B b (brothers)	<u>s</u> wan, <u>b</u> at <u>b</u> oost, <u>s</u> andals	Is Your Mama a Llama? A Chair for My Mother The Emperor's Egg**	
16	Celebrations	H h (holiday) G g (gift) K k (kind)	SURPRISE, CANE <u>K</u> OALA, <u>H</u> YENA	A Birthday Basket for Tia Ten Little Finger, Ten Little Toes** Alligator Arrived with Apples	
17	Art at Home and School	A a (art) Y y (yarn)	<u>A</u> NTELOPE, <u>Y</u> AM TR <u>A</u> CK H <u>A</u> RBOR	Do Mice Eat Rice? The Snowy Day Abuela Bark, George**	
18	Expand & Explore the Theme	cumulative review of 26 letters	CELL <u>A</u> R, DITC <u>H</u> <u>B</u> OUQUET, HU <u>G</u> E	Each Peach Pear Plum If Kisses Were Colors <u>Abiyoyo</u> **	

THEME V: OUR COMMUNITY AND WORLD				
Week	Weekly Topic	Focus Letters	Vocabulary Words	Shared Reading and Demonstration Books**
19	Places Around Town	M m (Milwaukee) S s (street)	<u>M</u> ARKET <u>S</u> UBWAY, <u>S</u> TROLL, <u>M</u> U <u>S</u> EU <u>M</u>	Market Day <u>Silly Sally</u> ** Black, White, Just Right!
20	World and Cultures	W w (world) C c (culture)	<u>w</u> ORLD, <u>C</u> ITY <u>w</u> ORDS, S <u>CHOOL</u>	Can You Say Peace? Whoever You Are The Colors of Us**
21	Transportation	T t (train) B b (bus)	<u>T</u> ANKER, RU <u>BB</u> LE <u>T</u> ADPOLE,	Tough Trucks <u>Giant Pop-Out</u> <u>Vehicles</u> ** In the Small, Small
22	Community Workers	N n (nurse) F f (firefighter)	MUSKRA <u>T</u> <u>N</u> URSE <u>F</u> IX, <u>F</u> IRE E <u>N</u> GI <u>N</u> E, BALCO <u>N</u> Y	Pond When I Grow Up? Alphabet Rescue Big Words for Little People**
23	Expand & Explore the Theme	cumulative review of 8 letters	<u>C</u> LAY <u>M</u> EDI <u>C</u> I <u>N</u> E, <u>B</u> RAIDED, <u>W</u> EDDI <u>N</u> G	Arrow to the Sun The Napping House** Jambo Means Hello

THEME VI: STAYING WELL, STAYING SAFE				
Week	Weekly Topic	Focus Letters	Vocabulary Words	Shared Reading and <u>Demonstration</u> <u>Books</u> **
24	Staying Healthy and Clean	X x (x-ray) H h (healthy)	WAS <u>H</u> <u>H</u> ORRIBLE <u>H</u> IPPO, BRUS <u>H</u>	Germs Are Not for Sharing Wash Your Hands Brush Your Teeth, Please <u>Big Fat Hen</u> **
25	Nutrition and Exercise	V v (vegetables) E e (exercise)	VEGETABLE, WEED EXERCISE, PEPPERMINT	Growing Vegetable Soup Too Much <u>Eating the</u> <u>Alphabet</u> **
26	Staying Safe	L l (look) O o (on-off)	AMBU <u>L</u> ANCE, P <u>OL</u> ICE OFFICER B <u>OO</u> TS, HE <u>L</u> MET	It's Time to Call 911 Fireman Small The Little Mouse, The Red Ripe Strawberry, and The Big Hungry Bear**
27	Expand & Explore the Theme	cumulative review of 14 letters	LOAFERS, GOLDEN, MIRROR WATERMELON	George and Martha Lunch How Are You Peeling? Food with Moods**

THEME VII: ANIMALS AND WHERE THEY LIVE				
Week	Weekly Topic	Focus Letters	Vocabulary Words	Shared Reading and <u>Demonstration</u> <u>Books</u> **
28	Pets	K k (kitten) A a (animals)	<u>A</u> FR <u>A</u> ID, TRE <u>A</u> T SN <u>AK</u> E, B <u>A</u> S <u>K</u> ET	What Pets Teach Us Jump, Frog, Jump <u>Feathers for Lunch</u> ** If You Give a Mouse a Cookie
29	Zoo Animals	Z z (zoo) J j (jaguar)	JUMPY JUNGLE, SQUEEZE, BREEZY	Dear Zoo <u>Brown Bear, Brown</u> <u>Bear</u> ** Whoosh Around Mulberry Bush
30	Forest Animals	Q q (quail) D d (deer)	<u>D</u> ELICIOUS, <u>D</u> OVE PU <u>DD</u> LE, <u>Q</u> UIET	Mabela the Clever Mouse Paint <u>Click, Clack, Moo</u> **
31	Farm Animals	Pp (pig) Yy (yard)	YOUNG WADDLE STAMPEDE, UNHAPPY	How Big is a Pig? Five Little Ducks Mrs. Wishy Washy's Farm The Cow that Went Oink**
32	Expand & Explore the Theme	cumulative review of 22 letters	<u>PA</u> NTS, <u>ZIP</u> LEO <u>PA</u> R <u>D</u> , HONE <u>Y</u>	Froggy Gets Dressed All the Colors of the Earth The Day the Goose Got Loose**

THEME VIII: ANIMALS AND WHERE THEY LIVE				
Week	Weekly Topic	Focus Letters	Vocabulary Words	Shared Reading and <u>Demonstration</u> <u>Books</u> **
33	Signs of Spring	U u (umbrella) R r (rain)	B R IDGE, BE RR Y M <u>U</u> D, F R OZEN	Jamberry Mud <u>Planting a Rainbow</u> **
34	Flowers and Planting	I i (insect)	SP <u>I</u> N, SP <u>I</u> DER GRA <u>I</u> N, M <u>I</u> X	The Very Busy Spider The Little Red Hen <u>Flower Garden</u> **
35	Farming	G g (ground)	<u>G</u> LOW, SCRATCH, FRO <u>G</u> TWIRL	Open the Farm Door, Find a Cow** In the Tall, Tall Grass Barnyard Dance
36	Birds and Butterflies	cumulative review of 26 letters	D R A G ONFLY, RESTIN G T <u>I</u> NY, SA <u>U</u> SA G E	Good Night, Sweet Butterflies The Very Hungry Caterpillar <u>Milo's Hat Trick</u> **
37	Expand & Explore the Theme	cumulative review of 26 letters	<u>R</u> OMP, L <u>IG</u> HTN <u>I</u> N <u>G</u> <u>R</u> ACE, <u>GR</u> O <u>U</u> ND	Move Over Rover Chicka Chicka 1 2 3 <u>Gossie & Gertie</u> **

EMERGE

Exemplary Model of Early Reading Growth And Excellence

Promoting development of early reading, writing, and language skills in all children!

Shared Book-reading to Promote Literacy and Language

Introduction

In this Shared book-reading [SBR] manual, we offer a variety of read-aloud strategies for interactive shared storybook reading. We provide ideas on how you might use familiar and popular storybooks to promote young children's development of SOAP Skills—Sound Awareness, Oral Language & Vocabulary, Alphabet Knowledge, and Print & Book Awareness. One of the best things that an adult can do to promote children's literacy and language is to read together with them. It is NOT just the act of reading that matters, but the *way* in which books are read to children. In this manual, we highlight some activities and approaches that you can do to make reading dynamic and fun, both for you and your students!

Rationale for Focus on SOAP Skills

For many children, the instructional enhancements and early literacy focus of EMERGE are sufficient to promote their development of language and literacy skills. Some children, however, require more intensive intervention through individual tutoring. Tutoring is designed to focus on the "Big Ideas" of early literacy development, with an emphasis on strengthening:

Sound (phonological) awareness
Oral language and vocabulary
Alphabet knowledge
Print awareness

What Is SOAP?

SOAP is the word used in EMERGE to help teachers and tutors remember the following emergent literacy skills:

Sound Awareness is the ability to ...

- Understand that spoken language is made up of separate speech sounds; for example, understanding that:
 - o Sentences are made up of separate words.

- Words have smaller sound parts or syllables.
- Notice and identify sounds in language; for example, noticing that:
 - Some words rhyme [hand, land, stand].
 - o Some words all begin with the same sound, or alliteration [bug, baby, bear, balloon].
- Take apart (segment), move around (manipulate), and put together (blend) sounds.

Oral language and vocabulary is the ability to ...

- Describe things or events and to tell stories.
- Know the names of things and the meaning of words and concepts.
- Understand the meaning of language and spoken messages.
- Participate in conversations through both talking and listening, including conversations during play activities.

Alphabet knowledge is the ability to ...

- Recognize the shapes and names of letters of the alphabet, both upper-case and lower-case letters.
- Recognize and give the sounds of letters in the alphabet.
- Recognize letters in words and "read" familiar words (ex: child's own name) and environmental print (ex: *McDonalds*).

Print awareness is the ability to ...

- Recognize how print is used in the environment, e.g., signs, labels, posters, newspapers, books, etc.
- Understand that spoken language is represented in written language.

- Understand print conventions, including:
 - Directionality of print i.e., print goes from left to right.
 - o Location of the front, back, top, and bottom of a book.
 - Use of punctuation and spacing.
- Identify parts of books, including title, author, illustrator, characters (who), setting (where), etc.

Rationale for Focus on Shared book-reading

One of the best ways to develop children's literacy and language is to read with them. How you read with children is just as important as how often you read. Specifically, children learn more from books when they are actively involved in reading them. Methods that help young children become involved in book reading are referred to as Interactive Shared book-reading, Dialogic Reading, or Hear-and-Say Reading. For EMERGE, we use the general term, Shared book-reading or SBR. SBR is different from traditional book reading where an adult reads a book and the child listens. Through SBR, the child is encouraged to interact with the adult about the book. The adult helps the child be the "teller of the story." The adult, in turn, is the listener, questioner, or "audience" for the child

EMERGE Books

Books are categorized as being one or more of the following types:

- Alphabet Books: Includes primarily words and/or pictures that begin with each letter of the alphabet.
- **Alliteration:** Includes words that begin with the same letter.
- **Rhyming:** Includes rhyming words in the text.
- **Interactive:** Books have manipulative parts (e.g., flaps, tabs, spinners) likely to be of high interest for children.

- **Repetitive/Predictable:** Sentences and word phrases are repeated (predictable) throughout the book.
- Story Line: Books with a specific plot (e.g., characters and sequence of events).

What Are Key Strategies or Activities for SBR?

You should use as many different SBR activities as possible during each tutoring session. The number and complexity of activities should be matched to the child's interest and skill level. There are four groups of strategies or activities:

- General guidelines or "tips" to maximize the effectiveness of SBR
- Strategies for promoting SOAP skills as part of book reading
- Activities to preview the book before you read
- Methods to use during book reading while you read

Tips for Shared book-reading

When engaging in shared storybook reading, there are several basic strategies that have been found to promote children's interactions and interest in reading:

- **Plan Ahead.** Be sure to read the book before you read it to your students; think of ways to engage your children's interests or new concepts to emphasize.
- **Be on the Look-out.** Watch for children's facial expressions, body posture, and eye gaze while you read. Know your children so you can spot when they aren't listening or interested in the story. Find ways to get their attention by having them label pictures, turn pages, or name letters.
- **Be Face to Face.** Adjust your physical level to the child's level.
- * Avoid "Yes/No" Questions. Use open-ended questions to which you may not know the answer (e.g., "Tell me how you feel when....), as well as ones that promote conversation.
- **Follow Children's Lead.** Focus questions and conversations on areas that interest your children. Talk about topics that fit their interests and attention, not yours.

- ❖ *Wait and Listen.* Allow children enough time to think; then, "nudge" gently to make a response.
- ❖ *Play with Words.* Find rhyming words, or words that start or end with the same sound. Have fun and be silly with sounds
- **Expand, Expand.** Repeat words, then add new ideas or new concepts to build children's knowledge and vocabulary.
- **Extend, Extend, Extend.** Find activities for extending or stretching stories throughout the day, such as centers (science, dramatic play, writing, listening) or activities (art, music).
- **ENJOY!** Have fun while you read.

Recommendations to Incorporate a Focus on SOAP Skills

SBR provides many opportunities to focus on SOAP skills. The amount and type of focus will depend on the individual child. The activity cards that accompany EMERGE books include ideas for focusing on SOAP skills specifically related to the book. The chart below offers additional ideas for activities that promote the development of SOAP skills during SBR. These can be used across all books. It is possible to connect any bookreading experience to SOAP skills, although some types of books lend themselves to one SOAP skill more than others.

Rhyming Alliteration (hear the same beginning sounds in words) Blending (put chunks of words together to say a whole word) Breaking down (break words apart into syllables, or break sentences into separate words) Point out rhyming words (say words and have child repeat). Point out words that begin with the same sound (say words and have child repeat). After reading a book, take 1-2 words from the book and "play" with the sounds – e.g., What rhymes with the word (either a silly word or real word)? What other words start with the same sound? Clap the syllables of words in the book, or clap the words in sentences. After reading a book that has a short repetitive phrase (3-5 words), change the initial sound of each word in the phrase to be the same sound. Practice saying the phrase with the new beginning sounds. Example: "Here I	SOAP	Description of	Ways to Promote the Skill	Type of
	Skill	Skill	During Book-Reading	Book
am!" becomes "Pere Pi Pam!" or "Jere Ji Jam!"		Alliteration (hear the same beginning sounds in words) Blending (put chunks of words together to say a whole word) Breaking down (break words apart into syllables, or break sentences into separate	child repeat). Point out words that begin with the same sound (say words and have child repeat). After reading a book, take 1-2 words from the book and "play" with the sounds – e.g., What rhymes with the word (either a silly word or real word)? What other words start with the same sound? Clap the syllables of words in the book, or clap the words in sentences. After reading a book that has a short repetitive phrase (3-5 words), change the initial sound of each word in the phrase to be the same sound. Practice saying the phrase with the new beginning sounds. Example: "Here I am!" becomes "Pere Pi Pam!" or "Jere Ji	Books with alliteration Books with sounds of animals or other things (e.g., Drums go "boom.") Songs that are put into

Oral Language and Vocabulary	Learning new words Learning new meanings for familiar words Retelling stories or events Adding descriptions to pictures or events in stories Answering questions or prompts about books	Take time before reading to describe or explain 1-2 unfamiliar words used in the book. After reading a book, go back to an interesting picture and talk about it, adding new or less familiar words to describe it. Have the child add descriptive words to the story. Have the child perform a motion or action as you read parts of the book. Use the PEER sequence, and use varied prompts (CROWD), especially open-ended questions. Have the child say repeated words or phrases with you as you read them. When possible, retell the story with props or pictures. Have the child retell the story, or tell about a personal experience related to what happened in the story.	Repetitive books Books that have a sequential story line Books with movable parts (e.g., flaps).
Alphabet Knowledge	Knowing names of letters Knowing that letters are different from each other Knowing that the same letter can look different depending on the print or whether it is upper-case or lower-case	Point out shapes of letters in books. Say the sounds for letters in books and have child repeat sounds. Let children feel the different letter shapes (e.g., using plastic, foam, wooden letters). Give children opportunities to go for "letter hunts" with books (e.g., "Find all the S's on this page." or "Find all the words that have the same first letter as the first letter in your name.).	Alphabet books

Awareness handle a book with language and sounds. are selected by the chi	Knowing the sounds of letters		
is text or print that we read, not pictures Point to words/print as you read. Knowing that we read from left to right, top to bottom on a page Nepetitive books Point to words/print as you read. Play around with the orientation of the book (e.g., start with it upside down) and have child correct you. Repetitive books Books with the parts (e.g., flaps) Books with the print as you read. Books with the parts (e.g., flaps)	Knowing how to handle a book Knowing that it is text or print that we read, not pictures Knowing that we read from left to right, top to bottom on a page Awareness that print is all around us and that print has meaning Having joy and interest in reading print Knowing the parts of a book (title, author,	with language and sounds. Point out the book title, author, illustrator, where to begin reading on a page, etc. (or ask child to do so). Point to words/print as you read. Play around with the orientation of the book (e.g., start with it upside down) and have child correct you. Encourage scribbling, drawing, and writing words related to the book. Have child read repetitive phrases with you, and have him/her point to each word as it is	Books with movable parts (e.g. flaps) Books with lots of print, not just

Activities to Preview Books – BEFORE You Read

Talk about 1-2 characteristics of books:

- How to handle the book and turn pages
- O Specific features or parts of the book, e.g., front/back covers
- o Book title, author, and illustrator
- o Printed letters and words run from left to right, top to bottom

• Ask the child to make predictions:

- What do you see in the pictures?
- What do you think this book is about?
- What do you think will happen in the book?

• Take a picture walk:

- o Point out pictures; ask child to name objects or explain what they see.
- O Use actual words in the books to discuss pictures: Yes, the teeny tiny woman is putting on her hat; it's called a <u>bonnet</u>.

• Have the child make personal connections with the book:

- O This is a story about a cat. Do you have a cat? What silly things does your cat do?
- O You already know a lot about dinosaurs. What are some new things you can learn about dinosaurs from this book?

Preview new words or concepts:

- Explain unfamiliar vocabulary words.
- Explain the concept or topic of the book if it is new.

Methods to Use During book Reading – WHILE You Read

- Prompt children to talk about the book:
 - o Ask "what, where, when, why, and how" questions.
 - o Allow child to ask questions about the book.
- Connect events, objects, or characters in the book to children's experiences and/or the current curriculum theme:
 - o Remember when you went to the zoo? Did you see a zebra like Zeke?
 - o Can you remember a time when you were excited like Sam?
- Wonder out loud as you read to model comprehension and thinking:
 - I wonder what will happen next.
 - o Gee, I wonder how much that whale weighs.
 - o I wonder how Timmy must feel now.
- Expand children's responses to questions and comments:
 - o Teacher: What's this?
 - o Child: *A boat*.
 - O Teacher: That's right! It's a big red boat.
- Demonstrate appropriate reading behavior and book handling:
 - Move your finger from left to right under print as you read, and point to each word. As the child becomes more familiar with print, he/she may point to words while you read.
 - o Turn pages carefully.
 - O Point out repetitive phrases. Have the child read phrases with you or complete them: *Brown Bear, Brown Bear* ?
- Build vocabulary:

Teach at least one new vocabulary word per session: *This big house is called a castle. Who do you think lives in that great big castle?*

• <u>Use the PEER sequence</u>:

- o Try to use the PEER sequence as often as possible.
- The PEER sequence is a step-by-step, short interaction between the tutor and the child in which the tutor:

Prompts the child to say something about the book;

Evaluates the child's response;

 $\overline{\underline{\mathbf{E}}}$ xpands the child's response by rephrasing and adding information to it; and, $\overline{\mathbf{R}}$ epeats the prompt to make sure child has learned from the expansion.

O Example: You and the child are looking at the page of a book that has a picture of a fire engine on it.

Ask, *What is this?* [prompt] while pointing to the fire truck. The child says, *truck*, and the tutor says, *That's right*. [evaluation] *It's a red fire truck*. [expansion] *What is this?* or *Can you say "red fire truck"?* [repetition]

• <u>Use varied prompts to begin the PEER sequence</u>: Use the word CROWD to remember the five types of prompts. The following table explains each prompt.

CROWD Prompts

Type of Prompt	Description of Prompt	Appropriate Book Type	Example of Using Prompt
<u>C</u> Completion Prompt [all ages]	Leave a blank at the end of a sentence and have the child fill it in.	Rhyming books; Books with repetitive phrases	Brown Bear, Brown Bear, I see a purple horse
Recall Prompt [4-5 years]	Ask a question about what happened in a book the child has already read.	Nearly any type of book, except alphabet books	Tell me what happened to the little blue engine in the story.
Open-ended Prompt [all ages]	Questions that focus on pictures and are intended to increase children's fluency in expressing ideas.	Books with rich, detailed illustrations	Tell me what is happening in this picture.
"Wh-" Prompt [all ages]	Questions that ask what, where, when, why, and how about pictures or /events	Books with detailed illustrations and story sequence	What's the name of this? Where do these animals live? Why is Sammy feeling happy?
Distancing Prompt [4-5 years] Ask children to relate the pictures of words in a book to experiences outside the book.		Books with familiar themes, events, or pictures	[while looking at a book with picture of farm animals] Remember when we went to the farm last week. Which of these animals did we see?

Book-Reading Cards

Each book provided for the EMERGE themes includes a laminated activity card. On one side of each card are strategies for focusing on SOAP skills and 2-4 specific vocabulary words to teach. Please try to focus on at least one area each time you read the book. Plan to read the books multiple times emphasizing different SOAP skills each time. On the other side of the card are ideas for interacting with children and getting them involved during book reading. This manual includes copies of all book-reading activity cards.

Appendix E: Book-Reading Guides

Over in the Meadow

By John Langstaff

Sound Awareness:

- Each page has a rhyming pattern. Point out rhyming patterns that appear on each page (e.g., "sun" and "one"). Help the children think of additional rhyming words (e.g., bun, run, fun).
- Help the children find the words that rhyme on each page (e.g., ask "What word on this page rhymes with <u>sun?</u>").

Oral Language:

- Look at the pictures together. Ask the children to name the animals and explain what each animal is doing with their mother. For each animal, ask the children if they can repeat the same action or sound as the animals (e.g., "Can you make a buzz noise like the bees? Show me how you can buzz.").
- Ask the children what activities they do with their parents.

Alphabet Knowledge:

- Play "I Spy" with the children and have the children point out objects in the room (or think about objects in the room) that begin with the same letter as each animal.
- Have the children say the name of each letter in each animal's name and give the sound each letter makes.

Print Awareness:

- Ask the children where to begin reading. For 1-2 pages, have them point to each word as you read it.
- Have the children write some of the simple rhyming words that appear in the story (e.g., tree, three).
- On each page, ask the children to name the animal and then find the word that names the animal

Vocabulary:

- Over
- Meadow
- Old

Preview:

- Page through the book, point out select pictures, ask questions, and encourage the children to talk about what they see.
- Ask the children to predict what the book will be about. Encourage them to look at pictures, name the animals, and talk about what the animals are doing.

Pages 1-4:

- Talk about the word "meadow." Have you seen a meadow before? What animals do you think live in a meadow?
- I see the word "swim" two times on this page. Here is the first one (point to the first word). Can you find the word that looks the same?

Pages 5-8:

- <u>Tree</u> and <u>three</u> sound the same. They rhyme! I wonder what other words rhyme with tree and three. Help the children think of words (e.g., me, key, see).
- Mother and muskrat start with the same sound. What is the sound? What letter makes that sound? Let's say each word slowly. [Stretch each word out like a rubber band.] Now, let's say the words together fast mother muskrat.

Pages 9-12:

- How many baby bees are there? Let's count them together. There are five baby bees. Can you find the word <u>five</u>?
- What sound do the crows make? Can you make a caw noise like the crows? Show me how you can caw!

Pages 13-16:

- As you read the page, clap out all the syllables. Read the page a second time and have the children clap out the syllables with you.
- Have the children count the words on the page. Have the children count the letters in "lizard" and then say the letters. What word describes the lizards in the book? (hint: it starts with the same sound as l-l-l-lizard) little

Pages 17-20:

- What animals are in this picture? What sound do you hear at the beginning of <u>frog</u>? Which letter makes that sound? Let's pretend frogs eat food that starts with the /f/ sound. What are some foods they can eat? (e.g., flies, fish, figs)
- Two words rhyme on this page. Can you help me find them? The first word is glen. What word rhymes with glen? (Give a hint if necessary, "It's the last word on this page.") Glen and ten sound the same. They rhyme!

Mud

By Mary Lyn Ray

Sound Awareness:

- Explain that you are going to play "Rhymin' Simon." The child (Simon) claps if the words rhyme, but does not clap if the words don't rhyme. Select words from the book and say a word that rhymes or does not rhyme with the word (e.g. on page 1, night and kite or night and baseball).
- Select a few words from the book. Tell the child that we are going to pretend his/her mouth is a rubber band which he/she can stretch. Have the child stretch out the beginning sound of a word (e.g. /m-m-m-m/ for mud). Ask the child to stretch out the middle sound (e.g. /u-u-u-u/) and then the last sound (e.g. /d-d-d-d/).

Oral Language:

- Talk about the four seasons and emphasize the differences in nature among them.
- Ask the child what his/her favorite season is and why.

Alphabet Knowledge:

- Choose two to three letters that appear in the book and go on a letter hunt to find all the letters in the book or, if there is time, around the room.
- Select a few key words from the book. Ask the child to identify the first letter in the word. Have the child think of additional words that begin with the same letter.

Print Awareness:

- Show the child the front of the book and explain that it is called the cover of the book.
- Point to the name of the book, read it, and explain that this is the title.
- Explain that the person who wrote the book is called the author. Show the child the author's name and say it out loud.
- Show the child that there is another name on the cover. Say the person's name and explain that this is the illustrator. The illustrator draws the pictures in the story.
- Ask the child if he/she would rather be an author or an illustrator and why.

Vocabulary:

- Frozen
- Mud

Preview:

- Ask the child to point to the title of the book.
- Ask the child to predict what the book will be about. Encourage him/her to look at the pictures and talk about what he/she sees.

Pages 1-4:

- Where should I start to read on this page?
- In the picture, I see something beginning with the letter m. What is it? The moon.
- Point to the picture of the sun. What sound does s-s-s-sun start with?

Pages 5-8:

- Repeat the word "night." Can you think of a word that rhymes with <u>night</u>? (e.g. bite, kite, light)
- Have the child count the words on the page.

Pages 9-12:

- This is the word <u>cold</u>. I am going to take out the first letter ("c") and say the word so that it starts with the letter "m." Now the word is <u>mold</u>. Now let's do the same thing with the word <u>sap</u>. What word is it if we say sap with the letter "m" instead of "s"? <u>map</u>
- What sound do you hear at the beginning of <u>leaves</u>? What letter makes that sound? Pages 13-16:
 - This is the word <u>small</u>. Which words rhyme: small and <u>tall</u> or small and <u>toaster</u>?
 - I hear the /l/ sound in the word "will." Listen. [Say "will" slowly.] Where do you hear the l-l-l sound? At the beginning of the word? At the end of the word? In the middle of the word?

Pages 17-20:

- This is the word <u>mud</u>. Let's stretch out the beginning sound of the word (/m-m-m-m/). Next let's stretch out the middle sound (/u-u-u-u/). Now let's stretch out the last sound (/d-d-d-d/).
- What letter do you see two times in the word <u>happy</u>?

Pages 21-24:

- <u>Dig</u> and <u>dance</u> start with the same sound. What is the sound? What letter makes that sound? Can you think of another word that starts with the /d/ sound?
- Do you like to play in the mud? What do you do in the mud?

Pages 25-29:

- Repeat the word "magnificent" and clap out the syllables. Have the child clap out the syllables with you. Talk about the word "magnificent." What do you think is magnificent in nature?
- How is spring different from the other three seasons? What is your favorite season? Why?

Appendix F: Teachers' Shared Book Reading Coding Procedure Scores

	All Teachers $n = 23$		EMERGE $n = 16$		Control $n = 7$	
	Fall	Spring	Fall	Spring	Fall	Spring
GI 1.D 1	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Shared Book Reading Coding Procedure:						
Total Score	18.87	24.61	21.06	27.00	13.86	19.14
	(6.90)	(7.02)	(6.03)	(5.77)	(6.466)	(6.890)
Motivation	3.39	3.74	3.62	3.81	2.86	3.57
	(0.99)	(0.54)	(0.89)	(0.40)	(1.07)	(.787)
Oral Language	5.30	7.48	5.69	8.13	4.43	6.00
& Vocabulary	(2.09)	(2.15)	(2.02)	(1.54)	(2.15)	(2.71)
Phonemic	0.91	1.30	1.19	1.69	0.29	0.43
Awareness	(1.44)	(1.61)	(1.60)	(1.74)	(0.76)	(0.79)
Letter	0.78	3.35	1.00	3.94	0.29	2.00
Knowledge	(1.62)	(2.17)	(1.86)	(2.05)	(0.76)	(1.92)
Book	4.00	4.26	4.56	4.75	2.71	3.14
Awareness	(1.95)	(1.82)	(1.86)	(1.68)	(1.60)	(2.12)
Comprehension of Story	4.57	4.48	5.00	4.69	3.57	4.00
	(1.95)	(1.56)	(1.86)	(1.58)	(1.90)	(1.53)