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**A child and an adult interact with a book: The effects on
language and literacy in kindergarten**

Herrell, Adrienne Lee, Ph.D.

The Florida State University, 1989

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**300 N. Zeeb Rd.
Ann Arbor, MI 48106**

THE FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

A CHILD AND AN ADULT INTERACT WITH A BOOK:
THE EFFECTS ON LANGUAGE AND LITERACY
IN KINDERGARTEN

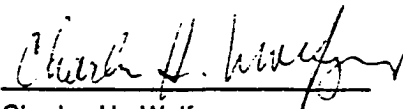
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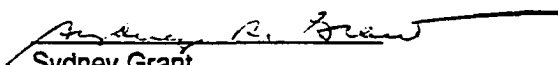
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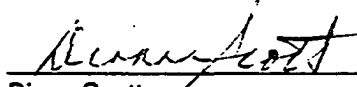
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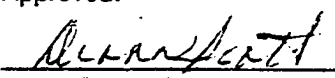

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A CHILD AND AN ADULT INTERACT WITH A BOOK:
THE EFFECTS ON LANGUAGE AND LITERACY IN KINDERGARTEN

(Publication No. _____)

Adrienne Lee Herrell, Ph.D.

The Florida State University, 1989

Major Professor: Charles Hall Wolfgang, Ph.D.

The purpose of this study was to test the effects of a one-to-one interactive read-aloud intervention on the emergent storybook reading and verbal abilities of low socioeconomic status kindergarten children. Twenty-two reader-facilitators were trained in interactive read-aloud. Four children were randomly selected from the lowest third of the SES groups in each of twenty-two kindergarten classes. The children were pretested and posttested using the Verbal Scale of the McCarthy Scales of Children's Abilities and the Sulzby Observation of Emergent Storybook Reading. The children in the intervention group were read to on an individual basis over a period of ten weeks. All read-aloud sessions were audiotaped for further analysis. A 2X2x2 design using ANCOVA analysis was conducted using the appropriate pretests as covariates. A significant effect was found for both emergent storybook readings and verbal abilities ($p < .01$) Analysis of the audiotapes showed no significant increase in either the number of questions answered or asked by the children during the read-aloud

sessions over the period of intervention although the number of words spoken by the children increased significantly. This was attributed to their active involvement with the stories being read; reading along, repeating familiar refrains and lines. An affective rating scale completed by the reader-facilitators after each read-aloud session also showed an increase in the children's enjoyment of the read-aloud sessions and the stories over the period of intervention. Based on these findings, it was concluded that one-to-one interactive read-aloud has a positive causal relationship on a kindergarten child's improved emergent storybook reading and increased verbal abilities.

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I wish to express my sincere appreciation to my doctoral committee members; Dr. Sydney Grant, Dr. Carol Lynch-Brown, Dr. Diana Scott, and especially my major professor, Dr. Charles Wolfgang. Their excellent advice, courses and continued support have been consistent throughout my program of studies and the writing of this dissertation. I also wish to thank Dr. Carolyn Piazza for her valuable advice and stimulating courses.

Shared experiences in doctoral studies make the "doctoral student network" most valuable. I owe a debt of gratitude to Russell Kent for his advice on statistical analysis and help in inputting data and to Judith Kent and Helen Everett for their hours of rescoring tests and proofreading drafts.

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CHAPTER 1
A CHILD AND AN ADULT INTERACT WITH A BOOK:
THE EFFECTS ON LANGUAGE AND LITERACY
IN KINDERGARTEN

Introduction to the Problem

Despite much effort over the years on the part of educators and school officials, many young children are still not finding success in their initial explorations into learning to read in the school setting. Although traditionally the focus of this problem has been on the methodology used in school classrooms, there is evidence that the process of learning to read begins much before the child actually enters school (Ferreiro & Teberosky, 1979; Wells, 1986).

In their book Literacy Before Schooling (1979), Ferreiro and Teberosky have taken an indepth look at the concepts about print and reading that young children develop early in life. Employing the double conceptual framework of cognitive psychology and psycholinguistics they examined the path or process children take "to comprehend the characteristics, value, and function of written language, from the time it becomes an object of their attention (and as such, of their knowledge)" (p. 1). Choosing to study low socioeconomic status children because of the "accumulation of school failures in this critical school period among children of lower socioeconomic levels" (p. 23) and comparing their development

to that of middle class children in order to determine if developmental stages were consistent across social class, Ferreiro and Teberosky conducted extensive Piagetian-style interviews to determine:

1. the underlying cognitive processes in written language acquisition
2. the nature of the children's hypotheses
3. the kinds of specific knowledge children possess when school learning begins

Ferreiro and Teberosky reached several conclusions:

1. ". . . long before knowing how to read, children are capable of dealing with texts in terms of specific formal characteristics" (p. 50).

2. Children follow a developmental progression in their understanding of picture and print:

- a. Picture and print are not differentiated. The text is entirely predictable from the illustration. The text represents the same elements as the picture. Picture and print constitute a unit which cannot be separated.

- b. The print is differentiated from the picture. The text is treated as a unit independent of its graphic characteristics. The text represents either the name of the illustrated object or a sentence associated with the illustration, but in both cases the interpretation is attributed to the text as a unit.

- c. An initial consideration of graphic properties of print emerges. The text continues to be predictable from the illustration.

d. Children search for a one-to-one correspondence between graphic and sound segments.

3. "The influence of the social factor is directly related to the degree of contact with written language. It is evident that the presence of books, readers, and writers is greater in the middle class than it is in the lower class. It is also clear that almost all middle class children go to preschool/kindergarten, while lower class children have less opportunity to ponder written language" (p. 90).

4. "What children learn . . . is relative to how they go about appropriating the object through a slow construction of criteria. Children's criteria only coincide with teachers' criteria at the final point of success.

Because of this, school is directed towards those who already know. Success in learning depends on the child's condition when he or she begins receiving instruction. Only those at quite advanced levels of conceptualization can benefit from traditional instruction: they are the ones who learn what the teacher intends them to" (p. 280).

Knowing that the conceptualization level of the child as s/he enters school greatly influences his success in that setting, educators must then look toward intervention strategies that can be employed to help the individual child to experience some of the literacy-related activities that will facilitate his or her progress through the developmental stages necessary for him (her) to be more successful.

There is a large body of research to support the claim that reading aloud to children is a main ingredient in preparing them to learn to read (Durkin, 1978;

Hall, 1987; Heath, 1982; Wells, 1986).

Although all children in literate societies are exposed to print in many different forms, not all parents read storybooks to their children on a regular basis. This experience with storybook reading helps to prepare the child to participate more successfully in the school setting (Ferreiro & Teberosky, 1979; Hall, 1987; Heath, 1982; Wells, 1986). Part of what makes the read-aloud experience a good preparation for school is the verbal interaction that takes place between the child and the adult as they construct meaning from the text (Cochran-Smith, 1984; White, 1956). Part of this interaction is the establishment of question and answer sequences that involve looking at picture books and identifying labels and attributes of the pictures (Cazden, 1988; Martinez, 1983; Teale, 1982). This pattern has been observed by several researchers as they study the read-aloud interaction of young children with their parents (Martinez, 1983; Teale, 1982; White, 1956).

From the literature it appears that the read-aloud interaction is important for several reasons: 1) the establishment of the value of reading, 2) the question-response pattern that is established which closely resembles the usual language interaction pattern of the school setting (Cazden, 1988; Mehan, 1979), 3) the establishment of a larger range of vocabulary, both receptive and expressive (Flood, 1977), 4) the establishment of emergent storybook reading concepts (Sulzby, 1985) and 5) the establishment of an emotional closeness associated with literature and reading (Butler, 1980; White, 1956).

Statement of the Problem

The problem then becomes, "What about the children who have not been read to in the home prior to beginning kindergarten?" Can their readiness for reading be improved by reading aloud to them and establishing the question-answer response pattern in their kindergarten setting? Most kindergarten teachers read aloud to children but the reading is done in small or large groups. Although the benefits of this kind of read-aloud are well documented, (Durkin, 1978; Cochran-Smith, 1984) other studies have concluded that the patterns that are established in one-to-one reading are well integrated by the child because of the individual experience of sitting close to the reader, or on the reader's lap, and interacting verbally with focus on the illustrations and print in the book (Holdaway, 1979; Martinez, 1983; Teale, 1982; White, 1956). It is this focused language that allows the child to benefit most from the interaction with the reader and the book (Heath, 1983). While focused language can certainly be provided in group reading settings, in a one-to-one setting the child is sitting in closer proximity to the text and has more opportunity to interact spontaneously without having to wait for a turn.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to determine the effect of providing one-to-one literary interaction in the public school kindergarten setting. Because there are a number of studies that link the absence of the one-to-one reading of storybooks in

the home to socioeconomic status, (Anderson & Stokes, 1984; Anderson, Teale & Estrada, 1980; Ferreiro & Teberosky, 1979) children from low SES homes will be used as subjects in this study . Although it is recognized that public school teachers traditionally have not had time to sit and read individually with children in order to provide an interactive experience similar to that of the parent-child read-aloud, there are, in many communities, volunteers who are capable of providing this service if it is deemed beneficial. While the context of the school and the relationship of the reader to the child differ from the parent-child context and relationship, the interactive read-aloud in the school setting should be tested to determine whether or not the experience can begin to involve kindergarten children in literary events similar to those experienced by children who have been read to on a regular basis in the home before enrolling in kindergarten.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study are to determine:

1. If reading aloud individually to kindergarten children from low socioeconomic status homes will better develop their emergent storybook reading behaviors (ability to label and describe illustrations, tell a story based on illustrations, relate the text to the illustrations, recognize the function of the print on the page, identify words) compared to children from low SES homes who do not experience the one-to-one read-aloud program.

2. If a one-to-one interactive read-aloud program in kindergarten will improve the verbal abilities [as measured by the Verbal Scale of the McCarthy Scales of Children's Abilities (1972)] of kindergarten children from low SES homes who experience it beyond what could be expected by chance.

Rationale of the Study

In order to plan an effective intervention strategy, knowledge has been drawn from several disciplines. From the studies that have been conducted in the homes and communities of different groups of people in the literate world, it is known that not all people take the same approach to language, reading and writing. Some communities place more emphasis on reading for information and pleasure and in these communities children are more often exposed to the oral reading of storybooks (Anderson & Stokes, 1984; Anderson, Teale & Estrada, 1980; Ferreiro & Teberosky, 1979).

The studies that have followed children from the home setting into the school setting have been able to link certain skills to increased chances for school success.

1. Children who have experienced language patterns and functions in the home setting similar to those used in the school setting are generally more successful in school (Heath, 1982).

2. Children who have more highly developed understanding of "concepts of print" (recognize letters, are familiar with the uses of written language, know how to orient a book in order to read, know that meaning is derived from the print

on the page) at the time of entry to school tend to be more successful in school (Ferreiro & Teberosky, 1979; Wells, 1986).

3. Children who have experienced the reading of storybooks on a regular basis in the home are more likely to have language patterns similar to those used in the school and better developed "concepts of print" than those who have not experienced read-aloud (Heath, 1982; Wells, 1986).

In order for children to integrate the language patterns and "concepts of print" necessary for school success, opportunities to hear and practice school-like language must be provided (Cullinan, Jaggar & Strickland, 1974). The logical experience to provide this school-like language experience becomes one in which:

1. Language is used in relation to a printed text (more formal patterns).
2. Question and answer patterns similar to those used in the school setting can be practiced.
3. An adult is present to provide explanations of any vocabulary that is not understood, any situations that are unfamiliar and to generally relate the text to the child's experiences.

One-to-one interactive read-aloud simply becomes a vehicle by which these school- success -related experiences can be shared with children.

The instruments chosen as outcome measures for this study were chosen for specific purposes. The Sulzby Observation of Emergent Storybook Reading was chosen because it measures the child's progression through developmental stages toward the school standard of reading independently. It is an observation tool, one

through which one small segment of the process of becoming literate can begin to be broken down into developmental steps. The stages on this instrument relate well to the stages identified by Ferreiro and Teberosky in their extensive study of all aspects of literacy development.

The Verbal Scale of the McCarthy Scales of Childrens' Abilities was chosen because it tests proficiency in some of the verbal tasks that teachers traditionally teach in the first years of school. The fact remains that no matter how much we learn about how children become literate, their success in school will be judged by certain standards that have been in place for many years. One of these standards is being able to express yourself in standard English. This test was included for this reason. After experiencing a program of one-to-one interactive read-aloud can verbal gains be measured in terms of some of the language functions and patterns that are related to better performance in the school setting?

The classrooms used in this study were chosen because of the child-centered approach to instruction employed by the regular classroom teachers. In this approach to teaching, children are actively involved in constructing meaning from their environment because they have opportunities to touch, to talk and to fully experience the curriculum with their minds and bodies as well as being exposed to all kinds of print (bulletin boards, signs, notes, charts, storybook reading) on a daily basis. The use of this kind of classroom was an effort to effectively test the impact of the addition of one-to-one read-aloud in the midst of

an already literate environment. If the control and experimental subjects are all experiencing group read-aloud then it is reasoned that post intervention differences in their verbal abilities and storybook reading development can be more directly traced to the one-to-one read-aloud intervention.

Because the nature of the text being read is recognized as extremely important, an approved list of books to be used was provided to the reader-facilitators. This list was compiled during previous research, (Lamb, 1986) and approved at that time by four professors of children's literature and library science.

Statement of the Hypotheses

Because young children learn language and attitudes toward books throughout their preschool years, their experience with language interaction and the reading of books greatly influences their development. This study looks at the relationships that exist between one-to-one interactive read-aloud and the child's development of verbal abilities and emergent storybook reading behaviors.

The research hypotheses are as follows:

1. After experiencing an intervention of one-to-one interactive read-aloud, kindergarten aged children from low socioeconomic status homes will be facilitated in their progress through stages of emergent storybook reading behaviors as measured by the Observation of Emergent Storybook Reading (Sulzby, 1985).

2. After experiencing a program of one-to-one interactive read-aloud, kindergarten aged children from low socioeconomic status homes will benefit by increased scores in verbal abilities as measured by the Verbal Scale of the McCarthy Scales of Children's Abilities (McCarthy, 1972).

In addition, the following questions will be addressed:

1. Does one-to-one interactive read-aloud increase a child's interest in reading books as evidenced by his increased involvement with books in the classroom setting ?

2. Does a child's involvement in one-to-one interactive read-aloud as evidenced by the asking and answering of questions increase with experience in the activity ?

Definition of Terms

1. One-to-one interactive read-aloud consists of a trained reader-facilitator sitting alone with an individual kindergarten child reading and discussing a book selected from the approved reading list. This interaction focuses on illustrations, vocabulary, and relating the child's experiences to the text. The child's questions are encouraged and answered as fully as possible.

2. Reader-facilitator , a female undergraduate student of early childhood education, trained to read and use interactive language while reading aloud to a child.

3. Emergent storybook reading behaviors refers to the developmental steps a child passes through, becoming familiar with books, labelling and commenting

on illustrations, beginning to tell the story in oral-like language and then incorporating the book-like language into storytelling until he begins to focus on known words and phrases and gradually reads more and more of the text. (Sulzby, 1985)

4. Verbal abilities consist of the child's ability to express himself or herself as well as the maturity of his/her verbal concepts. These abilities consist of being able to identify pictures, tell about the meanings of words, supply word opposites, listen and repeat lists of words from memory, being able to retell a story that has been read, being able to supply words that fit into a given category (McCarthy, 1972).

5. Literate environment is described as one in which children are routinely exposed to reading and writing opportunities and read-aloud is a daily experience.

6. Child-centered approach describes a classroom approach in which the children are actively involved in hands-on activities especially planned to be appropriate for their level of development. The child in this setting is free to interact verbally with other students as well as the teacher. Questions are encouraged and fully answered in order to help the child construct meaning from the environment. The teacher in such a classroom acts more as a facilitator of learning than an instructor of skills. This is in contrast to a teacher-directed classroom in which a large part of the day is spent in activities in which all children are doing the same thing at the same time under the direction of the

teacher.

7. Low socioeconomic status is defined as the child falling into the lowest stratum of economic standing in the kindergarten classroom based upon the occupations of his/her parents as listed on school enrollment forms and ranked by Nam and Powers Socioeconomic Status Scales (1983).

8. Decontextualized text is print that is not usually read with the presence of the objects or events to which it refers. Text in books or magazines would be decontextualized while labels on objects or signs identifying stores would be considered contextualized because of their close proximity to the actual objects they identify.

8. Literary events are activities centering on a piece of written text. These may include such things as acting out a book with puppets or by dressing up in costumes, drawing pictures to illustrate a story or building a lego or block structure inspired by a story that has been read.

9. Literary interaction is talk that centers on a piece of written text. This might include such things as discussion of a story, talking about how a story relates to real life, discussing the meanings of words read in a story, or discussion of the feelings of a character in a story.

Delimitations of the Study

This study was limited to low socioeconomic status kindergarten children in one southern city thereby limiting the population for generalizations. Undergraduate students conducted the read-aloud sessions which required a period

of adjustment for the children involved. Duration of the study may have limited the effectiveness of the intervention. .

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter will review the research related to the many factors connected with reading aloud to young children. To tie together the many, varied approaches to the subject, the chapter will be organized into six sections; a review of the hypotheses, the process of becoming literate, the effects of home and community, interaction between child and adult, repeated readings of a text, the effect of reading aloud on language development in the home and the school, and the product - school success.

Review of the Hypotheses

Because young children are influenced by their early exposure to books and reading, the purpose of this study is to examine the effect of one-to-one reading of storybooks to children from low socioeconomic homes in the kindergarten setting. The research hypotheses are as follows:

1. After experiencing an intervention of one-to-one interactive read-aloud, kindergarten aged children from low socioeconomic status homes will be facilitated in their progress through stages of emergent storybook reading

behaviors as measured by the Observation of Emergent Storybook Reading (Sulzby, 1985).

2. After experiencing a program of one-to-one interactive read-aloud, kindergarten aged children from low socioeconomic status homes will benefit by increased scores in verbal abilities as measured by the Verbal Scale of the McCarthy Scales of Children's Abilities (McCarthy, 1972).

In addition, the following questions will be addressed:

1. Does one-to-one interactive read-aloud increase a child's interest in reading books as evidenced by his increased involvement with books in the classroom setting ?

2. Does a child's involvement in one-to-one interactive read-aloud as evidenced by the asking and answering of questions increase with experience in the activity ?

The Process of Becoming Literate

Ferreiro and Teberosky (1979) studied the process of becoming literate from the child's point of view by conducting Piagetian-style interviews with four, five and six year olds around written language problems. They based their research on three principles, 1) Reading is not deciphering. 2) Writing is not copying a model. and 3) Progress in literacy does not come about through advances in deciphering and copying (p. 20-21). They began with a year long study of first graders and followed it with a study of four, five, and six year olds

in order to compare across age groups. They selected subjects from both middle and lower class families because they wanted to compare the social differences provided by the different home environments and the effect of these environments on becoming literate. All subjects were enrolled in preschool/kindergarten or first grade in Argentina where the research took place. They began with tasks that asked the children to make decisions about when written text becomes "something to read". They found that "not yet knowing how to read does not prevent children from having precise ideas about the characteristics a written text must have for reading to take place" (p. 27). They presented the children (individually) with a set of cards with letters written on them. The letters ranged from one to nine letters per card, some spelled words while others were just strings of letters. They found that just the presence of letters did not provide a readable text in the child's opinion. If there were too few letters or if one letter was repeated many times the text was judged non-readable by the children. Ferreiro and Teberosky were able to construct a hierarchy of conceptualization from most of the tasks they used with the children. By asking questions about how the children made their decisions, they began to understand how the children made and tested their hypotheses. They used similar tasks to discover how the children distinguished between letters and numbers, pictures and text, letters and punctuation marks. A series of developmental steps for the task of reading sentences accompanied by illustrations became evident and is important to the understanding of how children begin to make sense of storybooks:

1. Print and picture are not differentiated; the two constitute a unit. It is

possible to move from one to the other since they are conceived as different forms for representing the same meaning. The text is directly related to the picture.

2. The child begins the process of differentiation between print and picture. The word associated with the picture is attributed to the text.
3. An initial consideration of some of the graphic properties of print becomes evident.
4. The search for a one-to-one correspondence between graphic and sound segments begins.

At all levels the meaning of the text is predicted from the picture. In the initial stages the prediction is absolute while in later stages cues are needed to verify what was predicted. In addition, the theme from the illustration is used in predicting text which often results in speaking words closer to what is illustrated than what is written.

Another interesting part of this study was conducted in an attempt to understand how children interpret the reading act when they observe adults reading. Using a storybook and a newspaper, the researchers simulated reading and then asked the child what they saw. In the initial stages the children did not interpret the act as reading unless the researcher was speaking the words aloud. Then the researcher proceeded to read aloud but in a style inappropriate for the text being held. While holding the newspaper a child's story would be read, or holding the storybook an oral dialogue would be spoken. In the beginning stages the children recognized that reading was taking place but did not recognize the

inconcistency of the text being read. It was only the most linguistically aware children who were able to distinguish these inconsistencies.

From all of these interviews Ferreiro and Teberosky draw the conclusion that:

Piaget's theory of cognitive development allows us to understand the processes of appropriating knowledge involved in learning to read and write. We refer to this learning as appropriation of knowledge, and not as the acquisition of a skill. As in any other domain of cognitive activity, appropriation is an active process of reconstruction carried out by knowing subjects. Knowledge is not truly appropriated until its means of production has been understood, until it has been internally reconstructed (p. 278-279).

Although this research took place in Argentina it lends valuable insight into the process children go through as they begin to construct concepts about reading and written language. It is important that this process be recognized as such. Without understanding the process, both parents and educators tend to put emphasis in the wrong areas when providing literacy experiences for young children.

The Effects of Home and Community

The effects of the community and home on the literary attitudes of a young

child have been discovered in several studies. In Shirley Brice Heath's study of three communities in southeastern America (1982) she looks at how preschoolers are taught "ways of taking from" stories (p.50).

In mainstream communities children experience bedtime stories as a natural way to end the day. Through questioning and labelling interactions with the parent the young child "is socialized into the 'initiation-reply-evaluation sequence' repeatedly described as the central structural feature of classroom lessons" (p. 51).

In these homes the children developed literary-attending behaviors at very early ages. Some of these behaviors cited by Heath (1982) are listed below:

- 1) Children gave attention to books and information derived from books as early as six months of age.
- 2) Children verbalized responses to questions about pictures in books as early as six months of age.
- 3) From the time they learned to talk, children responded to questions relating their environment to context they had experienced in books.
- 4) Beyond two years of age, children used "book talk" to legitimize their storytelling and fantasy play.
- 5) Preschoolers accepted reading and book-related activities as entertainment.

Books and book related activities had power in mainstream homes. Any initiation of reading by a preschooler called for an immediate response.

The mainstream read-aloud involved much interaction between parent and

child with lots of asking of questions and giving of explanations. Maintown children learned not only how to take meaning from books but also how to talk about what they learned. They learned how to listen and when it was appropriate to talk. They went to nursery school and learned how to practice these skills in a group setting. They were successful in school because they had been socialized into patterns that were used in school and they knew how to participate fully.

Only a few miles from Maintown were two other communities, Roadville, a white working class neighborhood and Trackton, a black working class community.

In Roadville preschoolers had books that taught; first, labelling books and then books that provided sounds, smells, textures, and opportunities to zip and button. Roadville preschoolers also experienced bedtime stories but bookreading focused on letters of the alphabet, numbers, and labelling pictures. Often parents simplified the language of the books they read and by the time the children were three and a half they were expected to sit quietly and listen to the stories.

In this community children were first introduced to bits and pieces of books, letters of the alphabet, shapes, colors. In the second stage children were expected to accept books as entertainment, information, and instruction. After that preschoolers were introduced to workbooks to reinforce color, number, letters and fine motor skills.

In Roadville storybooks were not extended into the everyday lives of the children. No connection was made to their daily experiences. These children were successful in the early stages of the primary grades but soon fell behind because

they had difficulty taking knowledge learned in one context and generalizing it to another.

Although adults in Trackton read a variety of texts (newspapers, mail etc.) there were no children's books present in the homes and adults did not sit down and read to children. Preschool children were not asked "what" questions. Instead they were asked questions such as "What's that like?" or "Where'd you get that from?" Parents asked questions to get information. They did not see themselves as tutors for their children.

Trackton children learned to tell stories and frequently used their imaginations to incorporate stories into their play activities. Since they had not heard "Once upon a time. . ." they did not use formulaic beginnings or endings in their stories.

Trackton adults did not simplify language, focus on children's speech, label items in books or the environment. Instead, children were bombarded by constant communication from the many adults around them.

When Trackton children went to school they faced many unfamiliar language patterns. They were not successful in the school setting and learned neither the content of the lessons nor the social interaction rules.

Heath concluded from this study of different communities that

Children have to learn to select, hold and retrieve content from books and other printed texts in accordance with their community's rules or 'ways of taking,' and the children's learning follows community paths of language socialization.

In each society, certain kinds of childhood participation in literacy events may precede others, as the developmental sequence builds toward the whole complex of home and community behaviors characteristic of the society.

The ways of taking employed in the school may in turn build directly on the preschool development, may require substantial adaptation on the part of the children, or may even run directly counter to aspects of the community's pattern (p. 70).

Because Heath's research was done in a very restricted area of the country, the generalizability to the general population can be questioned. Was what she found specific to communities within the Piedmont or would similar patterns emerge were we to study other communities? The very distinct differences she found among the three communities would lead you to believe that differences of some kind would be found in other communities. Another major criticism is the difference in the manner in which the Maintown data were collected. Trackton and Roadville data were collected through observations and interviews within the communities themselves. The self reporting of Maintown data makes it difficult to truly compare and contrast.

In a longitudinal study published in 1986 by Gordon Wells, an attempt was made to gather data to answer the question, "Is there a causal connection between socioeconomic status, language experience in the preschool years, and educational achievement?" (p. xi). Children were fitted with automatic taping devices and

their language sampled at periods throughout their day beginning at fifteen months of age. The language development of 128 young children was tracked in this way. The sample was narrowed to 32 (stratified by socioeconomic status) when the children entered school. The preschool children's language development was assessed by analyzing transcriptions of the language samples recorded for range of meanings expressed, grammatical forms and functions of speech used. At age three two measures of comprehension were given, the first measured sentence comprehension and the second measured word comprehension. At age five, these comprehension tests were again given. In addition, an oral comprehension test that involved acting out a story, a test of eye-hand coordination and Marie Clay's Concepts about Print and Letter Identification tests were administered. Wells failed to find significant differences in language development by socioeconomic status until age five although he did find wide variety within SES at all ages. He also found that language interaction in the preschool years greatly affected the child's language development. The value placed on reading aloud to the young child was important to the child's emerging literacy but not necessarily related to SES. The children who were read to in the home progressed more readily in reading achievement in the school setting and Wells states "...it emerged quite clearly that the children who obtained relatively higher scores on the knowledge-of-literacy test were likely to have parents who read more and owned more books; they were also likely to read more books to their children." (p. 144). "Probably the most striking finding from the whole of

the longitudinal study has been the very strong relationship between knowledge of literacy at age 5 and all other assessments of school achievement" (p. 147).

Well's research was done in England and has not been replicated in the United States. One of the many strengths of the study was the method used to stratify for SES. Information was gathered on the education and occupation of both parents, the child was assigned a score on a twelve point scale and then the scale was divided into four equal parts, with children chosen to represent each interval group. This method may help to account for the results which pointed to more equal language development among the SES strata than other studies which employed a dichotomous SES - either low or middle class.

In an ethnographic study of low and middle-class SES families in metropolitan San Diego, Anderson and Stokes (1984) looked at literacy events in the homes of Black American, Mexican-American and Anglo-American preschoolers. Spot observations were made at various times of day during which the child was awake over the 7 days of the week. The literacy events they discovered covered a wide range of activities including daily living activities, entertainment, school related activities, religious reading, interpersonal communication and storybook time. Both the frequency of the events and their duration were noted. Findings indicate when literacy is equated only with books, lower-class families engage much less frequently in these book-related literacy events than do middle-class families.

Anderson, Teale and Estrada (1980) also collected descriptive data concerning the literacy experiences of low-income preschoolers. Their initial

report is warned to be tentative but they, too, see Black parents reading to their preschoolers much less than Anglo parents. They make a point of noting the exclusion of literacy events involving older siblings reading to younger siblings and literacy events focusing on television in their study.

From these studies it appears that low SES children are exposed to a different kind of early literacy environment than those brought up in middle and upper class homes. (Anderson & Stokes, 1984; Anderson, Teale & Estrada, 1980; Heath, 1983; Wells, 1986).

Interaction between child, adult and text

Marilyn Cochran-Smith's study, The Making of a Reader (1984) shows how literary interaction can be provided in a preschool setting. This study focuses on the "rugtime" in a preschool classroom where the teacher and the children read, interact and construct meaning from a storybook. The children bring their experiences into the reading of the story and then relate the experience of the story to their activities both in and out of school. The focused language that helps children to understand new concepts was provided in the school setting.

Unfortunately, from observing in many classrooms, it appears that many teachers believe listening to a story to be a passive activity for the child and so the important verbal interaction necessary for true understanding to take place is lost.

One-to-one read aloud. In her unique diary of her storyreading

experiences with her preschool daughter, Dorothy White (1956) clearly illustrated the kinds of interactions helpful in the literary enculturation process. White said of her reading behaviors, "In sheer quantity of words, the actual stories Carol has had read to her represent only a fraction beside all my amplifying remarks at the time of reading and afterwards" (p. 61)

Dorothy White chronicled the books read to her daughter over the preschool years and the child's reactions to the stories. White found the interactions between her daughter and herself served two main purposes. They served to correct misconceptions the child held regarding the illustrations and the text, and they provided the background information the child needed to fully understand the meaning of the text. The readings settled into a predictable form over a period of time that began even before the reading with a "ritualistic wriggle into place before I begin" (p. 38).

This sharing of literature between parent and child forms a pattern. In a case study examining the nightly literacy events audiotaped between a 4 1/2 year old girl and her daddy over a four month period, Miriam Martinez (1983) discovered that a ritual was clear:

- The father always began by reading the title of the book and the author's name.
- If he omitted the title or author, the child always asked about them.
- The father consistently volunteered general background information.
- The child asked for the information if the father left it out.

- The father repeatedly explained the basis of his inferences and evaluations.
- The child began to do the same thing.

Martinez concluded that the adult reader's approach to reading the story began to influence the child's reading approach after a pattern is repeated over a period of time. Both White and Martinez were studying individual parent-child interactions and yet they found similar patterns.

William H. Teale (1982) described a pattern that emerged in his research concerning the development of children who learn to read and write naturally. The pattern he observed was also highly interactive.

- 1) Mother read a segment of text.
- 2) Mother asked a question about the picture.
- 3) Daughter replied to the question.
- 4) Mother evaluated daughter's reply.

This pattern of interaction between mother and daughter closely resembles the Question-Answer-Evaluation pattern that is a common part of classroom discourse (Cazden, 1988; Mehan, 1979). This is one of the ways in which read-aloud interaction is important in preparing a child for success in school. Of course, the Question-Answer-Evaluation pattern can be practiced using contextualized print also but the presence of a storyline on which to base questions and explanations makes read-aloud ripe for natural interaction.

As a result of his examination of the behaviors of young children sharing

books with their parents, Teale (1982) concluded that "literacy is, above all, a social process" (p. 559).

This is a recurring theme in the literature concerning reading aloud to children. Schickedanz (1981) states, "Adult interaction with children and with print is absolutely necessary if children are to learn about written language (p. 24).

Teale (1982) sees interaction as vital because, "In becoming literate, children are internalizing the structure of the activities involving literacy which are conducted in the world around them" (p. 559).

Morrow (1988) states, "The primary function of the read aloud event is the construction of meaning from the interactive process between adult and child (p. 92).

The roles played by the reader and listener help to structure the interaction. Cochran-Smith (1984) points this out," To describe the nature of participation in literacy events, I have used the terms, 'adult as intermediary' and 'child as active learner'. These terms emphasize the active roles played by both adults and children in the literacy-learning process and stress the social, interactive nature of literacy events " (p. 259).

Wells (1986) agrees stating,

. . .what is required is one-to-one interaction with an adult centered on a story. Such an experience provides not only an introduction to literacy but also an entry into a shared world that can be explored through the sort of collaborative talk that is the most effective way of facilitating children's

learning and language development (p. 159).

In addition, Vygotsky claims, "All higher mental functions are internalized social relationships" (p. 34).

There seems to be much agreement that the literacy event must involve interaction between child and adult in order to contribute to the child's development of literacy. For children growing up in a literate context, the read aloud events of the day are as much a part of the regular routine as brushing teeth. Dorothy White (1956) said of her daughter at age three, "even at this age there comes a stage when the literary experience has almost an equivalent reality to the actual" (p. 39).

The case studies of individual read-aloud that are available frequently involve highly educated and motivated parents (Butler, 1980; Martinez, 1983; White, 1956; Yaden 1988). While this lends further credence to the theory of social-cultural importance in emerging literacy, it also raises questions as to the practicality of the read-aloud method in lower SES situations.

Morrow (1988) conducted one-to-one read-aloud research in a day care setting using low SES four year olds. The parents of the children filled out a questionnaire concerning the frequency of read-aloud experiences in the home setting. Ninety per cent of the parents said they read to their children once a month or less. Ten illustrated storybooks were chosen for the research. The children were divided into three groups. The subjects in the first group were read to individually once a week using a different storybook each time. The second

group heard four storybooks. The first book was read as an introduction and get acquainted session. After that three books were read a total of three times each, at alternating weekly sessions. The third group received instruction using a commercially prepared readiness program. All sessions were audiotaped. The read-aloud sessions were modeled after parent-child read-aloud sessions and the research assistants were trained and monitored. The questions and comments made by the children during the read-aloud sessions were analyzed after transcription of the verbal interactions from the tapes. The analysis was divided into four major categories:

1. focus on story structure
2. focus on meaning
3. focus on print
4. focus on illustrations

Children's responses were coded in each category by total number of questions, total number of comments, and total number of questions and comments. ANCOVA analysis was conducted for each of the major categories. Pretreatment scores were obtained from session two and posttreatment scores from session ten. Pretreatment scores were used as covariates in the ANCOVA model. Differences in the groups were significant at the .001 level for number of questions asked with the group hearing different storybooks asking more questions than those in the other two groups. Significant differences were found at the .001 level for number of comments made with the repeated books group making more comments than the other two groups. The total number of questions and comments

was also significantly different with the repeated books group making more of both. Breaking down the categories into the focus areas, significant differences were found in all with the group scoring highest alternating between the different books and repeated books groups.

Additional calculations were made using pretreatment scores on the Test of Basic Experiences (TOBE) to divide the children into three ability groups, high, middle and low. From this analysis it was found that for low ability children repeated readings of storybooks served to increase the number of questions and comments made while for high ability children repeated readings served to decrease them. What was shown by this research was that the use of one-to-one readings in the preschool setting served to increase the verbal participation and the complexity of the verbal interchange. It did not, however, claim any connection to literacy development.

Repeated Readings of a Text

One element that occurs frequently when an adult reads storybooks to a young child is the child's request for repeated readings. When the child enjoys a book that has been read to him, the first words out of his mouth as the book draws to a close are frequently, "Read it again!"

For a preschooler it is these repeated readings of text that form the basis of much of the child's literate understanding. He begins by looking at the pictures as the words are read to him (Morrow, 1988; Schickedanz, 1978; White, 1956). At first each page is regarded as a distinct unit to be explored. The child

plays a labeling game with the pictures on the page as the parent reinforces and corrects misconceptions (Sulzby, 1985; White, 1956). This stage becomes very important to the child's development of vocabulary and concepts because so many things can be experienced through books that are not available to the child in his immediate environment.

Repeated readings of a single text would logically contribute to the child's understanding of the function of the print on the page as he began to recognize that the reader's words are exactly the same each time the text is read and not just a general description of the picture on the page in conversational terms (Morrow, 1988; Schickedanz, 1978; White, 1956). It is this repeated experiencing of the language of books that begins to help the child to understand literary tradition. This sequence of events can be termed "small steps steadily toward not only literacy development but literary development as well" (Yaden, 1988, p. 560).

Throughout this sequence it is the interaction between the reader and the child over a period of several readings that forms the important context. Between them they are negotiating meaning for the text (Cochran-Smith, 1984). The parent provides the scaffold upon which the child climbs to understand the connections between the stories in the books and the experiences in her life (Teale, 1982; White, 1956).

Most of the research that has been done in the area of repeated read aloud events centers on children's questions during first and subsequent readings of the

same text. Yaden (1988) found that "a single reading failed to exhaust the child's need for more information about the story itself, specific words, and even the illustrations" (p. 558). He also found that higher level questions did not occur until the third reading of the text. White (1956) found that different questions were asked at each repeated reading, questions increased for several readings and then when the child seemed totally comfortable with the meanings of the story she settled into a quiet listening pattern in which her absorption "confirmed rather than extended her experience" (p. 38).

In one of the few studies available that examine the repeated reading of stories in a preschool setting, Martinez and Roser (1985) found that "repetition and preschoolers are happy partners" (p. 782).

They examined the responses of four-year-old children as they listened to stories being read aloud. The storytimes were audiotaped and the interactions analyzed for:

- 1) form (questions, comments, answers)
- 2) focus (title, characters, events, details, setting,
language, theme)

They found that children talked more when they were familiar with the story. The talk during storytime changed form and focus with repeated readings. When the story was read repeatedly the children's responses indicated greater depth of understanding.

Sulzby (1985) states that the familiarity that comes from repeated readings enables the child to re-enact stories or attempt to read stories on their

own. In her descriptive study of twenty-four kindergarten children she saw a sequence of "pretend reading" that evolved from familiar texts.

- 1) The children's early attempts at retelling the stories were governed by the illustrations.
- 2) The stories they told initially were not well formed.
- 3) With repeated readings of the stories by the teacher over time, the children's re-enactments gradually took on the shape and sound of the story reading.
- 4) The children eventually began to attend to the print.
- 5) They then began to combine storytelling and reading until actual reading was achieved.

These sequential re-enactments were viewed by Sulzby as transition from oral to written language. The interaction with the adult and the hearing of repeated readings of the text allowed the child to move from the oral to the written mode in a comfortable setting. Her stages of development are remarkably similar to those of Ferreiro and Teberosky (1979) in their study of the processes children go through in emergent literacy.

It appears that repeated readings of literature in the preschool years serve to make reading an integral part of a young child's background of experience. These daily experiences become a source of comfort in time of emotional stress and provide a wealth of information for the child to draw upon in interaction with the adults and peers in his environment. The process of learning to read is started enjoyably and naturally before the child begins school. If this process does not

take place at home, the school setting becomes the logical place for it to begin.

The Effect of Reading Aloud on Language Development

Several studies have looked at the read-aloud interaction and its effect on language development. In his classic study of 1960, Irwin looked at reading aloud to infants as a way to increase their phonetic reproduction. Twenty-four children were read to commencing at their thirteenth month and continuing through their thirtieth month. Matched control subjects ($n=10$) were tested but not read to. Little difference was found in language development until the seventeenth month but from that time on the experimental group steadily outdistanced the controls. Ninio (1983) and Ninio and Bruner (1979) found that infants between the ages of six and eighteen months of age benefit from read-aloud sessions with their mothers by an increased ability to label illustrations in storybooks read. The children were able to respond to questions asked by their mothers during the reading sessions. This response to questioning is one of the behaviors valued in the school setting later on (Cazden, 1988; Mehan, 1979).

In her study of language acquisition in school aged children, Chomsky (1972) found a strong positive correlation between a number of reading exposure measures and language development.

The amount and complexity of individual reading and listening to stories was calculated using several different methods. By assessing what and how much is read to the child as well as how much and what the child read on his own, Chomsky

was able to picture how reading functioned in the child's life. She states "The child who reads (or listens to) a variety of rich and complex materials benefits from a range of linguistic inputs that is unavailable to the non-literary child" (p. 23).

Using 1) Charlotte Huck's Taking Inventory of Children's Literary Background, a multiple-choice quiz that tests a child's knowledge of sixty widely-read books, 2) a master book list of 400 titles that the parent checked for books that had been read, 3) a parent interview, and 4) a child interview, Chomsky drew a profile of the literature the child had experienced. She found a strong positive correlation between the child's linguistic stage and all of the measures of reading exposure.

Another interesting finding is cited in this study. Three significant measures were found to correlate highly with the child's linguistic stages across age groups. These three measures were: 1) the number of books named by the child in the course of his interview, 2) the average number of books taken out on regular visits to the public library, and 3) the number of books the mother enjoyed as a child and then recalled enjoying reading to her child.

The mother who recalls certain books with pleasure from her own childhood may well transmit this enjoyment to her child very easily when she reads to him. We may speculate that this child learns to assign a special role to reading, for what his mother enjoys doing with him, he quite naturally comes to enjoy and recognize as a valued activity.

(Chomsky, 1972; p. 28)

Chomsky states that this research is only suggestive because of the small sample size (N= 36). Her methods are interesting because of the innovative ways she has found to construct a reading profile for each child.

Read-aloud has been tested as a method for expanding the language patterns of young black students to include standard English. Cullinan, Jaggar and Strickland (1974) devised a program based on three main premises: 1) that true acceptance and understanding of a child's natural language is crucial, 2) a language environment rich with language models must be provided, and 3) opportunities for children to listen to language and use it in realistic situations are necessary. The experimental group program required daily readings of selected literature with oral language follow up activities (creative dramatics, puppetry, discussion and storytelling). A control group also experienced the daily read-aloud but with no specific oral language follow up activities. All subjects (experimental and control) were pre and posttested using The Educational Study Center Bidialectal Proficiency Task in both standard and Black English. The experimental group (N=124) and the control group (N= 125) both made gains in standard English. At each grade level the experimental group showed greater gains than the control group with gains by the experimental kindergarten group far exceeding those made by any other group. The results were analyzed using analysis of covariance with only the treatment effect for the experimental kindergarten group showing significance.

The authors recommend the program's use with kindergarten students for two reasons, 1) this was the age at which the most gain was achieved, and 2) at

this age the black child can expand his standard English proficiency before he has to use this form in learning to read.

The Product - School Success

In order to discuss school success some discussion of what goes on in the school setting is necessary. There are certain patterns of talk that are the norm in most classrooms and the Question-Answer-Evaluation or Initiation-Response-Evaluation pattern is one of the most frequently used of these patterns (Mehan, 1979).

In addition to this pattern there is the "right to speak" rule. Teachers have the right to speak and also the right to decide who else shall be allowed to speak. "The differential treatment perspective asserts that teachers now differentiate among their students in ways that may reinforce, even increase inequalities of knowledge and skills that are present when students start school" (Cazden, 1988; p. 81). From the research on teacher expectations we know that teachers give the right to speak more frequently to children they judge as usually having something worthwhile to say (Brophy, 1983).

Teachers in the primary grades tend to assess children's abilities on the basis of their language patterns, social status indicators and their reading ability (Darley & Fazio, 1980).

To illustrate how this often subtle differentiation takes place in the classroom setting an example from Cazden's (1988) research on classroom discourse, in which one focus was "sharing time" is given. Sharing time is a

speech event in which children are free to share an experience with their classmates. It is one of the few times that children have time in the classroom setting to create their own oral text and share it with the entire group. Cazden differentiated between teacher responses to topic-centered narratives usually told by white children and episodic narratives usually told by black children. Teacher responses were grouped into four categories:

1. The teacher clearly understood the story and asked a question or commented at the end.
2. The teacher asked a question that led to a more extended dialogue between teacher and child.
3. The teacher asked a question that expressed her inability to follow the thread of the story the child told.
4. The teacher asked a question that shifted the topic to one she understood better or valued more.

Teacher responses to topic-centered narratives fell into categories one and two more frequently while teacher responses to episodal narratives frequently fell into categories three and four. The result is one of feelings of shared understanding with the white children and feelings of frustration on the part of both the teacher and black child.

Cazden also makes the point that an important influence on talk is the participants themselves. Their expectations about verbal interaction and their perceptions of each other are vital, and these perceptions are likely based upon their past experiences with verbal interaction. The demands of classroom

discourse are new to all young children, they are often part of a large group for the first time, rules about getting a turn to speak are new and different, acceptable topics for talk are more restricted and are decided by the teacher. Some children are at a great disadvantage in this setting because of the "greater cultural discontinuity and greater sociolinguistic interference between home and school language" (p. 68). Schieffelin and Ochs (1986) see the important factor as a language match between home and school which provides access to learning for mainstream children while inhibiting access for non-mainstream children.

In addition to being able to successfully participate in classroom discourse a child who is successful in school must be able to participate in the social system of the classroom. Garnica (1981) studied kindergarten children who were not accepted by their peers in the social interactions of the kindergarten setting. These children were not able to identify the expected behaviors or verbal interaction of a given situation and as a result repeatedly erred in their social performance. As a result they were often judged to be socially or even intellectually incompetent by both the teacher and the other children in the classroom. They became social isolates and as a result did not benefit from many of the experiences available in the school setting. Comer (1988) sees this kind of behavior as evidence of a misalignment between the sociocultural factors present in the home and the school.

In the early primary years the terms "good student" and "good reader" are virtually synonymous. Because of this it becomes important to look at research that tells us what makes a student successful in reading achievement. Ferreiro

and Teberosky (1979) give us much information about the emergence of literacy and what processes children go through in order to construct conceptualizations about reading, words and written language. This kind of process research is fairly recent in studying reading behaviors.

However, reading readiness indicators have long been used as the guideline for deciding when children are ready for successful participation in school. As early as 1925, lists of readiness indicators were published which alerted teachers to the conditions necessary for a child to be considered ready to begin reading instruction (Gray, 1925). The indicators published in 1925 are as follows:

1. The child has had wide experiences
2. The child has reasonable facility in the use of ideas (solving problems, thinking clearly)
3. The child has sufficient command of simple English sentences
4. The child has a relatively wide speaking vocabulary
5. The child is accurate in enunciation and pronunciation
6. The child expresses a genuine desire to read

The connection of these readiness factors to parental read-aloud in the home has been made in a number of studies (Briggs & Elkind, 1977; Cohen, 1968; Sheldon & Carrillo, 1952; Walker & Kuerbitz, 1979). But again, the fact remains that a number of children arrive at school unable to fully participate in the classroom activities and consequently they do not find success.

In Here They Come; Ready or Not!, a report of the School Readiness Task

Force for the State of California, 1988 it is stated:

A child's success is a complicated issue involving such factors as individual developmental capabilities; the expectations of parents; the appropriateness of the curriculum; and the link between preschool, kindergarten and first grade. The School Readiness Task Force found that too often children ages four through six are receiving inappropriate instruction. However, schools should be changed to fit the needs of students rather than to continue to try to fit the children to programs that are inappropriate (p. 3).

In the meantime, "The single most important activity for building the knowledge required for eventual success in reading is reading aloud to children" (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott & Wilkinson, 1985; p. 23).

Summary

In summary, there is evidence to support read-aloud as a viable method for facilitating language development. The value for children who have not had extensive exposure to storybooks in the home is reiterated by several researchers (Chomsky, 1972; Cullinan, Jaggar and Strickland, 1974).

The present study is an attempt to look at how an intervention of one-to-one interactive read-aloud with kindergarten aged children from low socioeconomic level homes will benefit their verbal abilities and emergent storybook reading

behaviors. One-to-one reading was chosen because of the increased opportunity for verbal interaction in order to 1) clarify misconceptions 2) build vocabulary 3) practice Question-Answer-Evaluation patterns and 4) provide more links to the child's background of experience. Books will be reread at the child's request in order to obtain the added benefits of the repetition.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

Chapter Three describes the methods and procedures that were used in this study. In order to better organize the material presented, the chapter has been divided into eight sections; statement of the statistical hypotheses, description of the subjects, independent variables, dependent variables, description of the procedures, treatment of the data, description of tests used in the study, and descriptive instrumentation.

The Statistical Hypotheses

The following statistical hypotheses are evaluated in this study: 1) There are no significant differences in post- intervention emergent storybook reading behaviors when comparing the experimental group with the control group 2) There are no significant differences in post-intervention verbal abilities when comparing the experimental group with the control group.

A 2X2X2 ANCOVA design with pretest scores as covariates is used for testing the statistical hypotheses as applied to each of the dependent variables: 1) The Observation of Emergent Storybook Reading and 2) The Verbal Scale of the McCarthy Scales of Children's Abilities.

The statistical hypotheses presented here are rival hypotheses to the research hypotheses. Their potential rejection facilitates interpretation of the data relative to the research hypotheses. In other words, rejecting or failing to reject the null hypotheses does not constitute an acceptance or rejection but only allows interpretation of the research hypotheses.

In addition, the following questions will be addressed:

1. Does one-to-one interactive read-aloud increase a child's interest in reading books as evidenced by his increased involvement with books in the classroom setting ?
2. Does a child's involvement in one-to-one interactive read-aloud as evidenced by the asking and answering of questions increase with experience in the activity?

Description of the Subjects

The subjects met the following criteria:

1. The subjects were kindergarten students enrolled at six elementary schools in Leon County, Florida.
2. The schools chosen for this study all used a whole language, thematic approach to instruction in the kindergarten programs and were selected for field experience participation by Florida State University's early childhood education program because of the congruence between the programs at the schools and the philosophy of the university. A whole language, thematic approach involves planning all activities within the classroom around a central theme and

incorporating all four modes of language; listening, speaking, reading, and writing within the theme with an emphasis on meaning rather than individual skills.

The six schools used in this study varied widely in size, architectural design and age. One school was only two years old while another was among the oldest in the district. The student bodies varied widely also but each school had a small population of low SES students from low-income housing projects. The schools differed in architectural design with three schools built in open-space configuration without dividing walls between classrooms, one school contained clusters of self-contained classrooms which shared a central activity space and two schools were built with separate classrooms arranged along a straight hallway. The size of the kindergarten populations varied from two classrooms (approximately 50 students), to six classrooms (approximately 150 students) per school.

3. Two experimental subjects and two control subjects were selected by use of a table of random numbers from the lowest SES stratum in each kindergarten classroom in which there was a university student participating. This provided eighty-eight subjects, forty-four control and forty-four experimental subjects enrolled in twenty-two different kindergarten classrooms.

4. Subjects who had been identified as learning disabled, emotionally disturbed, mentally retarded or having attended kindergarten during a previous year (repeaters) were not included in the selection pool.

5. Subjects who moved away during the study were not replaced which left forty-one in the experimental group and forty in the control group.

Independent Variables

The treatment introduced to the experimental group of kindergarteners consisted of the reading of storybooks by a female undergraduate student to an individual kindergarten child three times a week. The reader-facilitators read one storybook individually with the experimental subjects three times a week over the period of ten weeks. The reader -facilitator sat in close proximity to the child, holding him on her lap if the child allowed it. The books were read with attention given to discussing the illustrations and sequence of events. The child was asked questions about the text and illustrations. Child-initiated questions were encouraged and answered as fully as possible. Books were reread any time a child requested a rereading during the period of intervention. The reader-facilitators kept observation- journals of the titles of books read as well as other reading-related behaviors noted during the school day. Behaviors such as voluntarily looking at books or asking that books be read at times other than the intervention period were noted. (See reader-facilitator observation journal form, Appendix D.) The child's race and gender were additional independent variables.

Dependent Variables

Emergent storybook reading. - The children's progress in emergent storybook reading was pre and post tested by the researcher using Sulzby's **Observation of Emergent Storybook Reading** (Sulzby, 1985). This instrument places children in one of eleven stages of emergent storybook reading based on observation of their behavior as they read, or pretend to read, a storybook they have selected. These scores constitute ordinal scores as they indicate progression through the stages of emergent storybook reading.

Verbal abilities. - The children's ability to express themselves through language was pre and post tested by the researcher using the Verbal Scale of **The McCarthy Scales of Children's Abilities** (McCarthy, 1972). The subtests on the McCarthy are as follows:

Word knowledge - In part one of this subtest the examiner names an object and the child responds by pointing to a picture of the object. The result is an ordinal scale score ranging from 0 to 9 indicating the number of objects the child was able to identify. In part two of this subtest the child is given a word and asked to define the word. There are ten words to define and the child is awarded one or two points for each word depending on the complexity of his response. The result is an ordinal scale score ranging from 0 to 20 indicating the number of words defined and the complexity of the definition given.

Verbal Memory - In part one of this subtest the child simply repeats words and sentences pronounced by the examiner. The second part of this

subtest requires the child to retell a story read by the examiner. The child's ordinal scale score ranged from 0 to 41 depending upon the number of details he was able to successfully retell.

Verbal Fluency - In this subtest the child is asked to name as many items as possible within four different categories. The child is given 20 seconds to name the items in each category. The child received an ordinal scale score of 0 to 36 depending upon his ability to list appropriate items within each category.

Opposite Analogies - The child is asked to give words that are opposites to the words named by the examiner and receives an ordinal scale score from 0 to 9 depending upon his responses.

The total of these verbal scores would indicate the level of language understanding the child possesses, an important factor in their understanding of instruction and ability to participate in the classroom setting (McCarthy, 1972).

Description of the Procedures

The procedures for this study were followed in the following order:

1. Permission to conduct research was obtained from:
 - a. the Leon County School District.
 - b. the chairperson of the Department of Childhood Education.

- c. the principals of the individual schools.
 - d. the classroom teachers involved.
2. Subjects were selected using the following procedures:
- a. Students in the classroom were assigned an SES rating from 1-99 based on the ranking of occupations of their parents as listed in school enrollment records using the Nam and Powers Scores (1983). In the case of two working parents the scale provided for estimating household SES was used.
 - b. A list of children whose SES fell within the lowest third of the class was made alphabetically and then numbered consecutively.
 - c. A table of random numbers was employed to choose two control and two experimental subjects from each classroom. The first two numbers that appeared identified the control subjects, the second two numbers that appeared identified the experimental subjects. Because the selection was random, no effort was made to include equal numbers of boys and girls.
3. Parental permission was obtained from the parents of the subjects. If parental permission was denied a substitute subject was obtained by returning to the list of possible candidates and using the table of random numbers to select. This occurred only once.
4. Reader-facilitators were trained in interactive read-aloud during the time required for the above processes. This procedure is described later in this chapter. Before beginning the intervention the reader-facilitators were

required to demonstrate a minimal level of proficiency as indicated by an 80 % score on a read-aloud observation scale (Glazer, 1981; see appendix C).

5. Pretesting of the children was conducted by the researcher. The Verbal Scale of the McCarthy Scales of Children's Abilities (McCarthy, 1972) was given individually to all control and experimental subjects. This testing was audiotaped and randomly selected tapes scored independently by a second trained examiner in order to control for examiner bias. All control and experimental subjects were pre tested using the Observation of Emergent Storybook Reading (Sulzby, 1985). Reliability of this instrument was established by retesting randomly selected subjects and comparing the two scores obtained.

6. Control subjects were read to and audiotaped once in order to establish a preintervention language sample.

7. The intervention strategies were begun. The reader-facilitators were instructed to read individually with the experimental subjects at least three times a week for ten weeks. The read-aloud sessions took place in a variety of locations within the schools. Some reader-facilitators used conference rooms adjacent to the classroom, some used hallways just outside the classroom, and others partitioned off a small area of the classroom with screens or filing cabinets. The read-aloud sessions were audiotaped each time.

The control subjects were engaged in fine motor activities for a period of time equal to the read-aloud sessions. (See appendix E for list of control group activities).

8. Control subjects were read to by the reader-facilitators and audiotaped to obtain a post intervention sample of their language interaction.

9. After the ten week intervention, the researcher posttested all experimental and control subjects using:

- a. The Verbal Scale from McCarthy Scales of Children's Abilities and
- b. Sulzby's Observation of Emergent Storybook Reading.

10. Statistical analysis of the test results were conducted to determine the effectiveness of the intervention.

Reader - facilitators - The reader-facilitators were junior undergraduate early childhood education majors enrolled at Florida State University. These undergraduate students had completed two years of college, passed a test required by the state of Florida for admission to upper level coursework as well as a screening test to be admitted to the early childhood education program. This screening test consists of a minimum score on the Scholastic Aptitude Test of 840 and tests administered by the College of Education in Reading, Writing and Mathematics. The students were enrolled in a block of courses designed to acquaint them with the special needs and requirements of young children as well as giving them practical experience in working with preschool and primary aged children. As a part of this block of coursework they were enrolled in a class entitled "Language Arts in the Elementary School" that was taught by the researcher. They had completed one semester of field experience in a preschool setting and were beginning their field experience at the kindergarten level. They are

required to spend sixty hours a semester in their field experience in a public school kindergarten classroom.

All reader-facilitators were white females. All of the reader-facilitators were in the eighteen to twenty-two age range with the exception of three students in their late twenties or early thirties.

Training - The reader-facilitators were trained to read -aloud with language interaction and given opportunities to practice using non-subjects prior to their reading sessions with the subjects. This training consisted of:

1. Demonstration of interactive read-aloud by the researcher.
2. Discussion of important strategies including:
 - a. Using warm-up questions about the book.
 - b. Involving the children in the story by encouraging their verbal responses and probing when necessary.
 - c. Positively reinforcing the child's efforts.
 - d. Post story evaluative questions to tie the experience to the child's background. (Flood, 1977)
3. Paired practice reading selected books to each other, asking and answering questions using the Question-Answer-Response pattern (Mehan, 1979).
4. Videotaping several reader-facilitators reading aloud to young children, viewing and critiquing the videotapes in small groups.

Criteria for reading - Prior to beginning the intervention strategies, each reader-facilitator was observed and evaluated using the Reading Aloud to

Children Scale (Glazer, 1981; see appendix C). This scale rates readers on the following reading behaviors :

1. Introduction of the book
2. Introduction of the title and author
3. Showing the child the words and illustrations
4. Reader's voice level, speed, pitch and enunciation
5. Expression while reading
6. Reader's depiction of emotion
7. Reader's familiarity with the story
8. The highlighting of words and the quality of the language interaction
9. Asking interpretive questions
10. Reviewing the story with the child
11. Pointing to illustrations, words
12. Demonstrating left to right progression

All of these factors are rated on a 1-4 scale. A minimum acceptable score of 80 % was obtained by each reader-facilitator before she began to read to the subjects.

Book list - Books to be read were selected by the reader-facilitators from a master reading list provided by the researcher. The reading list was compiled during previous research (Lamb, 1986; See appendix A) using the following procedure:

1. A list was compiled using books that were listed in more than one of the following sources:

- a. Huck's (1979) Books for Ages and Stages
- b. Norton 's (1983) Through the eyes of a child: An introduction to children's literature
- c. Trelease's (1982) Read Aloud Handbook
- d. Cullinan and Carmichael's (1977) Literature and Young Children
- e. Glazer's (1981b) Literature for Young Children

2. The list of books was then submitted to and approved by four professors of children's literature and library science. Because Lamb's research used preschool children the original list included three categories of books. The first category, Labeling Books, was not used in the present study due to the age of the children involved.

Taping of Read-Aloud Sessions - The read-aloud sessions were audiotaped daily.

Control Subjects - The control subjects were given fine motor exercises involving cutting, tracing and drawing for the amount of time each day that the experimental subjects were engaged in read-aloud with the reader-facilitator. The control children were seated at a table out of hearing distance from the read-aloud session and given a specific drawing, tracing or cutting task to perform during the time that the experimental subjects were experiencing interactive read-aloud (See appendix E for activities). The reader-facilitator talked briefly with control subjects, explaining the task they were to perform and then after the intervention session was completed, talked to the control subjects briefly again, providing positive feedback to them regarding the work

they had completed. This served to provide the control subjects with some individual attention from the reader-facilitator without providing the read-aloud intervention.

Treatment of the Data

The major part of the study produced quantitative data which were analyzed using ANCOVA procedures. The two posttest variables, emergent storybook reading and verbal ability were analyzed separately using an analysis of covariance design with the appropriate pretest as a covariate in each analysis. The 2 X 2 X 2 design allowed for analysis of independent variables; treatment -non-treatment, gender, and race.

In order to address the additional research question, "Does one-to-one interactive read-aloud increase a child's interest in reading books as evidenced by his increased involvement with books in the classroom setting ? " descriptive data were collected and analyzed. The reader-facilitator observation- journal form kept by the reader-facilitators was examined in order to compare the behaviors of the subjects in regard to reading-related activities at the beginning and the end of the intervention. Such things as voluntary reading or looking at books during free time in the classroom or requesting additional reading time apart from the intervention period was noted on these observation-journal forms for all experimental subjects. A comparison of the behaviors noted for the experimental subjects was made and differences described.

To collect descriptive data to answer the second research question, "Does a child's involvement in one-to-one interactive read-aloud as evidenced by the asking and answering of questions increase with experience in the activity?" random samples of read-aloud sessions for each child (control and experimental), one session during the first two weeks of the study and one session during the final two weeks of the study were analyzed. The control subjects were read to once at the beginning of the study and once at the end in order to obtain this language interaction sample. The children's language during the interactions were examined using Flood's Analysis (1977). Although this analysis involved looking at fourteen different components of the reading episode, only three of these components were found to be related to improved language scores in Flood's study. These three components were examined by analysis of the audiotapes:

1. total number of words spoken by the child
2. number of questions answered by the child
3. number of questions asked by the child

Randomly selected tapes were scored by a second trained examiner in order to control for researcher bias. The nature of the interaction in the pre and post intervention tapes was studied and will be described in a later chapter.

Description of Tests Used in the Study

The subjects (both control and experimental) were tested by the researcher using the Verbal Scale of the McCarthy Scales of Children's Abilities to

determine the level of their verbal abilities prior to and following the intervention. The McCarthy Scales were chosen because of the gamelike and nonthreatening nature of the materials which have been found to be highly reliable, valid and stable and especially effective in establishing rapport with shy and minority children (Paget, 1985). The scales are appropriate for children from 2 1/2 to 8 1/2 years of age.

The reliability coefficients given in the McCarthy Manual (McCarthy, 1972) are based on split-half correlations corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula for the component tests. The reliability coefficient for the Verbal Scale is .88 with a standard error of measurement of 3.4.

The Verbal Scale of the McCarthy Scales of Children's Abilities was found to correlate with the Wechsler Preschool and Primary Scale of Intelligence (WPPSI) with an r of .51. Correlation with the Stanford Binet (Form L-M) was .66. Analysis of the standardization data for five age groups (Kaufman, 1975) and for separate groups of blacks and whites (Kaufman & DiCuio, 1975) has given generally good support for the construct validity of the McCarthy for normal children. The major implication of these results is that a child's ability to express himself verbally and the maturity of his verbal responses can be assessed by use of the scale index.

Developmental levels in emergent storybook reading were determined prior to and following the intervention period by use of Sulzby's Observation of Emergent Storybook Reading (see appendix B). This observation procedure has been tested with five year olds and proven to reliably assess their level of

understanding of the conventions of print (the front and back of a book, which way to hold a book, the purpose of the illustrations, labeling illustrations, telling a story using "book-like" language, the function of the printed word, recognizing words in print) as well as their ability to retell a story that has been read to them (Sulzby, 1985). Additional reliability testing was conducted by the researcher by randomly selecting subjects to test and retest in order to compare the scores obtained. All testing done by the researcher was audiotaped and randomly selected examinations scored independently by a second trained examiner to control for examiner bias. The interrater reliability was 88%.

In testing the consistency of the results of the Observation of Emergent Storybook Reading over multiple assessments, Sulzby found a significant correlation of .61 between the beginning of the year and end of the year relative rankings. Additionally, the predicted relative increase was significant at the .005 level using the Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Signed Ranks Test (Sulzby, 1985).

Descriptive Instrumentation

Observation-journals.

During the ten week intervention period, the reader-facilitators audiotaped their read-aloud sessions and filled out an observation-journal form after each session. The reader-facilitators were to note any interesting questions asked or answered by the subject as well as any other times during the day when

the child was observed interacting with reading or writing materials in the classroom. Part of this observation-journal form required that the reader-facilitator rate the read-aloud session on a scale from one to five. The following statements were addressed:

The child came eagerly to the read-aloud session.

I enjoyed today's read-aloud session.

The child enjoyed the book we read today.

The child seemed to understand the story.

The child asked questions about the story.

We discussed and enjoyed the illustrations.

The reader-facilitators were asked to respond to these statements using the following scale:

1= strongly disagree 2= disagree 3= neither agree nor disagree
4= agree 5= strongly agree

During the first class period after the reader-facilitators began the read-aloud intervention, they were given an observation-journal form to complete on the read-aloud session they had conducted that morning. The responses they gave during the afternoon class were compared with the responses given immediately after reading to the child in the morning to establish reliability for the observation-journal form. The percentage of agreement between the two responses was 84%.

Only the Likert Scale section of the form was used following the two

read-aloud sessions with the control subjects.

Language interaction analysis.

In order to gather data to answer the question, "Does a child's involvement in one-to-one interactive read-aloud as evidenced by the asking and answering of questions increase with experience in the activity?", two randomly selected tapes were analyzed for each experimental subject, one from the first week of intervention and one from the last week of intervention. Analysis was conducted using Flood's analysis (1977). The tapes were reviewed and incidents tallied for each of the following:

1. Number of words spoken by the child
2. Number of questions answered by the child
3. Number of questions asked by the child

The total number in each category was divided by the number of minutes of the read-aloud session to yield a per minute total, pre and post intervention. The same procedure was followed for the two read-aloud sessions conducted with the control subjects. These comparisons will be presented in chapter four.

Researcher observations.

The researcher observed in each classroom a minimum of eight times during the intervention. The experimental subjects were observed for a 30 minute interval during each observation visit for a total of four hours observation time in each classroom. The visits were timed to coincide with free activity periods in the classroom so that the children's free choice of activity could be noted. All reading and writing related behaviors observed during the 30 minute

visit were noted and compared week by week to note any changes in behavior. These findings will be discussed in chapter four.

Teacher attitude

Because some of the mentor teachers seemed to be concerned with the amount of time the reader-facilitators were spending on the read-aloud sessions, and some of the reader-facilitators reporting having difficulty finding time to conduct the read-aloud sessions regularly because the mentor teachers were assigning other tasks, a teacher attitude rating scale was devised in order to quantify the attitude of each mentor teacher so that the attitudes could be compared with the other variables to determine whether these attitudes had any effect (see Appendix F). Each reader-facilitator completed an attitude scale for her mentor teacher and the researcher completed an attitude scale based on observations and interviews with each mentor teacher. Interrater reliability was established at 92%. A Pearson Product Moment correlation was run to determine the correlation between the teacher attitude and other variables. The correlations found are as follows: Number of readings conducted $r = .04$; Emergent Storybook Reading Gain Scores $r = .21$; Verbal Abilities Gain Scores $r = -.06$. The teachers' attitudes as perceived by the reader-facilitators and the researcher had little or no effect on the intervention conducted or the outcome measures.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter presents the results of a study of one-to-one interactive read-aloud with kindergarten children from low SES homes. The following null hypotheses were tested:

1. There are no significant differences in post-intervention emergent storybook reading behaviors when comparing the experimental group with the control group.

2. There are no significant differences in post-intervention verbal abilities when comparing the experimental group with the control group.

In addition the following questions were addressed:

1. Does one-to-one interactive read-aloud increase a child's interest in reading books as evidenced by his increased involvement with books in the classroom setting ?

2. Does a child's involvement in one-to-one interactive read-aloud as evidenced by the asking and answering of questions increase with experience in the activity ?

Selection of the Subjects

Kindergarten students were selected from twenty-two classrooms used as field experience sites by Florida State University. The subjects were selected using the following procedures:

1. Each child in the classroom was assigned a socioeconomic status rating from 1 to 99 based on his (her) parents' occupations as listed in school enrollment records and rated by the Nam and Powers SES Rating Scale (1983). In cases where both parents were employed the scale provided by Nam and Powers for household ratings was used.
2. A selection pool list was formed by listing alphabetically all children who fell within the lowest one-third of SES ratings within each classroom. The list was numbered consecutively.
3. A random table of numbers was employed to select two control and two experimental subjects from each of the kindergarten classes.
4. This procedure produced eighty-eight subjects, forty-four control and forty-four experimental. Seven of the children moved away during the study which left forty control subjects and forty-one experimental subjects. Of the forty-one children who were part of the experimental group, fourteen (34%) were white girls, fifteen (36%) were white boys, six (15%) were black girls and six (15%) were black boys. The control group consisted of forty children; eleven white girls (27%), fourteen white boys (35%), nine black girls (22%) and six black boys (15%).

5. Students who were identified as learning disabled, emotionally disturbed, mentally retarded or kindergarten repeaters were not included in the selection pool.

Pretesting

All control and experimental subjects were pretested by the researcher using the Verbal Scale of the McCarthy Scales of Children's Abilities (McCarthy, 1972). This provided a measure of their verbal abilities at the beginning of the study within a range of 1-124. The experimental group had a mean raw score of 57.48 with a standard deviation of 8.7 while the control group had a mean raw score of 56.375 with a standard deviation of 10.4.

The subjects were then given the Observation of Emergent Storybook Reading (Sulzby, 1965). Because this is an observational procedure fifty percent of the subjects were randomly selected to be retested using a different storybook one week later in order to establish test-retest reliability. The reliability percentage was established by taking the number of agreements, dividing by the number of agreements plus the number of disagreements and multiplying by 100 (Huck, Cormier & Bounds, 1974; Mitchell, 1979). This reliability was found to be 88%. The experimental group mean score was 2.87 (on a scale of 1 - 11) with a standard deviation of 2.27, the control group mean score was 2.62 with a standard deviation of 1.77. It should be noted that the experimental group mean pretest score on the Sulzby was slightly higher than that of the control group due largely to the scores of two little boys in the experimental group who chose controlled vocabulary books as their storybooks

and had memorized the vocabulary. The mean score for the experimental group without considering those two children would have been 2.56 with a 1.83 standard deviation.

All of the pretesting was audiotaped and one-third of the tests were randomly selected for rescoring by a second trained examiner to control for examiner bias. The number of agreements were divided by the number of agreements plus the number of disagreements and multiplied by 100 (Huck , Cormier & Bounds ,1974; Mitchell, 1979). The interrater reliability for the McCarthy Pretest was 92%, for the Sulzby it was 88%.

Training and Testing the Reader-Facilitators

The reader-facilitators were trained in interactive read-aloud as a part of their language arts classes which were taught by the researcher. These procedures are described in chapter three. At the conclusion of the training procedure, the reader-facilitators were observed reading a storybook to a kindergarten child who had not been selected as a participant in the study. Each reader-facilitator was observed by the researcher and one of her peers who each rated the read-aloud session separately using the Reading Aloud to Children Scale (Glazer, 1981, see appendix C). A minimum acceptable score of 80% was obtained by each reader-facilitator. (range 86-98%, mean= 92%, interrater reliability = 92%).

Posttesting

After the ten week intervention period all experimental and control

subjects were retested by the researcher using the two tests that had been given as pretests; Verbal Scale of the McCarthy Scales of Children's Abilities (McCarthy, 1972) and the Observation of Emergent Storybook Reading (Sulzby, 1985). See table 1 for a summary of the pre and post test means and standard deviations. As can be seen by this table, the experimental group outscored the control group on both outcome measures.

Table 1

Outcome Measures of Emergent Storybook Reading and Verbal Abilities				
	Emergent Storybook Reading (1-11 Scale)		Verbal Abilities (1-124 Scale)	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Experimental Group Mean	2.87	7.97	57.48	65.51
Standard Deviation	2.27	2.46	8.7	10.86
Control Group Mean	2.62	4.07	56.37	60.40
Standard Deviation	1.77	2.21	10.4	7.14

The posttesting that was done using the Observation of Emergent Storybook Reading yielded interesting results. Although the experimental participants were read to only an average of 14.78 times over a period of ten weeks, their mean emergent storybook reading level was at level 7.9 on a scale of 1 - 11. At this level they are definitely aware of the importance of the print in the storybook and are focusing on their inability to decode the words without regard to the information provided by the illustrations. Of the forty-one experimental subjects, seven of them (2%) were reading independently at the conclusion of the intervention; choosing to read books during free choice time in the classroom, recognizing words and phrases, decoding unknown words and reading aloud to their classmates. Of the forty control subjects, there were no independent readers at the conclusion of the intervention. While analyzing the tapes of the read-aloud sessions, the involvement of the experimental subjects became obvious. They read along with the reader-facilitators, repeated whole refrains or repetitious sections of text and some of them even said, "Let me read it!" - and proceeded to do so.

The control group children scored a mean emergent storybook reading level of four on the posttesting. This level is still very illustration based. These children were still "pretend" reading and storytelling based on the illustrations on the page rather than the printed word. Since these children were all enrolled in kindergarten classrooms where the teachers were reading aloud to the group on an average of three times a day, it can be assumed that the

one-to-one read-aloud does in fact add a dimension to the emergent literacy development that group story reading does not. That dimension seems to be print awareness.

Statistical Analysis

The test results were analyzed using a 2 (treatment, non-treatment) X 2 (boys, girls) X 2 (blacks, whites) analysis of covariance with the appropriate pretests as covariates. The purpose of this procedure was twofold, first the use of the analysis of covariance design controls statistically for any any initial differences which might have been present in the subjects and second, using the covariate data within an analysis of covariance produces a more sensitive statistical analysis than would the analysis of just the posttest data with the covariate omitted (Huck, Cormier & Bounds, 1974).

A main effect for treatment was found for both the outcome measures. The differences in the adjusted mean scores on the measure of emergent storybook reading, the Observation of Emergent Storybook Reading (Sulzby, 1985) was significant at the .01 level ($p = .001$).

The differences in adjusted mean scores on the measure of verbal abilities, the Verbal Scale of the McCarthy Scales of Children's Abilities (McCarthy, 1972) was significant at the .01 level ($p = .009$). Neither the race nor gender of the subjects had a significant effect on the outcome measures. There was no significant interaction between any of these variables. Approximately 35% of the variance was explained by the emergent storybook reading measure. See table 2

Table 2

Analysis of Covariance of Emergent Storybook Reading and Verbal Abilities								
SOURCE	Emergent Storybook Reading				Verbal Abilities			
	SUM OF SQUARES	df	MEAN SQUARES	F	SUM OF SQUARES	df	MEAN SQUARES	F
Main Effects	180.931	3	60.310	19.048*	509.724	3	169.908	3.526
Treatment	162.673	1	162.673	51.378*	343.322	1	343.322	7.126*
Gender	.006	1	.006	.002	.820	1	.820	.017
Race	7.226	1	7.226	2.282	114.613	1	114.613	2.379
2-WAY INTERACTION	6.647	3	2.216	.700	86.343	3	28.781	.597
treatment/gender	4.780	1	4.780	1.510	17.039	1	17.039	.354
treatment/race	.406	1	.406	.128	60.513	1	60.513	1.256
gender/race	1.778	1	1.778	.562	.050	1	.050	.001
3-WAY INTERACTION	.156	1	.156	.049	31.954	1	31.954	.663
EXPLAINED	231.911	8	28.989	9.156	3767.96	8	470.99	9.776
RESIDUAL	227.965	72		3.166	3469.02	72	48.181	
TOTAL	459.877	80		5.748	7236.98	80	...462	
* p < .01								

for a presentation of these statistics.

These results tell us that the intervention strategy of one-to-one interactive read-aloud had the effect of increasing the experimental subjects' progress through the steps of emergent storybook reading as measured by Sulzby's Observation of Emergent Storybook Reading. Because of the low "p" value we can conclude that these results are not the product of chance or sampling error.

We can further assume that the treatment of one-to-one interactive read-aloud had the effect of increasing the experimental group's mean verbal abilities as measured by the Verbal Scale of the McCarthy Scales of Children's Abilities. Again, the low value of the "p" assures us that these results were not obtained by chance or sampling error.

Hypothesis One

Hypothesis One : There are no significant differences in post-intervention emergent storybook reading behaviors when comparing the experimental group with the control group is rejected. There was a significant difference in the adjusted mean scores at the conclusion of the intervention ($p = .001$). The emergent storybook reading of the experimental group was positively affected by the treatment of one-to-one interactive read-aloud.

Hypothesis Two

Hypothesis Two: There are no significant differences in post-intervention verbal abilities when comparing the experimental group with the control group is rejected. There was a significant difference in the adjusted mean scores at the

conclusion of the intervention ($p = .009$). The verbal abilities of the experimental group were positively affected by the treatment of one-to-one interactive read-aloud.

The emergent storybook reading behaviors of attending to the print while attempting to decode the text exhibited by the experimental group at the conclusion of the intervention was significantly different than the control group's mean behaviors which were still illustration based and consisted of telling the story to go along with the picture.

The verbal abilities of the experimental group at the conclusion of the intervention included significantly more correct as well as more complex verbal responses than did the responses of the control group.

Descriptive Data

In gathering data that would answer the question, "Does one-to-one interactive read-aloud increase a child's interest in books as evidenced by his increased involvement with books in the classroom?", several approaches were taken. The reader-facilitators filled out an observation-journal form (see appendix D) three mornings a week when they were present in the classroom during the ten week intervention period. On this observation-journal form they noted times when they observed the experimental subjects interacting with reading or writing materials on a voluntary basis. Most of the subjects did not show a pattern of increased involvement on a voluntary basis. There were, however, eleven children who did become very interested in reading and looking at books during this time. These individual children all tested at the

highest levels of emergent storybook reading at the conclusion of the study. They seemed to be reaching the levels of emergent storybook reading at which they could enjoy books on a more independent level.

In addition to the observation-journal forms filled out by the reader-facilitators, the researcher made a total of eight 30 minute visits to each classroom during the period of intervention. During these visits, which were scheduled to coincide with periods of free-choice activity in the classrooms, observations were made and notes taken when the experimental and control subjects were observed utilizing reading and writing materials as a free-choice activity. It should be noted that in eight of the twenty-two classrooms these choices were not entirely left to the children. In these eight classrooms, each table (group of six children) was given a choice among three activities each day and were not allowed free choice among all activities in the classroom. As can be seen on table 3, during the first four weeks of the intervention very few of the subjects chose to engage in reading and writing activities as a free choice. The experimental subjects did engage more frequently in these activities in the later weeks of intervention, however. The read-aloud related play activities listed include any instance in which a child related previously read stories to his/her play (art, dress-up, block building etc.).

Table 3

Frequency of Activities Across Weeks of Intervention								
	Reading Books		Reading along with tapes		Writing Center		Play Activities	
Week	Exp/Control		Exp/Control		Exp/Control		Exp/Control	
1	3	(2)	2	(3)	1	(0)	0	(0)
2	2	(2)	4	(2)	2	(3)	0	(0)
3	3	(2)	3	(3)	2	(2)	1	(0)
4	4	(3)	3	(2)	3	(3)	1	(0)
5	6	(3)	5	(3)	5	(3)	0	(1)
6	6	(3)	7	(3)	6	(2)	1	(0)
7	9	(2)	8	(3)	5	(2)	1	(0)
8	11	(3)	13	(3)	6	(2)	2	(1)
9	12	(3)	12	(4)	5	(2)	1	(0)
10	12	(4)	15	(3)	4	(3)	1	(1)

To answer the second question, "Does a child's involvement in one-to-one interactive read-aloud as evidenced by the asking and answering of questions increase with experience in the activity?", the read-aloud sessions between the reader-facilitators and the children were analyzed.

To compare the language interaction between the reader-facilitator and the experimental and control subjects at the beginning of the intervention strategy and at the end of the intervention, randomly selected tapes from the first week of intervention were analyzed and compared to randomly selected tapes from the last week of intervention for each experimental subject. Because of the random selection process no control was made for text. These tapes were analyzed using Flood's analysis (1977) which includes the total number of words spoken by the child, the number of questions answered by the child and the number of

questions asked by the child. These were then tallied and then divided by the total number of minutes of the read-aloud session to yield a per minute total for each child, pre and post intervention.

The control subjects were read to and taped once during the first week and once during the last week of intervention so that a similar analysis could be made. This was done to control for the natural maturing factor often present when using five year old children as subjects.

These totals were then averaged for experimental boys and girls and control boys and girls and comparisons made. Table 4 shows these comparisons.

Table 4

Frequency of Verbal Output Comparing Gender, Race and Group				
Average Amount of Change from Pre to Post Intervention				
	Words Spoken*	Questions Answered*	Questions Asked*	N
<u>Experimental Group</u>				
White Girls	5.51	-.09	-.02	14
White Boys	1.11	-.01	-.16	15
Black Girls	6.52	.82	.02	6
Black Boys	3.38	.08	-.01	6
<u>Control Group</u>				
White Girls	-2.68	-.35	-.28	11
White Boys	-.29	.19	-.08	14
Black Girls	2.42	-.15	-.15	9
Black Boys	-6.81	-1.16	.68	6
* Per Minute of Read-Aloud				

A pattern that appeared in the pre and post intervention read-aloud interaction was the increase in the number of words spoken per minute of read-aloud by all children in the experimental group. This increase was sizable for both the white and black girls as can be seen in Table 4.

From the first week tape to the last week tape the number of questions answered or asked did not increase, however, the number of words spoken increased as a result of the child's talking more about the story. In listening to the tapes this became evident. The children who had experienced the read-aloud intervention spoke more words, they read along with the reader-facilitator, repeated familiar refrains and generally interacted verbally with the text.

Only the black girls in the control group showed any increase in the number of words spoken. The black boys in the control group asked more questions on the later tapes. The rest of the control subjects showed mixed gains and losses as can be seen by table 4.

Although the read-aloud intervention did not increase the number of questions asked or answered by the children during the read-aloud sessions, an increase in their enjoyment of the read-aloud sessions was found when the Likert Scale questions on the reader-facilitator journal observation forms were compared for sessions during the first and last week of the intervention. On a scale of 1 to 5 the experimental group's mean score increased from 3.9 in the first week of intervention to 4.38 in the tenth week. The control group's scores changed only slightly, from 3.88 to 3.91. Experience in one-to-one interactive read-aloud seemed to increase the experimental group's enjoyment of the activity.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS

Summary of the Study

Purpose of the study. The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of providing one-to-one literary interaction in the public school kindergarten setting. Although it is recognized that public school teachers traditionally have not had time to sit and read individually with children in order to provide an interactive experience similar to that of the parent-child read-aloud, there are, in many communities, volunteers who are capable of providing this service if it is deemed beneficial. While the context of the school and the relationship of the reader to the child differs from the parent-child context and relationship, the interactive read-aloud in the school setting should be tested to determine whether or not the experience can begin to involve kindergarten children in literary events similar to those experienced by children who have been read to on a regular basis in the home before enrolling in kindergarten.

Literature Review. Several research studies have documented the positive effects of reading aloud to children. Vocabulary development, improved comprehension, emergent literacy skills, and positive attitudes toward reading have all been linked to read-aloud experiences (Butler, 1980; Cochran-Smith, 1984; Durkin, 1978; Heath, 1982; Holdaway, 1979 and 1982; Huck,

1979; Schickedanz, 1978; Teale, 1978; Wells, 1986; White, 1956; Yaden, 1988). In addition, much of the research dealing with read-aloud experiences in the home and preschool support the importance of verbal interaction between the reader and listener (Butler, 1980; Cochran-Smith, 1984; Durkin, 1978; Heath, 1982; Martinez, 1983; Martinez & Roser, 1985; Morrow, 1988; Schickedanz, 1978; Teale, 1978; Wells, 1986; White, 1956; Yaden, 1988).

Unfortunately, many children come to the kindergarten setting without the benefit of having experienced this interaction with parent and books. Because it is known that the read-aloud experience is a valuable one in preparing young children to read, (Cochran-Smith, 1984; Ferreiro & Teberosky, 1979; Holdaway, 1979; Wells, 1986) it becomes important to discover whether or not providing this one-to-one experience in the kindergarten setting makes a difference in the emergent storybook reading of children who have not been read to in the home.

The one-to-one story reading and interaction becomes an important factor. Several researchers have stated that the child must be able to clearly view the text as well as have an adult available to focus the language of the text and relate it to the child's background of experience and receptive vocabulary (Goodman, 1980; Holdaway, 1979).

The relationship of socioeconomic status to early reading experiences in the home has been studied (Anderson, Teale & Estrada, 1980; Cohen, 1968). Not only does there appear to be a strong correlation between low SES and lack of book-reading materials in the home, there also seems to be a different parental

attitude toward the importance of reading in low SES homes (Wells, 1986).

Method. There were two research hypotheses tested in this study. They were:

1) After experiencing an intervention of one-to-one interactive read-aloud, kindergarten aged children from low socioeconomic status homes will be facilitated in their progress through stages of emergent storybook reading as measured by the Observation of Emergent Storybook Reading (Sulzby, 1985).

2) After experiencing a program of one-to-one interactive read-aloud, kindergarten aged children from low socioeconomic status homes will benefit by increased scores in verbal abilities as measured by the Verbal Scale of the McCarthy Scales of Children's Abilities (McCarthy, 1972)

The subjects were eighty-one kindergarten students enrolled in Leon County, Florida public schools during the school year 1988-89. The subjects were randomly selected from the lowest third of the SES strata in each of twenty-two kindergarten classrooms, two experimental and two control group children from each classroom (seven children moved away during the study).

The researcher pretested all control and experimental children using the Verbal Scale of the McCarthy Scales of Children's Abilities and the Observation of Emergent Storybook Reading. Each of the experimental group children were read to regularly on a one-to-one basis over a period of ten weeks. The reader-facilitators were undergraduate students majoring in early childhood education at Florida State University. The reader-facilitators had been previously trained in interactive read-aloud techniques and had passed a proficiency

observation at the 80% level (Glazer, 1981). The reader-facilitators chose books from an approved book list supplied by the researcher. All read-aloud sessions were audiotaped and the reader-facilitators kept a record of books read, reactions after each read-aloud session and observations of the child's interaction with reading and writing materials in the classroom.

Control group children were given fine motor exercises involving cutting, tracing, drawing, puzzles or form boards to perform for a period of time equal to that of the read-aloud intervention each day. The control subjects were seated at a table and given specific tasks to perform. The reader-facilitator talked briefly with the control subjects, explaining the tasks to be performed and at the conclusion of the read-aloud session spent time with each of the control subjects discussing the tasks that had been performed and giving them positive feedback on their performance. This served to provide the control subjects with some individual attention from the reader-facilitators without providing the read-aloud intervention. The control subjects were read to on a one-to-one basis once during the first week of intervention and once during the last week of intervention to provide an interaction sample on tape.

At the conclusion of the intervention the children were retested with the same two instruments. The data were analyzed using ANCOVA procedures with the appropriate pretests as covariates. A main effect for treatment was found for both the outcome measures. The differences in adjusted mean scores on the Observation of Emergent Storybook Reading (Sulzby, 1985) were significant at the .01 level. The differences in adjusted mean scores on the Verbal Scale of the

McCarthy Scales of Children's Abilities (McCarthy, 1972) were significant at the .01 level. The emergent storybook reading variable explained approximately 35% of the total variance.

We can assume from these results that the treatment of one-to-one interactive read-aloud had a positive effect on both the emergent storybook reading and verbal abilities of the experimental subjects. When the mean post-intervention scores for the experimental group are examined it became obvious that the read-aloud intervention produced two main effects. 1) the children were much more aware of the print on the page than were the control group subjects who were still "reading pictures". 2) the number of correct and more complex verbal responses on the McCarthy Verbal Scale were greater for the experimental group.

Discussion

Although this intervention strategy lasted only ten weeks, significant differences were found between the experimental and control group means in both emergent storybook reading and verbal abilities. The average total time invested per child in the experimental group was only 127 minutes over the ten week intervention period. In slightly more than two hours of total individual read-aloud time the experimental subjects became much more aware of the print on the page and began to enjoy and participate more fully in the read-aloud sessions. One of the reasons for conducting this research was the idea that if this intervention helped to make kindergarten children more knowledgeable about books and more interested in reading, volunteers could be trained to replicate the

intervention on a regular basis. The use of the undergraduate students as reader-facilitators served to try out the feasibility of this replication. Volunteers cannot be expected to come every day of the week and so the three days a week that was originally planned for the read-aloud sessions seemed more reasonable. In actuality the read-aloud sessions took place less frequently because of many different activities that were scheduled either by the school or by the mentor teachers. The experimental children were read to an average of 14.78 times during the course of the ten week intervention. This average is probably much closer to what could be expected using volunteers, and yet the experimental subjects still made significant gains.

The classrooms

The kindergarten classrooms chosen for this study were selected because the teachers used a whole language, thematic approach to instruction. The rationale for this choice was to attempt to select classrooms in which the children were being exposed to read-aloud in groups on a regular basis, had reading and writing materials available and a teacher knowledgeable in the importance of reading to children. In other words, the classrooms chosen would already be providing a richly literate environment and the intervention would add only the element of one-to-one interactive read-aloud. The follow-up activities that were available to the children in these classrooms helped to demonstrate their involvement with the stories being read. On more than one occasion a child was observed drawing pictures about the story that had been read or acting out the story in the dress-up center. The availability of these kinds of free-choice

activities seems to help the children internalize the stories they have heard and make them more a part of their experience. A similar effect was found in the study done with black children by Cullinan, Jagger, and Strickland (1974).

Language development.

There have been a number of studies that found read-aloud to be an effective way to facilitate language development (Irwin, 1960; Ninio, 1983; Ninio and Bruner, 1981). One study (Elley, 1989) even found vocabulary knowledge to improve with only one story reading although the vocabulary gains in Elley's study were very specific to the story read.

Analysis of the read-aloud tapes also focused on the questions asked and answered by the children during the sessions. The black children in the experimental group made gains in questions answered (.82 questions gained per minute of read-aloud for black girls' questions and .08 questions per minute gained by black boys in the category of questions answered). These gains do tend to support an overall improvement in affect toward read-aloud when coupled with the gains in words spoken per minute of read-aloud and the gains in the means of the Likert Scale on the reader-facilitator observation journal forms.

The most noticeable difference in the interaction during the read-aloud session was the active verbal involvement of the experimental children in the later part of the intervention stage. They read along with the reader-facilitators, chimed in on repetitious segments of text and even asked to be allowed to read independently.

Educational Implications

The one-to-one read-aloud procedures used in this study can be replicated using volunteers, foster grandparents or even upper elementary grade peer tutors. Some training in interactive read-aloud techniques should be included in the project, but the results in emergent storybook reading and verbal ability gains shown in ten weeks time would make this a worthwhile project for volunteer coordinators and classroom kindergarten teachers. Children who have not been read to in the home prior to enrolling in kindergarten could be identified early in the year and given the individual attention in a one-to-one read-aloud setting to give them the extra benefit of this experience. Language interaction and focusing on the meanings of words in the stories read as well as giving children opportunities to relate the stories to their life and their lives to the stories is vital to their language and literacy development.

It is strongly recommended that any use of volunteers to implement a read-aloud program be preceded by inservice education for both the teachers and volunteers that would thoroughly acquaint them with the research supporting the importance of this kind of interaction to the emergent storybook reading of the children involved. Involving the classroom teachers in the planning stages would help to increase their support of the volunteers throughout the project.

Parent education programs that stress the educational importance of reading aloud in the home would be a worthwhile project. Many schools have annual book fairs which would be a good time to invite a guest speaker to talk about the benefits of read-aloud in the home and the ways to use verbal interaction to

make the read-aloud more beneficial. Book fairs at the schools are also an opportunity to introduce parents to the important features to look for in children's books and including parent books like Jim Trelease' Read Aloud Handbook (1979) for parent education purposes would be helpful.

Suggestions for Further Research

Based on the findings of this study, the researcher suggests the following hypotheses for further research:

1. Kindergarten aged children from low socioeconomic status homes who receive an intervention of daily, short (5 to 8 minute) one-to-one interactive read-aloud sessions will benefit by increased levels of emergent literacy when compared to kindergarten aged children from low socioeconomic status homes who receive an intervention of less frequent, but longer sessions of one-to-one interactive read aloud sessions. More information is needed about the optimal time pattern for interactive read-aloud sessions.

2. Kindergarten aged children from low socioeconomic status homes who receive a year-long intervention of one-to-one interactive read-aloud session will benefit by increases in emergent storybook reading stages and verbal ability scores when compared to children who receive no one-to-one interactive read-aloud intervention. Testing a year-long intervention is a natural follow-up study.

3. Pairing kindergarten aged children from low socioeconomic status homes with reader-facilitators of like race and gender in order to conduct a

one-to-one interactive read-aloud intervention will increase the gains made in emergent storybook reading stages and improved verbal ability scores when compared to kindergarten children from low socioeconomic status homes who receive a one-to-one interactive read-aloud intervention conducted by reader-facilitators of a race or gender different from that of the child. The effect of pairing subjects and reader-facilitators of the same race and gender might yield higher gains.

4. The level of questions asked by kindergarten aged children from low socioeconomic status homes after experiencing an intervention of one-to-one interactive read-aloud will be higher than those of kindergarten aged children from low socioeconomic status homes who have not experienced an intervention of one-to-one interactive read-aloud. Some of the parent-child case studies imply that the questioning levels do increase in the home setting. Will they increase in the school setting also ?

5. There will be a negative relationship between the scores on the HOME Inventory (Bradley and Caldwell, 1984) of kindergarten aged children and the amount of gain in language and literacy development derived from a one-to-one interactive read-aloud intervention.

The Caldwell HOME Inventory is a home visitation tool that can be used to assess the child's home environment. It helps the home visitor to focus on such environmental factors as the toys and books available in the home, the verbal interactions between the child and the parents, the amount of time the child spends with parents and siblings. Children whose homes are not rich in literary

and play experiences might benefit more from read-aloud intervention than children who have been exposed to more varied experiences before coming to school. This study would help to clarify the relationship between the home background of the child and his (her) benefits from read-aloud intervention.

6. Kindergarten children from low socioeconomic status homes who experience a program of one-to-one interactive read-aloud conducted by volunteers in the school setting will benefit by increased scores in emergent storybook reading and verbal abilities when compared to kindergarten children from low socioeconomic status homes who do not experience a one-to-one interactive read-aloud program. Training volunteers as reader-facilitators and replicating the procedures used in the present study are logical steps in further research regarding one-to-one interactive read-aloud.

7. Kindergarten children from various strata of SES will benefit by significantly increased scores in emergent storybook reading and verbal abilities after having experienced a program of one-to-one interactive read-aloud. In today's society many parents in upper level socioeconomic status homes may not have time to read to their children on a regular basis. Children from different SES strata should be exposed to one-to-one interactive read-aloud strategies to determine whether or not they will be benefit.

8. The interactions of the reader-facilitator and kindergarten children should be analyzed according to the storybook being read to determine whether certain texts encourage more interaction than others. If some books are found to encourage interaction, a content analysis of these books (text and illustrations)

should be done in order to determine what patterns lead to improved interactions between reader and listener.

Qualitative studies looking at the changes in affect that take place between an individual child and a reader-facilitator, the level of questions asked as a child experiences multiple readings of the same storybook, and the changes in attitude toward storybooks experienced by kindergarten aged children who experience one-to-one interactive read-aloud would add valuable knowledge to our understanding of emergent storybook reading.

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Appendix A

Book List

Category One - In Lamb's research (1986), a category of labeling books was used. Because the subjects in the present study are kindergarteners instead of preschoolers this category of books was not used.

Category Two

Asbjornsen, P. C. and Moe, Jorgan. The Three Billy Goats Gruff.

Buckley, Helen. Grandfather and I.

Burningham, John. Mr. Gumpy's Outing.

Carle, Eric. Do You Want To Be My Friend ?

Carle, Eric. The Grouchy Ladybug.

Cauley, Lorinda. Goldilocks and The Three Bears.

Cohen, Miriam. Will I Have A Friend ?

Ets, Marie Hall. Just Me.

Ets, Marie Hall. Play With Me.

Flack, Marjorie. Ask Mr. Bear.

Flack, Marjorie. Angus and the Cat.

Freschet, Berniece. Where's Henrietta's Hen ?

Ginsburg, Mirra. Good Morning, Chick.

Ginsburg, Mirra. The Chick and the Duckling.

Hutchins, Pat. Good-Night Owl !

Hutchins, Pat. Titch.

Hutchins, Pat. Rosie's Walk.

Hutchins, Pat. Happy Birthday, Sam.

Keats, Ezra Jack. The Snowy Day.

Keats, Ezra Jack. Peter's Chair.

Keats, Ezra Jack. Goggles.

Keats, Ezra Jack. Whistle for Willie.

Kraus. The Carrot Seed.

Lionni, Leo. Inch by Inch.

Minarik, Else. Little Bear.

Rice, Eve. Benny Bakes a Cake.

Rockwell, Harlow. My Doctor.

Watson, Wendy. Lollipop.

Zemach, Harve. Mommy. Buy Me a China Doll

Category Three

Brown, Margaret Wise. The Runaway Bunny.

Burton, Virginia L. Mike Mulligan and His Steam Shovel.

Burton, Virginia L. Katy and the Big Snow.

Carle, Eric. The Secret Birthday Message.

Clifton, Lucille. Amifika.

DeRegniers, Beatrice S. May I Bring a Friend ?

Freeman, Don. Corduroy.

Gag, Wanda. Millions of Cats.

Galdone, Paul. The Little Red Hen.

Hill, Elizabeth. Evan's Corner.

Hoban, Russell. Best Friends for Frances.

Hoban, Russell. Bedtime for Frances.

Lexau, Joan. Benjie.

Lionni, Leo. Alexander and the Wind-up Mouse.

Lionni, Leo. Frederick.

Lobel, Arnold. Frog and Toad Are Friends.

Marshall, James. George and Martha One Fine Day.

Meyer, Mercer. There's a Nightmare in My Closet.

Meyer, Mercer. Frog. Where Are You ?

Meyer, Mercer. Frog Goes to Dinner.

Piper, Watty. The Little Engine That Could.

Potter, Beatrix. The Tale of Peter Rabbit.

Potter, Beatrix. The Tale of Benjamin Bunny.

Raskin, Ellen. Nothing Ever Happens on My Block.

Rey, Hans Augusto. Curious George.

Rey, Hans Augusto. Curious George Rides a Bike.

Rockwell, Anne. The Three Bears and 15 Other Stories.

Sendak, Maurice. Where the Wild Things Are.
Sharmat, Marjorie W. I Don't Care.
Slobodkina, Esphyr. Caps for Sale.
Steig, William. Sylvester and the Magic Pebble.
Step toe, John. Stevie.
Tolstoy, Alexie. The Great Big Enormous Turnip.
Tresselt, Alvin. It's Time Now.
Waber, Bernard. Ira Sleeps Over.
Watson, Wendy. Moving.
Wells. Noisy Nora.
Zion, Gene. Harry, the Dirty Dog.
Zolotow, Charlotte. Over and Over.
Zolotow, Charlotte. William's Doll.

Appendix B

Observation of Emergent Storybook Reading

Procedure:

Each child is asked to select a favorite book. The examiner takes the child and the book to an interview room. The child and examiner sit at an interview table. The examiner places the book under the table, face down on the floor. After the examiner has talked to the child about interests and family the child is asked, "Where is that book that you brought with you?"

As the child picks up the book, the examiner observes how the book is oriented. The examiner then says to the child, "Read me your book." If the child says that he cannot read, the examiner encourages him to try by saying, "Well, pretend you can. Pretend-read it to me." The attempt is audiotaped and the examiner takes notes to compare with the tape.

Analysis:

Each reading attempt is characterized in accordance with what the child seems to be treating as the source of the message: print or picture. The child's overall attempt at pretend-reading is then placed along a continuum of emergent literacy. The points along the continuum are described as follows:

Categories of Storybook Reading

Picture-Governed Attempts

Level One - Story not formed (labeling and commenting on illustrations)

Level Two - Story Formed based on illustrations (oral language-like)

Level Three - Story Formed based on illustrations (dialogic storytelling)

Level Four - Story Formed (Monologic storytelling, storytelling intonation)

Level Five - Written Language Like (print not watched, reading and storytelling language mixed)

Level Six - Reading Language Similar to Original Story (Still illustration based)

Level Seven - Reading Language - Verbatim Story (Still illustration based)

Print Governed Attempts

Level Eight- Refusing to Read based on print awareness

Level Nine - Reading aspectually (Focusing on known aspects of print)

Level Ten - Holistic Reading (Strategies unbalanced)

Level Eleven - Independent Reading

From: Sulzby, E. (1985). Children's emergent reading of favorite storybooks: A developmental study. Reading Research Quarterly 20 (4). 458 - 480.

Appendix C
Reading Aloud to Children Scale

Reader's Name _____

Story Read _____

1. Does the reader introduce the book ?

_____ No

_____ Vague, "We're going to read this book."

_____ More specific information, "Look at this book about a dog."

_____ Specific introduction relating the book to the child. "this book is about a lost dog like the dog in our schoolyard."

2. Title and author

3. Reader takes care that child can see
the illustrations and hear the story.

Yes No

_____ mentions title

_____ yes _____ no

_____ mentions author

_____ reads from cover

_____ reads from title page

4. Reader's voice

yes no

_____ volume has variety (not too loud or too soft)

_____ speed has variety (not too fast or too slow)

_____ pitch has variety (not too high or too low)

_____ enunciation is clear

5. Does reader read with expression ? Are emotions expressed ?

_____ Reading is monotonous.

_____ There is some feeling and expression in parts of the story.

_____ There is expression and emotion evidenced in much of the story.

_____ There are vivid vocal and facial expressions: emotions appropriate to the story are in evidence (humor, empathy, etc.)

6. How familiar is the reader with the story ?

- _____ Not at all.
- _____ There is some familiarity with the story
- _____ The reader is thoroughly familiar with the story, anticipates future happenings.

7. Is the reader highlighting words and the quality of language ? (rhyming words, unique vocabulary, repetition of phrases)

- _____ There is little notice given to language or vocabulary
- _____ There is some notice given
- _____ The language element is evident in the story reading
- _____ The language element is **very** evident in the story reading

8. Further activities

Yes No

- _____ _____ Suggests further involvement with book or topic
- _____ _____ Leaves the book where child can return to it
- _____ _____ Asks an interpretive question about the story (not recall or facts)
- _____ _____ Returns to the book for a review of the story (shows pictures again, recalls an events, etc.)

Coding - Mark each time the behavior occurs.

- _____ Times the reader points to things in picture
- _____ Times reader points to words
- _____ Times reader demonstrates left-right progression
- _____ Times reader initiates student response to story
- _____ Times student initiates response to story

Adapted from: Glazer, J. I. (1981). Reading aloud with young children. In L. L. Lamme (Ed.) Learning to love literature. Urbana, ILL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Appendix D

Reader-Facilitator Observation-Journal Form

Date _____ Child's Name _____

Book Read _____

This was the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, more than 3rd, reading of this book.

Briefly describe today's read-aloud session. Note any interesting questions asked or answered by the child as well as his attitude toward the session.

Please circle your best response to the following statements.

1= Strongly disagree 2= Disagree 3= Neither agree nor disagree 4= Agree
5= Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5 The child came eagerly to the read-aloud session.

1 2 3 4 5 I enjoyed today's read-aloud session.

1 2 3 4 5 The child enjoyed the book we read today.

1 2 3 4 5 The child seemed to understand the story.

1 2 3 4 5 The child asked questions about the story.

1 2 3 4 5 We discussed and enjoyed the illustrations.

Please note any other times today when you observed the child
interacting with books, reading or writing materials of any
kind.

Appendix E

Activities for Control Subjects

1. Tracing letters and numbers from form boards
2. Tracing shapes from form boards and cutting them out.
3. Looking through magazines and cutting out pictures to be pasted into a category book such as "people", or "animals".
4. Sorting and matching upper and lower case alphabet cards
5. Cutting construction paper shapes and pasting them onto a design sheet.
6. Tracing around parquet blocks, cutting out the shapes and arranging them into a design.
7. Working puzzles
8. Building with table blocks
9. Building with legoes
10. Drawing pictures and cutting them out

Appendix F
Mentor Teachers' Attitude Scale

Rate your mentor teacher's attitude toward the read-aloud project by circling the number next to the description that best applies to her behaviors, reactions and priorities.

- | | |
|----|--|
| 10 | <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Expressed interest in the project and supported your efforts to read-aloud each morning- Encouraged you to read, helped you to locate books on the list- Verbally stated her belief in the project |
| 9 | <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Encouraged your efforts to read-aloud daily but left the project up to you |
| 8 | <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Encouraged your efforts to read-aloud but occasionally let other priorities get in the way |
| 7 | <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Sometimes encouraged you to use your time with other activities so that you did not always have time to read-aloud |
| 6 | <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Frequently gave you other assignments that made reading aloud on a regular basis difficult |
| 5 | <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Sometimes expressed concern over the time spent on the read-aloud project as well as giving you other assignments that made reading aloud on a regular basis difficult |
| 4 | <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Frequently made negative comments regarding the read-aloud project as well as giving you other assignments that made it difficult to read-aloud on a regular basis |
| 3 | <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Made negative comments about the read-aloud project in front of the children, rarely seemed to allow you time to read |
| 2 | <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Allowed you time to read less than once a week |
| 1 | <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Never allowed you time to read-aloud unless you forced the issue |