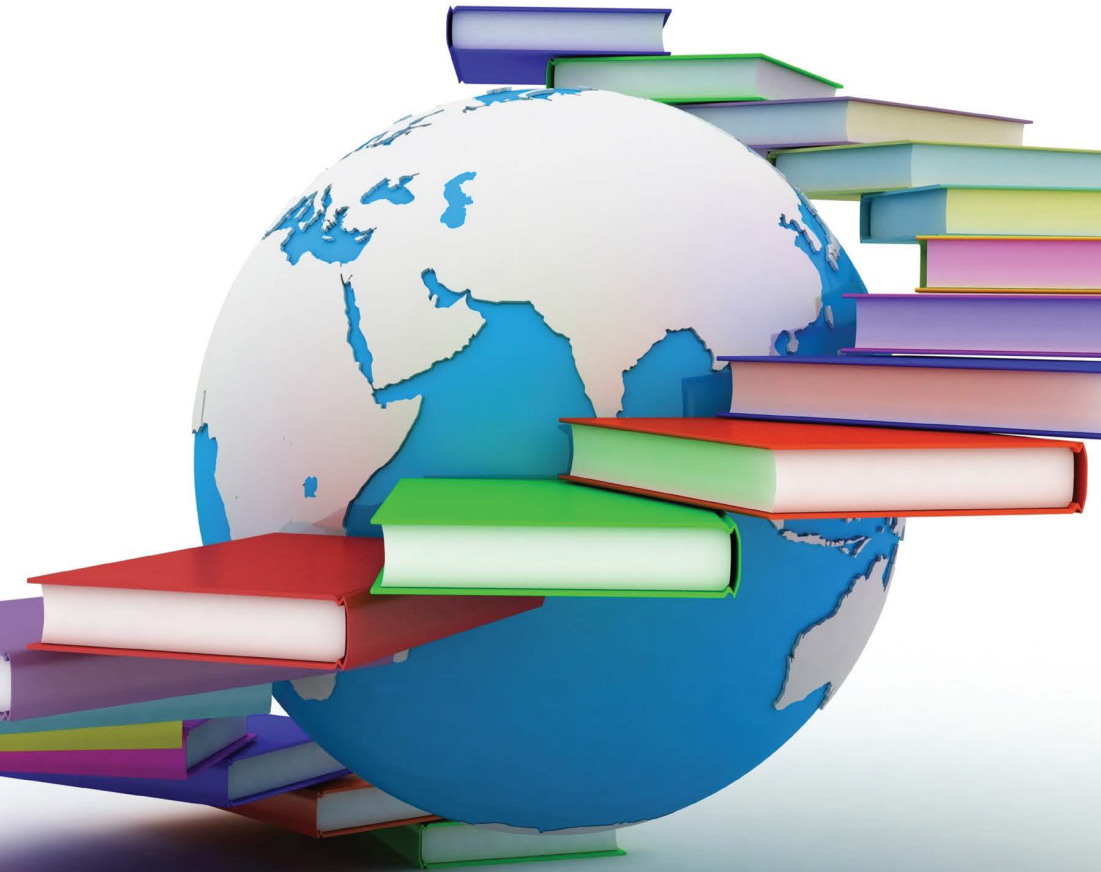


Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers Yearbook, Volume 36

Exploring the World of Literacy



Editors:
Susan Szabo
Leslie Haas
Sheri Vasinda



EXPLORING THE WORLD OF LITERACY



The Thirty-Sixth Yearbook: A Doubled Peer-Reviewed; Publication of the Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers

Co-Editors

Susan Szabo

Texas A&M University-Commerce

Leslie Haas

Dallas Independent School District

Sheri Vasinda

Oklahoma State University

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgments	xi
Introduction	xiii
Presidential Address	1
Infinite Hope: Leadership for a More Literate World Presidential Address	
<i>Robin W. Erwin, Jr.</i>	3
ALER Membership Award Winners	11
Literacy, Literature and Learning to Teach: An Oral History J. Estill Alexander Winner	
<i>Judy S. Richardson</i>	13
ALER Colleagues and Friends ALER Laureate Award Winner	
<i>D. Ray Reutzell</i>	35
Research Awards	39
Developing Culturally Responsive Literacy Teachers: Analysis of Academic, Demographic, and Experiential Factors Related to Teacher Self-Efficacy Doctoral Dissertation Award Winner	
<i>Amie Sarker</i>	41
Expanding the Circle: Collaborative Research to Create a Culturally Responsive Family Literacy Program Master's Thesis Award Winner	
<i>Alison Gear</i>	61
Exploring the World of Literacy in the K-12 Classroom	73
Analyzing and Comparing Struggling Readers' Personal Writing Quality in Two Formats: Traditional Response and E-response Journals	
<i>Sheri J. Tucker and Philip J. Tucker</i>	75

iPad Use in Elementary Literacy Tutoring Experiences <i>Susan L. Massey</i>	93
Exploring the World of Literacy in the University Classroom	117
Coaching with CARE in a Preservice Literacy Teacher Education Program: A Design/Development Study <i>James V. Hoffman, Beth Maloch, Melissa Wetzel, Laura Taylor, Alina Pruitt, Erin Greeter and Saba Vlach</i>	119
Empower the Learner: Using Transformative Practices to Construct Critical Thinking Pathways to Disciplinary Reading <i>Tammy F. Donaldson, Roberta S. Pate, Deborah W. Addison and Tiana Z. McCoy</i>	139
Investigating Attitudes of Secondary Preservice Teachers Regarding Teaching Content Area Literacy Strategies (CALs) and their Attitude Differences by Academic Majors <i>Kay Hongnam and Susan Szabo</i>	149
College Students Motivation to Read <i>Catherin McGeehan and Martha Mercantini</i>	159
Moving the University Reading Clinic to an Online Setting <i>Linda K. Lilienthal</i>	179
Exploring the World of Literacy	195
Reading about Literacy: A Study Revisited <i>Daniel L. Pearce, Corinne M. Valadez and Tiana M. Pearce</i>	197
Measuring the Lasting Effects of Dialogic Reading Training on English Language Learning Children and Families <i>Diana Brannon and Linda Dauksas</i>	219

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As always, we have many people to THANK for the completion of this volume. First, we wish to thank all those authors who worked diligently through the editing process in order to share their research, thoughts, and stories of their good work to add to the body of literacy knowledge. Second, we wish to thank the keynote speakers for their inspirational and motivational words of wisdom both at the conference and in their articles. Third, we would like to thank our editorial board members, as they continue to provide detailed editing suggestions to both the new and the seasoned authors with ideas for revision. This helps to create many high quality articles and continues to add rigor to this Yearbook's publication. Finally, we are grateful to the members of the Board of Directors who have continually support the editorial team and the publication of the Yearbook, as well as Sylvia Reed, the Publication Committee Chairperson.

SS, LH & SV

INTRODUCTION

For our 57th annual conference, the Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers met in Dallas, Texas at Addison Marriott Quorum by the Galleria. Our conference attracts attendees from within the United States and beyond its borders. Attendees come from an array of educational settings, serve in various roles, and assume numerous types of responsibilities. Our annual conference provides chances to learn from and with each other, as well as being recognized for the genuine congeniality and camaraderie that exists among the attendees. The conference allows us to make connections, to learn from each other, and to push our thinking forward as we grow both as professionals and people. This year's conference theme was *Exploring the World of Literacy*, which we also used as the title for this year's Yearbook, Volume 36.

This organization has long been the home of some of our nation's most notable literacy experts. At the Dallas conference, these literacy professionals once again engaged us in dialogue of the utmost importance through their presentations and informal conversations throughout the conference. The articles included in this volume are representative of these dialogues that can lead to transformation, possibilities, and risk.

The Yearbook begins with the Robin Erin's presidential address, in which he shared the need to hope. He expressed the idea that Literacy learning and its supporting organizations have repeatedly shown a disposition for hope based on the insights, commitments, and adaptability of literacy professionals. In addition, he expressed his belief that all literacy teaching professionals are called to this purpose in their own sphere of influence.

The second section contains the ALER Award Winners. The first speech was given by Judy Richardson who was the J. Estill Winner. In her speech she shared her journey of literacy and how it was related to the research of the time. The second speech was given by Ray Reutzel who was the Laureate Award Winner. In his speech he shared some of the positive aspects he has experienced in ALER.

The third section of the Yearbook contains our award winners' research. The dissertation winner, Taylor Clements from University of Central Florida, did her research on *Mathematical Literacy: Reading Clinicians' Perceptions of Domain Relevance of Cognitive Comprehension Strategies*. The purpose of this qualitative study was to examine teachers' perceptions of the relevance of cognitive comprehension strategy used during mathematics text application and to determine whether or not teachers' perceptions would differ after participation in professional development on strategy usage. Results showed that after a two-week period, clinicians in the treatment group had a more positive perspective about strategy usage and its relevance to teaching mathematics than did their peers in the control group. The Master Thesis Winner was Alison Gear from the University of British Columbia. Her study was entitled *Expanding the Circle: Collaborative Research to Create culturally Responsive Family Literacy Programming*. In her paper, she talks about the using parents and community collaboration to create a literacy program that combines both the new curriculum and the students' cultural experiences.

The remaining sections of the volume contain articles that have been sorted into three overarching categories: *Exploring the World of Literacy in the K-12 Classroom*, *Exploring the World of Literacy in the University Classroom* and *Exploring the World of Literacy*. The articles within each of these categories are a great read.

It is our hope that the "scholarship of teaching" represented by our keynote speakers, our award winners, and our authors will provide new insights and possibilities that will support and extend literacy research.

SS, LH & SV

PRESIDENTIAL
ADDRESS

INFINITE HOPE: LEADERSHIP FOR A MORE LITERATE WORLD

PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS

Robin W. Erwin, Jr.
Niagara University

Dr. Rob Erwin is Associate Professor and Chair of the Department of Professional Studies at Niagara University in Niagara Falls, New York. He holds a bachelor's degree from Southern Adventist University, a master's degree in curriculum and instruction from Middle Tennessee State University and a doctorate in reading education from the State University of New York at Buffalo.

Dr. Erwin was convinced of the crucial importance of literacy learning early in his teaching career, and has sought to promote the primacy of literacy in his professional career roles as elementary and middle grade teacher, reading clinician, college developmental reading instructor, literacy teacher educator, and in his current work of teaching and coordinating a graduate degree program in literacy instruction. In addition to these teaching experiences, Dr. Erwin has presented and written for a variety of education organizations, especially ALER, and has served as an editor and reviewer for scholarly journals, as an accreditation coordinator, and as a member of a local school board. In all of these roles, he has found that ALER provides insightful professional development and valuable connections to the field.



Abstract

In spite of the periodic disappointment the profession of literacy education has faced in its existence, there is still a reason and a need to hope. Literacy learning and its supporting organizations have repeatedly shown a disposition for hope based on the insights, commitments, and adaptability of literacy professionals. To further fulfill this goal, the field of literacy needs more truly effective leaders, the essential qualities of whom are a high commitment to literacy learning and a personal humility. All literacy teaching professionals are called to this purpose in their own sphere of influence.

The tongue-in-cheek lyrics of a song performed by The Fabulous Thunderbirds (Ellsworth & Carter, 1986) express the despair that literacy educators have sometimes felt:

“Why get up? Why get up?

How can I get up? Why should I get up?

This whole world’s gone crazy – think I’ve seen enough . . .

I’m gonna’ sleep forever – why get up!”

Contrast that sentiment with this statement by Martin Luther King, Jr.:

“We must accept finite disappointment, but we must never lose infinite hope.”

Dr. King’s statement was made in the depths of the civil rights struggle and was intended to encourage the good fight for equal rights in American society, but it could also apply to other struggles for good causes, and I think it applies to the challenge of literacy leadership in our time.

Although there are many issues in literacy education for which we could feel disappointment and despair, it is the role of genuine leaders to have infinite hope. If advocates for literacy abandon hope, what can be the prospect for more literacy improvement? In fact, if advocates for literacy come to the point of feeling “why get up?” they will have abdicated their responsibility of striving for full literacy of children and adults. King calls for us to never lose infinite hope; this is clearly a call for leadership!

Even though I have served as president of the Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers, I am still growing in leadership skills, and the calls for leadership in this article apply to me as much as to anyone. For example, I have examined the excellent ALER White Paper, *Leadership for Literacy in the 21st Century* by Jill Lewis-Spector and Annemarie B. Jay (2011) for insights into leadership in literacy. Lewis-Spector and Jay call for a broadening of the base of literacy leadership through deliberate partnerships among appropriate stakeholders. They also cite Méndez-Morse (1992) who concludes

. . . six characteristics – being visionary, believing that schools are for learning, valuing human resources, communicating and listening effectively, being proactive, and taking risks, are common to successful leaders of educational change. Furthermore, these characteristics are indicative of these educational leaders' successful performance in the two dimensions considered necessary for effective leadership – initiating structure, which is primarily concern for organizational tasks, and consideration, which is the concern for individuals and the interpersonal relations between them. Leaders of educational change illustrate this with their vision and belief that the purpose of schools is students' learning. Valuing human resources as well as communicating and listening are directly associated with the dimension of consideration. Being a proactive leader and a risk taker demonstrates the dimension of initiating structure. Leaders of educational change respond to the human as well as the task aspects of their schools and districts.

There are many issues crying out for leadership in the world of literacy. A partial listing could include developing the literacy abilities of American learners and those of other wealthy societies; developing the literacy abilities of learners in developing countries; providing leadership and resources in developing societies; influencing public policy for effective literacy learning; establishing, maintaining, regaining credibility as literacy leaders; developing effective partnerships and collaborations among a multitude of literacy service providers, agencies, organizations, government entities; balancing accountability pressures with meaningful literacy learning; changing, evolving as a profession and as an organization; maintaining and increasing our professional effectiveness; creating online organizational access and services, online virtual meetings, online delivery of instruction in the workplace; responding to evolving political climate; serving as a responsible and contributing member of the professional community of literacy educators; and avoiding irrelevancy and obsolescence as a field and organization during times of accelerating social change.

While considering our response to these and other problems, we must guard against the dual risks of changing too rapidly and not changing enough. Some change is necessary, because the context of our professional lives and the context of literacy organizations are in perpetual flux. However, there is a tendency for too much change to become fatiguing and to make us yearn for sameness and routines. So we must find the energy and resolve to face the evolving realities and to make necessary changes in perspectives and organizations. In spite of the drawbacks of making changes, we must adapt.

Fortunately, ALER has a history of adaptation and has structures in place to make organizational change as needed: constitution, bylaws to govern internal processes, division structure to address breadth of field, committee structure to delegate functions and welcome innovation, leadership succession structure to maintain institutional memory while embracing new leadership. The field of literacy education has also shown similar adaptability over the long view.

In fact, ALER has a heritage of corporate and individual leadership in literacy to cope with the evolving challenges within the field, having adapted and thrived over the 50 plus years of its existence. No doubt, readers of this article have known influential literacy leaders within ALER and in the College Reading Association (the former name of ALER), and of course, ALER represents only one of several organizations devoted, in some way, to the development of literacy abilities in society. Across these organizations there are many people involved in this effort, and as we consider some of these leaders, the label “giants” seems to fit the influence these individuals have had on the field. When I reflect on the literacy people who have influenced me and the profession of literacy education, I remember my teachers, professors, advisors, and mentors, all of whom have influenced and encouraged me toward personal and professional effectiveness. There are too many to name, and naming them would inevitably omit some. We acknowledge the role and contribution of these influential literacy leaders as we remember them.

There was a time when I lived in awe and intimidation of such “giants” and with a feeling that they were very different from me and other “ordinary” literacy professionals. However, as I have gained experience in the field and in leadership roles, I have come to realize that, although these giants of the field had special qualities and skills and, sometimes, charismatic personalities, the qualities that fit them for leadership and explained their influence were not those qualities. Instead of these misconceptions about leadership, I discovered other more relevant qualities to explain the effectiveness of these leaders. Most of these leaders were not so much giants as exemplars of professionals highly committed to literacy and to ALER and, yet, truly humble in their own way.

If fact, I am now convinced that all literacy professionals with the professional preparation of typical ALER members are qualified and able to function as literacy leaders in some capacity, either in local leadership or in leadership on a wider scale. For example, members of ALER are usually literacy specialists of some kind and are teaching literacy development directly to learners or to teachers of literacy learners. In this role, ALER members are leaders in their local communities by virtue of their responsibilities for teaching. We are literacy teacher educators, adult basic literacy educators, reading clinicians, or college developmental reading educators, and we all have students who are learning from

our instruction. Each of us is in a position to impact our students, and in that relationship we have a leadership responsibility. If we influence one learner, we have functioned in a leadership role.

This leadership is not only in our role as instructors, but also in our responsibility to advocate for literacy issues in our local institutions and communities. If there is a literacy issue that needs explanation, support, advocacy, and warning, who better equipped and placed than literacy professional to stand up and speak to the issue? If not literacy professionals and scholars, such as those members of ALER, then who else is as qualified and responsible to provide informed advocacy for literacy? There are then local level organizations, such as regional councils of the International Reading Association that would benefit from participation and even leadership by ALER members.

There is also leadership on a larger scale, at both state and national levels. In national organizations, using ALER as an example, there are needs for responsible leadership that start with a person's initiative and willingness to be involved and to serve. ALER membership provides opportunities to contribute and to lead through the division structure (Adult, College, Clinical, Teacher Education), and through committees and commissions (14 in all).

ALER and other national organizations have an advocacy function with regard to initiating or responding to national policy decisions. Individual organizations may function in this manner, but there may be opportunities for national organizations in literacy to band together to present a united response or advocacy for consensus literacy policy positions. Literacy educators should be consulted more frequently regarding issues of literacy education. Sometimes we wonder, "Where are policy makers getting these ideas?" Certainly not from us as literacy professionals! We could provide policy ideas informed by deep scholarly knowledge and field-based practical insights for literacy development, but too often we feel that we do not have a voice in national literacy education policy development. There is more likelihood of impact if literacy organizations speak as one voice and let policy makers know that there is some unanimity of literacy educators regarding particular topics and issues. If we could function more consistently as a coalition of literacy organizations – ALER, IRA, and others – we could more effectively represent literacy issues on the national stage.

Some literacy professionals object to the idea of holding leadership roles, especially outside of their local communities. They express modesty about their own potential to be effective in leadership and point to others whom they consider to be especially qualified to lead. In some ways, these professionals may be laboring under some of the same misconceptions I had regarding the important qualities of effective leaders.

Jim Collins writes in his respected book *Good to Great* (2001) that the two distinguishing characteristics of outstanding leaders of great organizations are extreme ambition and dedication for the organization they serve and a personal humility. Collins comments that these leaders do not exhibit extreme personal ambition, but they do exhibit high ambition for the organizations they serve, believing the potential of these organizations to be truly great. Collins also comments regarding the remarkable personal humility of these leaders who are comfortable being relatively unknown and out of the spotlight and who listen to colleagues and share the authority of decision-making among a trusted team of similar-minded leaders. These are the executives who share the credit when things go right but willingly take the blame when things go wrong. There is no doubt that these leaders of great organizations have possessed excellent skills, aptitudes, and dispositions, but the distinguishing characteristics in Collins' study are their dedication and their humility.

Al Gini, a professor of business ethics at Loyola University of Chicago, points out that Plato had important insights about leadership that are pertinent in this context. According to Gini, Plato argued that, while society needs leaders who are good people, good people are not typically motivated by personal ambition, they do not seek power for their own gain, and often, they do not want to have leadership roles. However, says Plato, these are the very people who have an obligation to lead, who society should obligate to lead, and who should accept this obligation. Using this rationale, some of the professionals in the field of literacy who claim to not be "leadership material" may, in fact, be exactly the kind of "good people" to whom Plato was referring.

Taken together, these comments by Collins and those attributed to Plato may be encouraging to some readers – we do not have to be super-heroes or already widely known in order to be potentially effective leaders. The qualities identified by these writers are certainly found among numerous literacy professionals, and there are potentially many who are people of character ("good people") who are ambitious for the field of literacy and for learners, and who possess a personal humility that complements the other two qualities. These observations may convict many of us of our potential to contribute to literacy learning at local and even national levels.

Commenting on the experience of serving as a leader, former ALER President Wayne Linek expressed he found it a privilege to serve a cause so highly valued as literacy learning. For many members, belonging to and serving in such a meaningful organization is professionally and personally fulfilling.

ALER is unique among national literacy organizations in its promotion of a balance of scholarly insight and professional practice, its culture as a supportive



Diagram 1

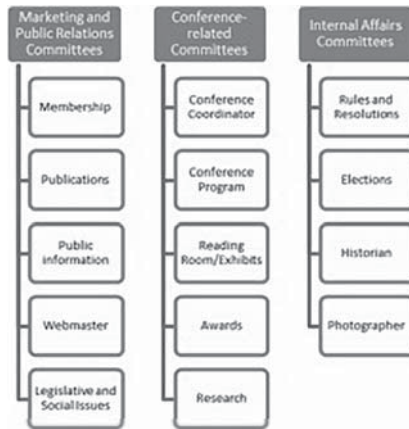


Diagram 2

professional community, and its emphasis on higher education literacy issues in four distinct and complementary divisions – teacher education, clinical literacy, college developmental literacy, and adult literacy. It also functions with the structure of approximately fourteen standing committees and commissions, with all of these organizational elements functioning by the benefit of volunteer leaders.

If you are willing to be more involved in ALER, let someone know! In the children’s video series *Thomas Tank Engine*, the highest praise received by the imaginary engines is “you were useful today!” You can be useful to ALER as you volunteer. The children, adolescents, adults, and struggling readers and writers whom we serve are the reason for our existence; these learners are why we do what we do. Literacy learning makes a qualitative, positive impact on people because literacy competence is such an important ability. In this sense, literacy professionals are in the people improvement business in any society, whether a developing society or a highly technical society. Literacy adds to the quality of life, the quality of work, and the quality of service, and it supports some of the most valued accomplishments of humanity, including freedom, self-determination, and an informed citizenry who can participate in their own government through democracy, arts, and research. Paraphrasing the words of Mikhail Gorbachev, “If not me, who? And if not now, when?”

Consider this statement by the inimitable Margaret Mead (as attributed to Mead in Sommers & Dineen, 1984, p. 158), “Never doubt that a small group of thoughtful, committed citizens can change the world. Indeed, it is the only thing that ever has.” We do not need to wait until we are hundreds of thousands involved in this effort. We are enough – now!

Literacy leadership? It is time for each of us to function more effectively in this role. It's our place, our responsibility, our obligation, our time! "*We must accept finite disappointment, but we must never lose infinite hope.*" Martin Luther King, Jr.

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ALER MEMBERSHIP
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LITERACY, LITERATURE AND LEARNING TO TEACH: AN ORAL HISTORY

J. ESTILL ALEXANDER WINNER

Judy S. Richardson
Retired

Judy S. Richardson was a professor of teacher education at Virginia Commonwealth University in Richmond, Virginia before she retired. Before teaching at the university level, she taught secondary-school English for several years, directed a reading clinic, and taught special education. Active in several professional organizations, Judy is the author of various articles and is a frequent and popular speaker.



INTRODUCTION

Pink notes, in *A Whole New Mind* (2006), that we need stories as much as – if not more than — argument and research, to succeed in the “Conceptual Age” of the 21st century. In this article, I take a story-telling approach. I share some events I experienced at an early age and “matched” them with what I know as a reading professional about the factors that influence reading in one’s life. I cite articles, studies, and theories that have made a deep impression on me; some are classic and some are contemporary. Interspersed with my oral history are also excerpts from a few of my favorite books—ones that remind me of important aspects of literacy.

Literacy surrounds me. I read and write every day, much of the day, in some medium or another. How did literacy become so important to me? Why did I become

a reader in spite of negative experiences at an early age? In my childhood, I think the odds were against it. And in my many years of teaching, I have witnessed how similar odds have been against so many of my students because they never discovered the mystery and magic of literacy. So I have spent my teaching life trying to transmit the joys of reading and learning to them, encouraging them to fight the odds.

THE MAGIC OF READING

A few years ago, I read *Shadow of the Wind* by Carlos Ruiz Zafón. In this incredible story, Daniel selects a book from a vast, un-catalogued library, “The Cemetery of Forgotten Books”, to which his father takes him. His father advises him to find a book that calls to him and then to treat it carefully. Daniel’s choice sends him on a hunt throughout his life for the secret of Julian Cerax, the book’s author—the one who is the shadow of the wind. Set in about 1945, the novel spans the oppression of the Spanish Civil War to World War II when Spain was rebuilt. Politics and oppression pervade the story. I learned about the feelings of hopelessness engendered by war, struggles for power, and failed politics. Before this book, I had never thought about the Spanish Civil War, but afterwards, I needed to learn about it. *Shadow of the Wind* taught me history, but I learned so much more!

The “knock-your-socks-off” power of the novel, the mystery and adventure that draws the reader in and on are for me the real beauty of the book. That a novel within a novel could influence me so dramatically is the magic here. The book changed my life, as Zafón explains can happen, because it helped me understand the battle for balance between happiness and evil. Books are precious, to be treated carefully. They follow one all through life, guiding experiences and helping a reader understand emotion, empathize and gain perspective.

This is the world of shadows, Daniel, and magic is a rare asset. That book taught me that by reading, I could live more intensely. It could give me back the sight I had lost. For that reason alone, a book that didn't matter to anyone changed my life. (p. 27)

Reading can be this kind of magic and mystery. We can read a second or third time what we have read before, and see a new way of understanding something. Reading is not only a way to learn; it is also an entry point for discovery and enjoyment.

HOW I LEARNED TO READ AND SOME LESSONS FOR TEACHERS

There were not many examples of literacy in my life from birth to age 5. My parents were not book readers. I might have owned some books, but I do not recall.

We did have the newspaper and it occupied my father after work from 5 PM when he arrived home until dinner at six PM. Radio and television by the time I was ten filled his evenings. I must have noticed his absorption in that newspaper and those TV shows, the power of reading and viewing they offered. Although he did not include us or share with us in any way, I could see that this reading was his escape. My mother did not seem to ever read and she fell into bed when we children did—no bedtime stories.

As a literacy expert, I have read study after study about the importance of reading aloud to children, providing them with their cozy literacy space full of writing tools and books, presenting opportunities for listening and talking and modeling reading. Elley, in the classic *How in the World Do Children Read?*, describes rich literacy environments around the world (1992). We know that surrounding children with books is one of the most influential ways to kindle a love of reading and desire to learn to read. We also know from this report, which compared the reading scores of 9 to 14 year olds in 32 systems of education, that, while the United States produced fairly high scores for the nine-year-olds, we had lower scores than many countries for the fourteen-year-olds. In countries where teachers frequently read aloud to children, scores were higher. Teachers influence children's literacy behaviors—teachers who care, model reading, encourage children and provide them with a safe environment for learning. Of course, research is not a perfect source of knowledge, as has been pointed out by Carney and Rothstein (2013), who are concerned that comparative studies such as PISA can be flawed because “students at the bottom of the social class distribution perform worse than students higher in that distribution. . . U.S. average performance appears to be relatively low partly because we have so many more test takers from the bottom of the social class distribution” (p. 2).

The year I began to read, I lived in Oakland, California, but I confess, I cannot tell you first-hand what I learned about reading in first grade. My mother told me I did not learn a lot—she said I was exposed to “The Progressive” approach, which meant “no progress”. I doubt this is really so, but back then I had no theories or facts with which to counter her evaluation, nor did I think about it too much anyhow at the age of 5.

What is progressive education? As early as 1908, Huey (reprinted in 1968) proposed several tenets for the teaching of reading:

- Reading should always be accomplished with a purpose in mind that is known to the student.
- Reading should not be “an exercise,” done as a formal process or end in itself. Rather, it should be meaningful, with intrinsic interest and value.

- Children should learn to read “real literature,” e.g., books, papers, records, letters, children’s own experiences or thoughts. These should be read as the need arises in a child’s life.

The progressive philosophy had its roots in Huey’s tenets. John Dewey (1938) believed that language is “the medium in which culture exists and through which it is transmitted” (p. 20). Dewey, a philosopher, was heavily influenced by Francis Parker (1894), the Principal of the Cook County Normal School in Chicago where Dewey’s children attended for two years. Parker had observed schools in Europe and concluded that knowledge required understanding and was not enhanced by rote learning. Since he viewed reading as a language and a social experience, he advocated that children needed time and space to learn by doing, as if they were scientists testing ways of knowing. Children would naturally progress through real-world experiences and activities from the real life of the students, not just by what some reading experts call “skill and drill.”

I speculate that, while in first grade I was being immersed in experiences and activities that my teacher believed would provide me the time and space to learn in a confident manner. I must have been exploring and, surely, I was developing purposes for reading in my life. The reading program at my first elementary school must have been “child-centered.” I remember that I *liked* being in school that year.

I probably learned via “experience charts” where the class told a story as the teacher wrote it onto the chalkboard or chart paper. The Language Experience Approach was popular in first grades the 1950s (McCormick & Braithwaite, 2008). It was consistent with Dewey’s theory about progressive education. Actually, using one’s own words as a tool for learning to read was established in the far past. After all, early communication was first oral; later written symbols were used to “tell” others who were not nearby and needed to read the message. Symbols were easily recognized as units of language long before there were specific letters and sound relationships that identified a particular language—for example, Egyptian hieroglyphics (Ashton-Warner, 1963; Smith & Strickland, 1969). I can imagine myself sitting on the floor or at my desk, collaborating with my classmates on the experience story my teacher was transcribing for us. I surely felt involved in creating words.

Much later, in the 1970s, when I began graduate studies in Reading Education, I encountered Sylvia Aston Warner’s marvelous text, *Teacher*, in which she describes how she taught Maori children in New Zealand by organic reading. Ashton-Warner notes that, “first words have ever meant first wants” (1967, p. 26). Each morning she would call a child to her and ask for words that child

wanted to learn. The child would keep those words nearby all day and then return the next morning to her. If the child could read the words that next day, they became part of the child's word bank. But if a word remained unknown, she threw it out, in the belief that it was not important enough to that child. I felt instantly excited and engrossed myself in this book, which challenged the phonics sweep of the late 1950s. I sat myself right beside Ashton-Warner as I read her descriptions. This felt right to me!

Also in first grade, I might have read from basal readers. The most popular series of basal readers at that time was Scott Foreman's Dick and Jane series. However, I seem to remember a boy named "Jerry," so I must have used the Alice and Jerry Basic Reading Program (written by Mabel O'Donnell and published by Row Peterson which became Harper & Row). *High on a Hill* and *Round About* come to mind. The "look and say" or "sight reading" approach was in full swing at that time, although just about to be toppled by a phonics movement. I would have memorized a large base of words—that is, recognized them by sight. The basal reader provided a context for remembering many words through pictures by illustrating Alice and Jerry were doing in the story. I might have found it easier to memorize those pesky words like "the" because they were repeated so frequently in the story, than if I had been learning through phonics.

(Note: As I searched the Internet for information about the Alice and Jerry readers, I came across several "fan" pages the reader might want to visit; I have listed these after the references.)

I loved discovering that women wrote many of those basal stories in the 1930s up until the 1950s, when the soldiers came home and wanted all of the jobs again. It comforts me now to realize that, even as my father discounted the possibility that I would have a career, here were women who did have careers in literacy! Girls didn't amount to much in my father's viewpoint. As he pointed out when I began to plan for college, he would be saving his money for my three bothers to attend college because all I would ever do was have children and that did not require a college education. Probably this was a typical view of the times, one that erased the image of those Rosie the Riveter slogans and ads from the World War II era. That was when women in the United States were called on to replace in the workforce the men gone to war. I have a magnet and hot pad stamped with Rosie flexing her arm and saying, "We can do it!" I smile at Rosie a lot because I know we women can do it and have but that confidence was suspect in the 1950s. And my gender meant that my future as anything other than housewife was suspect to a generation of fathers.

So, first grade was a good time as I progressed at my own rate, learning my words and reading little stories. I have no bad memories of reading at that

time, although reading was not a significant part of my life just yet. But then, we moved clear across the country from California to Pennsylvania. My mother said I changed markedly within two weeks of starting second grade. I looked pale and withdrew. I remember not liking school and feeling very worried. My mother told me that I might fail second grade if I did not learn phonics, the “true way” to reading.

I recall that I spent many after-school hours with my second grade teacher. During those few hours a day in second grade, I faced no competition from other children who seemed to me so much smarter than I was. All day long I felt confused. But, during tutoring, I was confident again. I remained in school with just my teacher. Then my mother arrived to drive me home just her and me, not my brothers. How special I felt to share a bit of time with my mother right after having had my teacher all to myself. There was no noise from my three younger brothers, clamoring for mother’s harried attention.

Even though I was behind and in danger of failing due to my lack phonics knowledge, I overcame embarrassment and gained confidence. I did not feel stupid—“stupid” came the next year. I had attention and access to private tutoring from a kind, caring teacher who believed in me and in what I could learn. I do not remember if I liked or hated those phonics lessons. However, I passed that year with honors and I was proud of myself. I had faced my first big challenge in life.

Phonics is part of a set of “keys” to unlock the mysteries of how to read. I call it a “nuts and bolts” part of the learning, one component of learning to read. *Phonics* is matching sounds to letters. In English we use this term for the sound to letter correspondence in learning to read—pronounce—letters and words. Sometimes people get confused and call this phonetics, but *phonetics* is a linguistic term that means the scientific study of sounds in a language. Although there are many possible sounds, no one language uses all of them. In English, we use roughly 44-46 phonemes/sounds. We pronounce the letter /r/ as in “red” (an alveolar trill) but in French the /r/ is more guttural. In Far Eastern languages, there is no /r/ and the closest sound to it is like a /l/ to a speaker of Chinese. In Slavic languages the /f/ sound is the same but the letter for this phoneme looks very different = Ф. Frank Smith (1971, see especially pages 159-160) provides a concise definition of each of these terms.

Each language in the world has sounds that create words, and those sounds are usually—in written languages—then marked by letters that represent those sounds. In some languages this is a very consistent relationship, as in Slavic languages that use a Cyrillic alphabet. The *phoneme* (sound) is matched well to the *grapheme* (letter). English is not so consistent, because many English sounds seem to almost clash with the letters that are used to spell the words we speak.

Words like “the” are so easy to say and children learn at a fairly young age where this word belongs in a sentence they speak. But the relationship between the sounds for /t/-/h/-/e/ is not the same in “the” as it is in “teh”—this can be very confusing to children learning phonics.

Other components of learning to read include “word families” such as at (fat, bat, sat, hat. . .); structural analysis, a way to divide a word into its meaningful parts; vocabulary where we learn many meanings for those words we can now “sound out”; and a more complete comprehension of what all of the words in a sentence, paragraph or entire piece of text mean. The point of learning to read, in my view, is to reach a state of reading between the lines and beyond them (Gray, 1960); study efficiently and effectively; and thus think about what we read in an analytical manner as well as in an aesthetic, appreciative way.

Reading is much more than “look and say” but it can start there. Reading is much more than Language Experience, but it can start there. Reading is much more than phonics, but it can start there. The big picture is that reading transforms the messages children have learned to convey orally into print. These messages have to be broken into tiny, measurable components that represent the full meaning of what one has learned to say. The thoughts must become sentences, words and letters on a page. Spoken language is transformed into a code that can be written and read.

EXAMPLES ABOUT TEACHING READING FROM MY YOUTH AND FROM PARENTING

Because I had studied these approaches to reading by the time my middle son started first grade, I was able to “help” him with reading. First, as with each of my sons (I have three), I read with a book propped on my stomach while he was *in utero*, I read to him and *in front of* him from his birth, and I also *read with him*. I consistently encouraged him, even though he was being taught phonics in first grade, to read to the end of a sentence before stopping to sound out a difficult word and lose meaning. By using this approach, he almost always “got” the word by the end of a sentence. One day I thought I would reinforce this use of context by asking him how he had figured out a difficult word (right answer = going to the end of the sentence, then back) and he responded, “I sounded it out, just like my teacher says to do.” Lesson learned: my son had internalized his teacher’s message, not mine. However, he was using my suggestions even if he did not acknowledge me.

On another evening, over dinner, I asked what he had learned in school that day. He noted that he had learned the sound of “sh”. I asked him how and

he replied that the teacher asked for words that begin with “sh”. Very worried, I asked what he had contributed. “I said ‘shut up’, but Manny said ‘sh__’”. Lesson learned: teachers should be very careful what they ask for.

I have discovered some books that are immensely entertaining in explaining the phenomena of language and why English turns out to be complex phonetically and orthographically but pretty consistent morphemically. Bill Bryson (1990) brings both scholarship and enjoyment to the subject in *The Mother Tongue: English and How it Got that Way*. Dave Barry (1998), in his essay “How to learn Japanese”, provides humor as he explains that the best way to learn a language is to be born into it.

Learning to read is complicated by all of the assumptions a learner just “knows” because of being immersed in that specific language since birth. Having studied the process of learning to read, I am still befuddled about the raging debate spurred by the publication in 1955 of *Why Johnny can't read* (Flesch). The Soviet Socialist Republic was a major force for the United States to reckon with; competition was fierce in just about every area, including education. Flesch attacked the progressive approach to reading; he claimed that its use was causing the US to lose the literacy battle and thus the world battle. This battle has simmered ever since, raging again in the “reading wars” of the 1980s when phonics advocates clashed with those advocating for a whole language philosophy (Lemann, 1997). My own experience informs me that such battles obscure the needs of young readers. Children require whatever works for each one, in combination and in concentration.

Of course, when I was five and six years old, none of this information about approaches or theories would have informed me. It was up to my schools and teachers to provide me with a consistent, steady approach to learning to read. It would have been preferable if I had had instruction demonstrating the connections between phonics and meaning and rich vocabulary development. It would have been exciting to learn through not only those basal readers but also through good literature written for children, meant not only to entertain but also to illustrate the use, cadence and beauty of language. It would have been wonderful to have my teachers read aloud from books beyond my reading level but within my comprehension range.

Instead, I got my instruction in segmented, unrelated parts, from one school in California that stressed the play of language without the nuts and bolts, and then the mechanics without the “what’s this all about?” big picture. I was a victim of the “international conflict” concerning approaches to reading that Nila Bantan Smith discusses in chapter eight of *American Reading Instruction* (1986). And to compound this confusion, I had few examples at home of what reading

was *for*. I did not see my parents read for pleasure nor did they read to us children. Other than my mother driving me home from my phonics lessons, I doubt that she or my father were advocates for me in my schooling. They never helped with homework. Teacher conferences were only for “troublesome episodes” in our school progress or behavior.

We moved again before I started third grade, this time to the house we would own for many years. We moved to a new school system, just a county away from the last system. The approach to literacy was different yet again. So many ways to approach literacy! So many ways to confuse a child!

My new teacher told us to *write* about our summer vacation. Maybe the topic was not so cliché back then in 1952—now it is the stereotype for uncreative topics. Well, I was ready for that assignment! I had not only conquered those letter-sound relationships in second grade, I had also learned both manuscript and cursive writing at my former elementary school. So I could now impress this new third grade teacher and make friends in a new school right away, I was sure.

I *wrote* my essay about my summer in *cursive*—the teacher said *write*, not *print*. And I was the first one done! I proudly took that essay to the teacher, who scanned it and peered at me. “In this classroom, we have not learned to write in cursive, young lady. Go back to your seat and do this right.” You might think I would not remember her words, but I do to this day. And I remember the snickering of those children I had not yet had a chance to make friends with. My reputation was made, and it was damaged. I was “stupid”.

The first shall be last—it is a good lesson to learn, I suppose. I finished dead last on the manuscript version of my essay. I never really recovered from this challenge. This teacher decided not to like me, an upstart showing off my skills that she had not yet taught. I don’t remember what it was like to relearn cursive. I think I hated it, felt bored and stupid at the same time. But people always comment on my legible manuscript and cursive. I had lots of practice.

Although my eldest son made As in every subject, at the end of third grade his teacher informed me that he should be retained. I was stunned. I asked why. She said he was immature; as an example, she pointed out that, while he should have been copying from the board he was in the back of the room playing in the coat racks. I looked at the board. It was covered with her writing, small letters and lots of lines. The board work seemed daunting to me, so I could imagine how a third grader might feel. This was one of the very few times I disagreed with my children’s teachers (I tried always to respect their knowledge and experience). I believe my exact words were: “I don’t blame him. If I had to sit and copy all of this I would be swinging from the coat racks”. I confess that I also said, “You will retain him over my dead body”.

Today cursive writing may have lost out to an emphasis on keyboarding, which accomplishes the purpose of writing letters quickly with the least amount of effort. In fact, The Common Core of Standards (2009) includes no recommendation about teaching cursive, therefore many states no longer include it in the curriculum. Most teachers do not receive any coursework in how to teach writing anymore (Graham et. al, 2008). Although the specific experiences that my son and I faced with cursive writing may be mote, the underlying lack of regard for a student's accomplishment and extreme boredom are still relevant.

A student's views of and experiences with literacy make a big difference in how successful that student will be. Studies of both first and second language beginning readers in many countries have revealed telling connections between reading ability and views that students hold about literacy. Readers of lower ability tend to see reading as "Schoolwork", (Bondy, 1990, pp. 35-36) or "as a serious, difficult process" (Elley, 1992, p. 77); whereas higher ability readers are more meaning-centered (Devine, 1984). They approach reading as a "pleasant, imaginative activity" (Elley, 1992, p. 77), a way to learn things that is "both a private pleasure and a social activity" (Bondy, 1990, pp. 36-38).

By first grade, my middle son figured that reading was sounding out words. In third grade, my oldest son was about to "fail." In third grade, I myself had been labeled an "over-achiever" (That is, I could apparently perform academically at a higher than expected level, *above the ability I had*—according to standardized tests). This could be confirmed by the fact that I seemed to know what I was not supposed to know when third grade began. My sons and I approached reading as "schoolwork". I did not think of literacy as a "pleasant, imaginative activity". My performance was generally good but my attitude was generally indifferent.

Third grade was also a bad year for my youngest son. We had moved to a new school district, away from the rich English Second Language environment of his former school where literacy was cultivated in every way that might tune children in. My son showed the same drastic changes in attitude that I had upon starting third grade. He looked pale and withdrew. But I was watchful. And I began to connect the piles of worksheets he brought home every week with his despondency. I was an advocate for my child; I consulted with the teacher (later fired for hitting a child on the head with her shoe) and the principal. My son ended up taking his reading lessons with the assistant principal and being placed in a gifted classroom. I have always wondered, though, what about the other children in his third grade classroom? What did they learn about literacy in that classroom?

Students with indifferent attitudes toward reading and generally about school subjects are often poorly motivated; their attitudes towards reading may

never change. Athey (1985) calls this the “shadowy variables” of affect (p. 527). Frank Smith (1998) notes that emotional response to reading “is the primary reason most readers read, and probably the primary reason most nonreaders do not read” (p. 177). M. Cecil Smith (1990) found that reading attitudes tend to be stable over time from childhood through adulthood, adding to the belief that poor attitudes toward reading (or good attitudes) are inculcated early in schooling and tend to remain stable throughout life. Teachers can win and inspire students by developing positive attitudes for learning.

According to Eagly and Chaiken (1993) “Attitude is a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor” (p. 1). Students’ capability to learn is influenced by the affective domain, including “attitudes, emotions, interests, attributions, and conative factors” (Richardson, Morgan and Fleener, 2012, p. 49). An “inviting atmosphere” (Purkey and Novak, 1984) that includes student choice, challenge, personal control, collaboration, the construction of meaning, and specific consequences (Turner and Paris, 1995) can change attitudes about literacy. As an elementary student, I experienced none of this; my classroom was not inviting; I did not have any choice or control over my literacy experiences.

HOW I DISCOVERED THE JOY OF READING AND SOME LESSONS FOR TEACHERS

I found the public library. The school library was pretty bare but I walked home from my elementary school right past the town library. My mother gave me permission to stop into that building and I did. I browsed and discovered a random book, then read until that was gone and moved on! Librarians fostered my curiosity. They had displays set up for children.

My excitement at receiving a library card reminds of the wonderful novel in the Moffat series by Eleanor Estes, *Rufus M.* (1943). The story (a Newbery Honor Book in 1944) tells how Rufus M. wanted a library card so badly that he learned to write before he learned to read. He shadowed the library lady, sneaking into the library when it was closed to learn her secrets: why did she close the library at noon and re-open later in the day? Why did he need a card? How could he get one?

“Apparently these lines up and down did not spell Rufus Moffat to this lady. She shook her head.

‘It’s nice,’ she repeated. ‘Very nice. But nobody but you knows what it says. You have to learn to write your name better than that before you can join the library.’

Rufus was silent. He had come to the library all by himself, gone back home to wash his hands, and come back because he wanted to take books home and read them the way others did. He had worked hard. He did not like to think that he might have to go home without a book.

The library lady looked at him a moment and then she said quickly before he could get himself all the way off the big chair, 'Maybe you can print your name.'

Rufus looked at her hopefully. He thought he could write better than he could print, for his writing certainly looked to him exactly like all grown people's writing. Still, he'd try to print if that is what she wanted." (p. 8)

The relationship Rufus had with his library lady is close to the one I developed with mine. By the end of fifth grade, I was asking librarians for recommendations—not a request usually received from my age group. I read a series of junior biographies, probably the Grosset and Dunlap Signature Biographies. The same company also had a series of historical fiction; the books were a brown-orange color. You can sometimes find them in used bookstores but they are all out of print.

When I was about junior high age, I started at *A* in the adult shelves and selected books via the “alphabet smorgasbord” method. Finally, a very nice librarian discovered what I was doing and began to lead me to adult books that were young adult friendly!! I became much like Israel in *The Case of the missing books*, who “had grown up in and around libraries. Libraries were where he belonged. Libraries to Israel had always been a constant. In libraries Israel had always known calm and peace; in libraries he'd always seemed to be able to breathe a little easier. When he walked through the doors of a library it was like entering a sacred space. . . all human life was there, and you could borrow it and take it home for two weeks at a time, nine books per person per card” (Sansom, p. 11).

I began my journey to becoming a teacher by heeding these experiences and learning what a good teacher does and what a teacher I would not like to be does. A good teacher:

- takes time to help students catch up and catch on to the reading process;
- combines approaches to meet students; ways of learning;
- encourages and accepts attempts at literacy, even those that jump ahead of the scheduled teaching time;
- does not prejudge students' abilities;
- reads to children;
- encourages children to read and helps them find good reading.

TEACHING SOLDIERS TO READ, ARMED WITH THE TENETS ABOVE BUT WITH NO KNOWLEDGE OF METHODOLOGY

In 1968, I found myself on Okinawa, where my then-husband was stationed, and involved in missions to Vietnam. I was hired to teach young men drafted as part of the Project (McNamara, 1966). These young men did not meet the service's literacy requirements. However, many of the young men who did meet those requirements had found ways to use their literacy skills to avoid the draft. Project 100,000 was adopted to supply soldiers in Vietnam. I taught these young men reading skills so that they could read orders, maps, and instruction manuals—a very narrow set of literacy skills for survival. That was a sobering time for me. I realized that these young men had no opportunity to influence whether or not they would serve in Vietnam; they did not have enough literacy skills or connections to make a choice to serve or not serve.

As children, they must somehow have been left behind by their school systems. Maybe they were learning disabled? Maybe they had had very limited experiences with reading at home or in school? Maybe they had never met a wonderful teacher like mine, who spent hours after school to help me learn phonics? Clinton, Bush and Kerry were young men during the Vietnam era. They possessed good literacy skills, fine educations, connections and affluence. They used those attributes to make decisions about whether to participate in the Vietnam War. The young men I taught did not have such literacy advantages.

Hindsight in deciding who did the “right thing” should not, in my mind, be a viable issue for political campaigns. Rather, the issue ought to be making sure we provide those broad literacy skills and advantages to all of our young men and women. As a reading specialist who works with adolescents, I have not seen much change in the past 40 years regarding this literacy divide. The issue should be informed choices for all, not just some.

I did my best. I liked these young men and became very attached to them as they struggled to learn reading via material that was dry, boring and ultimately going to provide the information they needed to perform efficiently in a war zone. They were nervous about admitting what they did not know, and frightened about what was to come.

I requested other sorts of reading materials to start the lessons, instinctively realizing that the workbooks we had and the authentic materials to come (the manuals) were not going to create an affective environment or an effective scaffold. But, the director of the program looked blankly at me. He had his orders and he did not have any influence. The decisions were made at the top, by authorities who had not the slightest idea of what these young men needed.

Working with literacy skills in Project 100,000 gave me a new direction. I realized I cared about these young men and I cared about being an effective teacher. I had been planning to start a PhD, in the study of British literature when I went back home, but I changed my plans. I applied for a Master's degree in reading education. After being accepted into the University of North Carolina, I never looked back at those plans to be a professor of literature. But, I often look back at my experiences with those young men. I doubt I had much impact on them, but I hope they made it home and found their way to literacy.

CONTENT AREA LITERACY AND SOME LESSONS FOR TEACHERS

Reading To Learn. Reading To Learn (RTL) applies reading, writing and thinking skills to content areas, emphasizing contextual learning (Paris, 2004) about problem-solving and critical thinking in academic and lifelong learning settings (Buehl, D., 2001; Buehl & Moore, 2009; author, 2012). RTL emphasizes students' construction of their own critical reading and critical literacy in a world where information arrives in multimodal forms (Moje, 2008). We often use the title "Content Area Reading" or "Content Area Literacy" in university coursework.

A selection from Annie Dillard's *Pilgrim at Tinker's Creek* links for me how reading for pleasure can lead to reading to learn. Several years ago, I decided to branch out from reading only fiction. I started with *Pilgrim at Tinker Creek*, written in journalistic style. One evening my husband and youngest son (then in fifth grade) sat in the living room with me, also reading their own books. I came to a passage where Dillard discovers

*"a small green frog. He was exactly half in and half out of the water, looking like a schematic diagram of an amphibian, and he didn't jump."
(p. 13)*

This frog was the victim of a giant water beetle that pierces insects, frogs, fish, paralyzing them with enzymes that dissolve pretty much the entire innards. Then it sucks the juices from the victim. This gruesome encounter, vividly described by Dillard, fascinated me so I called to my son to listen. His response: "Oh, that was gross. Read it again!"

That excerpt is about science, the role of enzymes and the food chain. Dillard used processes of scientific inquiry, demonstrating how to watch and to write effectively and with power about what she observes.

“His skin emptied and drooped; his very skull seemed to collapse and settle like a kicked tent. He was shrinking before my eyes like a deflating football. I watched the taut, glistening skin on his shoulders ruck, and rumple, and fall. Soon, part of his skin, formless as a pricked balloon, lay in floating folds like bright scum on top of the water: it was a monstrous and terrifying thing” (p. 14).

I read that episode to my son again and again. He listened with pleasure each time. Three years later, we discovered a butterfly museum where giant water beetles were on exhibit. He stood there mesmerized for longer than I could be attentive; he had kept the picture in his mind and now wanted the reality for himself.

Dillard had created an environment for curiosity, a longing to know. And I had shared with my son:

- my amazement when reading this passage;
- how I am a reader and a parent who shares my reading experiences;
- the quest to find out more;
- the wonders that come from reading.

Dillard’s book was too hard for my son to read on his own, but listening was just right; the experience of hearing that passage again and again launched him into the discovery that one can read to learn.

Goldman, in the prologue to *A Princess Bride*, explains this same phenomenon: “This is my favorite book in all the world, though I have never read it. How is such a thing possible? I’ll try to explain. As a child, I had simply no interest in books. I hated reading. I was very bad at it, and besides, how could you take the time to read when there were games that shrieked for playing?” (p. 3). But Billy gets pneumonia and is stuck in bed for at least ten days; his father coaxes him out of a boring recovery by reading to him. The excitement and intimacy of this reading time changes Billy:

Who can know when his world is going to change? Who can tell before it happens, that every prior experience, all the years, were a preparation for. . .nothing. Picture this now: an all but illiterate old man struggling with an enemy tongue, an all-but-exhausted young boy fighting against sleep. And nothing between them but the words of another alien, painfully translated from native sounds to foreign. Who could suspect that in the morning a different child would wake? . . .What happened was just

this: I got hooked on a story. . . Even today, that's how I summon back my father when the need arises. Slumped and squinting and halting over words, giving me Morgenstern's masterpiece as best he could. The Princess Bride belonged to my father. Everything else was mine (pp. 10-11).

I got hooked on books in the public library. My world changed after that, just as Billy's did. Now I read to my students hoping to hook them on a story. I share the Dillard excerpt (Richardson, 2000). I use such delightful books as Singh's *The Simpsons and their Mathematical Secrets* (2014) to demonstrate the role discourse plays in content literacy (Moje, 2008; Gee, 2000). For instance, "Are you π curious?" (Singh, chapter 2) stimulates conversation in mathematics classrooms where teachers may think the focus is only the visual or numerical (Serafini, 2014): "I wonder what the value of π is? How did π get its name? We see how skills of reasoning, application and a specific vocabulary are embedded in our discourse (Hillman, 2014).

Writing to Learn. My junior and senior high school teachers cultivated essay and creative writing. I found great pleasure in expressing myself through my diaries, letters, and story writing. But assigned academic writing squelched the joy of writing. How teachers graded writing confused me. In ninth grade, we studied poetry and the natural follow-up assignment was for each of us to write a poem. I can remember only this much of the one I submitted:

"I'm beginning to turn into a sexy thing,
with angular curves and lines..."

I was proud of that poem and puzzled that my teacher did not read it aloud to the class nor ask me to, as she did others in the class. When she handed the poems back with grades, she had written on mine: "Is this your own work?" I absolutely assured her that it was. She then graded it a B+. I have never quite figured that out; I guess she did not believe me so she could not bring herself to give it the A it surely deserved if it was good enough that she would question it. A classmate bragged that she had received an A for the poem she had copied from one of her mother's magazines.

I did not write much again until the next school year when I walked into Mr. Miller's English class in tenth grade. He discussed the *idea* of literacy with us a lot. He also read to us, just enough of a piece to entice us. Most of us would then charge to the library to find the whole book. I have always remembered why he said he was a reader. While in concentration camp during World War II, he could remember and reconstruct in his mind what he had read; he wrote on any kind of paper he could find. That kept him going in the worst of times.

When I discovered Solzhenitsen's poem "Prussian Nights" I thought of Mr. Miller. This wonderful poem depicts Solzhenitsen's life as a soldier in World War II. As Sergeant Major, he leads his men into a German Post Office, where he must decide what is to be kept and what is to be thrown.

The Post Office, right here! Let's enter.
Within the hour the whole three story
Block will be gulped down by fire.
Meanwhile, the stocks, the stocks of paper
---Enough to write on for a century!

. . .

---Three hundred and three pencils too,
Of every hardness, every hue!
They don't crack and they don't splinter,
Their wood is beautifully soft. . .

Paper clips, drawing pins, and scissors,
Boxes, booklets, labels, folders. . .

What was the life I led before?
Smooth paper in an exercise book
Was something that I never saw.
Ours our pens would scratch and tear,
Erasers made dirty marks and holes.
The ink was just a watery slop
Like lymph produced from crocodiles,
With black specks floating on the top.

Sadly, Solzhenitsyn was arrested shortly after the Prussian experience; he wrote his poem in the Gulag. He wrote his lines in soap and committed them to memory because there was no paper.

I have never been physically "behind bars" but sometimes my mind has felt imprisoned; reading, writing and recalling all things literacy related has always helped. In *The Marriage Plot* (2011), Jeffrey Eugenides describes the dissonance between the art of reading and writing:

In Week Four, Zipperstein assigned Ymberto Eco's The Role of the Reader. It hadn't done much for Madeleine. She wasn't all that interested, as a

reader, in the reader. She was still partial to that increasingly eclipsed entity: the writer. . . Whereas Madeleine was perfectly happy with the idea of genius. She wanted a book to take her places she couldn't get to herself. She thought a writer should work harder writing a book than she did reading it (pp. 80-81).

My high school stressed writing; they gave us prompts that would make us work hard at getting the reader places they might not go themselves. In Eleventh grade my high school introduced “outside graders” to enable English teachers to assign a lot of writing exercises without having the burden of so much reading and grading to do—more helpful to teachers than to students.

Our first writing assignment graded by an outsider was to explain the message in “The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock” by T. S. Eliot. Today I love this poem; I quote lines to myself often as I age. Truly, I now “*wear the bottoms of my trousers rolled*”. However, at age sixteen, I had very little idea what this man was writing about. I had no background knowledge, no schema to help me. My teacher did not help us develop any connections before launching us into reading and then writing our analysis. I did work so hard to understand what I was reading. And I failed—or barley passed on this assignment with a D. I was crushed, as I had been when I wrote in cursive back in third grade before I should have. I decided I could not write even though I had loved to do so up until that point. I stumbled along with Cs and Bs and did not feel good.

My girlfriend died of cystic fibrosis that year. I ignored a specific writing prompt and wrote about my anguish. The thoughts flowed as I explained how I had loved Laff and had not realized what cystic fibrosis was doing to her. That theme apparently touched my outside grader; I received an A. Later, in college, I turned that essay into a short story that was published in our college writing magazine. My background knowledge, my schemata, my intense experience helped me find my writer’s voice again.

CONCLUSION

At my 50th high school reunion, I was asked so many times; “Have you become a writer?” I was stymied. Yes, I have written, but not what I had intended to write at age 17. I can claim numerous articles, monographs and a textbook that is in its eighth edition. Sometimes I have really enjoyed that type of writing as when I collaborated with my colleague Violeta Janusheva on an article about inservice literacy education in Macedonia (Richardson & Janusheva, 2012). However, when I write according to an editor’s expectations, I am not in my comfort zone.

My favorite academic writing has focused on experiences that gave me joy and satisfaction, such as my study of Sadiya, a Somali refugee, and our reading progress over three years (Richardson, 1999) and my Read It Aloud! column in *The Journal of Reading* and the follow-up monograph (2000). I have always yearned to write about what matters most to me—the stories that come from my heart. I do not easily find my writer's voice in writing about methodology and research.

Robert Frost explains this need to combine one's personal passion with one's work in his poem "Two Tramps at Mudtime":

But yield who will to their separation,
My object in living is to unite
My avocation and my vocation
As my two eyes make one in sight.
Only where love and need are one,
And the work is play for mortal stakes,
Is the deed ever really done
For heaven and the future's sakes.

I have taught reading to myself, to my children, to soldiers in Project 100,000, to adult beginning readers, to high school students, to ESL students, to college students and to teachers and to students in Russia and Macedonia. I have tried to unite my work – as a professor of Reading Education – with my avocation – as a lover of books that take me somewhere. The Joker (Jack Nicholson) in the movie *Batman* (1989) asks where Batman (Michael Keaton) gets his wonderful toys. Books are wonderful toys, in the least frivolous and most engaging sense of the word toys (Richardson, 1997). Books educate us while they tell us stories. I enjoy immensely the type of story telling I have shared in this essay with you.

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To read what "fans" of the Alice and Jerry series write, go to:

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<http://prairiebluestem.blogspot.com/2006/03/alice-and-jerry-readers.html> OR

http://books.google.com/books?id=yMUo9F1A6KwC&pg=PA425&lpq=PA425&cdq=Alice+and+Jerry+basal+reader&source=bl&ots=19rYh_VmjO&sig=EuY5H1n1pdqXhe3gGufflbr7Seo&hl=en&ei=AwQCSvz-GuKclQfmobDwBw&sa=X&coi=book_result&ct=result&resnum=5.

ALER COLLEAGUES AND FRIENDS

ALER LAUREATE AWARD WINNER

D. Ray Reutzell
Utah State University

D. Ray Reutzell is the Emma Eccles Jones Endowed Chair, Distinguished Professor, and Director of the Emma Eccles Jones Early Childhood Education and Research Center. He has formerly served in a variety of administrative roles as a department chair, associate dean, and vice-president for academic affairs and provost. Dr. Reutzell is the author of more than 220 refereed research reports, professional articles, book and handbook chapters, books and handbooks, and monographs in reading, literacy and early childhood education. He is an elected member of the international Reading Hall of Fame and conducts research on early literacy in grades K-3. He has received numerous international and national awards and recognitions.



He has served on the boards or as an executive officer to the International Reading Association, Literacy Research Association, and the Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers.

First, let me apologize for not being present to receive this wonderful award from my dearest friends and colleagues in literacy, you, my ALER colleagues. As some of you may know, others may not; I currently serve as a lay ecclesiastical leader in my church. This evening I am needed in that capacity at home to

speak to a large conference gathering. Hence, I needed to be sure I would arrive at home in sufficient time. So with the vagaries of airline schedules and cancellations, I thought I needed to get on the way early this morning. I hope you can understand my choice as I would have dearly loved to be here this morning with all of you to thank you personally for recognizing my service to ALER with the ALER Laureate Award.

ALER has been my professional home now for 31 years. Since Bob Cooter introduced me in 1983 to ALER, I have attended 31 consecutive annual meetings. Over that time I have had the pleasure of meeting and learning from so many of you. There is perhaps no more satisfying recognition than that which comes from your friends and colleagues. They know your strengths and your weaknesses. They have seen you at your best and at your worst. And in spite of this, they look past those shortcomings and nominate you to receive recognition such as this.

To Ellen Jampole, who nominated me for this award and has been my friend; and as far as I know, my only Sweet Potato Queen, having worked together serving ALER side by side in various roles and capacities for many years – thank you from the bottom of my heart. You are a thoughtful, kind, giving, and generous soul. You have given all of us and me personally many good laughs, devoted service, and sent a kind thought my way just when it was needed.

To my good friend and buddy, John Smith, whom I roped into reading this letter in my absence, thank you! We have had many a great time together over the years, especially when we wore leathers and rode motorcycles together in the MILD HOGS gang. I have always looked up to you, for some very obvious reasons – as you are a towering gentle giant. I am on the other hand, short and not so gentle at times, and as the old Randy Newman song goes – short people ain't got no reason. . . .

To all of you, who have been my friends, colleagues, and teachers over these years, thank you! I have learned so much from all of you. There is always a risk when thanking specific people, but I fear I would be remiss if I didn't thank several of my long-time ALER colleagues by name. I learned about imagery, motivation, comprehension, and graciousness from Linda Gambrell; from Tim Rasinski about fluency, patriotism, and singing to become fluent; Kit Mohr about children's reading preferences and what not to say when I wanted to say or do something cheesy; Pat Koskinen about captioned TV and surviving cancer with strength and grace; Donna Alverman about Bourdieu, qualitative research, and mentoring others; Vicki, Marino, & Christopher about how to be truly gracious people, a wonderful couple, a cool family, as well as teacher education and reading; Bill Henk about reading and writing self-perceptions and how to live life fully and well; Mike McKenna about reading attitudes and the pitfalls of whole language; and Jack Cassidy as the What's Hot dude and a wonderfully welcom-

ing and generous person. The list could go on and on. I've learned not just about reading from my ALER colleagues, but also valuable life lessons about how to be a more caring and generous person from Mona Mathews, Rona Flippo, Laurie Elish-Piper, Mary Roe, Parker Fawson, Barb Marinek, Ellen Jampole, Nancy Padak, Maryann Manning, Rita Bean, Karen Bromley, Rob Erwin, Wayne Linek, Jerry Johns, and many, many more. I have enjoyed seeing new scholars join the ranks of ALER. I am thrilled that they are already contributing to the future of this close-knit organization and will soon serve as its leaders.

I guess part of getting awards is also recognizing that this is what you typically get when you have been around awhile. . . which means I am getting older and with that age have a deeper appreciation for life itself, the cherished relationships we forge and enjoy with others, and how grateful I am for the blessing it has been to be counted as one of your friends and colleagues in ALER both now and into the future.

I'd like to end with a cowboy poem titled, "MY REQUIEM" by Wallace McRae in a book of poems called *Cowboy Curmudgeon* that I think captures my feelings, perhaps our collective feelings – as those lucky people who have chosen the field of literacy and to answer the "call" to teach.

MY REQUIEM

Some leave their mark on a branded hide.

Some on the furrowed earth.

Some aspire to reproduce

Themselves in those they birth.

Some leave their marks on canvas,

Bronze or stone that will survive.

Long after their creator

No longer is alive.

Some would build an edifice,

An architectural gem,

To serve throughout the ages

As a lasting requiem.

But grant to me this final wish

When I say that last Amen:

Let my mark be carried lightly

In the hearts and minds of men.

Thank you.

RESEARCH AWARDS

DEVELOPING CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE LITERACY TEACHERS: ANALYSIS OF ACADEMIC, DEMOGRAPHIC, AND EXPERIENTIAL FACTORS RELATED TO TEACHER SELF-EFFICACY

DOCTORAL DISSERTATION AWARD WINNER

Amie Sarker
University of Dallas

Abstract

In 2007, Siwatu explored how efficacious preservice teachers felt in delivering culturally responsive instruction, along with the relationship between preservice teachers' culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) and outcome expectancy beliefs. This mixed-methods study explored preservice and inservice teachers' CRTSE beliefs and the relationships among selected factors relating to the demographic, academic, and experiential backgrounds of participants. It expands Siwatu's (2007) study by revising and extending the CRTSE Scale instrument to specifically address the literacy and language development of English learners as well as extend the inquiry to include inservice teachers as well as preservice teachers. Findings of this study indicated that those with higher self-efficacy for delivering culturally responsive literacy instruction were the preservice teachers who were specializing in Bilingual and ESL certification coursework. Those completing bachelor's degrees (with less teaching experience) were significantly more efficacious in their abilities to deliver culturally responsive instruction than master's degree students, although

their descriptions of what constitutes culturally responsive instruction demonstrated less understanding than those who were older with more years of teaching experience.

There is an urgency to prepare teachers who can effectively facilitate literacy development and educational success of culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students (Au, 2006; August & Shanahan, 2006; Villegas & Lucas, 2002), as minority students as a whole have low test scores (Hemphill & Vanneman, 2011). CLD students not only need effective teachers (Au, 2006; Weiner, 2005), they may benefit having more teachers of color who can serve as “cultural brokers,” role models, and advocates (Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Villegas & Lucas, 2002), amidst a student population that grows increasingly diverse. However, as preservice and inservice teachers are predominantly white and middle-class, teacher education (TE) programs must prepare these preservice and inservice teachers to become effective educators of CLD students. These educators are expected to leave TE programs with the ability to respond to diversity in their classrooms in such a way that all students achieve success with literacy and CLD students are not only affirmed but their “funds of knowledge” (Moll & Diaz, 1987) are utilized as catalysts for deeper learning.

National mandates (United States Department of Education [USDE], 2011) call for the examination of teacher impact on student achievement in public schools with individual teachers’ effectiveness being linked back to the TE programs that prepare them. Consequently, the effort to continually improve TE program preparation, especially in the area of instruction for CLD students, is under close observation. Additional pressures come from critics of TE programs and state teacher policies, such as the National Council for Teacher Quality (2011), with their efforts to evaluate TE programs and state policies regarding teacher certification, evaluation, and tenure. Regardless of the impetus behind examining and increasing the quality of TE programs, this study contributes to the growing and vital body of research on best practices for preparing effective educators that engage in transformative literacy teaching for CLD students.

CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE TEACHING (CRT) CONTINUUM

Culturally responsive methods of teaching include more than just “good teaching” for mainstream students (August & Shanahan, 2006; Lucas et al., 2008). Specific teacher competencies address the uniqueness of learner-centered instruction for CLD students, and are reflected in certain teacher standards (IRA, 2010; TESOL, 2010).

Research on culturally responsive literacy instruction reveals that teacher competencies cluster around four parts of a developmental continuum and

include: knowledge, skills, dispositions, and civic engagement practices that range from awareness to actions of advocacy.

1. *Personal Awareness.* The first level is characterized by increasing teacher awareness of how CLD students are unique while reflecting on how the lives of CLD students compare/contrast with the teacher's own cultural and linguistic resources (Ellis, 2006). This allows both the preservice and inservice teacher to reflect, adjust and develop a deeper understanding of the sociocultural contexts for language and literacy development (August & Shanahan, 2006; Dooly, 2007) and may involve confronting their personal prejudices and assumptions (Zuidema, 2005).
2. *Sensitivity.* The second level involves working on the affective domain and using one's sensitivity to create a safe, positive learning environment. This interpersonal skills development could include the creation of interaction and instructional patterns in the classroom that more closely resemble students' home culture (Au, 1980; Heath, 1983). Increased sensitivity to CLD students may lead to an increased understanding of how inclusion, positive peer communication and affirmation of diversity occur as part of instruction (Au, 2007; Flores & Riojas-Cortez, 2009; Mohr, 2009).
3. *Relevant and Affirming Instruction.* The third level includes a more direct impact on culturally relevant curriculum as teachers develop and implement appropriate and affirming instructional practices and assessment for CLD students (Carjuzaa & Ruff, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 1995). Teachers apply what they learned about CLD students' "funds of knowledge" (Moll & Diaz, 1987) in level 2 in order to integrate "ethnographically informed classroom practices" (Moll, Amanti, Neff & Gonzalez, 1992, p. 132) which may include multicultural and culturally relevant literature (Ebe, 2010; Freeman & Freeman, 2004).
4. *Advocacy, Social Justice, and Critical Literacy.* At the fourth level teachers engage in actions of advocacy, critical literacy, and social justice on behalf of CLD students, families, and their communities in order to foster a more equitable and just society (Cochran-Smith, Shakman, Jong, Terrell, Barnatt, & McQuillan, 2009; Weiner, 2005).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Research supports the notion that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs influence teacher motivation (Ashton & Webb, 1986), their instructional practices (Allinder, 1994; Gibson & Dembo, 1984), and their impact on student achievement (Ross, 1992). This study explored how efficacious preservice and inservice teachers felt

about their ability to deliver culturally responsive instruction, along with the relationship between participants' CRTSE and compared by selected academic, demographic, and experiential factors, and how teachers described CRT. The following questions led the inquiry:

1. How do preservice and inservice teachers evaluate their readiness to be culturally responsive?
2. What demographic or individual characteristics among these populations correlate with higher levels of perceived readiness to provide culturally responsive literacy instruction?
3. How do preservice and inservice teachers describe culturally responsive instruction?

RESEARCH METHODS

Participants and Setting

Participants included 265 preservice and inservice teachers enrolled in teacher education program courses (primarily CLD literacy preparation, field-based, multicultural education, and educational research sections) in a large metropolitan area of the southern United States (at one large public university and one medium-sized private university). Roughly two-thirds of the participants classified themselves as White (65%), and the remaining third classified themselves primarily in three other ethnic groups: Asian (12%), Hispanic (10%), and Black (8%).

Instruments and Data Analysis

In the Spring of 2012, the researcher administered a 3-part survey. Research Questions #1 and #2 involved quantitative analysis conducted using SPSS. Research Question #1 (how participants evaluated their readiness to be culturally responsive) was addressed through descriptive analyses of the CRTSE Scale-Extended (Appendix A) survey responses mean scores. Research Question #2 (addressing which demographic and individual characteristics correlated with higher levels of CRTSE) was answered through examination of correlational (multiple regression and bivariate correlational analyses) and group comparison (ANOVA) analysis utilizing CRTSE Scale-Extended scores and demographic, academic, and experiential variables.

Research Question #3 (how participants described CRT) was the qualitative component of the study. This question was addressed through both a priori and inductive coding content analysis (Marshall & Rossman, 2006) conducted

on open-ended survey item responses where participants were asked to describe a CRT activity and tell why they felt it was culturally responsive. The rubric used for scoring ranged from 0-4, with rubric category indicators summarized as follows:

- Level 0 scores were given for responses that included only general teaching practices (without any indication of specific CRT continuum principles);
- Level 1 responses demonstrated an awareness of personal culture and cultural differences (e.g., learning about surface level aspects of other cultures such as food, holidays, fashion, and folklore);
- Level 2 responses included evidence of sensitivity in teachers' interactions with CLD students, families, and their community members (e.g., modified discourse patterns and word choices, varied grouping arrangements or activity choices based on cultural issues, assisting CLD students with culture shock and adjustment into mainstream schools, or informal CLD family involvement in school activities);
- Level 3 responses provided indications of a more intentional curricular impact through relevant and responsive instructional practices (e.g., incorporating CLD family and community experts or "funds of knowledge" as part of the curriculum, culturally relevant literature and curriculum as a "mirror" for diverse students, accommodating linguistic transfer for English learners, or evidence of ethnographic study of the students' communities or families which directly impacted instructional decisions);
- Level 4 responses were required to show critical literacy or a social action initiative, such as evidence of advocacy for CLD students and seeking to make a social justice impact for diverse students beyond the classroom (e.g., addressing campus wide or societal issues by approaching classroom administration or community leaders).

Four experts in the field reviewed the formative rubric design and categories, along with sample participant responses, in order to strengthen the validity of the rubric employed in this study. Another expert in the field analyzed 17% (46 of 265) of the written responses and discussed discrepancies with the researcher to solidify the rubric scoring system and resolve inconsistencies. Initial rating yielded an 89% agreement (41 of 46 responses), but after discussion and rubric

clarification and elaboration, the inter-rater agreement came to 98% (45 of 46 responses).

Limitations

There are several limitations. First, this study was non-experimental and does not yield causal relationships. Second, this study came from two universities in the Southern United States, and results from other regions or communities may provide different responses. Third, participants were asked about their beliefs and understandings regarding CRT, and participants when self-reporting may rate themselves higher than they should. Fourth, the descriptions of culturally responsive activities collected and analyzed were brief and could not fully capture teachers' depth and breadth of understanding or actual implementation of CRT competencies.

RESULTS AND FINDINGS

Research Question #1: How do preservice and inservice teachers evaluate their readiness to be culturally responsive?

In this population, those with higher self-efficacy for delivering culturally responsive instruction were preservice teachers specializing in Bilingual and ESL certification coursework. Those completing their bachelor's degrees (with less teaching experience) had significantly more self-efficacy in their abilities to deliver culturally responsive instruction than the master's degree candidates, as indicated through independent samples *t*-tests. Additionally, veteran teachers (with 16+ years of teaching experience) demonstrated significantly lower efficacy on certain CRT specific items in comparison to the preservice teacher group.

ESL preservice teachers had higher mean scores that were statistically significant than any other certification group, with 90% of these higher scoring items being specific to CRT and many of which related specifically to literacy-based practices. In addition, Bilingual teachers also had several mean scores that had a statistical difference.

Research Question #2: Factors Related to Heightened CRTSE

Multiple regression analysis, Pearson's Correlations, independent samples *t*-tests, and one-way ANOVA tests were run to determine if any of the variables (age, gender, ethnicity, degree program, teaching experiences, teacher preparation program, certification, language learning proficiency, and experiences with diversity) had

a statistically significant relationship with CRTSE or CRT description scores. Multiple regression analysis indicated that the certification areas of the teachers (ESL, Bilingual, Elementary, and Advanced) and perceptions of teacher preparation program quality were significant predictors in increased CRTSE scores.

Analyses of the overall CRTSE Mean (50 items) and the CRT EMP (28 items especially associated with CRT) showed there were no significant differences between ages, genders or ethnicities. The undergraduate, preservice teachers felt more efficacious in their abilities to deliver culturally responsive instruction, but their descriptions of CRT demonstrated less sophistication and lacked depth of understanding (with lower scores on the CRT Description rubric) than those having more teaching experience. When asked about preparation for different types of diversity, the participants felt their TE programs prepared them better for cultural than for linguistic diversity. Additionally, those who reported having more developed second language skills tended to have higher scores on survey items relating to linguistically responsive instruction.

Participants professing more interest in and experiences with diverse individuals had statistically significant differences (higher means) on their CRTSE Scale-Extended mean scores (i.e., they felt more confident in applying CRT skills). This difference was also seen in the higher scores they received on the CRT Description rubric.

Research Question #3: How Teachers Described CRT

Rubric scores for participants revealed that over half (52.9%) of the respondents expressed their understanding of a culturally responsive instructional activity at Level 1 of the rubric (awareness of cultural differences and personal culture). An example of a Level 1 response (the most common score) is, “Multicultural World Fair Project in which I researched the country of India and found out what misconceptions I had about the country and culture. . .” Less than a third of the written responses were classified at more advanced levels, with 23.5% of responses classified as Level 2, 5.9% as Level 3, and only 1% as Level 4. The following is an example of one of the Level 3 responses.

I made a book set a few semesters ago to use in a mainly Hispanic dominated classroom titled: Struggles faced by Latino immigrant youth. I found ways to include each book, by reading it and holding discussions or writing about the students' personal experiences. All but one book was written in both English and Spanish, so it could be taught/read in either language. Each book dealt with a different issue: Leaving friend's family members behind, not understanding new language, and adapting to a new lifestyle to name a few.

About one sixth (16.5%) of responses described general teaching practices (Level 0) rather than clear CRT characteristics. An example of a shallow response (Level 0) is, “Read a loud [sic] because children need the time to be read aloud and this way they are able to hear how a fluent speaker reads and gives them an idea on how to read.”

The table that follows provides an overview of some of the CRT elements and their frequency of use in the CRT Description responses.

TABLE 1 CRT Elements Present in CRT Descriptions

Culturally Responsive Teaching Elements Defined by CRT Theorists	CRT Elements and Content Analysis Codes Present in Participants’ Descriptions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “developing a knowledge base about cultural diversity” (Gay, 2002, p. 106) • “socioculturally conscious” stance (Villegas and Lucas, 2002) • “including ethnic and cultural diversity content in the classroom” (Gay, 2002, p. 106) • “students must develop and/or maintain cultural competence” (Ladson-Billings, 1995, p. 160) 	<p>The code that occurred most frequently (present in 69% of responses) addressed learning about “others” as a “window” into other cultures. Level 1 responses (53% of entire sample) related to a growing “awareness” of other cultures, both on the part of the teachers’ broadening cultural awareness (as a precursor to cultural competence) and by including more cultural diversity within the curriculum to develop students’ knowledge, skills, and dispositions. A common activity mentioned in participant responses included an activity such as “celebrating differences through a cultural fair” (42% of responses).</p> <p>While at times the cultural awareness/celebration activity described a more superficial level of “heroes and holidays” (19% of responses), in other instances the activity demonstrated cognizance of “prejudice, misconceptions, and points of view” (12% of responses).</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “responding to ethnic diversity in the delivery of instruction” (Gay, 2002, p. 106) 	<p>Level 2 (24% of responses) generally aligns with this element, as teachers showed evidence of going from understanding the cultures of their CLD students to then responding in sensitive ways during interactions with students, families, and community members.</p> <p>Many of the “cooperative learning/partner and group work” activities (4% of responses) were classified as general teaching practices, although some participants alluded to specific reasons for including varied instructional groupings (Au, 2007) associated with student preferences based on cultural differences and learning styles.</p>

- Teachers “understand how learners construct knowledge and are capable of promoting knowledge construction” (Villegas & Lucas, 2002, p. 20)
- Linguistically-responsive instruction (Lucas et al., 2008)
- “students must experience academic success” (Ladson-Billings, 1995, p. 160)

Numerous “literacy event response strategy” coded responses (present in 18% of descriptions) included activities that demonstrated knowledge of literacy skills development for CLD students.

Many of the references to strategies for English learners (20%) focused on comprehensible input (Krashen & Terrell, 1995) and employing strategies to scaffold CLD students’ development of language and content.

However, only a handful of responses related directly to assessment of CLD students (1.2%) with references to culturally sensitive assessment methods that accommodate and support the success of diverse students.

- “communicating with ethnically diverse students” (Gay, 2002, p. 106)
- “hybridity” in participation structures and discourse patterns within classroom instruction (such as the “talk story” described by Au, 2007)

The “adjusting school procedures to accommodate CLD students” code (present in 3% of responses) and some of the English learner strategies codes (20% of responses) related to ways teachers modified their communication styles to increase comprehensibility or to engage in more culturally sensitive/appropriate interactions.

- “design instruction that builds on what their students already know while stretching them beyond the familiar” (Villegas & Lucas, 2002, p. 20)
- Culturally relevant texts (Freeman & Freeman, 2004)

This CRT element identifies the core of the “relevant and responsive instructional practices” emphasis at Level 3 (6% of responses), although other related codes in the analysis also included general “invitations” for students to share cultural information (51% of responses).

Use of culturally relevant texts and materials was common amidst many of the “multicultural literature” (15%) responses in these data, and some involved literature response activities similar to Vyas’s (2004) study examining bicultural identity negotiations among Asian students.

- “students must develop a critical consciousness through which they challenge the status quo of the current social order” (Ladson-Billings, 1995, p. 160)

Seldom were responses developed at Level 4 of the CRT continuum dealing with social justice issues (1.2%). However, responses classified at this level related to understanding immigration issues, role-playing that addressed CLD issues, or engaging in advocacy activities for marginalized immigrant populations.

In summary, several of the participants' descriptions of culturally responsive activities aligned with CRT elements as discussed by leading theorists in the field. However, the complexity and progress along the CRT Continuum was limited, with the majority of responses indicating only a basic understanding of the CRT construct, especially among the younger teacher candidate population.

DISCUSSION

The profile of participants with heightened self-efficacy for delivering culturally responsive literacy instruction indicates that preservice teachers with certain certification areas (Bilingual and ESL) may feel better prepared for working with CLD students and that better TE preparation also may contribute to preservice teachers' confidence in this area of CRT. The heightened confidence of those pursuing undergraduate studies with less teaching experience could be an indicator of naivety (Posner, 2005) regarding the complexity of the task, as more experienced educators were able to describe the CRT construct with greater depth and complexity. While being from a minority ethnic group did not make a significant difference in participants' sense of efficacy for delivering CRT or in their abilities to describe CRT, certain experiences with and interests in diversity yielded positive associations both with candidates' self-efficacy and level of understanding in relation to the CRT continuum construct. Bilingual certification teachers, for example, had more responses on Levels 1–4 than any other certification area, showing a greater depth and complexity in their understanding of CRT when compared to others. Implications regarding these findings for teacher education programs are discussed next.

Much of the CRT research explores the deficits in the perceptions, experiences, and attitudes held by preservice teachers in relation to working with CLD students (Castro, 2010; Dantas, 2007; Sleeter, 2008). Sleeter (2008) outlined four particular areas of concern that criticize the current preservice teacher population, which is predominantly White and middle-class (whilst 42% of the U.S. student population consists of students of color). First, these White preservice teachers may be “dysconscious” of racial inequity within the existing school system and the society as a whole. Second, these teachers are more likely to embrace deficit views (and diminished academic expectations) toward CLD students, believing that CLD parents also undervalue education. Third, Sleeter (2008) discusses the “colorblind” approach these teachers take when teaching racially diverse students, generally based on ignorance or fear of potential tensions that may arise within discussion of racial issues. Finally, White preservice teachers frequently lack awareness of their own cultural biases, presuming that their own

beliefs and behaviors are “normal” and objects of others’ aspirations. In contrast, some scholars stress how teachers of color may bring with them certain benefits to the teaching role that extend beyond their identification with a particular ethnic group, such as an ability to relate to CLD students from personally having had marginalizing experiences or their ability to “apply cultural insider knowledge” (Hollins & Guzman, 2005) and serve more effectively as “cultural brokers” for students from CLD backgrounds (Irizarry, 2007).

In this study, 5% of the participants’ CRT description responses conveyed a universalistic “we’re the same” (“colorblind”) message. While these appeared well intentioned in efforts toward promoting unity and acceptance, some may have oversimplified or disregarded wider racial or ethnic tensions. Some 19% of responses included superficial elements of multicultural education. Neville, Roderick, Duran, Lee, and Browne’s (2000) study in which the Color Blind Racial Analysis Scale (CoBRAS) was administered, found that greater “colorblindness” actually correlated to increasing levels of racial prejudice. Therefore, while engaging a more diverse teaching force may be a worthy goal for a variety of reasons amidst current demographic trends in our schools, the findings from this study did not demonstrate that minority participants held increased efficacy or depth of understanding regarding the CRT construct. Such knowledge and skills are not necessarily characteristics that teachers acquire simply by racial or ethnic heritage alone. Scholars have noted that similar knowledge, skills, and dispositions can be cultivated in both mainstream and minority teachers through certain experiential learning initiatives and interventions within a teacher education program, such as by engaging candidates in ethnographic study (Heath, 1983; Moll et al., 1992), cultural immersion experiences (Dantas, 2007; Marx & Moss, 2011), and guided critical reflection (Richards, 2011).

Research addressing the preparation of teachers for working effectively with CLD students asserts the importance of teachers holding positive dispositions toward diverse “others” as a precursor to implementing affirming and supportive CRT practices (and the detriment of holding “deficit” views as well) (Dantas, 2007; Sleeter, 2008). Therefore, this study examined factors related to participants’ feelings about their experiences with and interest in diverse people. This “Experiences with Diversity” portion of the survey utilized an adaptation of instruments used by Guyton and Wesche (2005) and Stanley (1996).

Several statistically significant associations were found between self-reported experiences with diversity and higher CRTSE scores as well as more sophisticated descriptions of CRT activities. While the data included in this study do not allow for detailed analysis of the exposure to diversity in the books about diverse individuals that participants read, the role models they chose,

or the TV and movies they watched, the mere circumstance that participants willingly *chose* to explore or engage diversity in these areas shows curiosity and initiative to learn about perceived “others.” An unknown factor is whether such influential texts and sources were authentic, respectful representations of the cultures depicted, or whether stereotypes may have been perpetuated through such means. Freire and Macedo (1994) caution educators to “read the world” when reading the word, as the visibility of inequities within a society can sometimes be dimmed beyond recognition through various print and media influences (Castro, 2010). An implication from these findings is the value that exploring and discussing preservice teachers’ understanding of “others” may yield, such as through sharing multicultural and international literature that builds awareness and empathy in TE program courses—just as participants’ initiative to read about diverse others in this study were positively associated with increased understanding of CRT and self-efficacy for implementing such practices.

Participants’ comfort level around diverse students and enjoyment in spending time with “different” people was positively correlated with both higher self-efficacy scores and more advanced CRT descriptions in this study. Although specifically recruiting preservice teachers with certain backgrounds can be a challenge for TE programs, attempts can be made to develop appropriate dispositions of all preservice teachers through integration of particular program interventions. Some participants may have felt compelled to answer items in a perceived “politically correct” way as a result of their socialization within a “tolerant of multiculturalism” society; however, an interesting finding was that each of the dependent variables in this study (CRTSE means and CRT Description means) showed significant correlations with these particular diversity response items. Positive attitudes toward and experiences with diverse others may yield greater confidence for and a deeper understanding of the complexities involved in delivering CRT effectively.

These findings highlight the importance of the affective and social aspects of teaching and learning in general (Jensen, 1998), and in relation to CLD student instruction in particular (McIntyre, Hulan & Maher, 2010). TE program interventions that foster and monitor candidates’ reflection on positive dispositions toward CLD students and communities may help to develop more effective and efficacious educators for CLD students. The data analysis regarding experiences with diversity supports the CRT continuum framework described in this study, which distinguishes gradually developing knowledge, skills, and dispositions, as increased awareness (through such experiences) can foster sensitivity and better instructional decisions with CLD students.

The findings from this study indicate that TE program coursework can make a difference in preservice teachers' self-efficacy. However, the participants generally felt their TE program prepared them more thoroughly for cultural diversity rather than linguistic diversity. Such feelings of better cultural diversity preparedness could be a product of the strong multicultural education emphasis in TE programs over several years, whereas efforts toward preparing candidates for linguistic diversity has not been as prominent.

In conclusion, the majority of the preservice and inservice teachers demonstrated a basic "awareness" level of how to implement culturally responsive literacy instruction even among those with higher self-efficacy, although those with more teaching experience were better able to articulate some of the more complex aspects of the CRT construct. This hovering around an "awareness" level is not entirely unexpected (Gay, 2000; Young, 2010), yet the objective and process of moving teachers along a developmental continuum is still critical if aiming for increased student engagement and success (Au, 2007; Giouroukakis & Honigsfeld, 2010). Teacher education programs that support the development of better-equipped teachers in cultural responsiveness contribute to the transformation of classrooms into learning communities that affirm and improve the literacy skills and the lives of culturally and linguistically diverse students and their communities.

FUTURE RESEARCH

While not all candidates may be expected to reach Level 4, particularly at the beginning of their program preparation, TE programs may benefit from more closely examining the characteristics of their teacher candidates and especially the factors in this study that correlated with heightened CRTSE. However, teacher confidence, while helpful to monitor, may not always translate into effective classroom practices or depth of understanding. Further studies that include observation of efficacious teachers professing positive dispositions toward CLD students could be beneficial in exploring how (and if) such teachers actually put their beliefs into practice via culturally responsive methodology in the classroom.

Extended interviews and classroom observations of teachers engaging in culturally responsive approaches may reveal additional examples of CRT skills and dispositions that were not possible with this research design and data set. Additionally, research on appropriate and effective interventions within TE programs that aim to develop CRT competencies in candidates would be useful. TE programs that seek to monitor and develop culturally responsive knowledge, skills, and dispositions to more advanced levels in their teacher candidates may

benefit from utilizing the CRTSE Scale-Extended along with the CRT description task and rubric administered in this study to serve as checkpoint instruments.

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APPENDIX A

Items 1-40 reprinted from Siwatu, K. (2007), with permission from Elsevier.

Amended Instrument of Siwatu's (2007) Culturally Responsive Teaching Self Efficacy Scale (CRTSE-Extended) with CRT Emphasis Items Noted

- (1) Adapt instruction to meet the needs of my students
- (2) Obtain information about my students' academic strengths
- (3) Determine whether my students like to work alone or in a group
- (4) Determine whether my students feel comfortable competing with other students
- * (5) Identify ways that the school culture (e.g., values, norms, and practices) is different from my students' home culture
- * (6) Implement strategies to minimize the effects of the mismatch between my students' home culture and the school culture
- (7) Assess student learning using various types of assessments
- (8) Obtain information about my students' home life
- (9) Build a sense of trust in my students
- (10) Establish positive home-school relations
- (11) Use a variety of teaching methods
- * (12) Develop a community of learners when my class consists of students from diverse backgrounds
- * (13) Use my students' cultural backgrounds to help make learning meaningful
- (14) Use my students' prior knowledge to help them make sense of new information
- * (15) Identify ways how students communicate at home may differ from the school norms
- * (16) Obtain information about my students' cultural backgrounds
- * (17) Teach students about their cultures' contributions to science
- * (18) Greet English Language Learners with a phrase in their native language
- * (19) Design a classroom environment using displays that reflect a variety of cultures
- (20) Develop a personal relationship with my students

- (21) Obtain information about my students' academic weaknesses
- *(22) Praise English Language Learners for their accomplishments using a phrase in their native language
- *(23) Identify ways that standardized tests may be biased towards linguistically diverse students
- (24) Communicate with parents regarding their child's educational progress
- (25) Structure parent-teacher conferences so that the meeting is not intimidating for parents
- (26) Help students to develop positive relationships with their classmates
- *(27) Revise instructional material to include a better representation of cultural groups
- *(28) Critically examine the curriculum to determine whether it reinforces negative cultural stereotypes
- *(29) Design a lesson that shows how other cultural groups have made use of mathematics
- *(30) Model classroom tasks to enhance English Language Learners' understanding
- *(31) Communicate with the parents of English Language Learners regarding their child's achievement
- (32) Help students feel like important members of the classroom
- *(33) Identify ways that standardized tests may be biased towards culturally diverse students
- (34) Use a learning preference inventory to gather data about how my students like to learn
- *(35) Use examples that are familiar to students from diverse cultural backgrounds
- (36) Explain new concepts using examples that are taken from my students' everyday lives
- (37) Obtain information regarding my students' academic interests
- (38) Use the interests of my students to make learning meaningful for them
- (39) Implement cooperative learning activities for those students who like to work in groups
- (40) Design instruction that matches my students' developmental needs

ITEMS 41-50 ARE ADDITIONS TO ORIGINAL SCALE

- *(41) Select literature and literacy activities that reflect the experiences of diverse students in my classroom
- *(42) Analyze whether a text used in my classroom is culturally authentic or biased
- *(43) Identify societal issues and perceptions of diverse people that influence opportunities and affect the learning environments of students from diverse backgrounds
- *(44) Engage family and community members in playing a more influential role in school decisions and policies

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- *(45) Analyze students' writing samples to determine individual strengths that involve (positive) cross-linguistic transfer
 - *(46) Analyze students' writing samples to determine individual weaknesses that involve (negative) cross-linguistic transfer (or interference)
 - *(47) Observe and analyze students' reading and writing (literacy events) to understand how diverse students might have different uses for and forms of literacy practices that may impact their literacy development in English
 - *(48) Analyze and accommodate students' verbal and non-verbal interaction patterns that may be different from my own cultural norms (e.g., eye contact, discourse patterns)
 - *(49) Support the academic learning and social development of students negotiating a new culture
 - *(50) Advocate for culturally and linguistically diverse students and their families who may experience unjust treatment because of their diverse background
-

*Indicates culturally responsive teaching emphasis item (CRT EMP)

EXPANDING THE CIRCLE: COLLABORATIVE RESEARCH TO CREATE A CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE FAMILY LITERACY PROGRAM

MASTER'S THESIS AWARD WINNER

Alison Gear

University of British Columbia

Abstract

This study documents the creation of a family literacy program developed with, and for, an Indigenous community on the northwest coast of British Columbia. The field of family literacy is juxtaposed with the historical and contemporary school experiences of the community and presented as a means of addressing the imbalance between Indigenous and Western knowledge systems currently offered through the public education system. Both Indigenous and Western research methods were utilized through a process designed to involve the community in the development of a family literacy program.

If we look at the world in the form of a circle, let us look at what is on the inside of the circle as experience, culture, and knowledge. Let us look at this as the past. What is outside the circle is yet to be experienced, but in order to expand the circle, we must know what is inside the circle (Davidson, 2009).

These words, from renowned artist, Robert Davidson, tell the story of this collaborative research done with parents, grandparents, and educators to create a culturally responsive family literacy program. For purposes of this study, literacy was defined as “a set of social practices situated in sociocultural context defined by members of a group through their actions with, through and about language” (Cairney, 2002, p. 159).

My relationship with this research began in 2009, having worked as an Early Learning Coordinator for the school district for several years. After delivering a family literacy puppet-making and book reading evening program, I watched a two year old boy dance and sing the Raven Dance because he wasn't interested in making a puppet or looking at books. I thought as I watched the dance, we had a lot to learn about making early literacy education more accessible and relevant for the Indigenous people of the community - about expanding the circle. In the past, education was based on family relationships and knowledge was passed down orally from one generation to the next. Children learned the skills needed for daily living by watching their elders. However, this way of life was profoundly disrupted by Canada's assimilation policies, in particular, compulsory formal education. Family relationships and connections to the land were severed as children were uprooted from their homes and taken to residential schools on the mainland (British Columbia). Juxtaposed with the residential school legacy (marked by persisting social and economic challenges, a lingering discomfort with the school system, and a discrepancy in academic achievement between Aboriginal and non-aboriginal students) is a relatively recent resurgence of the local Indigenous culture through dance, art, ceremony, and language revitalization.

In 2004, the school district introduced a literacy program as a strategy to foster relationships between home and school, in hopes of improving student success. In an effort to be culturally “responsive,” extended family members were welcomed into the program. We have based sessions on traditional stories; used the best Aboriginal children's books; invited community members to teach skills such as cedar weaving, dancing and singing; and introduced early math concepts through familiar manipulative materials such as rocks, shells, and feathers. It is ironic that we have been using the culture to teach the required curriculum imposed through western schooling. Thus, the purpose of the study was to listen to the Indigenous voices to help the Indigenous participants develop a community-based culturally responsive family literacy program.

FAMILY LITERACY: POSITIONING THE CIRCLE

Literacy, in its many forms, is intrinsically connected to knowledge. Using the framework of a medicine wheel (an Aboriginal symbol of the four directions

forming quadrants of a circle to represent unity, balance and wholeness), Brant-Castellano, Davis, and Lahache (2000) describe the holistic awareness of harmony with the physical world as an integral aspect of knowledge. It is through placing new knowledge into the context of the community that knowledge is transformed. However, within the modern education system, Battiste (2009) argues, Indigenous knowledge is not understood. The belief that Eurocentric thought alone is capable of progression, she claims, has prevented the representation of Indigenous and other forms of knowledge in the curriculum.

Literacy, within the context of the family, has existed for millennia (Hannon et al., 2007). As defined by Wasik and Herrmann (2004), family literacy constitutes the “literacy beliefs and practices among family members and the intergenerational transfer of literacy to children” (p. 3).

The earliest studies on family literacy confirmed that a child’s foundation for literacy is often developed at home, suggesting that when the culture of the home differs from that of the school, the most effective curriculum is one that is built on the strengths of the home culture (Cairney, 2002; Heath, 1983; Purcell-Gates, 1996; Rodriguez-Brown, 2004; Taylor & Dorsey-Gaines, 1988). Applying specifically to this study is what Cairney (2002) described as the cutting edge of the family literacy discussion where the home cultural of literacy and those of the mainstream (white, middle class) school system are integrated to encourage student success. Cairney proposed a culturally responsive pedagogy, based on the work of Ladson-Billings (1995), which developed students academically, nurtured cultural competence, and instilled critical consciousness. One way to promote culturally responsive education, he suggested, was to involve parents in their children’s education. Hannon, Brooks & Bird (2007) and Hare (2011) concurred, suggesting that it was through this type of collaboration and negotiation that educators could offer new literacy practices.

Within the field of family literacy, very little has been written in an Indigenous context or from an Indigenous perspective. Early writings (DeGroat, 1997; Dick & McCarty, 1997) discussed the disconnection between early childhood curricula and the realities of Native American life. Subsequent studies (Chodkiewicz, Widin, & Yasukawa, 2010; Crockatt & Smyth, n.d.; Timmons & Walton, 2006) illustrated how the involvement of parents and community members in shaping early learning programs facilitates the incorporation of Indigenous values, traditions, and symbols, providing opportunities for children and their families to develop a stronger cultural identity and a deeper perception of the value of their own knowledge. Gillard and Moore (2007) and Rinehart (2006) described the significant difference between incorporating culture into an already-existing curriculum and using culture as the foundation for curriculum. Salient in the Indigenous family literacy studies, and affirmed by Indigenous scholars, was the

need to establish respectful relationships between teachers, families, researchers, and communities (Archibald, 2008; Kovach, 2009; Wilson, 2008).

METHOD

Looking into the Circle

The methods employed in this research were informed by the principle of seeking wise counsel (Jones, 2012). Phase I involved the traditional (Western) research method of personal interviews, conducted in order to gather the background information needed to move into Phase II, which reflected an Indigenous research approach through the use of a Sharing Circle. Aligned with both constructivist and critical methodologies, and challenging the hierarchy of knowledge and power, Indigenous research methods are based on a fundamentally different understanding of knowledge than that which is currently espoused within the academy (Kovach, 2009; Smith, 1999; Wilson, 2008).

In designing the Sharing Circle, Indigenous epistemologies guided the meetings, which upheld respectful relationships between things – concepts, people, creation, the cosmos, the spirit world – placing participants at the centre (Bishop, 2005; Lavalley, 2009; Wilson, 2008). Knowledge is created, therefore, through the collective understanding of the participants as they relate to each other, their experiences, and their ideas. In this form of research, the collaborative process is as important as the research results (Absolon & Willet, 2005; Smith, 1999).

Participants

Eleven members of the Indigenous community (representing diversity in age, education, and socio-economic background) were interviewed during Phase I. Five of the interviewees volunteered to participate in the Phase II Sharing Circle, which also included two additional community members who had not participated in the interviews. Participants in both phases included parents, grandparents, educators, and Knowledge Holders – people who are respected by the community for their wisdom and cultural knowledge.

Procedures

Phase I. Informational data was collected via eleven semi-structured interviews using five open-ended questions. The language of these questions varied according to the extent to which the interviewee was familiar with the original program. If they had previously participated in the program, I began the interview by asking them to share their thoughts on the program's strengths and weaknesses. The re-

maining questions provided participants with an opportunity to talk about their understanding of culturally responsive education, what a potential “Indigenous version” of the program might look like, and what they would like their children to learn from such a program.

Phase II. Following Lavallee’s (2009) effective use of symbol creation as a research method, participants created a symbol (made from objects that had been mentioned in the interviews such as cedar, shells, buttons, and pieces of red and black felt) to represent the values and principles they believed should form the core of our circle, representing both how we would work together and what we would create. The first two meetings involved the creation and sharing of these symbols, which were placed in the center of the meeting table, where they remained, on a circular red felt blanket, for the duration of the project. Each subsequent meeting began by looking back at these symbols to ensure that they remained at the core of our work, embodying both our epistemology and our methodology.

The third and fourth meetings focused on analyzing the interview data. Preceding the discussion of the interviews, the Indigenous model of interpreting data holistically was introduced, rather than breaking it down into themes, and thereby “destroying the relationships around it” (Wilson, 2008, p. 119). In order to illustrate this process, each participant was given a different colored pad of small sticky notes in which they wrote down the principle ideas, suggestions, or values they believed came from the interviews. Next, these ideas were connected to the symbols in the middle of the table.

The fifth and sixth meetings involved the development of the new, reconstructed, family literacy program. The participants were asked to consider their understanding of literacy in relationship to the values that had been identified. We talked about the principle of balance, and how all our work to this point could be balanced with the Western knowledge embedded in the prescribed learning outcomes of the British Columbia Kindergarten Curriculum (Jones, 2012). To demonstrate this relationship, the Kindergarten Curriculum Package was placed next to the symbols/sticky notes in the centre of the table. Through the final phases of our work, we were constantly aware of the need to reflect this balance in all aspects of the program, a description of which follows.

RESULTS

Using the Collaboration to Create a Culturally Responsive Family Literacy Program

The original family literacy program brought parents into their child’s kindergarten classroom for a series of six interactive sessions designed to build on the

literacy development that was already happening at home. Each session focussed on one aspect of literacy development such as reading, writing, or mathematics. The reconstructed version is modeled in the same way, with each session based on a connection to one aspect of the Indigenous culture:

1. I am connected to the land.
2. I am connected to my family.
3. I am connected to stories.
4. I am connected to the ocean.
5. Ceremonies connect me to my culture.
6. Food gathering connects me to traditions.

In addition, the program was created using the following five objectives:

- ***Objective 1 - Know more about who they are and where they come from.*** Whether it be knowing family and clan lineages, experiencing traditional seasonal activities, learning the language, understanding cultural history, or having pride in their culture, all people interviewed wanted children to have a strong Indigenous cultural identity. The importance of knowing one's identity appears consistently throughout the literature on Indigenous education (Ball & Simpkins, 2004; Battiste, 2009; Little Bear, 2009). If literacy education is a means of making sense of the world (Friere & Macedo, 1987), can it also play a role in developing a sense of self (identity) from which the world is understood? A socio-cultural interpretation of literacy suggests that it can. Ferdman (1990) contends that literacy education is a form of socialization whereby one becomes identified with a particular culture; Cairney (2002) argues that "each person's cultural identity both shapes and is shaped (at least in part) by their experiences in literacy education" (p. 160).

What became apparent throughout our discussions was the diversity in cultural experience amongst the participants and interviewees themselves. Mindful of both generational and inter-family differences, and respectful of the construct of cultural identity, we decided to base each session of the program on a common seasonal activity. As parents and children participate in these practices, their cultural identity is nurtured, addressing what Kershaw and Harkey

(2011) illustrate as the “unique difficulty, faced by some of today’s Aboriginal parents, who are learning about their culture at the same time that they are teaching it to their children” (p. 588).

- ***Objective 2 - Recognize the equal importance of both Indigenous and Western Knowledge.*** According to Battiste (2009), creating a balance between Indigenous and Western ways of knowing is “the great challenge facing modern educators” (p. 202). The differences between Western and Indigenous ways of knowing are vast – one written, one oral; one seen as primarily intellectual, one understood holistically; one in which truth is absolute, one where truth is dependent upon time and context. The need to introduce children to both Western and Indigenous literacies and ways of knowing was expressed by all participants in the project. Participant A pointed out that traditional education given by parents in the past was based on survival, but “[reading and writing] is what it’s going to take for my kids to survive now” (Personal interview, January 31, 2012).

One of the most challenging aspects of developing the new literacy curriculum was deciding exactly how to present the relationship between the two systems. Of interest to our discussion was the work of El-Hani and Bandeira (2008) who argued that defining Indigenous knowledge by a Western construct such as “science” actually devalued, rather than legitimized, an Indigenous worldview; instead, they suggested, Indigenous knowledge should be valued on the grounds of its own epistemology. Thus the literacy program is designed to reflect Western and Indigenous epistemologies in three ways: a) an Elder will be invited to participate in every session to share his/her own experience with the theme and to introduce related cultural vocabulary; b) activities will foster the development of traditional and school-based literacy skills; and c) at the end of each session, parents and children will complete a reflection page which succinctly summarizes the key concepts covered from both knowledge systems.

- ***Objective 3 - Understand and speak more of the Indigenous language.*** A relationship with one’s ancestral language is one of the “most potent forces” shaping Indigenous identity (Brant-Castellano, Davis, & Lahache, 2000, p. 25). As is the case in many Indigenous languages, there are fewer than forty fluent native speakers left in the world, most of whom are in their eighties and nineties (Ball,

2009; Collison et al., 2011). The participating Elder will introduce relevant native language in each session. To support this teaching, we will provide each family with a simple take-home language practice booklet.

- ***Objective 4 - Feel a sense of home and community in the school and a sense of learning in the home and community.*** Despite school district initiatives to include parents in their children's education, several interviewees suggested that many parents continue to feel disconnected from schools. It is hoped that the community-family literacy program will foster this connection in two ways. Consistent with the Aboriginal view that learning is a "communal activity – a process in which parents, family, elders and community all have a role and responsibility," we have included home-based center activities, such as cutting salmon and preparing stew (Cappon, 2008, pg. 61). Secondly, we will hold at least two sessions on the land, away from the classroom, where participants can partake in seasonal activities.
- ***Objective 5 - Recognize that parents and other family members are their children's most important teachers.*** Regarding school as the only locus of learning in a child's life can devalue what is learned in a child's community. A child can begin to believe that all they need to know will come from that person in front of the classroom. Many parents have also come to believe this (Garza, 2011).

While the message that parents are their children's most important teachers is central to the community-family literacy program, as we want to provide an opportunity for parents to experience helping their children with school-based literacy activities, but through the things that they do at home every day. Through pointing out berries in the forest, telling a story, or helping to cook a traditional meal, adult participants are presented with the opportunity to realize the value of their own teaching.

DISCUSSION: EXPANDING THE CIRCLE

Knowledge, one's understanding of the world, is the foundation of culture. Culture is an expression of that knowledge. Literacy involves the many ways through which the values, beliefs, and norms of the culture are expressed. Learning takes place as people build on these cultural practices and traditions "[changing] their ways of understanding, perceiving, noticing, thinking, remembering, classifying, reflecting, problem setting, planning" (Rogoff, 2003, p. 237). As

newly-constructed knowledge is placed in the context of the familiar, as Brant-Castellano et al (2000) illustrates, knowledge, culture, literacy, and learning are continually transformed by each successive generation (Rogoff, 2003).

When parents and children participate in culturally responsive family literacy program activities, they are, in fact, drawing on both Western and Indigenous knowledge systems. A fitting concept for what this program espouses is “syncretic literacy” which describes what happens when children belong to different groups simultaneously (in this case, the Indigenous culture of their home and community, and the Western culture of the kindergarten classroom) and syncretize the literacies, languages, and learning from those two groups to create new ones (Gregory, Long, & Volk, 2004). In a syncretic relationship, different cultural practices are not mutually exclusive. When home and community cultures are brought into the classroom, children have more opportunities to syncretize the known with the unknown, making their learning more meaningful. When knowledge from inside two circles comes together, both circles can expand. According to Knudsen (2004), this understanding of knowledge illustrates how “culture is seen to carry, intrinsically, the seeds of its own continuing renewal” (p. 5).

These words from Participant A describe the circle’s progression:

To know that school is a good place for my kids or to see that they are enjoying school is important because of my family’s history of not enjoying school. [Books, reading and writing] weren’t in my house growing up, so it’s a whole new experience for me, as a parent, in trying to reinforce that education is important and reading is important. . . That’s new for us, for me. (Participant A, Personal interview, January 31, 2012)

What is (still) new for many, and what we must respond to as our “whole new experience,” is the acknowledgement that Indigenous knowledge, culture, literacy, and learning are just as important as the Western knowledge. The principle of balance, so integral to the values of this community is the foundation of the responsive family literacy program. The more that home, community and school literacies are balanced in the classroom, the more opportunities children will have to interpret and shape the world around them. Strengthening the means through which that world can be experienced is foundation of literacy education.

CONCLUSION

The family literacy program was piloted in the fall of 2013. It represented a culturally responsive, community collaboration to create family literacy experiences grounded in Indigenous values and understandings of both Indigenous and

Western ways of knowing. I respectfully acknowledge the parents, grandparents and Knowledge Holders who made this collaborative program possible.

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EXPLORING
THE WORLD OF
LITERACY IN THE
K-12 CLASSROOM

ANALYZING AND COMPARING STRUGGLING READERS' PERSONAL WRITING QUALITY IN TWO FORMATS: TRADITIONAL RESPONSE AND E-RESPONSE JOURNALS

Sheri J. Tucker

University of Arkansas-Little Rock

Philip J. Tucker

Bloomsburg University

Abstract

This exploratory study investigated the personal writing quality of struggling readers in an afterschool reading intervention program. It compared individual traditional journal writing responses to e-responses in an electronic bookclub (e-bookclub) format. The study analyzed the surface features and deep features of their personal writing. While there were individual preferences for mode of response, there were no significant differences for surface features between the two formats of personal writing. An analysis of deep features showed an increase in text complexity for e-journals. Participants in both formats wrote on grade level based on surface feature analysis and below grade level as determined by deep feature analysis. Implications address the use of technology for differentiated instruction, the use of deep feature analysis and the need for robust research addressing the quality of personal writing.

Today, teachers face the challenges of bridging the technology gap among students who have had varying digital experiences, incorporating technology in

an authentic manner, and identifying when technology use is most appropriate. As teachers use technology to incorporate new literacies into the curriculum, they must ensure that they are providing an authentic learning experience that is meaningful to the students and contextualize the technology use within a socially constructed environment that promotes critical thinking. Because new literacies actively engage students in participatory learning (McLoughlin & Lee, 2008), the integration of technology may provide more global and more meaningful opportunities, depending upon classroom use.

While Web 2.0 tools seem to serve as a logical vehicle for literacy instruction, there is not a wealth of research available to inform educators of their effectiveness. As literacy instruction moves forward with technology integration, many questions need exploration, especially as Common Core State Standards (CCSS) stress text complexity. In this study, one important area of literacy instruction that can utilize these new technologies is examined: personal writing.

There is very little past empirical research showing support for personal writing and its connection to better writing performance (Peterson & McClay, 2012; Stotsky, 1995). Further research on the benefits of personal writing, the connection to other forms of writing across grade levels, and text transcription is needed.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Writing Research

Writing research attempts to answer how people use expressive language to move from inner speech to written language. Over the century, writing instruction focused on penmanship, product, and then a process (Hawkins & Razali, 2012). In the 1970s, early writing research focused less on penmanship and more on the product. Studies connected writing to verbal language and learning (Emig, 1971). Whereas, speech is natural, writing is a learned process and “epigenetic,” (Emig, p. 127) and depends upon the purpose and the audience (Britton, 1970; 1975).

In the 1980s, writing instruction went from producing a product in a lock-step manner, to focusing on the process of writing. The process of writing focused on the stages (Graves, 1983) and purposes of writing (Calkins, 1986; Cambourne 1988; Graves, 1983, 1984). The emphasis was on writer’s experiences (Atwell, 1998; Calkins 1986; Graves, 1983) as a basis for the natural process of writing development. Writing draws from personal experiences and encourages better writing (Graves, 1984; Moffett, 1981). Connected to the personal aspect

of writing is the social aspect of writing and the cognitive processes of the writers within a social context.

Hayes and Flower (1980) considered the social nature of writing and devised a three-part cognitive model of the writing process: the task, the process, and long-term memory. In the 1980s model, the genre of the writing assignment dictated student planning, editing, and revising processes. Memory capacity focused on the writer's knowledge of the topic, audience, and writing genre. In 1996, Hayes revised the Hayes-Flower Cognitive Model of Writing to show that long-term memory and cognitive processes occur throughout all of the writing stages.

In regards to the cognitive process, writing research studied working memory capacity and found differences in the writing development of students with learning disabilities (LD) (Berninger, Abbott, Swanson & Lovitt, 2010). Kellogg (2008) linked thinking and writing to language learning and the acquisition of spoken language. Written language, according to Kellogg, depends on the child's cognitive control and working memory. He argued that progression in writing is constrained on "the limited capacity of the central executive of working memory" (p. 3). Psycholinguistic research supported the concept that limited working memory interfered with complex writing structures, especially for L2 writing (McNamara, Crossley, & McCarthy, 2009). Writing research about the concept of the writing processes, cognitive processes, and the stages of the writing process contributed to the increased practice of providing opportunities for daily writing in the classroom. Daily writing often occurred in the form of journal responses to literature, short question-answers, and the stages of writing (Campbell, Stephens, & Ballast, 2011).

Personal Writing

Writing is a demanding cognitive process relying on working memory, long-term memory, self-regulation, self-efficacy, and vocabulary knowledge. Writing makes "inner speech" (Vygotsky, 1986) visible. Personal writing is the closest written expression of inner speech, and uses expressive language (Britton, 1975). The "expressive language" (Britton, 1975, p. 89) as vocal language in connected to personal writing, which includes journal writing or writing to question prompts. Expressive language is in the center of the language continuum between referential language, used in formal and technical writing, and poetic language used in creative writing. Each type of language in each piece of writing contributes to an on-going, written conversation (Britton, 1975). Inner speech becomes public speech as writing and promotes a writer's change in cognitive thought processes

about ideas and topics during personal writing (Smagorinsky, 1997). The majority of personal writing occurs as journal writing in the classroom.

Journal writing is the most frequent classroom activity combining reading and writing in a workshop-learning environment promoting, “efficacious behaviors by providing students with a task that is individual yet challenging” (Jones & East, 2010 p. 113). In regards to reading response journals, students traditionally write responses about literature. The reading journal allows students to become active participants in the socio-cognitive processes of reading, thinking, and writing in which their journals can be used for further student writing (Youngblood, 1985). Reading and writing workshops are the foundation of “academic language socialization” (Bazerman, et al., 2005, p. 8) and a part of academic literacy. Writing in response to literature promotes intertextuality, which draws upon the quality of students’ sources for writing (Bazerman et al., 2005). As students engage in a response to literature, they shift roles from a reader to a writer and must focus on a writer’s stance. When responding to text, the writer must “find words, . . . for the purpose mainly to explain, analyze, summarize, and categorize the evocation” (Rosenblatt, 1994, p. 140). Currently, journal writing remains an effective part of writing instruction that occurs daily and is interwoven with other activities throughout the day (Jones & East, 2010).

Writing in journals in a traditional format and as a response in an e-bookclub is personal writing often in response to aesthetic reading purposes (Rosenblatt, 1978). In a bookclub, written language and culture are shared and when expanded into an online culture, writing is an epistemic activity of learning (Seligmann & Gravett, 2010). With today’s “Net” generation of learners, use of technology occurs in “third space” of learning outside of classroom walls (Gutiérrez, 2008). The third space can serve as a zone of proximal development in a technological socio-cultural learning environment when students seek out more abled peers for learning interactions. Electronic bookclubs, as a third space, may broaden the scope of collaborative dialogues of literature and create a broader socio-cultural learning environment for personal writing as part of a multimodal writing process (Edwards-Groves, 2011). Teachers currently use computers to extend the writing workshop, including journal writing (Peterson & McClay, 2012).

Personal and Digital

With the use of Internet and Communication Technology (ICT), writing becomes permanently fixed in cyberspace. In order to be proficient writers, students need specific writing skills. Students must organize their thoughts, think systematically, and clearly communicate their thoughts across a broad range of genres, in

a cohesive manner. Then, writers must have the text transcription knowledge to express personal writing in a technology ICT space. Blogs, as a Web 2.0 tool for written text or text transcription, help learners think about their writing and share text with an audience (Nardi, 1998). Recent studies show that use of new literacies such as blogs increase communication among students (Barlow, 2008; Churchill, 2009; Davis & McGrail, 2009; MacBride & Luehmann, 2008; Zawilinski, 2009). Although one study indicated that the use of new literacies does not increase the amount of student writing (Luce-Kapler, 2007), the use of new literacies can increase collaboration between students and the outside world (Morgan & Smith, 2008; Mullen & Wedwick, 2008; Pennay, 2009). Blogs provide a means for students to interact with a broader socially constructed knowledge base (Riesland, 2005; Rosen & Nelson, 2008) and may help students learn how to write deeper thinking questions for discussion (Larson, 2009). Given that personal writing is integral to the development of writing skills, it is important to assess the text quality for both types of text transcriptions, a paper journal and online journals (blogs).

ASSESSING WRITING QUALITY

There are a variety of approaches to assess writing quality, e.g., readability formulae, lexile levels and linguistic computational tools. Because readability formulae measure sentence lengths, word count and syllables, they are highly correlated. Readability formulas are traditionally associated with the readability of texts. Fry (1989) maintained that “readability formulas are not writeability formulas (p. 293); however, recent research used readability formulas to assess surface features of writing to help plan writing interventions for young writers (Beagelhole & Yates, 2010). Although there are several readability formulas, Dale-Chall has the highest reliability and validity (Burke & Greenberg, 2010; Dubay, 2004). Dale-Chall uses two variables to calculate readability: sentence length and percentage of words not included on the Dale-Chall familiar word list (Dale & Chall, 1948). Dale-Chall revised the original formula to include a 3,000 familiar word list in its calculations of a raw score converted to a grade-level equivalent (Chall & Dale, 1995). Whereas word counts figured on the word processor count every word, word counts figured for the Dale-Chall readability formula exclude repeated words and include difficulty word levels; proper names are included as difficult words.

Surface feature measures such as those used by Dale-Chall serve as a base for writing analysis. Although these surface features have merit, currently, there is research into the viability of using computational linguistic software for a deeper analysis of writing. Ongoing research (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010) is evaluating

the linguistic computational software, Coh-Metrix (2013), used to measure text complexity for the Common Core State Standards (CCSS).

Coh-Metrix is a linguistic and discourse computational tool measuring deep features of writing that include lexical sophistication of writing proficiency, syntactic complexity and cohesion in different grade level reading texts (Graesser, McNamara, Louwerse, & Cai, 2004). Deep features are synonymous with factors comprising text complexity. Multiple studies used Coh-Metrix to evaluate text characteristics (Graesser, McNamara, & Kulikowich, 2011), cohesion (McNamara, Louwerse, McCarthy, & Graesser, 2010), writing styles (McCarthy, Lewis, Dufty, & McNamara, 2006) and writing genres (Crossley, Louwerse, McCarthy, & McNamara, 2007; Best, Floyd & McNamara, 2008). Four indices show lexical diversity, which is a part of text complexity: the number of words before the main verb (SYNLE), Type Token Ratio for all words (LDTTRa), Vocabulary Diversity (VOCd) and Measures of Text Lexical Diversity (MTLD). MTLD is a lexical diversity measure for all words a writer knows. In Coh-Metrix (3.0) SYNLE is a good indicator of working memory load. Syntactic complexity, another factor in text complexity, differs in writing across grade levels. Crossley, Weston, McLain Sullivan and McNamara (2011) measured differences in essay writing between grade levels and found differences between ninth, eleventh, and college freshman writers in syntactic complexity. As writers' cognitive processes mature, their sentence structures become more complex. McNamara, et al. (2009) evaluated linguistic features of written essays and found that the measure of textual lexical diversity (MTLD) correlated with frequency indices in Coh-Metrix. MTLD showed the largest effect size in lexical diversity for syntactic complexity.

Although personal writing is different than essay writing, in this current study researchers used Coh-Metrix as an exploratory tool to evaluate text complexity in personal writing. Surface feature analysis provides a limited picture of students' writing. Evaluating personal writing with Coh-Metrix tools may provide a more comprehensive picture to help teachers tailor individual writing instruction or develop writing interventions for students.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study addresses research gaps in personal writing quality in two types of text transcriptions. It is an exploratory attempt to look at the writing quality of struggling readers in a reading intervention program that compared individual traditional journal writing responses to e-responses in an electronic bookclub (e-bookclub) format. The first part of this small case study is the analysis of the surface features of personal writing among struggling readers. Surface features analyzed are word count and spelling errors. The second part is an exploratory study of the deep

features of personal writing among struggling readers. Deep features analyzed are lexical diversity and syntactic and text complexity using the linguistic computation tool, Coh-Metrix 3.0 (McNamara, Louwse, Cai, & Graesser, 2013) and its teacher-friendly version, Coh-Metrix Text Ease and Readability Assessor (T.E.R.A.) (2013). Specifically, the study was based upon the following research questions:

1. Is there a difference in the number of words written between a traditional response journal format and an E-response journal?
2. Is there a difference in the number of spelling errors between a traditional response journal format and an E-response journal?
3. Is there a distribution difference found in surface writing features between journal responses and e-responses?
4. Does the median text complexity for e-responses and journal responses differ from median surface level features for e-responses and journal responses?

METHODS

The study compared participants' personal writing responses and quality of personal writing in two formats: a traditional response journal based upon Rosentblatt's Reader Response Theory (1978) and an electronic response (e-response, Larson, 2009) contained within a secure and private weblog. Participants reacted to their reading by responding to question prompts and writing questions while reading the books in the *Diary of a Wimpy Kid* series (Kinney, 2007) and *Diary of a Wimpy Kid: Rodrick Rules* (Kinney, 2008). The two young adolescent literature books have a lexile of 950L, suitable for upper reading levels from 5th grade to mid reading levels of eighth grade, and a Dale-Chall readability of 5.9 and a Flesch Kincaid readability of 7.2. Researchers used question prompts suggested by Zawilinski (2009), and aligned them with Bloom's revised taxonomy (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001; Krathwohl, 2002). Participants answered question prompts, responded to each other, and asked questions to each other about their reading in one format for a period of 5 weeks and then using the other format of writing for the next 5 weeks. Participants received instructions for accessing and writing in the privatized online blog.

Researchers calculated the number of words written and number of spelling errors by each participant for an initial surface feature analysis. Next, the Dale-Chall Readability Formula was used to measure surface feature writing levels. The Dale-Chall readability results (converted to grade levels) were compared in both writing formats to participants' current grade level to determine if there was a distribution difference between the two formats used. Researchers

analyzed the deep features of writing to determine text complexity, comprised of lexical diversity and syntactic complexity. Coh-Metrix indices were used to measure lexical diversity; syntactic complexity was analyzed with Coh-Metrix (T.E.R.A.).

Because the study had an N of 9 and there was not an assumed normal distribution, researchers used Friedman's (1937) test to measure distribution differences between the writing surface features of the two types of responses. Kendall's Tau b (1938) measured the relationship of lexical diversity from Coh-Metrix 3.0 indices in both types of responses.

The Wilcoxon-Signed Rank Test (1945) measured text complexity between one group of the same participants and the two types of writing formats and the difference between surface features and text complexity features. Text complexity deep features in writing for both formats were analyzed using the Wilcoxon-Signed Rank Text. Deep feature analysis was then converted to grade level and compared to participants' current grade level and analyzed for distribution differences using Friedman's Test.

Limitations

The small N is similar to the number of students in a reading or writing intervention for struggling readers. However, because it is a small sample, the results cannot be generalized to a larger populace.

Participants

The participants in the study were from multiple school districts located in the central, rural regions of the northeast United States. They were participants in remedial reading and tutoring sessions run by a university reading clinic. The participants were acquainted with coming to the university, assessment procedures, and receiving tailored instruction as part of regular reading tutor sessions each semester. The participants' tutors were graduate reading candidates enrolled in a Master's reading program at a regional university. To find the participants' reading levels, they were given a pre- and posttest using John's Basic Reading Inventory Forms A and B (BRI, Johns, 2010). Participants took a technology survey to find technology background knowledge.

Four participants had IEPs for ADHD and language impairments as determined by IDEA definitions for other health impairments (OHI). Participants 1-4 had IEPs for OHI and all four had a form of Attention Deficit Disorder. Participants 5-9 had reading difficulties in fluency and comprehension determined through informal assessments but did not have IEP's. Table 1 provides detailed information about each participant.

TABLE 1 Participants

Participant	Gender	Grade	OHI IEPs
1	Female	6th	ADHD; Expressive Language
2	Male	4th	ADHD
3	Male	4th	ADHD, Expressive Language
4	Female	4th	ADD Receptive Language
5	Female	6th	No IEP
6	Female	4th	No IEP
7	Female	5th	No IEP
8	Male	4th	No IEP
9	Female	4th	No IEP

RESULTS

Researchers analyzed the participants’ surface writing features to compare individual differences between the two formats. Surface features were analyzed using the number of words written and spelling errors for each journal entry and each e-response blog entry. Following are charts showing the analysis of surface writing features based upon the number of words and spelling errors for the participants. Figure 1 provides frequency word count and spelling error information for participants on their journal and blog entries.

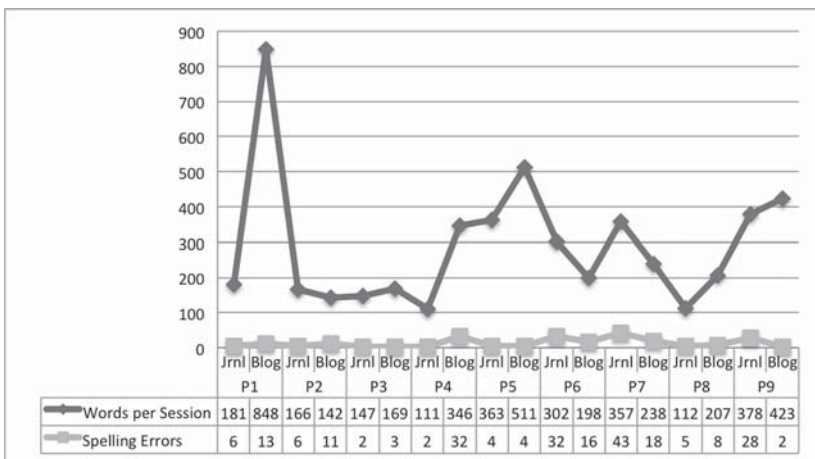


Figure 1

Comparison of number of words written and spelling errors for participants 1-9 on journal and blog entries.

In a comparison of journal entries, six participants (1, 3, 4, 5, 8 and 9) wrote more using the e-response format and three participants (2, 6, and 7) wrote more using the traditional response format. Spelling errors proportionately were associated with participants' preferred writing format for participants 3, 4, 6 and 7 and with the less preferred format for participants 1, 2, 5, 8 and 9. With the small $N = 9$ and assumption the data did not have a normal distribution, the Wilcoxon Signed Rank test was used to calculate word frequency and spelling errors median differences between the two types of writing (E-responses $Mdn = 238$; journal responses $Mdn = 181$ ($z = -1.125$, $p = .260$, $r = .222$) and amount of spelling errors (journal responses $Mdn = 6$; E-responses $Mdn = 11$ ($z = 0.00$, $p = 1.00$, $r = .286$)). There were no significant median differences found in surface features between the two types of writing responses or spelling errors.

The next surface feature analysis was based upon the Dale-Chall revised readability formula. Figure 3 illustrates the participants' current grade level writing for the traditional journal and the e-response writing juxtaposed to participants' assigned grade level in school. Within the group, participants average assigned grade level in the Dale-Chall had a $M = 4.6$; $SD = .88$. When reviewing surface features using Dale-Chall, writing grade level for the journal had a $M = 5.0$; $SD = .42$ and e-responses in the blog had a $M = 5.2$; $SD = .67$ grade level. There were individual differences with participants 1, 7, 8 and 9 writing at a

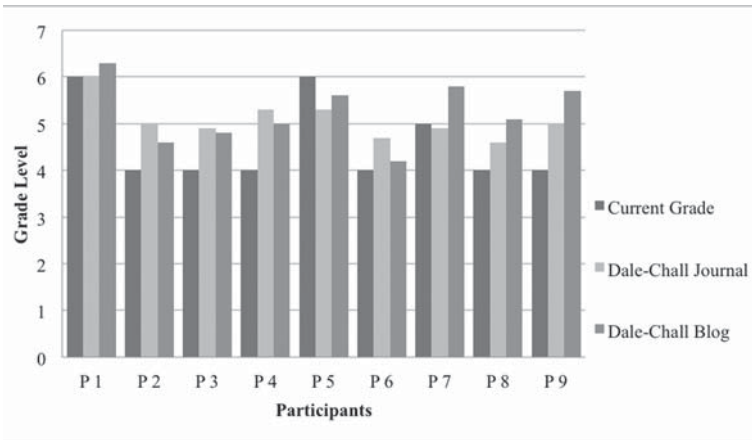


Figure 2

Comparison of participants' journal and blog entries on surface features using Dale-Chall readability formula. Participants' grade level based on Dale-Chall analysis compared to assigned current grade level.

higher grade level using blogs and participants 2, 3, 4 and 6 writing at a higher grade level using traditional journals. Participant 5 wrote below assigned grade level using both formats. Overall, there was no distribution difference found between the journal response and e-response format determined by Friedman's test $F(1, 9) = .111, p = .739$, Kendall's $W = .012$.

The deep features of writing results were then compared to the surface feature results. In order to measure lexical diversity between the responses, lexical diversity indices in Coh-Metrix were correlated using Kendall's Tau b (1938) for possible relationships. Four indices show syntactic text complexity: SYNLE (Words before the main verb), LDTTRa (Lexical Diversity Type Token Ratio for all words), VOCd (Vocabulary Diversity), and MTLT (Measure text lexical diversity). VOCd and MTLT are regarded as the same type of measure. VOCd is affected by sentence length and is linked to LDTTRa; therefore, MTLT is considered the strongest indicator of lexical diversity because it is not tied to sentence length or number and types of words (McCarthy & Jarvis, 2010). Results for relationships of lexical diversity indices are reported in Table 2.

Lexical diversity for e-responses has a negative relationship between SYNLE and LDTTRa, and a negative relationship between MTLT and VOCd; whereas, there is no apparent relationship in the lexical diversity indices for journal responses. Friedman's test indicates a lexical diversity distribution difference between journal responses and e-responses $F(1, 8) = 5.00, p = .42$, Kendall's $W = .42$. There appears to be small significant change in lexical diversity in the two forms of writing from the indices in Coh-Metrix measuring lexical diversity.

TABLE 2 Lexical Diversity Indices

		SYNLE	MTLD	LDTTRa
Journal Responses	SYNLE	1		
	MTLD	.278	1	
	LDTTRa	.111	.278	1
	VOCd	0	-.056	-.222
E-Responses	SYNLE	1		
	MTLD	-.056	1	
	LDTTRa	-.556*	-.167	1
	VOCd	-.500	-.556*	.500

Note. SYNLE (Words before the main verb), MTLD (Measure text lexical diversity), LDTTRa (Lexical Diversity Type Token Ratio for all words) and VOCd (Vocabulary Diversity) $p < .05$.

Text complexity was then computed in the Coh-Metrix T.E.R.A. (2013), which analyzed narrativity, syntactic simplicity, word concreteness, referential cohesion and deep cohesion for each blog and journal writing submitted. Coh-Metrix measured linguistic features and then provided an analysis for each participant. Text complexity grade equivalents are presented in Figure 4.

Text complexity was translated into grade level equivalents (e-responses $Mdn = 4$; $SD = 1.4$, and journal grade level $Mdn = 3.4$; $SD = 1.4$). A Wilcoxon-Signed Rank Test was conducted to evaluate whether deep features for text complexity had a median difference from surface features in personal writing for e-responses and for traditional responses. There was a significant difference found between the text complexity indices measured and the surface features of Dale-Chall. Text complexity for e-responses had a $Mdn = 4$ grade level and journal response text complexity $Mdn = 3.4$ ($z = -2.533$, $p = .011$) based upon positive ranks $N = 8$ and tie $N = 1$ (Text Complexity Blog – Text Complexity Journals) indicating a significant increase in the text complexity in blogs. When analyzed for differences with current grade level, results indicated that there was no significant difference between text complexity grade levels and participants' current grade level for blogs ($z = .070$, $p = .944$) or traditional journal responses ($z = -1.06$, $p = .944$; Friedman's distribution $F(2,18) = 2.00$, $p = .368$). Kendall's $W = 1.00$ indicates there is no distribution differences in text complexity features and grade levels.

DISCUSSION

The study explored differences in surface features (number of words written and spelling errors) and deep features (text complexity, lexical diversity, syntactic complexity) in personal writing in two formats: traditional journal

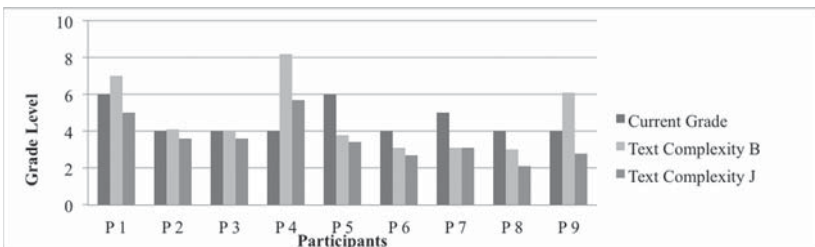


Figure 3

Comparison of participants' journal(j) and blog(b) entries on text complexity using Coh-Metrix T.E.R.A. Participants' grade level based on Coh-Metrix analysis compared to assigned current grade level.

responses and e-responses. Four research questions were addressed and are discussed below.

The first three research questions addressed whether there would be differences in surface features of writing based on the use of traditional journals and e-responses. Findings were as follows: 1) There was no significant difference on how many words participants wrote between the two types of writing and participants wrote on grade level, 2) there was not a significant difference in the number of spelling errors between a traditional response journal format and an e-response journal, and 3) there was not a distribution difference found in surface writing features between journal responses and e-responses. Though there were individual preferences shown between the formats with six participants writing more with blogs, results show there was no significant difference in surface feature writing quality for participants composing text in a traditional reader-response journal and an e-response journal. Research has indicated that integrating technology and writing does not indicate more writing will occur. In this study, both formats were equally effective for personal writing. Findings affirm the use of technology for differentiated instruction that provides bookclub discussions in an e-response format as well as traditional formats.

The fourth question in this study investigated deep features of writing though an analysis of text complexity. Results showed that there was a significant difference found between the median text complexity for e-responses and journal responses with a significant increase in the text complexity in e-responses. Dale Chall relies on sentence length and number of words and includes a 3,000-word list. The VOCd and research indicates it also relies on sentence length. The MTLd did not have a relationship to other lexical diversity indices because it does not rely on sentence length, which may account for the textual complexity difference in e-responses and journal responses. The text complexity indices showed a negative relationship in the e-responses. SYNLE is indicative of working memory and LDTTRa represents the number of unique words used in the writing. Technology may have helped the participants with OHI or struggling readers who were writing e-responses to use less working memory in transcription. Research has found a positive correlation between composition, prolonged use of word processing, and writing quality (Owston & Wideman, 1997; Owston, Murphy & Wideman, 1992). However, research has also found that students with learning disabilities (LD) perform better composing with pen rather than the computer (Berninger, Abbott, Ausberger, & Garcia, 2009). However, most research focuses on amount and surface level quality of writing. Technology and writing may be beneficial to the participants with OHI or struggling readers as an alternate means to compose complex sentence structures. The technology may

allow some students with OHI and struggling readers to compose and cognitively process language and transcribe the language more rapidly by word-processing when composing text (McNamara, et al., 2009).

Results also showed that based on a deep feature analysis of text complexity, students were writing below grade level. The differences in grade level writing are not surprising because personal writing tends to be informal writing and at the lower end of the continuum in the writing process. Personal writing is the beginning of expressive language and supports cognitive processes a writer may have about topics and ideas. While text complexity features were below grade level, there is no indication that the response format was a factor.

In summary, in the analysis for text complexity of participants' writing samples, there was a slight significant difference when composing personal writing using e-responses. There were no significant differences in surface features between the two formats. When developing an intervention plan for struggling readers, the use of technology for personal writing responses to literature should be considered. In addition, during the data analysis, the Coh-Metrix T.E.R.A. provided rich data that may prove useful to tailoring individual writing instruction and interventions for future tutoring.

FUTURE RESEARCH

In light of states adopting Common Core State Standards (CCSS) and the emphasis in language arts standards on text complexity, there is need for more research focusing on evaluating personal writing quality across grade levels. Future research needs to explore the concept of quality personal writing in deep feature analysis and not solely rely on sentence length and uniqueness of words. More research on a larger scale should address how MTLTD affects writing analysis, especially in text complexity questions. Further research can also focus on the composing and transcription of text with students who struggle in reading and students with OHI. Lastly, more research can assess the type of learning taking place as teachers integrate computers and technology into the traditional practices of reading and writing workshops and bookclubs.

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IPAD USE IN ELEMENTARY LITERACY TUTORING EXPERIENCES

Susan L. Massey
Western Illinois University

Abstract

Considering the increased use of mobile device technology in elementary schools and the expectation of technology integration outlined in the Common Core State Standards, effective use of these devices for enhancing literacy skills is a necessary research area. Results of an exploratory study conducted in a one-to-one tutoring environment reveal a perceived improvement in tutees' literacy skills and motivation. In the current research, graduate students participating in a K-5 reading practicum course related their perceptions and observations of the effectiveness of iPad technology and its use as a tool in their 90-minute literacy tutoring sessions with primary grade students. In addition to relating their successes, the graduate students also expressed their frustrations in using the devices as part of the tutoring and noted the need for additional professional development and practice to become more competent in using the devices.

As school districts and teachers plan for technology integration, many are exploring the use of mobile devices (e.g., iPad, iPod, iPhone) for classroom instruction. In recent years, definitions of literacy have expanded in response to ever-changing technological advances and a global society. In a position statement published by the International Reading Association (2009), these technological “new literacies” are defined as multiple, multimodal, and multifaceted. The authors of the position statement also note the relevance of new social practices, skills, strategies, and dispositions for effective use of technology in developing new literacy skills. The National Council of Teachers of English position statement defining 21st century literacies (2013) states that participants

in a global society must “develop proficiency and fluency; manage, analyze and synthesize multiple streams of simultaneous information, create, critique, analyze, and evaluate multimedia texts; and design and share information for global communities to meet a variety of purposes” (para 1). According to the Common Core State Standards (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010), students must be able to “use technology, including the Internet, to produce and publish writing and to interact and collaborate with others” (Writing Anchor Standard 6) and “integrate and evaluate content presented in diverse media and formats, including visually and quantitatively, as well as in words” (Reading Informational Text Anchor Standard 7). The emphasis on technology integration spans the grade levels. Twenty-first century students, including primary grade students, need skills to meet current standards and effectively read and write in an online digital environment (Forzani & Leu, 2012; Kist, 2013). Together these definitions of new literacy suggest a rapidly changing shift in Internet usage and the need for expertise in the use of technological devices for literacy skill development. Considering the fact that in early 2013 the Apple Corporation reported selling 4.5 million iPads to education institutions in the United States (Kahl, 2013), research on effective iPad use is needed for dissemination to schools.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical Framework

A New Literacies theoretical perspective is emerging to identify and understand changes to the nature of literacy and literacy instruction (Leu, Kinzer, Coro, & Cammack, 2004). As an interpretation of the new literacies, Morrell (2012) stated,

As teachers of English language arts, part of our responsibility is helping our students to acquire these 21st-century literacies without abandoning our commitment to the traditional literacies that have defined the education of the previous 20 centuries. Toward this end, we have to figure out how to inject our discipline with these new tools and ways of communication as concepts such as reading, writing, listening, and speaking take on new dimensions in the media age. Students will need to learn to interpret images and sounds in addition to print texts; they will need to access the Internet to perform research for their final projects, which may include traditional genres such as essays, but may also include PowerPoint slides or links to KeyNote or Prezi, a cloud-based presentation software. Students will add graphics to their stories and poems that

may be e-mailed or shared via Google Docs or Dropbox with multiple audiences simultaneously. (p. 302)

This quotation exemplifies the shift occurring in elementary schools and provides a framework for investigating iPad use in literacy tutoring.

“Technology has ushered in new literacy skills needed to succeed in today’s (and tomorrow’s) cultures” (Baker, Pearson, & Rozendal, 2010, p. 2). To understand the implications of new literacies for developing literacy skills and pedagogy, multiple theoretical perspectives provide insight. A cognitive processing perspective informs the concept of new literacies because of the multiple forms of text, multiple skills, and multiple social practices defining new literacies (Dalton & Proctor, 2009; Tracey, Storer, & Kazerounian, 2010). While the specific cognitive skills necessary to process new literacies is not entirely clear, there is agreement that a cognitive framework is involved in processing the multimodal aspects of technology (Tracey et al., 2010).

Literacy is often viewed in a sociocultural perspective as students develop literacy skills and construct meaning through social interactions with others (Chandler-Olcott & Lewis, 2010). In exploring new literacies, a sociocultural perspective helps frame the exchange of skills and strategies needed to interact with technology and communicate information (Cobb & Kallus, 2011).

With new literacies come pedagogical changes related to the most effective methods for instructing children to use technology. McKenna and Conradi (2010) suggest that behaviorist and constructivist pedagogical approaches coexist in determining instructional practices related to technology. They argue that readers need to apply basic skills automatically in print and digital environments through a systematic skills-based approach with roots in behaviorism; however, with appropriate scaffolding, readers construct meaning and apply technological skills in strategic ways through a constructivist perspective (McKenna & Conradi, 2010). Together these multiple perspectives help frame the notion of new literacies as defined and interpreted in the current research.

Case Studies

A major component of understanding a “new literacies” perspective is the need to understand how best to integrate technology into effective literacy instruction. Several case studies provide a background for understanding effective use of iPad technology.

Hutchison, Beschoner, and Schmidt-Crawford (2012) reported positive results in a case study of a fourth grade teacher who integrated iPad technology into small group literacy instruction. The teacher addressed print-based literacy goals

using iPads to enhance students' learning over a three-week period using electronic books and iPad applications to support literacy such as Popplet and Doodle Buddy. The researchers determined that the teacher was able to meet her literacy goals while introducing the new technology to address the literacy goals established. They also determined that the students were highly engaged and able to effectively use technology to demonstrate unique and creative ways of responding to text.

A related case study focused on a fourth grade teacher who integrated new literacies into a four-week social studies unit (Lapp, Moss, & Rowsell, 2012). The teacher integrated media, Internet, performance, and information sources into the unit. Students reportedly were engaged with the content and constructed meaning in creative ways using mobile devices.

As part of in-service and pre-service tutoring experiences, McClanahan (2013) conducted a series of studies to determine the extent to which tutors perceived the value and usefulness of using iPads in tutoring sessions with struggling readers. The researcher concluded that there were mixed results in terms of student growth when iPads were used. Graduate in-service student tutors had better overall success compared in undergraduate pre-service tutors. She also noted the importance of adequate training prior to tutoring as well as ongoing training during tutoring. The successful use of iPad integration with a struggling reader identified with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder was also reported in a similar study conducted by McClanahan and her colleagues (McClanahan, Williams, Kennedy, & Tate, 2012). The student's engagement and success with the iPad was attributed to multiple visual and tactile/kinesthetic modalities used during the tutoring sessions.

Electronic Book Research

Several studies look specifically at integrating e-book readers or electronic computer books with elementary students. In a review of research Moody (2010) determined that the use of high quality interactive e-books supported emergent literacy, vocabulary development, engagement, and story comprehension with appropriate scaffolding; however, lower quality e-books offered distracting digital features and sounds unrelated to the story and hence not effective for young readers. Features supporting vocabulary, decoding, and comprehension were found to effectively support emergent literacy while games and animations not directly relating to the text were found to distract from skill development in electronic texts (Moody, 2010; Zucker, Moody, & McKenna, 2009).

Ciampa (2012) explored the impact of online e-books on first grade students' reading motivation and listening comprehension in a shared reading format. After assessing comprehension and reading motivation, researchers found a correlation between children's enjoyment of the e-books and their preference

for a choice of books. Students preferred e-books over print books following the 3-month research period.

While studies of iPad use in general education classrooms are beginning to be published as exploratory studies or case studies (e.g., Banister, 2010; Hutchinson et al., 2012; Lapp, Moss, & Rowsell, 2012), and often focus mainly on computer-based electronic readers (McKenna & Zucker, 2008), scant studies have been conducted in a one-to-one tutoring environment specifically using iPad technology. In the current research, iPad technology was integrated into various literacy components such as fluency, phonics and word identification, comprehension, electronic book reading, and writing in a one-to-one tutoring setting.

The purpose of the exploratory study was to gather information on effective and ineffective iPad technology uses as part of elementary one-to-one tutoring experiences as perceived by graduate student tutors. The research aimed to answer the following questions:

1. In which sections of the tutoring lesson were iPad technology most frequently implemented?
2. In what ways did the tutors perceive the effectiveness of the iPad use for tutees' literacy skill development and motivation?
3. What frustrations did tutors experience as part of the iPad integration?

METHOD

The exploratory research involved a content analysis of data collected from the graduate student participants. Data were collected from pre and post tutoring surveys, lesson plans with anecdotal notes written by the graduate student participants, and written reflections following tutoring sessions.

Participants

The participants were six female graduate students enrolled in a reading master's degree program at a university in the Midwestern part of the United States. The research was conducted as part of the students' kindergarten through fifth grade practicum experience, a required course in their degree program. Three of the participants possessed 1-5 years of teaching experience, one reported 6-10 years of teaching experience, one reported 11-15 years of experience, and one reported 16 or more years of experience. The participants' teaching experience ranged from kindergarten to twelfth grade with 50% reporting experience teaching first grade and 83% with experience teaching fourth grade. Only one participant reported significant technology training received as part of her school district

on-site technology coach professional development program. Four of the six participants used their own iPad devices during tutoring while two participants borrowed the instructor's devices for tutoring.

Procedure

Participants completed the surveys through Survey Monkey, an online survey provider. Demographic data, past technology training opportunities, current classroom technology integration, and initial impressions of technology use were probed as part of the pre-tutoring survey. The post-tutoring survey was administered at the conclusion of the tutoring sessions. The post-tutoring survey consisted of Likert-type items and open-ended questions to probe additional information about the participants' use of technology in the sessions and the perceived influence on student motivation and achievement. Appendix A contains the pre-tutoring survey and Appendix B contains the post-tutoring survey.

The weekly 90-minute tutoring sessions occurred from 5:00 – 6:30 p.m. at an elementary school in close proximity to the university campus during the spring semester of 2013. The graduate student participants were paired with first and second grade students identified by the school reading specialist as needing additional support in reading and writing skill development. Four of the research participants worked with first grade students and two participants worked with second grade students.

The tutoring sessions consisted of four components reflecting effective components for one-to-one lessons with beginning readers (Lane, Pullen, Hudson, & Konold, 2009): familiar text time, word work, supported reading and writing, and personal reading and writing. Participants were encouraged to integrate iPad technology into their weekly lessons in ways they deemed appropriate to match tutees' literacy needs.

Participants received a list of appropriate iPad applications for possible use during the tutoring sessions as well as limited training as part of the graduate course sequence prior to the practicum experience. Training during the practicum experience consisted of introductions to iPad uses and iPad applications to address the lesson components and was conducted by the researcher during one 90-minute class period. In addition, participants submitted lesson plans prior to each weekly session for feedback and suggestions from the researcher. Wireless Internet access was available at the school during the tutoring sessions.

Data Analysis

Although ten tutoring sessions were scheduled throughout the semester, five tutoring sessions for each tutoring pair were analyzed. The decrease in tutoring sessions was due to sessions devoted to assessment and tutee absences throughout the semester. All references to iPad use from lesson plans, anecdotal notes, lesson reflections, and open-ended questions on the surveys were compiled and tallied according to the lesson component in which they were used and the type of activity (application used, Internet, etc.). Each lesson analyzed contained at least one use of the iPad during the 90-minute lesson. The Likert-scale results from the survey were computed by percentages through the Survey Monkey website and then interpreted by the researcher.

RESULTS

Prior to the tutoring experience, all participants were excited about using mobile devices as a teaching tool in a tutoring setting. A large percentage, 83.33% of participants, strongly agreed and 16.77% agreed to the statement, "I am excited about using iPads or other mobile devices as a teaching tool in a tutoring experience." When analyzing the pre-tutoring survey, all participants anticipated using mobile devices for phonics instruction, two-thirds of the participants anticipated using devices to work with high frequency words and vocabulary, half of the participants anticipated using devices for phonemic awareness and phonics, one-third of the participants anticipated using the devices for fluency, electronic reading, and writing. The participants' actual reported uses closely mirrored their anticipated uses. According to the post-tutoring survey, iPads were mainly used in the word work section of the lesson. A large percentage, 83.33% of the participants, reported using iPads to work on high frequency words, 66.67% reported using iPads for phonics work, and 50% used iPad applications for phonemic awareness. 33.33% of the participants reported using electronic books as part of tutoring and 16.67% of the participants used the devices for fluency, writing, and vocabulary. No participants reported using the iPad for comprehension or dictionary uses. Table 1 outlines the comparison of participants' anticipated usages compared to their actual reported usages.

When analyzing the contents of the lesson plans, it was evident that mobile technology was mainly used in the word work section of the lesson; specifically, technology was used to enhance high frequency word practice and phonics instruction and practice. Less than half, 44% of the lesson plan references to mobile technology were related to phonics activities, 34% were related to high frequency

TABLE 1 iPad Usage According to Literacy Task

Literacy Task	% of Participants Anticipating Usage Pre-Tutoring (<i>n</i> = 6)	% of Participants Reporting Usage Post-Tutoring (<i>n</i> = 6)
High Frequency Words	66.67%	83.33%
Fluency Work	33.33%	16.67%
Electronic Books	33.33%	33.33%
Phonics	100%	66.67%
Phonemic Awareness	50%	50%
Vocabulary Development	66.67%	16.67%
Comprehension	50%	0%
Writing/Journal Creation	33.33%	16.67%
Dictionary	0%	0%

word activities. Only 1% or fewer activities related to fluency, vocabulary, comprehension, writing, and electronic book use. No references were made related to phonemic awareness.

In the next section, iPad device usage will be reported according to how they were used in each component of the lesson according to the content analysis of the lesson plans. Along with an explanation of how the devices were used, comments from the participants related to each section will be included. Appendix C contains a chart of the most common uses and applications used during the tutoring sessions.

FAMILIAR TEXT

During the familiar text time, participants used the devices to record the tutees reading familiar text. Also during the familiar text part of the lesson, participants used Internet poetry sites for tutees to read poetry related to the week's theme. Referring to her tutee, one participant commented, "He pointed to the words in text as he listened to himself. He had fun analyzing his reading."

WORD WORK

During the word work section of the lesson, participants used iPads to reinforce high frequency word work, phonics, and phonemic awareness skills. A variety of applications were used to support this section: Word Sort Wizard, Fry Words,

Sight Words Sentence Builder, Gopher Finding, ABC Magnetic Alphabet, Abitalk Phonics, Spelling Bug, Doodle Buddy, Kindersmarts, and Phonics Tic-Tac-Toe. Comments from participants were as follows:

- “My student is really enjoying writing her high frequency words on Doodle Buddy”
- “He was very engaged and asked for a challenge with Word Sort Wizard.”
- “He was motivated to do the list twice using Word Sort Wizard.”
- “He now needs to work on the spelling component in addition to reading the words when using Word Sort Wizard.”

SUPPORTED READING AND WRITING

In this section of the lesson, tutees worked with tutors on reading and writing strategies using a variety of print and digital text. Tutors showed short video clips to introduce reading topics and build background knowledge. Tutors also used Reading A-Z leveled e-books during this section of the lesson. One tutor participant used the Sticky Note iPad application to preview vocabulary prior to reading a text selection. Comments from participants related to this part of the lesson are as follows:

- “He was engaged from the very beginning of the video.”
- “I used the San Diego Zoo videos to check out animals and describe them as an intro to an animal book.”
- “While we read the e-book as a shared reading, he read parts he could. He closely examined the illustration before reading or tapping the screen to go on to the next page.”
- “To introduce the guided reading book, I went to a website that showed alligator eggs and babies hatching from the eggs. [The student] really seemed to enjoy this! Of course she said ‘eww’ when she saw the pictures, but she wanted to keep on looking.”

PERSONAL READING AND WRITING

During the personal reading and writing time, tutees were allowed to choose reading and writing tasks of interest to them. The most prevalent applications used during this section of the lesson were iDiary, iWriteWords, and

Pirate Treasure Hunt. Related to the iDiary, participants wrote the following comments:

- “He loves iDiary and enjoyed writing a journal entry each week.”
- “My tutee happened onto the iDiary app and insisted he was sure he could figure it out. He did and we took his photo and he began writing a journal entry. I will continue to use this app to encourage self-expression and creativity.”

Related to the Pirate Treasure Hunt application, one participant reflected, “She loves Pirate Treasure Hunt. It consists of making words, spelling, reading, telling time, and math.”

To some degree mobile technology was used in a variety of lesson components. Participants’ comments mainly reflected their tutees’ reactions and levels of engagement and interest when using the devices for instructional purposes.

Several Likert-type questions were included in the pre and post tutoring surveys to probe the graduate student participants’ reflections on using mobile technology as an instructional tool. One question addressed the overall comfort level of the participants in using mobile technology for instructional purposes. Overall the participants increased their comfort level from pre to post as noted in Table 2.

A second question probed the participants’ interpretation of the improvement of the tutee’s literacy skills as a result of iPad use. In responding to the statement, “I noticed measurable improvement in my tutee’s literacy skills as a result of iPads, four participants agreed or strongly agreed to the statement, two

TABLE 2 Comfort Level of Using iPad Technology

	% of Participants Pre-Tutoring Survey (<i>n</i> = 6)	% of Participants Post-Tutoring Survey (<i>n</i> = 6)
Very Comfortable “I use it often.”	33%	66%
Somewhat Comfortable “I am somewhat comfortable using the iPad.”	50%	16%
Minimally Comfortable “I am a bit shaky on iPad devices.”	0%	16%
Not Comfortable “I need a lot more help”.	16%	0%

participants were neutral about the improvement in literacy skills of their tutees, and no participants disagreed with the statement.

When responding to the statement, “My tutee was motivated to use iPads during tutoring, the majority of tutors/participants (83%) felt their tutees were motivated to use iPads during tutoring. One participant (16%) was neutral about her tutee’s motivation in iPad usage. No participants disagreed with the motivation statement.

Participants were also asked to relate their successes and frustrations in using the mobile devices for instructional literacy purposes. The following comments exemplify successes:

- “The iPad boosted student motivation and participation”
- “Easy to keep child focused on the app.”
- “I stayed in my comfort zone, but I feel I could expand into other areas.”

When reporting their frustrations, the following comments were written,

- “My student was so easily distracted that we didn’t use it often. He wouldn’t stick to what I wanted him to do and would do random things with the iPad.”
- “I didn’t have my own iPad and borrowed from the instructor.”
- “The tutee became bored fairly soon after we started.”
- “I don’t own a device and wasn’t able to practice the activities ahead of time.”
- “I felt limited, due to my inexperience, to use it for anything but games.”
- “Sometimes my student would click or tap too quickly and race through the applications without thinking about what he was supposed to be learning.”
- “L gets easily distracted by the end of the night. I thought writing on the iPad could be a fun way to help with this problem, but I think it added more distractions.”
- “I am concerned that his dexterity with the iPad is causing him to skip too quickly through the apps using trial and error to get to the fireworks and applause.”

CONCLUSIONS

Based on the analysis of lesson plans, reflections, and surveys, several conclusions were drawn. The participants’ use of iPads during tutoring mainly consisted of

using applications to work with high frequency words and phonics as part of the word work tutoring lesson component. In many instances, these applications were “game related” and focused on word recognition skills. Schugar, Smith, and Schugar (2013) noted that interactions with pre-service teachers in elementary classroom settings revealed that iPads were often viewed as a reward as opposed to a tool to enhance literacy instruction. Despite the participants’ anticipated usage plans reported in the pre-tutoring survey, the iPads were rarely used to integrate technology into reading comprehension, vocabulary development, and writing skills as part of the tutoring sessions. While the participants in this study were in-service teachers, several began the semester as iPad technology novices. This limited view of the iPad potential for literacy instruction can be partially attributed to the participants’ needs for ongoing professional development.

Through the ongoing use of the iPads during the semester, participants revealed an increased level of comfort in using the devices despite some frustrations. Several of the frustrations experienced by participants related to thorough knowledge of the devices and potential uses as well as accessibility of devices. A system of ongoing, collaborative professional development and technology training is key to effective implementation. Plair (2008) suggested a system of professional development using mentors. In this model, mentors provide teachers with technical knowledge and then support teachers to match available technology to lessons or curriculum. The mentor models instructional use of technology and then coaches the teacher as he or she implements the lessons. This mentoring model could be applied to a supervised practicum experience as university faculty members supervise in-service teachers tutoring elementary students. The mentor also could work collaboratively with in-service teachers to choose appropriate electronic books and iPad applications (Cahill & McGill-Franzen, 2013) and present effective integration techniques (Northrop & Killeen, 2013).

This study revealed positive indications of student motivation and engagement when using the iPad devices. Similar to other studies investigating electronic book use and mobile technology (e.g., Ciampa, 2012; Hutchison et al., 2012; McClanahan et al., 2012), a majority of participants felt their tutees were motivated to use the devices and remained engaged in instructional activities when using the devices.

IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

While the current research is limited by a small number of participants tutoring beginning readers over the course of one semester, the results can be used to inform practice in training in-service and pre-service teachers. The participants

in this study related frustrations centered on a lack of knowledge and preparation in using mobile devices for instructional purposes. Improved professional development opportunities and access to devices can increase teachers' confidence in integrating technology. Hutchison and Woodward (2014) recently outlined a planning cycle for teachers integrating technology into literacy instruction. The planning cycle encourages teachers to carefully match instructional goals, instructional approaches, and technological tools when planning lessons. Further research utilizing a technology integration planning cycle into a tutoring situation as outlined in the current study would provide needed information related to targeted professional development and technology integration.

Given the limited number of empirical studies investigating iPad effectiveness for literacy learning combined with the large number of iPads and comparable devices being distributed to school districts indicates an urgent need for targeted studies investigating the effectiveness of iPad technology for electronic book reading and literacy skill development. Future research should involve more focused empirical studies to determine the most effective uses of devices to develop "new literacy" skills and to investigate the multimodal benefits of devices to literacy learning (Dalton & Proctor, 2009; Walsh & Simpson, 2013). True technology integration goes beyond games and repetitive practice by demanding that 21st-century students develop relevant technological knowledge and skills and then strategically choose the most appropriate tools to comprehend, collaborate, and communicate through digital means. Continued research as part of tutoring experiences can inform the cognitive and pedagogical aspects of the new literacies.

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APPENDIX A

Pre-Tutoring Survey

1. What is your participant number?

<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 8
<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 9
<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 10
<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 11
<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 12
<input type="radio"/> 6	<input type="radio"/> 13
<input type="radio"/> 7	<input type="radio"/> 14

2. Indicate the total number of years you have taught full time.

less than 1 year

1-5 years

6-10 years

11-15 years

16 or more years

3. In what grades have you taught? Check all applicable boxes.

<input type="checkbox"/> Pre-K	<input type="checkbox"/> 4th	<input type="checkbox"/> 9th
<input type="checkbox"/> Kindergarten	<input type="checkbox"/> 5th	<input type="checkbox"/> 10th
<input type="checkbox"/> 1st	<input type="checkbox"/> 6th	<input type="checkbox"/> 11th
<input type="checkbox"/> 2nd	<input type="checkbox"/> 7th	<input type="checkbox"/> 12th
<input type="checkbox"/> 3rd	<input type="checkbox"/> 8th	

4. Which mobile devices do you currently own or have access to? Check all that apply.

iPad

iPod

iPhone

None

Pre-Tutoring Survey

5. Do you use mobile devices in your current teaching position?

- Yes
 No

6. If you currently use mobile devices in your classroom, describe how you use them. List specific applications you use pertaining to reading and writing.

7. Describe any training you have received pertaining to mobile device usage.

8. I am excited about using iPads or other mobile devices as a teaching tool in a tutoring experience.

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree

9. What is your comfort level in using an iPad or other mobile device in educational instruction?

Very comfortable - I use it often. I'm somewhat comfortable with iPad/mobile device use. I'm a bit shaky on iPad/mobile device use. Not comfortable at all - I need a lot more help.

Pre-Tutoring Survey

10. In which literacy areas do you anticipate using an iPad or mobile device with your tutee? Please check all applicable responses.

- High frequency words
- Fluency work
- Electronic books
- Phonics
- Phonemic Awareness
- Vocabulary development
- Comprehension
- Writing/Journal Creation
- Dictionary

Other (please specify)

Thank you for completing this survey!

APPENDIX B

Post-Tutoring Survey

1. What is your participant number?

<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 7
<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 8
<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 9
<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 10
<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 11
<input type="radio"/> 6	<input type="radio"/> 12

2. What was the grade level of your tutee?

<input type="radio"/> Kindergarten	<input type="radio"/> 3rd grade
<input type="radio"/> 1st grade	<input type="radio"/> 4th grade
<input type="radio"/> 2nd grade	<input type="radio"/> 5th grade

3. What is your comfort level in using the iPad or other mobile devices for literacy instruction following the tutoring sessions this semester?

Very comfortable I'm somewhat comfortable I'm still a bit shaky on iPad use Not comfortable at all

4. In which parts of the lesson did you find the iPad or mobile device most useful? Please check all that apply.

- Familiar text
- Word Work
- Supported Reading
- Supported Writing
- Personal Reading/Writing

Post-Tutoring Survey

**5. In which literacy areas did you use an iPad or other mobile device as part of tutoring?
Please check all applicable responses.**

- High frequency words
- Fluency work
- Electronic books
- Phonics
- Phonemic awareness
- Vocabulary development
- Comprehension
- Writing/Journal creation
- Dictionary

6. I noticed measurable improvements in my tutee's literacy skills because of the iPads or mobile devices.

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree

7. My tutee was motivated to use mobile applications during tutoring.

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree

8. Please list the applications your tutee seemed to enjoy the most.

9. List 4 applications you felt were most effective for literacy instruction with your tutee.

Post-Tutoring Survey

10. How would you describe your successes in using mobile devices during tutoring sessions.

11. Describe the frustrations you experienced while working with mobile device applications during the tutoring sessions.

APPENDIX C

Most Common Usages and Applications Used During Tutoring Lessons

Familiar Text Time	
Voice recording for fluency (iTalk)	https://itunes.apple.com/us/app/italk-recorder/id293673304?mt=8
Internet sites for poetry	http://www.poetry4kids.com/poems
Word Work	
Word Sort Wizard	https://itunes.apple.com/us/app/word-sort-wizard/id556464190?mt=8
Gopher Finding	https://itunes.apple.com/us/app/gopher-finding-sight-words/id441025133?mt=8
ABC Magnetic Alphabet	https://itunes.apple.com/us/app/abc-magnetic-alphabet-lite/id389132393?mt=8
Fry Words (words and phrases)	https://itunes.apple.com/us/app/fry-words/id470926345?mt=8
Sight Word Sentence Builder	https://itunes.apple.com/us/app/sight-words-sentence-builder/id527718967?mt=8
Abitalk Phonics	https://itunes.apple.com/us/app/phonics-vowels-short-vowels/id453633094?mt=8
Spelling Bug	https://itunes.apple.com/us/app/spelling-bug-free-spellings/id406504822?mt=8
Doodle Buddy	https://itunes.apple.com/us/app/doodle-buddy-for-ipad-paint/id364201083?mt=8
Phonics Tic-Tac-Toe	https://itunes.apple.com/us/app/phonics-tic-tac-toe-interactive/id465184366?mt=8
Kindersmarts	https://itunes.apple.com/us/app/kindersmarts/id504144615?mt=8
Supported Reading/Writing	
Videos to build background and motivate	http://zoo.sandiegozoo.org/videos http://www.bbc.co.uk/learningzone/clips/animals-that-lay-eggs/12676.html

Reading A-Z ebooks <http://books.readsmart.com/LAZ/free.html>

Sticky Notes <https://itunes.apple.com/US/app/id364899302?mt=8>

Personal Reading/Writing

iDiary <https://itunes.apple.com/us/app/idiary-for-kids-journaling/id424283623?mt=8>

iWriteWords <https://itunes.apple.com/us/app/iwritewords-handwriting-game/id307025309?mt=8>

Pirate Treasure Hunt <https://itunes.apple.com/us/app/pirate-treasure-hunt-eight/id392208108?mt=8>

EXPLORING
THE WORLD OF
LITERACY IN
THE UNIVERSITY
CLASSROOM

COACHING WITH CARE IN A PRESERVICE LITERACY TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM: A DESIGN/DEVELOPMENT STUDY

James V. Hoffman

University of Texas at Austin

Beth Maloch

University of Texas at Austin

Melissa Wetzel

University of Texas at Austin

Laura Taylor

Doctoral Student University of Texas at Austin

Alina Pruitt

Doctoral Student University of Texas at Austin

Erin Greeter

Doctoral Student University of Texas at Austin

Saba Vlach

Doctoral Student University of Texas at Austin

Abstract

Cooperating teachers play a key role in the preparation of preservice teachers. However, these cooperating teachers seldom receive any kind of systematic preparation or

guidance in their role – in particular in the coaching of preservice teachers around practice. The goal of this research study was to develop a model for preparing cooperating teachers to coach preservice teachers in a teacher education program focused on literacy. This study was design-development based and employed qualitative research tools to examine the appropriation of the model. The participants were nine cooperating teachers enrolled in a master's program focused on mentoring, leadership and professional development in literacy and one part-time doctoral student (and full-time teacher) in Language and Literacy Studies. The findings revealed that teachers valued the coaching model and viewed it as substantially different from any coaching they had received or applied in the past. The researchers used the experiences of the cooperating teachers and preservice teachers to revise the model in planning for the next phase of research.

Two hundred years ago in the United States, an elementary teacher responsible for reading and writing instruction would have likely had no formal preparation beyond his or her own experiences as a student in an elementary school (Monaghan, 2005). Today, many elementary teachers have earned an undergraduate degree with a specialization in teaching with a graduate degree quite common (Roller, 2001). This narrative of progress in the professionalization of teaching is quite remarkable. However, this narrative may not be as ideal as it appears at first glance. The professionalization of teaching has brought with it a shift away from preparation in practice settings to preparation on university campuses where academic coursework has been positioned as foundational to preparation prior to entering practice settings. This distancing of preservice teacher preparation from practice settings continues to increase the challenges of transfer and relevance.

In the process of professionalization, the 'gap' between research and practice has been widened even further by the influence of separate institutional structures and demands. Efforts to bridge this distance by creating Lab Schools (as Dewey did in 1896 at the University of Chicago) or the establishment of Professional Development Schools (as with the Holmes group in the 1980s and 1990s) (The Holmes Group, 1986) were promising but have not been sustained on any broad scale. In the absence of these options, most teacher preparation programs rely on surrounding school districts as opportunities for the preservice teacher to 'apply' learning in practicum placements with cooperating teachers.

This divide between academic and practicum experiences is not a promising one for teacher education programs that are directed toward the preparation of literacy educators for changing schools and a changing society (Hoffman, Wetzel & Peterson, 2010). Research is clear in revealing that practicum experiences are the greatest source of influence on teacher learning and tend to

overwhelm the theoretical perspectives explored in academic contexts (Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Hobson, 2002; Stanulis, 1995). However, the practicum experiences, without articulation to the academic, tend to perpetuate the traditional forms of practice shaped by the forces of “apprenticeship of observation” (Lortie, 1975). Often, the translation of the academic to the practical falls on the shoulders of the cooperating teachers who are responsible for the day-to-day guidance of practicum experiences in their classrooms. Clearly, there is a need for better articulation and collaboration between these two contexts.

Our review of the literature on the preparation of cooperating teachers to mentor and coach preservice teachers suggests there has been minimal attention to the critical role cooperating teachers’ play in academic and practicum experiences (Hoffman et al., 2013). The majority of cooperating teachers, responsible for guiding the practicum experiences, have little or no formal preparation in mentoring or coaching (Bradbury & Koballa, 2008; Dunne & Bennett, 1997; Gardiner, 2009; Koerner, 1992; Lemma, 1993). In the absence of any preparation, teachers tend to mentor the way they have been mentored (Hawkey, 1998). Without a model to guide them, cooperating teachers often provide a balance of correction and praise with a focus on the behavioral and routine dimensions of teaching (Akcan & Tatar, 2010; Ben-Peretz & Rumney, 1991; Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Crasborn et al., 2011; Douglas, 2011; Dunn & Taylor, 1993; Franke & Dahlgren, 1996; Wilkins-Canter, 1997; Williams et al., 1998).

We are conducting a multi-year study of preparing cooperating teachers to engage in mentoring and coaching practices in the area of literacy that are supportive of preservice teachers, aligned with the academic content and courses, and feature attention to the behavioral, cognitive, social and emotional demands of literacy instruction. We have constructed this research as design/development based. Our research plan is to focus first on the development of the mentoring and coaching model with a small number of teachers; second, to expand the model to apply across the entire teacher education program (scaling-up); and third, to study the effects of the model in supporting transition into and through the first years of teaching (efficacy trials). In this report, we focus on our work and findings in the first phase – extended over a one-year period – in the development of the coaching model. This report is organized around the following sections: a general description of our research methods; a description of the characteristics of the model as we began our research; a description of the participants, the data sources, and the data analysis; and a report of the findings with specific attention to revisions in the model.

DESIGN/DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH METHODS: THE STUDY OF COMPLEX SYSTEMS

Design/development research has received a great deal of attention in recent years as a useful tool for the study of practice across many professions (Akker, Gravemeijer, McKenney, & Nieveen, 2006). There has been increased attention in recent years to this model for research in literacy (e.g., Brine & Franken, 2006; Brayko, 2013; Fisher, 2012; Grossman, Smagorinsky, & Valencia, 1999; Gutiérrez, Baquedano-Lopez, & Tajeda, 1999; Reinking & Bradley, 2008). Design/development studies frequently use a combination of qualitative (interpretive) and quantitative (post-positive) research methods and tools as suited to the issues under consideration (Mertens, 2010). In the research sequence, baseline practices are examined, innovations are introduced, effects are monitored, and the iterative cycle is repeated with modified or new innovations as long as the process or product continues to improve in quality. Design/development studies tend to be continuous and commonly feature shifts in direction and foci.

Given our design/development framework, our research is directed toward a goal rather than toward specific research questions. Our goal was to develop a model for mentoring and coaching that challenges the traditional evaluative model by bringing into better alignment the cooperative efforts of university-based and school-based literacy teacher education.

MENTORING AND THE COACHING WITH CARE MODEL

Our model for coaching draws on several different theorists who have written directly or indirectly regarding coaching: from Dewey (1910) and his views on experience and thinking; from Schön (1983) on his model for reflection in and on action; from Joyce and Showers (1982) on models of coaching; from Costa, Garmston, Anderson, and Glickman (2002) on cognitive coaching; from Freire's (1970) critical approach to literacy pedagogy; from Duffy (2005) on thoughtfully adaptive teaching; from Lave and Wenger (1991) on theoretical perspectives and research focused on situated learning; from Collins, Brown, and Newman (1989) on cognitive apprenticeship; from Wenger (1998) on communities of practice; from Noddings (2003) on her work on the ethic of care; from Engeström (2001) on his work in expansive learning in activity systems; and from Dozier (2006) on responsive literacy coaching. Our consideration of the work of these theorists has led us to identify four principles that appear to be central to becoming independent in learning through experience – the main objective in working with a preservice teacher.

- C.** A critical, conscious examination of professional beliefs and practices is central to the work of coaches. This critical examination extends to raising consciousness about the oppressive constraints that surround teaching today (including schools, districts, state systems, federal policies) and how these can be addressed through dialogue and action.
- A.** Appreciative stances towards mentees, colleagues and students should dominate our discourse, decision-making, and our literacy curriculum. Deficit talk that can dominate thinking, often driven by checklists and learning objectives, takes focus away from building on students' strengths.
- R.** Reflection is essential to growth. Reflection is a complex process that teachers engage in as they learn and grow through practice. Reflection is more than just jotting down a response to an experience but a critical process of analysis and synthesis toward insight and change that is ongoing.
- E.** Experiential learning that challenges the 'known' is at the heart of the model – whether in the form of observation or hands on 'doing.' These are not imitations or simulations of teaching but real teaching that matter for the learners and are genuine to the context.

These four principles are nested inside of a Coaching with CARE Model. Here we draw on Nodding's (2003) notions of caring as a reciprocal act of connection that affects everyone in the interaction. Caring is behavioral, social and emotional.

We initially organized the model based on some of the classical work in clinical supervision (e.g., Goldhammer, Anderson & Krajewski, 1969) around a pre-conference, observation and post-conference cycle. While we recognized that there was little 'new' in the model based on the conceptual and theoretical literature we fully expected that this model of coaching was something that the cooperating teachers had never used before and in many ways would contradict past experiences, presumed values and current practices.

SETTING AND PARTICIPANTS

The initial focus participants for this study were nine elementary teachers enrolled in a master's degree program focused on Mentoring, Leadership, and Professional Development in literacy and one part-time doctoral student (and full-time teacher) in Language and Literacy Studies. All but two of these teachers

worked in schools that served low-income, Latino communities. All but one of the teachers had worked previously with preservice teachers.

All of these cooperating teachers (hereafter, CTs) participated in a summer institute focused on the teaching of reading and writing. This institute had a substantial practicum experience working with elementary students. Following the completion of the summer program, each of the teachers was paired with a preservice teacher from the literacy specialization program. The preservice teachers (hereafter, PTs) were placed in the classroom full-time for the first two weeks of school and then for two full days each week for the rest of the fall semester. The second semester (spring) the PTs remained in the same classroom for 12 weeks of full-time student teaching.

During the fall semester, the CTs were enrolled in a graduate course focused on coaching and mentoring. The course content included readings and discussion of the literature on mentoring and coaching and the introduction and explication of the CARE model. The general progression for the course began with a consideration of the broader construct of mentoring and the central role of building relationships as key to creating a safe and trusting context where the risk-taking necessary for learning could be exercised. Next, the course focused on the examination of the CTs' own literacy teaching practices. The CTs moved into an observation cycle focused on literacy instruction with their PTs watching them teach. Finally, we introduced the Coaching with CARE Model. Each of the CTs video recorded three coaching sessions with their PTs using the three part-cycles of coaching (pre-conference; observation; and post-conference) and the CARE model. We allowed for these coaching sessions to focus across content areas, and 76% of the videos were focused on literacy teaching. These videos were brought into class sessions for the group to observe and discuss, giving attention to the use of the model.

During the second semester, the CTs enrolled in a second course in their program focused on classroom discourse and teacher research. Three sets of observations were repeated during this student teaching semester using the coaching cycle, and about half were focused on literacy teaching. The CTs used the tools of discourse analysis to analyze their work with their PTs.

DATA SOURCES AND ANALYSIS

We conducted (and transcribed) interviews with all CTs before the start of the study, at mid-term, and at the end of the year. In addition to the data from the CTs, we interviewed the PTs at the mid-point of the first year in focus groups and then individually at the end of their student teaching year. Field notes were taken during course sessions when videos were presented and discussed.

The data sources were coded for the following: statements about coaching and mentoring, statements that described the relationship with the PT, statements that related to things the CT was trying in his or her mentoring or teaching, descriptions of their thinking or learning about coaching and mentoring, and tensions identified by the CT. We then compiled large data charts with excerpts of data organized by data source. Using a constant comparative method (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) including open and axial coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1990), we generated lists of themes that were emerging from the data, including lists of tensions in the mentoring/coaching of the PT, and lists of themes in the PT interviews. We used those lists to develop the interview questions for the final (May and June) interviews of the PTs and CTs, which also served as member checks of our themes. Then we returned to the data after transcribing the final interviews. We read through the data corpus again with the list of themes and wrote memos about confirming or disconfirming evidence. Finally, we conducted a constant-comparative analysis across cases and developed categories that encompassed the themes that were present across cases.

FINDINGS

The findings we report relate both to the testing of the model in practice and to the resulting modifications of the model. We first describe seven initial findings related to the ways in which our cooperating teachers and preservice teachers understood, responded to, and took up the Coaching with CARE Model. In the second section of findings, we describe the changes made in the model and the support structure moving into work with the second set of CTs and PTs starting in Year Two.

The CTs responded to the Coaching with CARE Model in varying ways. These teachers' responses and our experiences learning with them led to changes in our model. Our analysis generated seven initial findings related to teachers' responses:

First, all of the teachers concurred that the model was substantially different from anything they had ever experienced personally (in being coached) or had ever used themselves in prior work with preservice teachers. Several of the teachers contrasted this approach with the heavy-handed, fidelity orientation they had experienced in the implementation of Reading First under the *No Child Left Behind Act* of 2001. All of the teachers struggled with abandoning the use of praise in favor of feedback that focused on the responses of the students being taught. All of the teachers struggled with holding back on telling the PTs what they could or should have done in certain situations. In addition, the

Coaching with CARE Model asked the CTs to look critically at the use of praise and emotional support in their coaching. Previously, many of the CTs saw the coach's role as cheerleading for the PT when teaching was challenging. Praise and positive affirmation came easily, but critical care, in which there is collaborative work towards reflection, was harder to accomplish. One CT, Leslie, reflected on coaching experiences early in the year:

Especially when you're in that moment with them coaching them and they could be really frustrated or down on themselves, you need to be the 'calmer'. Say a joke and make it a little bit better. I think that's where I'm stronger as a coach. (Final interview, June 2013)

To move away from a role of evaluator, and towards a collaborative and reflective position as a coach, was very difficult for many of the CTs.

Second, the process of taking up the model was characterized initially by mechanical efforts (e.g., drawing often on hand-written notes with lists of questions) to guide the conversations. Jane, one of our most experienced mentors coming into the program, found herself limited by her own "script" in a pre-conference:

I feel like it [the pre-conference] was too abbreviated. I feel like I could have done more to make her think and challenge her. I don't feel like I did that really. I feel like she did exactly as I did, which is the modeling, and I'm glad I provided her that. But basically, I think she was spitting out exactly what I gave her. I don't really feel like I did enough to make her really think. (Course field notes, October 2012)

Gradually, the teachers reached a level of routine with the process and became more responsive in their interactions (e.g., Jane said, "I found that I could listen to what Stephanie is saying and not just be thinking about what I am going to do or say next") (Course field notes, March 2013).

Third, viewing the video recordings and discussing them as a group was the single most influential experience in the program. These sessions were instrumental in building a learning community among the CTs in the Master's program. Almost all of the teachers agreed that discussing their own videos and those of their classmates was a source of insight into the challenges they were facing and a context for problem solving. Lanie, one CT, reflected in her final interview:

I loved being with Jane [another CT]. I just really like the way she does things and the ways she talks about kids and teaching. And I feel like I've

learned a lot from her and in discussions with her. So I kind of always tried to be with her in a group but. . . Vivian, another CT, there's a video of her that I remember having a conversation about that I think was really helpful to me." (Final interview, June 2013)

Fourth, all of the teachers found the model to be much more powerful in supporting growth than the traditional models they had relied on in the past. They commented on the ways in which the PTs were taking up reflection as a learning tool and becoming more confident in their abilities to solve challenges they faced. Jane reflected on her PT and how she showed she was reflective in her teaching:

She's very reflective and spends the time to, you know, prepare and get things ready for her kids, but also prepare and get herself ready for the kids. I think that's one of the big differences in Stephanie is that it's not always getting them ready, it's just she readies herself to be their teacher. And you know, she knows that she needs to talk slower with some, she knows that she needs to come by and do a drive-by touch. She just is very intuitive in that way, well she watches everything. (Final interview, May 2013)

Fifth, the points of impact of the shift in coaching tended to be most evident in the discourse patterns around teaching experiences. The talk, in the post-conferences in particular, tended to move away from an evaluation of the PT's performance and toward a careful consideration of the responses of the students. The discourse became more 'appreciative' and less evaluative. There was a general shift toward 'we' in the conversations around practice between the CTs and the PTs. Landon, a CT, reflected:

So that was the biggest thing that I walked away with from the semester. There are other ways and in teaching, changing my language so that it is always "we we" "us us." The kids need this, so what can we do? That was the biggest change. I think I always kept them as all my past student teachers as we're in this together and I want you to feel a part of the team. I think this year I made it very specific that we are the. . . We had a bulletin board with both our names at the top. We are together. (Final interview, June 2013)

Romy, another CT, talked about the shared values of "culturally relevant" and "socially just teaching" in her work with her PT, Amber, and how these were

appreciative. She remarked, “Those conversations that we were able to have, I think those were critical moments in the relationship” (Final interview, June 2013). The discussions of practice evolved from bulleted points of observed strengths and weaknesses to extended problem solving around complex issues of teaching and learning. There was a sense (both in the amount of talking and in the control over topic shifts) that the PTs were taking more and more control over the conferences.

Sixth, all but one of the PTs expressed a positive value for the coaching approach taken by their CT. Melanie, who worked with Lanie, reflected on the influence of being mentored:

[She was] asking me to be reflective, like, talking things out. Like what are you thinking? How do you think you did? As opposed to telling me what went wrong. If it came from me, it was much more natural, and it was more helpful for me to be able to talk things out with someone was very helpful. Like she can point out the good that came, when sometimes all you're seeing is the bad.” (Final interview, May 2013)

The dissenting PT wanted her CT to spend more time telling her what she should do or what she had done right or wrong.

I just didn't get a lot of feedback. . . And I felt like, she's a great friend, but I'm kind of worried. I kind of got more worried when I would hear other people talk or saw what they were doing and I was like, 'Oh man, I'm not there. I'm not up to par.' I just felt really insecure and worried about like, not learning. I just wasn't, as much as our relationship was great . . . like thinking about a young teacher, like she's still in the midst of figuring things out and then going to school. I felt like maybe she wasn't as invested in me as her mentee as other people. . . I just felt like, 'Whoa! I need a lot of guidance.' and. . . I just thought about what kind of learner I was in middle school and I really benefited a lot from the teachers who gave me a lot of feedback and really investigated how I thought. So, that's just the type of learner I am. (Final Interview, May 2013)

She interpreted her CT's focus on her reflections around practice as a sign of weakness in the CT's teaching.

Seventh, there is some evidence of the CTs' growth in ability to 'direct' conversations, as needed, toward critical topics for discussion using data they had

gathered during the observations. Initially, the CTs felt that the Coaching with CARE Model prohibited them from ‘directing’ the conversation; but over time, they found that within the model, they still had reasoned ways of directing. They found that through the art of dialogue each participant could guide the conversation in meaningful and relevant directions. The following is an example of two CTs, Roger and Tamara, discussing the dilemma of when, and how, to follow the lead of the PT as opposed to directing the conversation.

Tamara: . . . Like can you go there and let them talk it out and figure it out, what they want to bring to the table, or are there things you need to bring up? You have to find that balance and decide during that time whether you should have an agenda or things you want to discuss, or put it in their hands and they can bring up what they want to talk about.

Roger: I think we need to do both, because as they become more reflective they’re bringing the things that we initially started bringing up on their own, and that’s becoming some of the questions that they’re asking themselves when they’re thinking and they’re planning. . . . But you know, we’ve been doing this longer than they have, we have more experience, so we have different ways of thinking about it, and bringing those different ways of thinking about it and different things to look for that they might not be fully aware of yet. . . . (Course field notes, March 2013)

Here, Roger emphasizes his own realization that although PTs will raise topics for reflection that are appropriate to where they are as teachers, his experience affords him the tools to guide conversations as well.

As we consider these findings in relation to the literature on the coaching of preservice teachers we see several significant contributions. With support, teachers can adopt coaching strategies that are different from the ones that they have experienced themselves. The support of a community of practice is significant in promoting the use of these strategies.

REVISIONS TO THE MODEL

Over the course of the year, as they encountered challenges, the CTs made revisions to the model in their own practice, which in turn has led to several major changes to our conceptual model of Coaching with CARE. In describing the major changes, we will begin with a discussion of the tension or frustration and then the response made.

Directing vs. Directive. The literature on models of coaching has no standard terminology. Reflective coaching is sometimes described as “responsive.” “Directive” coaching is positioned as the opposite of reflective or responsive coaching (Ippolito, 2010). To help clarify this matter, we created a chart to describe the elements of the coaching model that set up a contrast between the critical, appreciative, reflective coaching in the CARE model with a more traditional, evaluative coaching for fidelity (Table 1). The Evaluative model for coaching is rooted in a technical view of teaching that emphasizes performance and execution. The roots of this evaluative model are found in the scientific management literature and the competency-based teacher education movement (Arends, Elmes & Masla, 1972; Houston & Howsman, 1972).

TABLE 1 Contrasts and Similarities between Evaluative and Coaching with CARE Model

Area	Evaluative	CARE	Comment
Setting	Both models of coaching are centered on professional development that occurs in the authentic context of practicing teachers working with K-12 students around a curriculum in school settings. The majority of time is focused on authentic teaching and learning.	The setting for both types of coaching is quite similar.	
Goals (intended outcomes)	Compliance to (or movement toward) a model or standard.	A habit of learning through practice using reflection as a professional responsibility.	Compliance is a strong word but fits the evaluative stance.
Relationships	There are explicit or implied lines of authority and expertise in the relationship.	While there may be different levels of expertise represented in the relationship, the coaching experience emphasizes mutual growth.	The Reflective model attempts to draw on the building relationship of trust that is necessary as part of the mentoring and coaching processes.

Coaching Strategies	Modeling, telling, judging, shaping, correcting, rewarding	Observing; Trying-Out/ Trying on; Reflecting (for, into, in and on Practice)	Grossman and McDonalds' (2008) Representations, Deconstructions, and Approximations model at work in Reflective coaching.
Teaching Practices Orientation to practice	A focus on behaviors and products.	A focus on activity as theoretical and practical and the underlying cognitions, motivations, and emotions that shape them. A focus on process and principles of critical pedagogy.	Activity and work are key in Reflective coaching (not isolated behaviors) and always the challenge of revealing the hidden inside of practice.
View on curriculum	Curriculum decisions are not a part of a teacher's decision-making responsibility.	Curriculum and Teaching are viewed as important domains for teacher decision-making.	Responsive teaching must be open to consideration of both what is taught and how it is taught.
Stance	Deficit: what's missing and filling in.	Appreciative: what's there to build on.	Building on the known.
Indicators of success (how it is determined in teaching)	Teacher performance	Student engagement and learning	The roots of Reflective and thoughtfully adaptive teaching are in reference to learners.

(Continued)

TABLE 1 Contrasts and Similarities between Evaluative and Coaching with CARE Model (*Continued*)

Area	Evaluative	CARE	Comment
Tensions	Evaluative Coaching tends toward induction into the norms of practice. The tensions are mostly associated with performance and management. The expected routines and targeted behaviors are familiar to the individual being coached and mostly require changes that help fit in.	Reflective Coaching tends to introduce shifts in teacher/ learner roles, subverts the traditional views of curriculum and learning. Tensions arise not only within the individual who is being coached but also between how the person is being coached and the system that surrounds them. These tensions often lead to growth for both the CT and the PT as part of the experience.	The emotional work of coaching must be attended to and this cycles back to the need for caring for the relationship. Building the relationship is not just at the beginning.

This differentiation between reflective and evaluative models helped all of us in opening up to the possibility of being ‘directing’ without being directive in the Coaching with CARE model. We stressed the importance of the CT coming into the post-conference with a ‘road map’ that would provide different paths for the CT to engage the PT in conversations around practice that may not come out in reflection (e.g., by relating conversations the CT had with the PT during or after the observation). This contrast seemed to help the CTs in becoming more active and purposeful in their interactions.

Observing as Input. We revised the observation cycle as a result of our early experiences with the model. The observation of the CT by the PT had been a part of the plan from the start – but mostly we had considered these kinds of observations as occurring early in the field experience and disconnected from the observation cycle the PT would use with the CT. What we had not taken

advantage of was the possibility of role reversal in the cycle. Under the revised observation cycle, we inserted the same three conferences, but during the observation cycle the teacher was not only modeling her teaching, but also the reflective processes around the teaching. We also adjusted the model again to include returns to the observation cycle later in the year. This proved to be particularly powerful modification, in ways we had not anticipated, late in the year when PTs stepped back into the role of observing the CT teaching. The insights and conversations became deeper and more collegial than at the start of the year.

Reflecting for Practice. We began with a three-part cycle drawing on Schön's (1983) model for reflection. The pre-conference was seen as "reflecting into" practice. The PT would share his/her vision of the lesson, as it was about to unfold. "Reflecting in" practice referred to the adjustments the PT made within the lesson in response to the students during implementation. The CT explored "Reflecting in" practice with probes like: "Did you make any changes in your plan? Did anything surprise you? What did you do? What choices did you consider?" Schön's (1983) "reflecting on practice" was the focus in the post-conferences with critical examination of the choices made that could be reconsidered. Here the CTs probed with the "What would you change?" kind of comment. It was here that we created a more formal place for "reflecting for practice." The CTs moved from the focus on the lesson just taught to future lessons. There was a natural transition for taking what the PT learned forward.

Reflecting Around Practice. One of the biggest discoveries in the analysis of the conversational data around coaching was the amount of 'coaching' that went on outside of the observation cycle. These tended to be very short conversations during a break, at lunch, or after school. Romy, one CT, spoke of the ways that their reflections about being "culturally responsive" and "social-justice oriented" occurred throughout the day:

I think she's really reflective and I think being culturally relevant kind of goes back to that, being social-justice oriented. I think our best conversations have come from those two commonalities, just because I think we both feel really strongly about either cultural relevance or social justice issues. And those weren't necessarily computed on video, it was usually talks we had on the side. (Final interview, June 2013)

These conversations could be lengthy or very brief and in some cases these conversations were mediated by a journal the PT kept and periodically shared. These conversations became 'coaching' in nature. Within the group we explored ways in which these kinds of conversations could be incorporated into our coaching plans.

THE COACHING WITH CARE MODEL – REVISED

The version we ended the year with and will start with the next year is displayed in Figure 1. The data gathered affirms that the direction we are headed offers a powerful support for the PTs learning, and the model we will begin the second cycle is improved over the one we used at the start of the project. We are also confident that the model will continue to grow through our continuing design/development research efforts.

Our next phase in this research will focus on three areas. First, we will examine the experiences of the first year of CTs as they move into their second year with a new PT. Second, we will also introduce the model to a new cohort of CTs and PTs. And third, in addition to the changes to the Coaching with CARE Model, we will work directly with the PTs in the model in the tutorial experiences leading up to and concurrent with placements in their classrooms. For example, PTs will use the CARE Model when coaching each other in their tutoring practicum experiences (Hoffman, Wetzel & Peterson, 2010). In these tutorials, one PT will assume the role of observer of sessions and debrief with the PT who was taking the lead in that session. The roles will alternate from one session to the next.

CONCLUSION

We have situated our research effort in the context of the professionalization of teaching over the past two hundred years and some of the challenges around the divide between academic preparation and practicum experiences. Our research works to better understand how to cultivate the learning that can happen in and through practice *within the context of university-based teacher education programs*,



Figure 1

Coaching with CARE in the Practice Cycle

which we see as the model with the most potential for high quality teacher education. Today, university-based models for teacher preparation are under attack. One line of attack, for example, is focused on the superficial examination of program quality based on the examination of syllabi (e.g., National Council on Teacher Quality [NCTQ], 2013). Another line of attack tends to focus on the promise of alternative certification programs that provide a quick path into teaching (Grossman & McDonald, 2008). Increasing numbers of teachers are being certified through alternative programs that rely on 'practice-based' teaching experiences as the path toward preparation with little or no attention to academic content.

While the rapid movement toward alternative programs of preparation is driven in large part by a political agenda, the proponents of this approach are taking advantage of some of the current shortcomings of university-based programs. We argue here that university-based teacher programs have the most potential to provide high quality teacher preparation that incorporates strong academic content along with theoretical and practice-based learning. Our research into the Coaching with CARE model is aligned with Knight et al.'s (2012) call for more practice-based research in teacher education and offers evidenced-based support that teacher education programs are building bridges between the academic and the practical in ways that provide strong and enduring support for new teachers.

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EMPOWER THE LEARNER: USING TRANSFORMATIVE PRACTICES TO CONSTRUCT CRITICAL THINKING PATHWAYS TO DISCIPLINARY READING

Tammy F. Donaldson
Del Mar College

Roberta S. Pate
Tarleton State University

Deborah W. Addison
Shreiner University

Tiana Z. McCoy
Texas A&M University- Corpus Christi

Abstract

This article discusses moving the theory of disciplinary/content area instruction into practice; thus, offering educators of preservice teachers various possibilities of incorporating transformative practice and critical thinking pathways into higher education. Transforming the instruction of disciplinary content, such as science, results in a deeper understanding of the content along with a self-pride of completed pieces of work in students' minds. When using multisensory techniques and active reading strategies such as transforming non-fiction text and using informational organizers, students' comprehension of disciplinary content and research improves. Many strategies have been introduced in the past and are now resurfacing into new critical thinking pathways for a new generation of learners (Bryce, 2011). When reading comprehension

strategies were applied to disciplinary reading, astounding products were submitted. Reflective journaling indicated students took more time to interpret the text by re-reading and reflecting in order to produce the various text transformations.

The importance of literacy integration and instruction in content courses continues to be a focus for educators (Alvermann & Wilson, 2011; Addison, Pate, & Donaldson, 2012; Cassidy & Grote-Garcia, 2012; Durkin, 1981; Hirsch & Hansel, 2013; Miller, 2013). Successful students who learn and employ reading skills can, in turn, improve their comprehension of any text, regardless of content or format, and it is vital that educators in all disciplines and varied levels of education continue to reinforce students' literacy skills. Reutzel and Cooter (2008) identified seven pillars of learning [reading] required for students' academic success: teacher knowledge, evidenced-based teaching practices, motivation and engagement, family and community connections, assessment, response to intervention, and technology and new literacies, with the most important factor in student learning [reading] being teacher knowledge. By incorporating all these instructional and behavioral practices into the classroom, the students are inspired and engaged in their learning. In the past, writings were seen as "a passage of print or a slice of speech, or an image" (Lankshear, 1997, p. 45), but today, text is much more than letters on a page; it is a multimodal experience.

In a study conducted by Cassidy and Grote-Garcia (2012), disciplinary/content area literacy was identified as a "hot" topic by a panel of experts in the field of literacy research and education. The results of the survey indicated that more than 50% of respondents agreed that disciplinary/content area literacy were topics that should stay in the forefront of literacy research, and disciplinary/content area literacy was identified as a "hotter" topic in 2012 than in the previous year (Cassidy & Grote-Garcia, 2012).

Educators have been engulfed in an environment of standardized testing, and the black-line masters and basal texts have surmounted their curriculum. With the creativity of teaching diminishing over the past decade, it is important to remember the reason for teaching: student success. Teachers are continuously discussing how to keep the students' best interest in mind while keeping in mind the mandates and pressures of standardized testing. With the implementation of Common Core State Standards (CCSSI, 2012) and continued emphasis placed on high stakes testing, it is a crucial time in education.

LITERACY IN SCIENCE EDUCATION

Scientific literacy is a term that has received global respect (McEneaney, 2003) with consensus that it sets the groundwork for many curriculum standards

(Dillon, 2009). The term scientific literacy was first coined in the late 1950s (Dillon, 2009), but over the past sixty years, many have argued that it has been ill-defined (Laugksch, 2000) and fear the longevity of the term is in jeopardy if it does not become an umbrella for completely different philosophies of science education (Dillon, 2009).

According to the Members of the Linne Scientific Literacy Symposium (2007), science education is uninteresting and focuses on abstract concepts while the curriculum and assessment are not aligned with the instructional needs of teachers in order to motivate and stimulate students about science. Science texts have also been described as complex with difficult vocabulary and abstract concepts (Sewall, 1988; Yager, 1983). With this in mind, it is not surprising that 69% of high school graduates failed to meet college science readiness benchmark, or more than one-third of 8th grade students scored below basic on the 2011 National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) Science assessment (Next Generation Science Standards, 2013). The Common Core State Standards (2012) have integrated reading in science in grades K-5 while grades 6-8, 9-10, and 11-12 have distinct standards. Casteel and Isom (1994) found that there was an increase in student motivation when literature was used as a method of instruction in science education. Similar findings were revealed when Armstrong (2003) found that students have an increase in learning opportunities when teachers use a multimodal approach to reading science textbooks and an increase in learning when authentic literacy projects were created. Making connections, questioning, summarizing, and imagery are also comprehension strategies that have been proven to provide increased learning in science education (Pressley, Johnson, Symons, McGoldrick, & Kurikta, 1989).

READING COMPLEX INFORMATIONAL TEXT

Informational texts are challenging for students (Ehrenworth, 2013; Frey & Fisher, 2013; Hirsch & Hansel, 2013; Miller, 2013; Shanahan, 2013). Informational texts use sentence structures that are quite different from narrative text and spoken language (Frey & Fisher, 2013). The sentence structures are much more complex, and the content is difficult. Frey and Fisher (2013) offer four access points to help students enter complex informational text and make their way through it with an understanding of what they read: (a) establishing purpose, (b) close reading, (c) collaborative conversations, and (d) wide reading. According to Frey and Fisher (2013), “close reading instruction is the systematic practice of analyzing a text to gain deep comprehension” (p. 36). By using multisensory manipulation, which primarily involves students interacting with the text, teachers engage students in close reading and promote comprehension of complex text.

Effective reading and comprehension instruction of informational text is crucial to students' understanding of what are they are reading. Therefore, teachers are encouraged to use multisensory, multimodal approaches in their lesson plans and instruction. This means incorporating the four elements of multisensory instruction and tapping into the multiple modalities: visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile while guiding students through the six reading strategies and encouraging them to visualize, predict, clarify, connect, question, and evaluate text.

One multisensory, multimodal strategy for disciplinary reading is having students “sketch through the text” (Daniels & Steineke, 2011, p. 50). This strategy encourages students to interact with the text by having them to stop, think, and react to the text and big ideas during reading. Unlike conceptual annotations (as also suggested by Daniels and Steineke, 2011) where students write their thoughts, “sketching through the text” ask students to illustrate their thoughts, ideas, and questions in the margins while reading. This taps into the visual and kinesthetic. These drawings (visualizations) are meant to help jog their memory and spark conversations – auditory. The drawings do not have to be artistic masterpieces but quick sketches. The drawings can contain a few words, but these words should not be the focus. The words should only enhance the drawing (Daniels & Steineke, 2011).

Drawing activates a different part of the brain than does writing (Daniels & Steineke, 2011). It also forces students to visualize what they are reading and think critically about the content of the text. Students must make some decisions about what to highlight from the text through their illustrations, which will get them to hone in on the main ideas and supporting details and the confusing points or places of questions in the text for clarification. When students share their drawings (thoughts, ideas, and questions), the collaborative conversations about the text and course content become more meaningful (Allyn, 2012). Students who normally sit on the sideline of discussion become engaged and start succeeding. An additional bonus and an element of multisensory instruction has not been addressed – tactile. The application of the reading and course content would then involve more concrete instruction and provision to hands-on manipulation between product and content.

ENHANCE COMPREHENSION THROUGH TEXT TRANSFORMATION

Text transformation, as defined in a report prepared by Strangman and Hall (2003) for the National Center on Accessing the General Curriculum, is “a broad

classification inclusive of text modifications and innovative technology tools that alter or add to the features of printed text” (p. 2). However, Strangman and Hall (2003) reveal this type of transformation as modifications via enlarged print, simplified language, teacher or technology assisted reading, or technology duplication of text through such software as speech recognition software, word processors, and prediction software. Strangman and Hall reviewed research which provided strong evidence in several areas where text transformation enhanced skills and comprehension among the subjects even though the samples were small or short lived. Feathers (1993) described text transformation as synonymous to text reformulation, or story recycling. Lesesne’s (2006) adapted version of “Genre Exchange” from Beers’ (2003) text, *When Kids Can’t Read: What Teachers Can Do*, has been received with success for “all ages and levels of kids” (p. 76). Through the text transformation concept, students demonstrate their levels of comprehension by rewriting, or reformulating, the assigned material into another genre. This “genre exchange” could be through, but not limited to, a journal entry, a poem, a song, a book jacket, news update, an acrostic, menu, or interactive PowerPoint presentation. By transforming texts into a different genre, students are required to not only take note of the content, but to also evaluate the text for important details, summarize, and make inferences. In addition to increasing comprehension, text transformation increases personal creativity, thus promoting another way to increase and stretch critical thinking in the individual student.

Another way for teachers to promote comprehension and critical thinking about informational text is to guide students through a genre exchange or text reformulation. The use of this strategy requires an introduction to various texts that can be used as models or templates toward the creation of the student’s original transformation. The instructor models several types of reformulations such as an expository text into a pattern book much like *The House that Jack Built*. After the students have reformulated a text, they can present their creative works to their peers. This form of writing or creation for comprehension promotes the social acts of reading and writing, reciprocal in nature, as students share their products. Glenn (2007) argues that having students write to respond and reflect on what they get from the text clearly supports comprehension, giving students an opportunity to focus on what they derive from a text. While there may be similarities, each “generally produces a unique creation” (Lesesne, 2006, p. 76).

Figure 1 provides an example of a newsletter that had been transformed from an assigned article reading, improving reading in a middle school science classroom (Radcliffe, Caverly, Hand, & Franke, 2008). For this example, pre-service teachers were asked to choose between two articles, read the chosen ar-

ticle, and reflect upon the content. The students' purpose for reading was to summarize the article and identify the need for reading strategies within the science content area as well as identify an instructional reading strategy and re-implement within their own instructional repertoire.

Additional "genre exchanges" from this particular assignment included poems, acrostics, ABC books, graphic novels, crossword puzzles, top ten list (as portrayed by David Letterman), and songs. Students presented their reformulated texts to their peers and reflective comments were posted as to what the other students thought and gained from the product posted. One student commented how it allowed her to be creative:

I really like the idea of Text Transformation. It would be really nice to incorporate a non-fiction text so students would have to pay more

YOUR CLASSROOM NEWSLETTER
Volume 1 / Issue 1

WHY IS THERE NEED FOR IMPROVEMENT?

- Students get a good start on learning to read but as they move up through grades their reading lessons begin to falter.
- Textbooks perform a poor job of following basic principles for concept learning.
- The text confuses students because it uses unfamiliar words and presents a challenging structure.

IMPROVING READING IN A MIDDLE SCHOOL SCIENCE CLASSROOM

There are many strategies for teachers to use but studies have shown that not many teachers actually use them in their classroom. In looking for a popular new strategy specific to science study-reading with textbooks PLAN is recommended. It has been proven to work effectively with middle school students. It relates the text to prior knowledge, questioning, summarizing, imagery, and setting a purpose for reading.

Q: Is PLAN effective in helping middle school students learn science?
A: Findings support the effectiveness of PLAN by statistical analysis of students' comprehension test scores, reading checklist, and pre- and poststudy questionnaires.

Q: How do students perceive their use of the strategy?
A: Students enjoyed doing their work using the PLAN strategy. By the end of it their perception had changed. They were no longer saying "I can't" and saying "I can".

"Every teacher has the knowledge and skills to integrate reading instruction across the curriculum, and content area teachers provide reading instruction with their area."

— Article pg. 1


DESCRIPTION OF STEPS IN PLAN

P - Plan - Predict content and structure of the text before reading. Students create a probable map based on text title, subtitles, and graphics.

L - Locate - Locate on the map the known and unknown information before reading students place checkmarks by known information and list question marks by unknown information.

A - Add - Add words and phrases to the map during reading. Students add notes that explain unknowns and that confirm known information.

N - Note - Take Notes of new understanding. After reading, students may change the map, reproduce it, map, or discuss the map.



SCIENCE ROCKS!

Figure 1

An example of a newsletter that has been transformed from an assigned journal article. For this example, future classroom teachers were asked to read the article, *Improving reading in a middle school science classroom* (Radcliffe, Caverly, Hand, & Franke, 2008). The assignment directives were to summarize the article and create a genre exchange to share among peers.

attention. I feel that the ultimate test of knowledge is being able to re-teach something you learned. This is kind of what this strategy is about. The students may have to read multiple times, but in doing this strategy, they demonstrate to you that they comprehended the content. In my classroom, I would have them read a welding journal informational text and have them transform that. There are a million possibilities that you could do with that. In fact my mind is processing how that could easily be done as a recipe. It would be the ultimate indication of comprehension (B. Phillips, personal communication, October 2013).

Text transformation, as reviewed by Addison, Pate, and Donaldson (2012), revealed that:

Using this technique at the university level allowed students to experience the possibilities to come in their own future classrooms. Students also formulated the ideal that this strategy can be used at any grade level and for any content, thus making text transformations a reading strategy that can be considered timeless. (p. 44)

Roessing (2009) has stated in order for students to further comprehend text, they must “return to the text and interact with it to become skilled and reflective readers” (p. 108). Thus, the students’ comments noting the need to re-read or provide more thought over the text promoted more reflection and connection to the text than a one-time perusal of the text or even that of note-taking. The addition of the student’s knowledge to present the newly transformed or reformulated text added a deeper level of intent toward comprehension and a slice of competition to create a unique product.

Lesesne (2006) documents pop-up versions as popularity among adolescent learners. She states, “This variation has one additional bonus: students can apply the mechanics of making pop-ups to reports they write for other classes” (p. 77). Therefore, text transformation, or genre exchange, provides a critical venue toward comprehension.

DEEP COMPREHENSION USING INFORMATIONAL ORGANIZERS

Graphic organizers are one way for students to reflect and organize the main ideas and supporting details from informational texts. They come in many forms and are used in many content areas to promote active learning and reading for

students. A simple Google search on graphic organizers reveals over forty-seven million results in a twenty-nine second search. A search with Bing.com revealed over nine million results in one second. There are many organizers available and resources, both online and in print for all teachers of all subjects to use with every student. All teachers, from pre-service to veteran teachers, have access to resources containing types of graphic organizers to activate student learning and experiences for a richer educational experience and promote deep comprehension of informational texts.

Teachers have the ability to modify organizers of this type to meet the needs of diverse students in their classrooms. Hall, Kent, McCulley, Davis, and Wanzek (2013) insist that graphic organizers are a good way to teach students how to begin their organization of information, allowing teachers to gradually relinquish the insistence of particular forms. This will allow students the opportunity to create their own, giving them more power in their learning. There is no one correct way for students to use organizers which is one reason Dinah Zike's three dimensional organizers have become an effective way for students to create their own forms of informational organizers. Zike (1992) created and promoted manipulatives through a series of folds and cuts and glue, empowering students to see the information the best way for each student to learn and grow in education. She argues that while children are "bombarded with words during their formative years (birth to twelve years) . . .it is the words that are demonstrated through actions that form the child" (p. 4).

Active learning is essential for the text-to-text, text-to-self, and text-to-world to enrich students' experiences in the classroom. ". . .[W]hen students read a text with an appropriate graphic organizer in mind, they focus on important ideas and relationships. And when they construct their own graphic organizers, they become actively involved in outlining those ideas and relationships" (Vacca, Vacca, & Mraz, 2011, p. 325). They are able to take what they learn, combine it with their prior knowledge and past life experiences to create a newer, stronger relationship to what they learn.

TRANSFORMING READING INSTRUCTION OF INFORMATIONAL TEXT

Science texts are complex with unfamiliar sentence structures, difficult vocabulary, and abstract concepts (Frey & Fisher, 2013; Sewall, 1988; Yager, 1983). They require teachers to incorporate multisensory instruction that includes both multimodal approaches and active reading strategies to encourage interaction with the text. Through multiple modalities, text transformations and graphic

organizers, students can empower themselves with their learning, making life experiences stronger and more meaningful (Addison, Pate, & Donaldson, 2012).

The use of creativity and multiple literacy strategies within the content areas not only capture student engagement but provide pathways to critical thinking and internalization of the content. Skilled and knowledgeable teachers can regain professional innovation which leads to student success and the minimization of black-line masters or worksheets that only promote low-level cognitive thinking.

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INVESTIGATING ATTITUDES OF SECONDARY PRESERVICE TEACHERS REGARDING TEACHING CONTENT AREA LITERACY STRATEGIES (CALs) AND THEIR ATTITUDE DIFFERENCES BY ACADEMIC MAJORS

Kay Hongnam

Texas A&M University-Commerce

Susan Szabo

Texas A&M University-Commerce

Abstract

This study investigated secondary preservice teachers' attitudes toward teaching content area literacy strategies (CALs) and to see if there were any differences in attitudes by content area majors using the Scale to Measure Attitudes toward Teaching Reading in Content Classrooms (Vaughan, 1997). The results showed that the secondary preservice teachers' attitudes positively changed over the 16-week semester although the change was not statistically significant. In addition, the preservice teachers who were grouped as "Other" reported more change in their attitudes than preservice teachers in other major fields.

To be effective in the classroom, secondary teachers need a wide range of knowledge and skills about content, pedagogy, and adolescent

development (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005). Research reports consistently show a required content reading course helps preservice content teachers gain awareness of the need and the preparation for teaching reading skills to their students (Fisher & Ivey, 2005; Hong-Nam & Swanson, 2011; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008; Szabo, Linek, Sampson & Raine, 2012). Furthermore, secondary content teachers are the best people to teach reading skills that are unique to their discipline (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008; Jackson & Cunningham, 1994). This is important, as many secondary students enter high school with some type of reading problem (Wise, 2009). However, despite the effort to improve secondary teachers' opinion of teaching reading in their content area classroom, their resistance to change still exists (McCoss-Yergian & Krepps, 2010; Nourie & Lenski, 1998; Siebert & Draper, 2008).

To help lay a foundation for change, many secondary teacher education program requirements include a content area reading course. This specific type of literacy course is designed "to help content area teachers see the benefits of incorporating reading instruction in their classrooms" (Hall, 2005, p. 404). Reading instruction in the content areas involves using literacy as a tool for learning content material while building students' literacy skills (Alvermann & Phelps, 2004; Stephens & Brown, 2000; Topping & McManus, 2002). However, research has found that only one required content reading course may help secondary preservice content teachers gain awareness of the need and the preparation for teaching reading skills to students, but it is not enough to give the students confidence to incorporate reading skills into content coursework (Alger, 2009; Stieglitz, 1983).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

In an effort to increase the awareness of the need for content literacy instruction in secondary content classrooms, this study examined the attitudes of secondary preservice content teachers about teaching reading skills in content area classrooms. It also looked at if and how their attitudes changed over the semester while taking a content literacy course. Additionally the study examined the differences in attitude changes by specific content majors. This is important, as understanding preservice teacher's attitudes toward content area literacy instruction is the first step to improving their understanding of effective content teaching. Therefore, this study was designed to answer the following research questions:

1. What are secondary preservice teachers' attitudes toward implementing content area literacy strategies (CALs) in content area classrooms, and how do their attitudes change over the course of semester?

2. Do academic majors impact the secondary preservice teachers' attitudes, and what are the differences in attitude changes between academic majors?

METHOD

Participants

The participants of this study were 142 secondary preservice teachers enrolled in content area reading courses at a university in the southwest United States. The participants consisted of 56 males (39%) and 86 females (61%) who ranged in age from 19 to 61 with mean age of 25.1 years. They were comprised of 16 sophomores (11%), 66 juniors (47%), and 60 seniors (42%). These students indicated the following disciplinary majors on a questionnaire: 27 Mathematics (19%), 14 Science (10%), 8 Physical Education/Health (6%), 19 English/Language (13%), 19 Music/Arts/Theater Arts (13%), and 55 "Other" (39%). The students who marked "Other" were asked to write in their major, but the majority of the students did not, so we do not know the content areas of students that marked "Other" on the demographic form. Among the participants, 116 were Caucasian (82%), 12 were Hispanic (8%), 10 were African American (7%), 3 were Native American (2%), and 1 was Asian (1%).

Content Area Reading Course

The content area reading course was a mandatory course for secondary student teachers working toward teacher certificate. The course was designed so secondary preservice teacher could explore ways to integrate reading and writing instruction into content instruction. The focus of the course is an examination of the application of learning strategies to various disciplines at various grade levels. The preservice teachers were taught how to use a variety of content area literacy strategies in vocabulary acquisition, reading comprehension, and writing during the 16-week semester. The required textbook was *Content Area Reading: Literacy and Learning across the Curriculum* (Vacca, Vacca, Mraz, 2013). In addition, there were several assignments in which preservice teachers were encouraged to implement the strategies into a simulated unit lesson plan.

Instrument

The attitude questionnaire used in this study was composed of two parts. The first part consisted of questions asking demographic information of the participants, such as age, gender, major (even though the majority of the students who marked other did not write in their majors), academic year, ethnicity, and student

teachers' teaching experience. The second part contained *A Scale to Measure Attitudes toward Teaching Reading in Content Classrooms* (Vaughan, 1997), which is comprised of 15 statements about teachers' attitudes toward teaching reading in content area classrooms. Responses were scored by assigned values on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree).

Data Collection and Analysis

The study used a pre/post- survey design. Data were collected from secondary student teachers enrolled in mandatory content reading course over four semesters taught by the same instructor. In each semester, the questionnaire was administered to student teachers during the first week of class as a pre-test and again during the last class session as a post-test in order to determine if any changes occurred in their attitudes toward implementing content literacy strategy over the semester. The data collected over the four semesters were combined together to produce a larger sample size.

Upon the completion of data collection, several statistical techniques were employed for data analyses. Descriptive statistics were computed for summarizing demographic information and describing student teachers' attitudes toward teaching reading and implementing reading strategies in content areas. A paired *t*-test was used for determining the differences in changes in the secondary pre-service teachers' attitudes between the pre-and post-survey. An ANOVA was utilized to determine the attitudes changes by academic major over the semester and between majors.

RESULTS

Overall Attitudes Change

Table 1 presents the results of the descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) and paired *t*-test of each item on the attitudes questionnaire. The results of the study found that secondary preservice teachers' attitudes toward teaching reading in content areas were somewhat changed after completing the 16-week course. However, the changes were not statistically significant ($t=-1.51, p=.13$).

Although the overall changes were not statistically significant, changes on six individual items were statistically significant. For instance, more preservice teachers disagreed that the primary responsibility of a content teacher should be to impart subject matter knowledge (Item 3; $t=-1.98, p=.05$). More participants strongly agreed students need more than six years to learn how to read (Item 4; $t=-3.39, p=.00$) and every content area teacher should teach students how to read content area materials (Item 13; $t=-3.53, p=.00$). More students strongly agreed

knowing how to teach reading in content areas should be required for secondary level teaching certification (Item 6; $t=-3.24, p=.00$) and providing reading instruction in content area classrooms in secondary classroom is worthwhile (Item 14; $t=-3.77, p=.00$). Additionally, less students believed that only reading teachers were responsible for teaching reading (Item 7, $t=-3.14, p=.00$)

Mean scores of each item indicated that some changes in students' attitudes and beliefs observed over the course of semester even though the changes were not statistically significant. For example, more participants agreed content area teachers should also be responsible for teaching reading in content area classrooms (Item 10) and should share the responsibility of providing reading instruction with the Reading or English teachers (Item 9). More participants agreed technical vocabulary should be introduced to students before reading a text (Item 2) as well as helping students learn to set purposes for reading (Item 12).

TABLE 1 Paired *t*-test of Items on the Attitudes Questionnaire

	Item	Pre		Post		<i>t</i>	<i>P</i> *
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
1	A content area teacher is obliged to help students improve their reading ability.	5.85	1.47	5.89	1.68	-0.35	0.73
2	Technical vocabulary should be introduced to students in content classes before they meet those terms in a reading passage.	5.58	1.88	5.82	1.44	-1.82	0.07
3	The primary responsibility of a content teacher should be to impart subject matter knowledge.	5.73	1.29	5.97	1.49	-1.98	0.05
4	Few students can learn all they need to know about how to read in six years of schooling.	3.96	3.25	4.65	3.32	-3.39	0.00
5	The sole responsibility for teaching students how to study should lie with reading teachers.	2.95	2.03	2.97	2.90	-0.12	0.90
6	Knowing how to teach reading in content areas should be required for K-6 teaching certification.	4.90	1.91	5.42	2.22	-3.24	0.00
7	Only English or Reading teachers should be responsible for teaching reading in K-6 classrooms.	3.49	2.75	2.94	3.24	3.14	0.00
8	A teacher who wants to improve students' interest in reading should show them that he or she likes to read.	5.65	1.49	5.49	1.64	1.27	0.21

(Continued)

TABLE 1 Paired *t*-test of Items on the Attitudes Questionnaire (*Continued*)

	Item	Pre		Post		<i>t</i>	<i>P</i> *
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
9	Content teachers should teach content and leave reading instruction to reading teachers.	3.30	2.53	3.11	3.73	1.01	0.32
10	A content area teacher should be responsible for helping students think on an interpretive level as well as a literal level when they read.	5.65	1.18	5.81	1.05	-1.49	0.14
11	Content area teachers should feel a greater responsibility to the content they teach than to any reading instruction they may be able to provide.	4.73	1.91	4.75	1.93	-0.16	0.87
12	Content area teachers should help students learn to set purposes for reading.	5.50	1.27	5.66	1.30	-1.46	0.15
13	Every content area teacher should teach students how to read material in his or her content specialty.	5.58	1.55	6.02	1.24	-3.53	0.00
14	Reading instruction in K-6 content area classrooms is a waste of time.	2.49	2.37	1.93	2.26	3.77	0.00
15	Content area teachers should be familiar with theoretical concepts of the reading process.	5.54	1.19	5.67	1.36	-1.08	0.28
Total		4.72	0.29	4.80	0.33	-1.51	0.13

Note. * $p < 0.05$

Regarding attitudes changes by academic major, Table 2 shows no significant overall changes in attitudes within academic major, except for Social Studies/Special Education/Interdisciplinary majors ($F = -2.10, p = .04$). As seen in Table 2, students who marked "Other" as their major had the most growth in their attitudes during the 16-weeks reading course, as they had the lowest pretest mean and the highest posttest mean.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Research has shown that instruction of reading strategies in content area classrooms has a positive effect on both reading comprehension and motivation of students (Druitt, 2002; Ferguson, 2001, Hurst, 2004). Therefore, it is important that teacher educators help secondary preservice teachers understand the importance of using content area literacy strategies (CALs). Explicit instruction

TABLE 2 Summary of Descriptive Statistics and *f*-test for Attitudes Changes by Academic Major

	Pre		Post		<i>F</i>	Sig.	Difference*
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			
Mathematics	4.72	0.21	4.74	0.26	-0.15	0.88	--
Science	4.85	0.18	4.75	0.27	0.53	0.60	--
Physical Education/Health	4.78	0.06	4.76	1.06	0.05	0.97	--
English/Language	4.85	0.39	4.79	0.28	0.33	0.75	--
Music/Arts/ Theater Arts	4.74	0.15	4.74	0.19	0.03	0.98	--
Other	4.65	0.34	4.89	0.36	-2.10	0.04	Pre<Post

Note. * $p < 0.05$ (scheffé post-hoc test)

in reading strategies across the content areas is supported both by Common Core Standards (Allyn, 2013; National Governors Association Center for Best Practices [NGA Center] & Council of Chief State School Officers [CCSSO], 2010) and career and career readiness standards (Texas Education Agency, 2009).

The results of this study showed that secondary preservice teachers' attitudes about implementing literacy strategies into their content area did change somewhat (research question #1). Even though the change overall was not statistically significant, six of the items did have a statistically significant difference from pre to posttest. This is good news as advanced literacy skills, such as “locating explicit textual information, drawing complex inferences and analyzing and evaluating information within and across texts of varying lengths” (TEA, 2009, p. 3) are needed to maximizing the learning in content area classrooms (Vacca, Vacca, & Mraz, 2013). In addition, it is believed that “teachers who recognize that students are experiencing problems in reading their textbooks and are concerned about this are likely to be the teachers who will be willing to learn strategies to assist their students” (Vaughn, 1977, pp. 605-606).

The results showed that those students who marked the “Other” category as their major had a significant change in their attitudes (research question #2) after 16 weeks of instruction. It also showed that this group of preservice teachers had the lowest mean score on the pretest and had the highest posttest scores. This may indicate that these students had not been exposed to various learning/reading strategies and initially felt that the required reading course was not necessary as the majority of their course work at the university is delivered through lecture. However, the current study found there were no attitude differences between the academic majors, which may mean that all the secondary preservice teachers were equally open to learning how to include literacy strategies into their content teaching.

The results supports prior studies which have shown that having only one required content reading course for secondary preservice content teachers may not be enough to give the students confidence to incorporate the necessary reading and writing skills into their content coursework during student teaching (Alger, 2009; Stieglitz, 1983; Szabo, Linek, Sampson, & Raine, 2012). As seen, a content reading course does have a positive impact toward changing secondary preservice teachers' attitudes and beliefs toward using literacy strategies while teaching in content area classrooms but the average mean score was only 4.75 on a 7-point scale. Thus, if secondary preservice teachers are to become more knowledgeable in how to integrate reading and writing strategies into their content, they must have student teaching experiences where they are strongly encouraged to purposefully plan and implement CALS into their instruction and to reflect on how well the chosen implemented strategies worked in helping students learn the necessary content information (Alger, 2009; Barry, 2002; Bean, 2001). As Common Core State Standards and College and Career Readiness Standards state that content teachers are also teachers of reading and writing (Allyn, 2013; NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010), it is equally important that secondary preservice teachers have university faculty members and mentor teachers that model the use of CALS.

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COLLEGE STUDENTS MOTIVATION TO READ

Catherine McGeehan
Kutztown University

Martha Mercantini
St. Joseph's University

Abstract

In this study, we revisited the data of a replicated study designed to analyze and compare the levels of reading motivation and enthusiasm among sophomore level college students (Applegate, Applegate, Mercantini, McGeehan, Cobb, Deboy & Lewinski, 2014). The replicated study sought to not only compare the levels of reading engagement and motivation among college students, but also to identify the links between prior instructional experiences and degree of motivation and enthusiasm. The instructional routines and activities correlated with high levels of motivation and engagement were used to generate an instructional framework and specific instructional activities that have the potential to improve the low levels of motivation and enthusiasm for reading among preservice teachers.

In their original study, Applegate & Applegate (2004) surveyed a total of 379 preservice teachers using an open ended questionnaire designed to “focus on the reading habits and attitudes” of preservice students. The results were startling! Out of 379 preservice teachers surveyed, 51% could be classified as unenthusiastic readers. Preservice teachers who indicated that they experienced little or no enjoyment with reading and spent little or no time reading leisurely were classified as unenthusiastic readers. The results inspired the authors to use a metaphoric title “The Peter Effect” drawn from a New Testament story of a beggar who approaches St. Peter and asks him for money. Peter responds that he “cannot

give what he does not have” (Acts 3:5). Hence, teachers who do not maintain a love of reading will find it challenging to inspire a love of reading among their students.

How have the reading habits and motivation levels of preservice teachers changed since the original “Peter Effect” study conducted by Applegate & Applegate (2004)? Intrigued by the begging question, the original authors and a few new co-authors set out to reexamine the reading habits and motivation levels of undergraduate students (Applegate et al., 2014). To further enrich the study, the authors aimed to find correlations between high levels of motivation and past learning experiences expressed by the preservice teachers. With this goal in mind the original “Peter Effect” study was replicated, but incorporated additional surveys and open-ended response items to support the need for causal links between instructional experiences and high levels of motivation.

THE ENTHUSIASTIC AND MOTIVATED READER

Research suggests that students must feel motivated about their reading experiences to be successful in the literacy process (Daniels & Steres, 2011). Furthermore, research indicates that autonomy, being and feeling independent, can be seen as an integral influence on intrinsic motivation (Deci, Koestner, and Ryan 2001). The relationship between student autonomy and motivation suggests that students are more likely to be engaged in their work, if they see that their voices are valued and incorporated into decisions about learning. However, too many reading programs hinder the opportunities for autonomy, both for the student and the teacher, constraining students to follow along with the program’s literacy instruction rather than guiding the students’ literacy learning. Thus, preservice teachers must fight for their autonomy to teach so they can learn how to create activities that foster student autonomy if there is any hope of stimulating motivation for their students continued efforts.

THE CRITICAL THINKERS AND ENGAGED READERS

The ability to take simple knowledge and critically share the thinking behind that knowledge allows comprehension to reach application. When reading, the critical thinking process asks one to see beyond the simple facts of a story and think more at a comprehensive level, inviting social and evaluative thoughts about the text to occur (Paul & Elder, 2005). Recognizing how the practice of the critical thought can enhance what we read and influence how we engage in text is key to understanding the relationship between critical thinking and engagement. If

critical thinking skills in literacy are not well-developed in our preservice teachers, there are ramifications as to how they might teach literacy without ample critical thinking opportunities which, then, may result in the students' lack of engagement with text.

METHODS

In this study, we wanted to focus our efforts on reexamining the reading habits and motivation levels of undergraduate pre-service teacher candidates. The questions that guided our study included:

1. Has the situation among preservice teachers improved significantly since the time of the original study in 2004?
2. Do certain teaching approaches tend to promote student engagement in and enthusiasm for reading?
3. What, in general, has been the reaction of college students to the literacy instruction they received in their earlier years?

Participants

There were 1025 sophomore level participants in this study. The students were representative of a variety of majors including: business (N = 166), health science (N = 120), humanities (N = 124), math & science (N = 108), and social science (N = 124) majors, in addition to a large sample of education majors (N = 383).

Data Collection and Data Sources

A questionnaire was distributed to and completed by sophomore level college students in the fall of 2012. This questionnaire consisted of open-ended questions such as: 1) what reading they did over the summer, 2) instructional emphases that they remembered from their elementary and high school reading education and 3) descriptions of their early literacy experiences (Appendix A). Participants respond to each of the questions by writing a response. In addition, participants were asked to contrast their school and home reading experiences, as well as to describe their college reading experiences. Finally, students were asked if any of their teachers had effectively inspired them with a love of reading. The instrument was modeled after the original "Peter Effect" (Applegate & Applegate, 2004) questionnaire, which utilized open-ended questions designed to encourage respondents to write about their learning experiences (Applegate et al, 2014).

A constant comparison method (Glaser, 1965), was used to score the questionnaires (Applegate et al., 2014). The investigators independently scored the

questionnaires by classifying the respondents as enthusiastic or unenthusiastic readers, utilizing the criteria described below. At the same time the investigators coded open-ended responses that shared commonalities and indicated clear trends in reading. At the conclusion of their independent work, the investigators met and resolved any differences in scoring by discussion. They also identified and refined a set of key commonalities in responses that were associated with the reading attitude and habits of the individuals who participated in the study.

CATEGORIES OF READERS USED FOR STUDY

Enthusiastic Readers

Those who reported a positive attitude toward reading and who engaged in reading during the summer, whether that reading was selective or broad were classified as enthusiastic. Applegate et al. (2014) defined enthusiastic reading as “reading that extended beyond newspapers and magazines and included the reading of at least a single book (other than children’s literature or textbooks assigned in a summer course)”(p. 192). In their final analysis, the researchers identified 3 specific categories under the label of enthusiastic readers: 1) appreciative readers, 2) focused readers, and 3) engaged and avid readers. Those categories were defined by Applegate et al. (2014) as:

Appreciative readers were those who reported a) the reading of at least one book over the course of the summer, and b) a positive attitude toward reading in general.” Focused readers were those who reported enthusiasm only for particular types or genres, but also exercised that preference over the course of the summer. Engaged and Avid readers were those who reported a love of reading and read broadly and extensively over the summer. (p. 192)

Unenthusiastic Readers

Those who expressed little enthusiasm for reading and did little summer reading or those who claimed to like or enjoy reading but who did not find the time to read a single book over the course of the previous summer were labeled as Lukewarm readers (Applegate et al., 2014). Reluctant readers were identified by Applegate et al. (2014) as being more overt in their dislike for reading; they will often do the work that is asked of them from a sense of responsibility rather than from a love of what they are doing. Unwilling readers were those who openly expressed dislike for reading and sought to exclude reading from their personal and academic lives whenever possible (Applegate et al., 2014).

RESULTS

Findings for Preservice Teachers

Among the 1025 sophomore students in the sample, only 51% could be described as enthusiastic (Applegate et al. (2014). In the original study, just 49% of the preservice teachers in our sample could be classified as enthusiastic readers (Applegate & Applegate, 2004). Unfortunately, nine years later that number had risen by only 2%. The data provided clear evidence that the Peter Effect is still very much alive and well. Almost half of the education students were still unenthusiastic about reading!

Overall Findings

Looking at all 1025 students it was found that 47% of our respondents were identified as enthusiastic readers. The other 53% were classified as unenthusiastic readers. Most concerning is that only 6% were identified as avid readers (Applegate et al., 2014).

The open-ended responses were used to identify positive and negative dimensions of reading experiences. These dimensions were classified under 4 overarching themes: 1) a view of reading as intellectual challenge, 2) the influence of parents and teachers on student growth, 3) the effects of one's view of reading on attitudes and habits, and 4) reactions to experiences with reading instruction. These themes were then used to identify instructional practices and routines that have the potential to eliminate the Peter Effect if introduced and used in pre-service education programs.

READING AS INTELLECTUAL CHALLENGE

In their data, Applegate, et al (2014) revealed that more than 150 students commented on the association they made between reading and intellectual growth. Some described reading as a challenge that exposed them to new ideas or forced them to think in different ways. Several students who regarded reading as a chore admitted that their reading assignments forced them to think outside the box or made them learn new things. Eighty-four percent of the students who viewed reading as this type of intellectual challenge were classified as enthusiastic readers. This information was particularly helpful in the identification of instructional routines to promote student engagement in and enthusiasm for reading.

However, 175 students specifically associated reading with career advancement, or as an obligation they had incurred as students. "Some stated that they completed their assigned readings to help them in their career. Still others cited

their responsibility to complete their assignments and the need to earn good grades in their courses. Among these latter students, the incidence of enthusiastic readers was only 19%” (Applegate et al., 2014, p 193-194).

PARENTAL AND TEACHER INFLUENCES ON READING ATTITUDES

Students who noted that they were given parental encouragement to read were significantly more likely to be classified as enthusiastic readers (63%) than those who made no note of parental influences (44%). Only a meager 21% of the students who reported reading less at home than at school could be classified as enthusiastic readers.

Higher percentages of enthusiastic readers occurred among students who recalled that their teachers read aloud to them (54%) or that their teachers gave them some level of choice in their reading assignments (55%). 68% of students who noted that their teachers encouraged discussions of books in their classes were enthusiastic readers and among would-be teachers, the percentage of enthusiastic readers was even higher (75%) (Applegate et al, 2014, p. 194).

These numbers prompted us to identify activities that would promote choice, student discussions, and read alouds as instructional routines to be used in our pre-service programs.

Applegate et al, 2014 reported that when students were asked if any of their teachers had effectively shared a love of reading with them, 175 respondents specifically identified a teacher, either by name or by grade level, which had inspired them as readers. Among these students, 65% were identified as enthusiastic readers. Even those who identified their teachers in general as successful in promoting a love of reading, the percentage of enthusiastic readers was much higher than those who were unable to name an influential teacher (55% vs. 37%). Seventy-two percent of students who were able to recall their teachers recommending books that felt they would like were classified as enthusiastic readers. These numbers clearly demonstrate that a teacher’s love of reading will certainly have an impact on his/her students’ future feelings toward reading. This encouraged us work on identifying instructional activities that would maintain and even reignite a love of reading among our pre-service candidates.

EFFECTS OF STUDENT VIEW OF READING

When analyzing how much enjoyment the students associated with reading, Applegate et al (2014) reported sixty students described their reading habits in terms such as, “the book needs to grab my attention” or “my interest level depends on the book”. These respondents seemed to begin their reading activity by waiting for the book to convince them that it is worth reading. They displayed a passive view of reading and this attitude was associated with a very low percentage level of enthusiastic readers (20%).

Other students described their experiences with reading in terms of external attribution. For example, many students blamed their lack of enthusiasm for reading on “poor teaching” or “teachers who chose boring books” and “teachers who didn’t love reading themselves.” Only 20% of the respondents who demonstrated external attribution could be classified as enthusiastic readers (Applegate et al, 2014).

Of the 220 students who described reading as an opportunity to escape into a different world,” 90% were classified as enthusiastic readers. These percentages demonstrated the need to promote an aesthetic view of reading within our pre-service programs. Clearly students who were taught to read by teachers who encourage a love of reading and who demonstrated enthusiasm for reading were more successful at promoting enthusiastic readers among their former students.

TABLE 1 Effective Instructional Practices

	η	Percent	Percent
Designating time for reading			
Providing choice in			
Received parental encouragement	153	62.7	37.3
Read less at home than at school	75	21.3	78.7
Reported that teachers read aloud to them	74	54.1	45.9
Reported that teachers encouraged discussion	95	68.4	31.6
Named a teacher who ignited love of reading	175	64.6	35.6
Saw teachers in general as influential	365	54.5	45.5
Could not name an influential teacher	454	37.0	63.0
Reported that teachers recommended books to them	58	72.4	27.6

EXPERIENCES WITH READING INSTRUCTION

According to Applegate et al (2014), “of the students who took the opportunity to commend the good teachers they had, 56% were enthusiastic. The percentage of those who noted that their teachers selected good books and made reading fun was 57% enthusiastic.”

Fifty-four percent of students who viewed college reading as positive were classified as enthusiastic readers. However, among students who viewed college reading as neutral (43%) were also classified as enthusiastic readers. Most concerning is that a dismal 25% of students who viewed college reading as negative were classified as enthusiastic readers. Students who specifically described their college reading as “boring” were more than four times as likely to be classified as unenthusiastic. However, 58% of those who characterized their reading assignments as interesting and mind-expanding were much more likely to be enthusiastic readers (Applegate et al, 2014).

DISCUSSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In an attempt to provide clarity on what teacher preparation programs need to address and implement in their programs, Snow, Burns and Griffin (2005) used current research to postulate recommendations for what preservice programs should include to adequately prepare teacher candidates that are skilled at teaching reading. One of their recommendations states: “If teacher’s experienced-based conceptions about teaching are to change, it must be through exposure to new experiences and images-within teacher-education programs and within K-12 classrooms” (p. 211). This recommendation made it clear to us that we are going to change the future reading habits of American students, we need to recreate the learning experiences of our preservice teachers by incorporating the activities and structures correlated with those who were identified as highly motivated and enthusiastic.

The current data indicates that preservice teachers still comprehend at very low levels and their motivation to read is less than what is desired. After analyzing their prior reading experiences, we found that lack of choice, low engagement, and poor instruction may have contributed to their low levels of comprehension and motivation. As a result, we sought to recommend engaging activities and instructional routines that are proven to increase comprehension, but will also will support preservice programs in developing teachers who are knowledgeable in and capable of creating these engaging environments themselves. By incorporating the theoretical underpinnings within undergraduate courses that model and support the suggested activities, preservice teachers can experience these routines first hand (see Table 2).

TABLE 2 Theoretical Underpinnings within Preservice Teacher Programs

Opportunities to enjoy literature
Activities to engage in the process of critical thought
Incorporate choice in readings and supplemental readings
Incorporate social and authentic literature experiences

If teachers are not familiar with the processes used to comprehend, they will be unable to teach their students (Snow, et. al. 2005). Therefore, it is critical that preservice programs equip preservice teachers with the knowledge and ability to comprehend themselves, but that the program also provide preservice teachers with new experiences that assist them in re-visioning what effective instruction should look and sound like (Snow, et. al. 2005). If we incorporate enthusiasm for reading into our goals for literacy education, we would be more likely to value the importance of early reading success (Becker, McElvany, & Kortenbruck, 2010).

The suggested activities we provided in Tables 3, 4 & 5 will arm preservice programs with engaging tasks that not only reignite a love of reading among our preservice teachers, but also reshape their vision of effective reading instruction enabling them to replicate quality instruction rather than perpetuating ineffective processes that result in unmotivated and ill-prepared readers. In an effort to increase the lack of reading motivation and to improve the comprehension abilities among preservice teachers identified in our data, specific research based instructional strategies are provided to encourage us to reach our goal. These instructional approaches were categorized under one of three overarching instructional designs that mirrored the favorable elements mentioned by our survey respondents who were identified as Enthusiastic Readers. These categories include: making reading a priority, developing and incorporating critical reading practices, and creating higher levels of student engagement. Under each of these broad categories one can find specific instructional practices that support the overarching elements identified by our respondents seen in Appendix B. The goal of this piece is to arm undergraduate faculty members with research based approaches that may assist in improving reading engagement and comprehension among our preservice teachers.

MAKING READING A PRIORITY

Providing increased literacy practices within each and every preservice course can contribute to increased candidate motivation. Incorporating specific time and opportunities for modeling enthusiastic reading practices not only demonstrates

TABLE 3 Specific Instructional Practices to Increase Opportunities for Reading

Designating time for reading
Include choice for supplemental reading
Provide ongoing professional development

the metacognitive processes that are critical for creating engagement, but also supports the notion that simply increasing time spent on reading is a crucial component of motivating readers. Faculty members can make reading a priority by: a) designating time for reading, b) Including choices for supplementary reading and c) providing on-going professional development. See Appendix B for specific instructional practices in detail.

CRITICAL & SOCIAL CULTURAL READING PRACTICES

Initiating critical reading practices will improve comprehension abilities and invite students to actively engage in what they are reading. Providing students with activities centered on social practices, builds sociocultural contexts that encourage the act of socialization within reading. Gee (2003) explains that teachers need to develop/model social practices connected to reading in order to create a reading culture where their students will view reading as a social activity. Teale & Gambrell (2007) found that when administrators and teachers were on board with sociocultural constructs in reading, it created more engaged readers. These responses are remarkably similar to what Rosenblatt (1983) and Ruddell (1995) described as the aesthetic stance in reading. Instructional practices proven to increase critical and social reading abilities are: a) critical writing/discussion prompts, b) critical thinking practices, and c) social cultural activities. See Appendix C for specific instructional practices in detail.

TABLE 4 Specific Instructional Practices to Increase Critical Reading Abilities

Critical Reading/Writing Discussion Prompts
Guided Inquiry
Critical thinking practices
Social Cultural Activities

CREATING HIGHER LEVELS OF STUDENT ENGAGEMENT

There is a direct correlation between improved levels of student engagement with increased levels of motivation and improved comprehension scores. The National Commission on Excellence in Elementary Teacher Preparation for Reading Instruction (2003) suggested that teachers who create higher levels of student engagement with the text were identified as being more effective. Furthermore, teachers who maintain and communicate high expectations are correlated with successful learners. Thus, it appears that active approaches to reading education, approaches that release more responsibility to students for choosing and exploring what they read, are more likely to be associated with reading enthusiasm (Daisy, 2010). If given the right support and scaffolding, in their classes preservice teachers usually perform at higher academic levels (Payne, Rueda, & Dembo, 2008). Therefore it is vital that teachers believe their students can achieve at high levels and clearly articulate those goals to their students. There are a variety of research based approaches that encourage student engagement & motivation: a) using autonomy as intrinsic motivation, b) providing students with choices, c) increasing a student's self-efficacy and d) establishing high expectations. See Appendix D for specific instructional practices in detail.

LIMITATIONS

One major limitation of this study is that the instructional approaches listed in Tables 3, 4, and 5 have not been studied. The results are reported as simple relationships among variables. However, we have no idea of the directionality of the relationship. For example, we found that students who expressed a tendency to regard their reading as an aesthetic experience were much more likely to be classified as enthusiastic readers. However, we do not know whether it was an already existing aesthetic approach that made them more enthusiastic readers, or whether it was their enthusiasm for reading that impelled them toward

TABLE 5 Specific Instructional Practices to Increase Student Engagement

Using autonomy as intrinsic motivation
Providing students with choices
Increasing students' self-efficacy
Establishing high expectations

an aesthetic stance. Hence, we propose additional studies that measure the effectiveness of the various instructional approaches that make sure enthusiastic readers. Additionally, we need to understand if it is a combination of instructional practices that result in an increasingly larger population of enthusiastic readers or if there is one specific instructional technique that is more effective than the others.

Another aspect we need to study is the elimination of practices that were correlated with lower levels of enthusiasm. If we remove some of the negative practices without implementing the recommended effective practices, will an increase in the number of enthusiastic and motivated readers become reality?

CONCLUSION

As we reexamined the findings in this replicated study, we see that reading motivation and enthusiasm among sophomore college students is still shocking low. Furthermore, our research identified deficits between instructional experiences and activities and influences on students' views on engagement. Only once we produce a generation of students who are more enthusiastic readers as opposed to less enthusiastic will we be certain that any of these instructional suggestions are effective.

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APPENDIX A

Study Questionnaire

A. Class Level (Circle One) Freshman Sophomore Junior Senior

B. Your Major: _____

If your major is Education, please complete items C through E

If your major is not Education, please proceed to Item # 1.

C. Circle the item that best describes the focus of your program of study:

Elementary Education Special Education Early Childhood Education

Middle School Education Secondary Education

Dual Certification (if dual, please circle both cert programs above)

D. When you consider your career as a teacher, which of the following professional situations appeals most to you?

Regular Education Special Education

E. Which of the following grade levels would you prefer to teach?

Kg-1st 2nd-4th 5th-6th 7th-8th Secondary school

-
1. What reading did you do this past summer? Are there any titles or authors that you can recall? In general, what did you read for recreation?
 2. When you think of yourself overall as a reader, how much enjoyment do you associate with reading? What reason(s) do you have for responding in this way?
 3. When you consider the instruction in reading that you received in school, how would you rate the emphasis that was placed upon each of the following:

APPENDIX B

Specific Instructional Practices to Increase Opportunities for Reading

Designating time for reading:	– Including time for students to choose what they read and experience the social activities associated with the reading is imperative (Stairs & Stairs-Burgos, 2010). Daniels and Steres (2011) explain that <i>time</i> in reading includes time to choose books, time to read, time to think about reading, and time to engage in social practices related to reading. Furthermore, increased reading time illustrates the value of the task/experience and verifies to the student the importance of the idea that reading is an ongoing process.
Including choices for supplementary reading:	– A list of fiction/non fiction texts related to the course curriculum should be available for students to choose based on their interests (Bean, 2002). When students are interested in what they are reading, it can cause the reader to transcend not only his independent reading, but also his instructional level (Hunt, 1996). Moreover, students need access to books and ways to build classroom libraries that are pertinent to the level and interest of their future students (Daniels & Steres, 2011). Therefore, exposing them to new titles and asking them to acquire knowledge in children’s and young adult literature will ultimately help them to best guide their future students in making good reading choices.

Providing on-going professional development:	– Committing time and resources to reading curriculum and practices is the first step in building an environment that adequately supports and encourages the reading process (Gambrell, 1996). Instructors need to demonstrate effective curriculum methods that illustrate ways to manage increased time given to the reading process; including methods in social practices and critical reading prompts (Tomasek, 2009). For many of our faculty, this may result in attending workshops and development sessions stimulating and designing appropriate and effective objectives.
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APPENDIX C

Specific Instructional Practices to Increase Critical Reading Abilities

<p>Critical Writing/ Discussion Prompts:</p>	<p>– Critical prompts target specific thinking skills needed in order to dissect and relate to what students are reading. Having a variety of thinking/writing prompts instead of those from a more hierarchal approach encourages a response to be more critical (Orlich, 1991).</p>
<p>Guided Inquiry:</p>	<p>– Guided inquiry is a technique for discovering information and ideas within a text. It requires a careful, active, reflective, and analytic type of reading, which takes time and guidance (Kuhlthau, 2013). If faculty can provide this guidance and model this process, there is a great chance that students will be able to pass that on once they become teachers themselves.</p>
<p>Critical Thinking Practices:</p>	<p>– Critical thinking offers students a chance to monitor and evaluate their understanding of what they read. It involves reflecting on the validity of their reading in light of their prior knowledge and understanding of the world (Kurland, 1995).</p>
<p>Social Cultural Activities:</p>	<p>– <i>Book Clubs & Literacy Circles</i> are activities that give students the opportunity to gather and discuss reading critically. Collaboration and socio-cultural theory is the foundation for both of these approaches. These practices allow students to reshape and construct meaning with other readers, and can result in a more engaged reader (Daniels & Harvey, 2009). Objectives shared within both of these activities include: the identification of problem or issue, making connections, interpretation of evidence, challenging assumptions, making applications, and taking a different point of view; all of which are components of social-cultural practices (Tomasek, 2009).</p>

APPENDIX D

Specific Instructional Practices to Increase Student Engagement

Using autonomy as intrinsic motivation:	– Research indicates that autonomy is an integral part of motivation (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 2001). When teachers apply an understanding of autonomy to their students, they are more likely to include students in class or curriculum decision-making. Thus, students are more likely to be motivated because they feel in control of their environment (Marsh, 2008).
Providing students with choices:	– Students who can have control over what they read fosters a desire to read more (Stairs and Stairs- Burgos, 2010). Students will work more diligently if they see their voices as valued and incorporated into what happens during the school day because things aren't being done to them (Daniels, 2010).
Increasing a student's self-efficacy:	– Students are more likely to take risks in their learning when students believe they have the skills required for the task at hand (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). If teachers can both model and support the necessary metacognitive processes that are required for critical reading, students will feel more confident in their abilities and be more willing to engage in enthusiastic reading practices. Building a student's self-efficacy directly influences the student's belief in their abilities which are connected to willingness and ability to work diligently and foster's engagement (Dweck, 2002).

Establishing high expectations:

– Expectations for success contribute to the students' desire to read. Anderman & Anderman (2010) found that if teachers expected to read, they did. As a result, the students in return expected the teachers to support their reading habits and value the reading process. Teachers became engaged in reading conversations and therefore raised the expectations of what was expected by the reading process.

MOVING THE UNIVERSITY READING CLINIC TO AN ONLINE SETTING

Linda K. Lilienthal
University of Nebraska

Abstract

This article described my experiences moving the university reading clinic practicum course to an online setting for the benefit of other faculty members considering the same option. Following the trend of providing more university courses and programs to students online, reasons for the decision to move the university reading clinic to an online setting are explained, preparations and suggestions for making the change to an online reading clinic are discussed, information about course design for the online reading clinic practicum course is provided, and future suggestions for the online university reading clinic are discussed.

The university reading clinic has long been a part of university reading instruction for both undergraduate and graduate teachers (Cuevas, Schumm, & Mits-Cash, 2006; Ridout & Bailey, 1987; Rosner & Cooper, 1982). Carr (2003) and Dunston (2007) reported on the value of the reading clinic tutoring experience for tutors, and Mokhtari, Hutchinson, and Edwards (2010) reported a similar value for those being tutored. It is well documented in the research literature that the university-based reading clinic is a vehicle for learning that serves both the tutors and the students enrolled in the clinic (Atkinson & Colby, 2006).

At the turn of the century, researchers documented the limited research on university reading clinics (Blachowicz, Fisher, McAvoy, Owens, Anderson, Ivy, & Harper, 1999; Garrett, Pearce, Salazar, & Pate, 2007; Kibby & Barr, 1999; Michel & Dougherty, 1999) and the fact that fewer reading clinics existed than

in years past (Garrett, et al., 2007; Kibby & Barr, 1999; Michel & Dougherty, 1999; Sargent, Hill, & Morrison, 2007). Among the causes they identified were such issues as faculty workload, finding a university location for the clinic, and the costs of running a reading clinic. In addition, the logistics of locating a reading clinic on campus, including finding elementary, middle school, or secondary students to tutor in a university-based setting, may have contributed to the decline in the number of university-based reading clinics at the end of the 20th century. Another reason for the decline in reading clinics could be the trend of moving reading clinics away from the university-based setting to a field-based setting in the public schools, such as that used by Gupta (2004), which requires permission and cooperation from school administration and personnel.

Despite the decline of reading clinics at the end of the 20th century, there does seem to be a renewed interest in developing and operating reading clinics, as noted by the increased research about reading clinics in the early 21st century. This is probably due to the long recognition of their educational value for tutors, as well as for the children who attend the clinics. Although reading clinic formats vary (Cuevas, Schumm, & Mits-Cash, 2006), in a typical reading clinic situation, tutors learn how to administer assessments and synthesize data about a child's reading strengths and needs. Then they develop a reading intervention plan tailored to an individual child and become familiar with a variety of strategies for developing word identification, phonemic awareness, phonics, comprehension, vocabulary, fluency, writing, and other aspects of reading and literacy at the child's level of instruction. When something works as well as reading clinics have been shown to do (Atkinson & Colby, 2006; Dittman, 1974; Dunston, 2007; Gupta, 2004; Ortlieb, Grandstaff-Beckers, & Cheek, 2012; Tuten & Jensen, 2008), where learning takes place for both tutors and children being tutored, it is wise to continue including it in graduate reading programs.

One way in which university reading clinics may increase in number and continue to contribute to student learning experiences is by moving them to an online format. There is a growing demand from the public for online university programs and courses (Edwards, Perry, & Janzen, 2011; Frey, 2008; Helfrick & Smith, 2012). This trend is happening across the country, as well as internationally.

At my university, the reading clinic experience for tutors and for the children receiving the instruction is the graduate reading practicum course. While many teacher education programs have moved some of their program courses online, or to a hybrid format, the reading clinic is one course that many educators hesitate to move to an online format. The comment has frequently been made by colleagues that in a face-to-face reading clinic, instructors are able to observe

tutoring as it happens and to provide immediate feedback in real time for tutors during the clinic; however, this could also be accomplished online using Skype, or instructor feedback could be provided for video clips recorded with webcams or iPads. Because this university's Master's Degree in Reading serves students across the country and internationally, a hybrid course was not feasible in this program. When the entire Master's Degree in Reading moved online, as our program did, the university reading clinic practicum also needed to move to an online course format.

With the increase in online teaching and learning, there is also recognition that the reading clinic format of years past does not meet the needs of today's diverse students (Ortlieb, et al. (2012). Ortlieb et al. (2012) stated in their recent research, "a model of a modernized reading clinic must be created so as to provide the framework from which success is fostered" (p. 1). They suggested an eight-step process for organizing their off-campus, field-based reading clinics. Recognizing that there are many formats for reading clinics, it makes sense to suggest that another way to create a modernized reading clinic in the 21st century is with an online clinic format. Moving the reading clinic online offers opportunities for modernizing the reading clinic with a new format and new instructional components, such as discussion boards, online journals, or blogs, that allow the reading clinic to re-establish itself as a component of reading instruction that is valuable for both tutors and children being tutored.

MOVING THE CLINIC ONLINE

Reasons

The focus of this article is to describe my experiences in moving the university-based reading clinic to an online setting for the benefit of other faculty members considering the same option. The university, which is located in a rural setting, has one of the largest teacher education programs in the state. Distance from the university limited opportunities for many inservice teachers to pursue graduate degrees, so the university moved the Master's Degree in Reading program totally online a few years ago in an effort to revitalize the reading program. Graduate reading program student enrollment numbers had dropped so low that there was no longer a face-to-face, university-based reading clinic, and instructors were teaching the reading clinic practicum course as an individual independent study. Moving our reading program online had several benefits: 1) it made it possible for more inservice teachers throughout the state to pursue a master's degree; 2) it increased convenience and flexibility for the students; 3) it increased program enrollment for the department; 4) it increased

overall enrollment numbers for the university; and 5) it benefitted the state education system by increasing the number of teachers with a Master's Degree in Reading.

The decision also increased the number of graduate students enrolled from other states and countries, further increasing program enrollment, as well as the diversity of the graduate students enrolled in the program. Many times the geographic location of this university limited the diversity of both the graduate students and the children being tutored. With an online reading clinic serving a larger geographical area, graduate students and children being tutoring are more diverse. This creates a unique learning experience for university students that would not be available without the online clinic format.

Preparations for an Online Reading Clinic Course

To have a successful online program and reading clinic experience, it was essential that faculty members teaching online have good university support both for the instructors, as well as for students enrolled in online courses. The university provided facilitation of online courses in the following ways: (a) an eCampus Department dedicated to supporting online instruction and learning; (b) an instructional course provided by the eCampus Department to prepare online instructors for teaching an online course; (c) a 24/7 Help Desk available to faculty members and students; (d) faculty members and student help pages on the course management homepage; (e) updated downloads, such as Firefox, Java, Flash, QuickTime, Windows Media Player, and Adobe Reader, available on the course management homepage; and (f) weekly training sessions for faculty members about how to use different online tools.

Although many instructors have taught online courses, many have not. I had organized and managed many face-to-face, university-based reading clinics, and I had developed and taught online reading courses, but I had not taught the reading clinic practicum course in an online format until I moved to a position at my current university. Even if faculty members have previously taught online courses, it is important to realize that many graduate students may not have experience with online course formats, especially if it has been several years since they received their undergraduate degree. Any online graduate course will have students on the continuum of technology experience, especially in rural areas where technology resources available for inservice teachers may be more limited. For example, some graduate students in the online reading clinic course did not even have access to scanners or fax machines. Others were unable to access YouTube or other online resources because of school security barriers. Some had internet service only at their school, not at their home.

The most important suggestion for first-time online instructors, or for a first-time online course design, is to *keep it simple* (Ko & Rossen, 2010). Some basic practical suggestions for faculty members implementing an online reading clinic course include the following:

- The Firefox internet browser was especially reliable with the Blackboard course management system. Depending on your university technology and course management systems, a different internet browser may be more compatible.
- Be as organized and prepared as possible. Set up as much of the course as possible before the course becomes available to students. Create assignments ahead of time, then hide them (this is a feature in Blackboard) and make them available as needed as the semester proceeds.
- Mention important information in more than one place, such as in the announcements folder and the assignments folder. I have had students e-mail and say, “I know I saw it somewhere, but I don’t remember where it is. Where is it?”
- Use a scanner to upload pdf copies of documents not on a computer or flash drive.
- Be detailed and explicit about dates and times, number of postings required, and what students are expected to do.
- Attach a grading rubric with each assignment folder and include a discussion board rubric for ease of grading.
- Keep a backup copy of everything, especially grades.

Online Reading Clinic Course Design

The online reading clinic is the practicum course that follows the reading diagnosis course at this university. Because our state reading specialist certification is PK-12, graduate students tutored an elementary student (grades 1-6) and a middle school or secondary student (grades 7-12) to gain experience working with students’ reading needs at multiple levels. Graduate students tutored each student 10 hours, for a total of 20 tutoring hours or 20 tutoring sessions. Each hour of tutoring time required approximately three hours of lesson planning, finding materials and resources for the lesson, and then evaluating and analyzing the lesson before submitting it to Blackboard for evaluation and instructor feedback.

Initial assignments for the course included finding the two students to tutor during the semester. One of the main changes from a face-to-face,

university-based reading clinic to an online reading clinic was that the graduate students, instead of the clinic instructors, were responsible for finding children to tutor, determining locations to tutor, arranging tutoring times, and so on. In addition, obtaining permission slips from parents and permission from some school district administrations for the tutoring became part of the online reading clinic practicum coursework for the graduate students.

Graduate students were required to complete several assignments and assessments on each child they tutored. They included a background survey, an interest inventory, a reading inventory, a writing sample assessment, the *Basic Reading Inventory* (Johns, 2012), and a fluency rubric. Additional assessments could be given at the tutor's discretion, and with instructor approval, when necessary. Graduate students synthesized assessment data and submitted an assessment report that included suggestions for intervention strategies based on children's literacy strengths and needs. Tutoring for both children occurred over an approximate six-week timeframe, sometimes longer, based on graduate students' scheduling, children's tutoring attendance, school holidays, and so on. Graduate students followed a basic tutoring lesson plan outline for the 10 tutoring sessions. The lesson plan components and procedures (see Appendix) were somewhat similar to a guided reading lesson (Iaquinta, 2006) and to the tutoring lesson framework suggested by Tancock (1994). Following the tutoring, graduate students completed tutoring reports for each child. These reports were turned in to the instructor and given to the parent and the school.

Although setting up the course in the course management system created additional work, about one third of my existing reading clinic course materials could be adapted to the online format. In addition, features such as the course management gradebook allowed students to keep track and view their grades at any time. The gradebook feature even calculated end-of-term grades, which was a helpful feature for the instructor. Course design suggestions for creating a reading clinic practicum course online include the following:

- Use basic course management features, such as announcements and course e-mail, to inform students of assignment changes or approaching due dates, to clarify assignments, to provide additional instructional information, and for similar purposes.
- Create tests and assignments directly in Blackboard, or use Respondus to create tests and upload them to Blackboard.
- Set up specific course folders, such as a syllabus folder; an assignment folder with detailed explanations and rubrics for each assignment; a Help folder with student resources for online learning, library access

information, 24/7 Help Desk access information, eCampus contacts; and so on.

- Incorporate discussion boards in the course assignments. For example, students share their first tutoring lesson plan and their final tutoring lesson plan in discussion board forums. They provide feedback on peers' lesson plans and respond to peers' comments on course readings. After a couple weeks, graduate students in small enrollment courses tend to group themselves according to grade levels or subjects taught, which is beneficial to their application of course information at specific grade levels or in specific subject areas. Students also frequently share useful websites and apps related to course information in discussion board conversations. If desired, students can also be organized into small groups to promote discussions for specific assignments.
- Creating one, ungraded, tutoring discussion board forum in the discussion board folder is helpful for students who have questions about administering and interpreting different assessments or questions about tutoring procedures. In this particular discussion board forum, the students interact with the instructor and each other, with students both asking questions about tutoring and answering questions for other students.
- An additional course documents folder can be set up with helpful handouts and video clips, including YouTube clips related to chapter readings or specific assignments, or instructors can add the video clips to related assignment folders. YouTube clips are easy to attach and provide visual examples of course topics or instructional methods. For example, YouTube clips on language experience instruction and administering running records were uploaded to the course homepage to facilitate student instruction and assessment during tutoring.
- In addition, by creating a YouTube account, the course instructor can create instructional or demonstration videos and upload them to YouTube to share with students. Students can also upload assignments or presentations to YouTube, as well.

Student Course Evaluation Results

There were 11 graduate students enrolled in the first online reading clinic course. Seven of the 11 students completed anonymous course evaluation surveys sent to the College of Education Director of Technology, for a return rate of 64%.

The survey contained 13 questions. The average overall rating for the course was 4.79 out of 5.0.

Graduate students who responded to the survey indicated in the comments section that quality instructor feedback for the online reading clinic was helpful to their lesson planning and to their successful course experience. Based on discussion board postings and final reading clinic case study reports, graduate students indicated that the online reading clinic was a valuable learning experience for both them and for the children they tutored. In the final discussion board postings, they mentioned graphic organizers, echo reading, writing checklists, and comprehension checklists as strategies that were especially helpful to their students. Comparable to the results in a face-to-face, university-based reading clinic, both graduate students and children learned during the online reading clinic.

Future Recommendations for the Online Reading Clinic Course

The focus of this article was to describe moving the university-based reading clinic to an online setting for those considering the same option. As with any course taught, my instruction continues to evolve. So far, and based on course student evaluations, e-mail contacts, announcements, and discussion boards seem to have worked well to resolve questions and to provide explanations; however, Ko and Rossen (2010) suggested scheduling online office hours using the Blackboard Chat feature. They suggested scheduling office hours with students ahead of time, just as one often does with face-to-face office hour appointments. This might be helpful to students and is something to try the next time I teach the online reading clinic practicum course. Other options for digital office hours, video conferences, or virtual meetings include Blackboard Collaborate. If your university does not have Blackboard, Skype or Zoom are other possibilities.

One thing that was not provided in the course that would have been helpful to students was a list of frequently asked questions (FAQ). This would be helpful in eliminating many duplicate questions from students and time spent on creating announcements or doing group e-mails to answer questions. Thus, the FAQ document is a resource for students that will be added to the next online reading clinic practicum course.

Students were not required to record tutoring sessions, although they did use iPads and cell phones to record children's running records and record strategy work, such as echo reading. They then allowed children to play back the recordings for miscue analysis and fluency discussion. Recordings would be useful additions to tutoring lesson submissions, and Voicethread is another possible means of recording some of the tutoring.

As Conceicao (2006) commented, online teaching and learning environments are a new educational paradigm that “are not controllable and predictable; they require faculty members to think about themselves very differently as instructors, recognize the changes in the educational paradigm, engage in new kinds of activities, and reconsider the meaning of being an expert” (p. 44.) Moving the university-based reading clinic to an online setting requires redesigning of the course content and structure in a way that is conducive to the online setting. The redesign opens up opportunities for incorporating digital ways of teaching and learning into the typical reading clinic format. Research that addresses new ways to incorporate technology to increase the learning of tutors and children being tutored in an online reading clinic is needed.

Additional research toward the facilitation of the online reading clinic practicum course for instructors teaching the course and graduate students participating in the course is needed. Edwards, Perry, and Janzen (2011) stated that “online course delivery is here to stay. Thus additional research aimed at providing further information about how the instructor can positively influence the learning experienced by the student should be a priority” (p. 114).

CONCLUSION

Reading clinics are not only an essential part of the preparation of effective reading teachers, they also provide a service to the community, to the children attending the clinic, and to the parents (Sargent, Hill, and Morrison, 2007). Whether the reading clinic is situated in a university-based, on-campus setting or a field-based setting in local schools, the reading clinic provides a service that is hard to replace (Ortlieb et al., 2012). By nature, an online course reaches participants in multiple locations within a state, in multiple states, and even internationally. It is, in effect, an opportunity to provide local, regional, national, and global service to teachers, children, and stakeholders wherever they are located. Moving the reading clinic to an online setting extends the benefits of university reading clinics to populations and locations that would usually not be able to experience the benefits of reading clinic participation. It reaches more diverse populations and provides a more unique learning experience because it is not restricted to a geographical area. It provides opportunities for teaching and learning with technological components that would not be available in traditional reading clinic formats. This is a new opportunity for reading intervention using the digital world of the 21st Century—modernizing the reading clinic format.

Students from multiple states and countries are enrolled in the Master’s Degree in Reading program at this university, so courses must be offered completely online. Online reading programs increase the number of graduate

students enrolled in university reading programs, which also increases the number of children with reading needs who are helped by online reading clinic tutoring. The state where the university is located is a rural state with limited educational resources in the more remote areas. Children no longer need to live near the university to benefit from university reading clinic tutoring; wherever there is a graduate student enrolled in the online reading clinic practicum course, children with reading needs can be helped. Considering all the positive reasons to move the graduate reading clinic online, the result is that it meets the needs of graduate students and children with reading needs, as well as the needs of other stakeholders, just as the face-to-face, university-based reading clinic does. Responding to graduate student needs for access to the university reading master's program and to the increasing use of technology in society, modernizing the university reading clinic in the 21st century logically includes moving the reading program and the reading clinic to an online format and setting.

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APPENDIX

Tutoring Lesson Plan Directions

General Directions

Complete a lesson plan for each tutoring session. This document provides you with needed information to complete your lesson plan. Read completely through before starting a lesson plan.

1. Choose appropriate instruction based on your synthesis of the initial assessment data, as well as on the information you learned about the student's background and interests.
2. For the first tutoring lesson, introduce an instructional level book based on the instructional level determined from the BRI assessment. Bring three or four trade books on the student's instructional level. These should be instructional level books you selected based on the student's interests in the interest inventory.
 - a. Ask the student to choose the book he or she likes best. Choice is a big motivator, so that is one reason you want the student to choose the book you will use for instruction. This will be the book you use for running records and for instruction.
 - b. If you are working with a younger student, you may work through several short, instructional level picture books during the tutoring. If you are working with an older student, the student may choose one chapter book that you will use for instruction throughout the tutoring.
 - c. Introduce the book by doing a book walk, talking about the author and illustrator, making predictions about the book, etc.
 - d. Introduce a 100-word passage for a cold running record. Have the student read the passage from the book as you record miscues on a copy of the passage. Analyze the running record later. Do not use tutoring time to analyze the running record assessment.

3. During the next part of the same tutoring lesson, work on strategies you have selected that are related to needs (decoding or comprehension, vocabulary, fluency, phonemic awareness, phonics, writing, etc.). For example, select words to work on from the instructional level book that the student missed during the cold running record. Select some appropriate strategies from the *Improving Reading* (Johns & Lenski, 2010) text.
4. Include some type of writing activity in the tutoring. For example, young students may draw a picture of the story climax and write a caption for the picture. You may have the student write an entry in a personal journal. You might have the student write an entry in a dialogue journal to which you will respond with your own journal entry. You could do an alternate writing activity, creating a story together, and so on.
5. End your tutoring session with a read aloud. This is an enjoyable way to end the tutoring session on a positive note. Bring three or four books selected from the student's interests on the interest inventory. These books should be at the student's instructional level or slightly above. For younger students, you read to the student, stop and make predictions, ask questions in a conversational format (not a formal teacher-student setting), etc. Older students may prefer to take turns with you in reading the story. This is ok. The goal is to involve them in the story. Do not use the same book for instruction that you use for the read aloud.
6. For the second through ninth tutoring sessions:
 - a. Reread the familiar book introduced at the previous session; it should be on the student's instructional level.
 - b. Take a hot running record (a 100-word passage) on the familiar book or chapter introduced in the last tutoring session, and analyze miscues after the session. The goal is for the student to move from the instructional reading level in this book to the independent reading level as a result of rereading and strategy work. Use Clay's criteria (Clay, 2005) to determine the instructional and independent reading levels: 95 to 100 words correct is the independent level, 90 to 94 words correct is the instructional level, and below 90 words correct is too difficult. Compare the previous cold running record from the last session to this tutoring session's hot running record.

- c. Introduce a new book, or if it is a chapter book, probably the next chapter in the same, instructional level book. Take a cold running record on a 100-word passage that the student reads for the first time in this tutoring session. This will be the next tutoring session's hot running record.
 - d. Introduce reading or writing strategies related to the instructional book and work on those in the strategy section of the lesson plan.
 - e. For writing activity choices, use a personal journal, interactive writing, alternate writing, writing with the writing process (student may use emergent writing with invented spelling or more advanced writing process work), etc.
 - f. Always end each tutoring session with a read aloud book. Be sure to do this even you only have a few minutes to read aloud. The book should be an instructional level book or one the student cannot read but one in which the student is interested.
7. For the tenth tutoring session:
- a. This is the last tutoring session, so you will not introduce a new book for the next tutoring session.
 - b. Just use the same book that you used for the familiar running record (hot running record) this session to work on strategies. Compare the first session running record to the last session running record.
 - c. Have the student do a self-evaluation of the tutoring experience.
 - d. End with a read aloud.

Other General Directions

8. Complete the goals, standards, methods, strategies, and materials parts of each lesson plan section before the tutoring session.
- a. State goals clearly. Ask yourself, "What do I want the student to learn or to be able to do?"
 - b. Identify the standards and the method, strategy, or technique you will use to teach. Ask yourself, "How will I teach the lesson?"
 - c. For the materials, identify all the materials you will use. If using a book, identify the book, the author, and the readability level (grade level equivalent).
 - d. For the analysis part of each section, jot down notes during the lesson, and then complete the analysis as soon as possible after the tutoring session.

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9. After the tutoring session, complete the analysis sections of each part of the lesson plan.
 - a. Analyze the results of any assessment that you complete. What are your interpretations of the data? This includes running records. How does the original cold running record compare to the hot running record (rereading)? Did the student's reading level improve from the cold running record to the hot running record? Were the same words miscued? What did you learn from the assessment? What were the student's behaviors during the assessment?
 - b. If there is no assessment data in a specific section, what is your analysis of this part of the lesson? What insights into the student's reading and writing have you learned through this assessment or this section of the lesson?
 - c. When you are planning instruction for the student you are tutoring, consider the results of the instruction. Will you change your instruction in any way? Why or why not? Will you introduce a new strategy to address certain needs? Why or why not?
 10. Finally, for each tutoring lesson, identify the instructional needs of the student based on the information from this lesson. Then, identify the instructional strengths of the student based on the information from this lesson.
 11. When the lesson plan is completed, there should be a clear alignment between the goals, the assessments, and the instruction.
 12. Finally, don't be afraid to ask questions if you are not sure of a procedure or don't understand something—that is how we all learn!

EXPLORING
THE WORLD OF
LITERACY

READING ABOUT LITERACY: A STUDY REVISITED

Daniel L. Pearce

Texas A&M University – Corpus Christi

Corinne M. Valadez

Texas A&M University – Corpus Christi

Tiana M. Pearce

Texas A&M University – Corpus Christi

Abstract

The purpose of this survey was to identify works that professors of literacy considered important for those completing a master's degree in reading/literacy. A purposeful sample of 101 professors who were members of Professors of Reading Teacher Educators, an International Reading Association Special Interest Group and employed in institutions offering a master's degree in reading/literacy were recruited to participate in this study. Emails were written requesting titles of ten works that a person finishing a master's degree in reading/literacy should have read. Thirty-two professors (32%) replied with recommended works. These recommendations were tabulated and categorized into one of five categories. A second round questionnaire was sent to the thirty-two participants asking them to rate the importance of those works named two or more times and give a reason for their ranking. These results were tabulated and the results were compared to the 1980 study by Pearce and Bader.

“**W**hat books should I read to be a well-informed reading professional?” is a question frequently asked by graduate students. The authors became interested in the topic of recommended readings as a result of just such

a question. The resulting discussion expanded to include other literacy professors. What was found were organization websites with recommended books. For example, the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) has a website entitled, “Fran Claggett’s List of Recommended Readings for Educators” (n.d.) in which teachers send in recommendations. In addition, some universities have lists aimed at specific groups. For instance, Western Michigan University has a Professional Reading List for Secondary English Teachers (“Professional Reading List: Teaching Literature in Secondary Schools”, n.d.). Surprisingly, recent articles identifying and recommending books/works for individuals engaged in literacy teaching at a university or for graduate students studying reading/literacy were not found. The most recent recommended work identified for those involved in graduate reading education was the Pearce and Bader (1980) study. In subsequent discussions with students and professors two questions were consistently raised. First, what would a current list of recommended reading contain, and second, given the changes in reading education would there be any similarity between a current survey and the works identified in the Pearce and Bader study? As a result of these findings, the decision was made to update the Pearce and Bader study.

Pearce and Bader (1980) surveyed reading professors at institutions offering a master’s degree in reading. Professors were contacted by mail and asked to submit a list of up to 10 books that they felt a person finishing a master’s degree in reading should have read. Fifty-five professors responded and a total of 151 works were listed. The recommendations were grouped into one of five categories:

- Reading,
- Psychology and Language,
- Diagnosis and Remediation,
- Other, and
- Studies.

Each category listed the works most often cited and a frequency of listing. They also noted that the results might have been different if the respondents had been asked to check books listed or if the survey had been conducted in a different manner.

More than 30 years have passed since the Pearce and Bader (1980) study and many changes have occurred in the field of reading since then. One such change is that literacy has replaced reading in many graduate programs’ degrees (i.e., a master’s degree in reading has become a master’s degree in literacy). This

has also been reflected in the name changes of two professional organizations (i.e., National Reading Conference became the Literacy Research Association; College Reading Association became the Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers Association). Consequently, the authors decided to modify the original survey. Instead of asking for works recommended for a person finishing a master's degree in reading, recommendations for a person finishing a master's degree in literacy were requested. It was felt that this change would allow for the inclusion of professors at institutions whose reading programs had changed into literacy programs to respond.

The purposes of this study were:

1. To develop a list of recommended works completing a master's degree in literacy should have either been familiar with or read.
2. To rank and present reasons professors recommended those works,
3. To compare these results with the results of the Pearce and Bader (1980) work.

METHOD

Research Design

This study was a two-round survey of literacy professors teaching at universities in the United States. The first-round of the survey asked professors to name up to 10 works a person finishing a master's degree in literacy should have read. For the purposes of this study, works was defined as articles, research studies, books, and pamphlets. The results of the survey's first-round were tabulated. Those works listed two or more times were included in a second-round questionnaire which was sent to the round one's respondents. The round two participants were asked to rank each title for importance and provide a reason for their rankings. These results were tabulated. The final tabulations were compared to the results of the Pearce and Bader (1980) study.

This study used a purposeful sample consisting of members of the Professors of Reading Teacher Educators (PRTE) which is a Special interest Group (SIG) of the International Reading Association with over 200 members. The authors obtained permission to contact members using the PRTE membership list. The authors went through the membership list and eliminated members whose email addresses were not university emails in the United States. The authors verified that the university listed offered a master's degree in literacy/reading, and in which resulted in 125 emails being sent. The email stated the purpose for the study and asked for a list of up to 10 works that a person finishing a master's

degree in literacy should be familiar with or have read. A second request was sent to non-responders. Of the original 125 emails sent, 24 replies were received stating that the recipient did not teach graduate classes, was a graduate student, or opted out of the survey for various reasons. Of the 101 remaining participants, completed responses were received from 32 participants (32% response rate). These 32 respondents represented 24 different universities in 18 states.

The results of the first round were tabulated and classified into categories. The authors attempted to classify works using Pearce and Bader's five categories. However, after examining and discussing the works it was decided that new categories were needed. The authors used a three step procedure to arrive at the new categories. First, the authors discussed each work named two or more times. Second, the authors attempted to classify each of the works using tentative categories. Through a series of discussions, categories changed, and the authors arrived at five new categories, which could accommodate the range of works listed. These five categories were:

- Literacy Instruction,
- Assessment,
- Theoretical,
- Reference, and
- Other.

A second-round survey was then sent to the 32 participants who had responded and listed works in round one. The second questionnaire listed those works named two or more times. Participants were asked to rank each work on a 1 to 4 scale: 1) Very Important for a person finishing a master's degree in literacy to have read/be familiar with; 2) Somewhat Important for a person finishing a master's degree in literacy to have read/be familiar with; 3) Least Important for a person finishing a master's degree in literacy to have read/be familiar with; and 4) Not Familiar With. They were also asked to assign a reason for each rating. The reasons were: A) Historical Significance; B) Impact on the Field of Literacy; C) Reader Friendly; D) Covers Essential Content; E) Relevant to Classroom Teachers; and F) Other.

Sixteen participants, from 15 different universities in 10 states, completed and returned the second round of surveys. These results were tabulated and the most frequently cited importance and reason were identified. For instance, 16 respondents ranked Rosenblatt's (1995) *Literature as Exploration* for importance: nine of the participants ranked it as being Very Important, five as Somewhat

Important, and three ranked it as being of Little Importance. The most frequent response was 1, Very Important. For this reason, the most frequent response was “A” Historical Significance.

RESULTS

The results of the first round of questionnaires had a total of 229 works/books listed at least once with 59 works listed two or more times. Works listed two or more times were categorized into one of five categories: Literacy Instruction, Assessment, Theory, References, and Others. The categorized works and number of times they were listed in round one are presented in below.

Literacy Instruction Category

In Pearce and Bader’s study (1980), Developmental was one of five categories and included works that dealt with normal reading development. The works named in the current study included titles that dealt with the more inclusive literacy instruction instead of being limited to reading instruction. The category, Literacy Instruction, focused on classroom instruction in an aspect of literacy (reading, writing, and vocabulary instruction). The works categorized as Literacy Instruction reflected classroom practices in reading and writing instruction from the primary through secondary levels. The works in this category presented in Table 1 included books on elementary reading instruction, content reading instruction, literacy best practices, and vocabulary instruction.

TABLE 1 Literacy Instruction

<i>f</i>	Work
7	Gallagher, K. (2009). <i>Readicide: How schools are killing reading and what you can do about it</i> .
7	Samuels, S. J., & Farstrup, A. E. (2011). <i>What research has to say about reading instruction</i> (4th ed.).
6	Bear, D. R., Invernizzi, M., Templeton, S., & Johnston, F. (2012). <i>Words their way: Word study for phonics, vocabulary and spelling instruction</i> (5th ed.).
5	Allington, R. (2011). <i>What really matters for struggling readers: Designing research-based programs</i> (3rd ed.).
5	Morrow, L M., Gambrell, L.B., & Duke, N. (2011). <i>Best practices in literacy instruction</i> (4th ed.).
4	Atwell, N. (1998). <i>In the Middle: New understanding about writing, reading, and learning</i> (2nd ed.).

(Continued)

TABLE 1 Literacy Instruction (Continued)

<i>f</i>	Work
4	Johns, J., & Lenski, S. D. (2005). <i>Improving reading: Strategies and resources</i> .
4	Reutzel, D.R. & Cooter, R.B., Jr. (2012). <i>Teaching children to read: The teacher makes the difference</i> (6th ed.).
3	Beers, K. (2003). <i>When kids can't read: What teachers can do: A guide for teachers 6-12</i> .
3	Gambrell, L. B. (2011). Seven rules of engagement: What's most important to know about motivation to read. <i>The Reading Teacher</i> , 63(3), 172-178.
3	Tierney, R., & Readence, J. (2006). <i>Reading strategies and practices: A compendium</i> (6th ed.).
3	Vacca, R. & Vacca, J. (2010). <i>Content area reading: Literacy and learning across the curriculum</i> (10th ed.).
2	Adams, M. (1990). <i>Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about print</i> .
2	Bomer, R. (1995). <i>Time for meaning crafting literate lives in middle and high school</i> .
2	Booth, D. (2011). <i>Caught in the middle: Reading and writing in the transition years</i> .
2	Fletcher, R. & Portalupi, J. (2001). <i>Writing workshop: The essential guide</i> .
2	Fountas, I. & Pinnell, G. S. (2003). <i>Guided reading: Good first teaching for all children</i> .
2	Fountas, I. & Pinnell, G. (2007). <i>The continuum of literacy learning, grades K-2: A guide to teaching</i> .
2	Keene, E. & Zimmermann, S. (2007). <i>Mosaic of thought</i> .
2	Pressley, M. (2000). What should comprehension instruction be the instruction of? In M.L. Kamil, P.B. Mosenthal, P.D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), <i>Handbook of reading research</i> , 3, pp. 545-562.
2	Rasinski, T., & Pakak, N. (2004). <i>Effective reading strategies: Teaching children who find reading difficult</i> (3rd ed.).
2	Richardson, J., Morgan, R., & Fleener, C. (2012). <i>Reading to learn in the content areas</i> (8th ed.).
2	Tompkins, G. (2009). <i>Literacy for the 21st Century: A balanced approach</i> (5th ed.).
2	Tovani, C. (2000). <i>I read it, but I don't get it</i> .
2	Weaver, C. (2002). <i>Reading process & practice</i> .

Note: *f* = frequency of listing

ASSESSMENT CATEGORY

In Pearce and Bader’s study (1980), one category was Diagnosis and Remediation and it included works on diagnosis and remediation of reading. The category, Assessment, focused on assessment of reading and writing, as well as the larger issue of assessment within and outside of the classroom. Works named in the current study, included books dealing with the issue of assessment of reading and writing not just diagnosis of reading. The works categorized as Assessment are presented in Table 2 and include works on diagnosis of reading and writing and classroom assessment.

THEORETICAL CATEGORY

In Pearce and Bader’s (1980) study, one of the categories was Psychology and Language. In the current study, the works named reflected titles that dealt with issues that focused more on theory than linking these works to psychology and language. The works categorized as Theoretical are presented in Table 3 and include works on Theoretical models, reading processes, and instructional models.

TABLE 2 Assessment

<i>f</i>	Work
5	Gunning, T. G. (2009). <i>Assessing and correcting reading and writing difficulties</i> (4th ed.).
4	Afflerbach, P. (2007). <i>Understanding and using reading assessment K-12</i> .
2	Bader, L., & Pearce, D. (2008). <i>Bader reading and language inventory</i> (6th ed.).
2	Caldwell, J. & Leslie, L. (2009). <i>Intervention strategies to follow informal reading inventory assessment</i> (2nd ed.).
2	Clay, M. (2002). <i>An observation survey of early literacy achievement</i> .
2	Hill, B., Ruptic, C., & Norwick, L. (1998). <i>Classroom based assessment</i> .
2	Leslie, L. & Caldwell, J. (2011). <i>Qualitative reading inventory</i> (5th ed.).
2	Shanker, J. & Ekwall, E. (2003). <i>Locating and correcting reading difficulties</i> (8th ed.).
2	Any reading inventory or any comprehensive inventory

Note: *f*=frequency of listing

TABLE 3 Theoretical

<i>f</i>	Work
9	Ruddell, R. & Unrau, N. (2004). <i>Theoretical models and processes of reading</i> (5th ed.).
7	Smith, F. (2004). <i>Understanding reading</i> (6th ed.).
5	Rosenblatt, L. (1994). <i>The reader, the text, the poem. The transactional theory of the literacy work.</i>
4	Smith, F. & Goodman, K. (2008). "On the psycholinguistic method of teaching reading" Revisited. <i>Language Arts</i> , 86(1), 61-65.
3	Cobb, J. & Kallus, M. (2011). <i>Historical, theoretical, and sociological foundations of reading in the United States.</i>
3	Stahl, S. & Hayes, D. (Eds.). (1997). <i>Instructional Models in Reading</i>
3	Vasquez, V. (2010). <i>Getting beyond "I like the book": Creating space for critical literacy in K-6 classrooms.</i>
2	Rosenblatt, L. (1939; 1995). <i>Literature as exploration</i> (5th ed.).
2	Tracey, D. & Morrow, L. (2006). <i>Lenses on reading: An introduction to theories and models.</i>
2	Vygotsky, L. (2002). <i>Thought and language</i> (13th ed.).

Note: *f*=frequency of listing

REFERENCE CATEGORY

Pearce and Bader (1980) did not have a category for references. Titles named in the current study reflect the emergence of works that are not studies per se but intended as either reflections on the current state of literacy that achieved a degree of national attention or resources for those in the literacy field that are not classroom teachers or even public school administrators (i.e., professors, researchers, etc.). The works categorized as References are presented in Table 4 and include summaries of research, analysis of the state of literacy, and resource books.

OTHERS

In Pearce and Bader's (1980) study, Other was a category. The authors kept this category and included those works that did not appear to fall into any of the other categories. The exception being specific studies that were either over 30 years old that seemed to be included for historical significance instead of more current analysis. The works categorized as Other are presented in Table 5 and include summaries of research, analysis of the state of literacy, and resource books.

TABLE 4 References

<i>f</i>	Work
3	<i>Handbook of Reading Research</i> Volumes IV through I in that order
3	American Psychological Association (2009). <i>Publication manual of the American Psychological Association</i> (6th ed.).
2	Anderson, R. (1985). <i>Becoming a Nation of Readers: The Report of the Commission on Reading</i> .
2	Bean, R., Heisey, N., & Roller, C. (Eds.) (2010). <i>Preparing reading professionals</i> (2nd ed.).
2	Kamil, M., Pearson, P., Moje, E., & Afflerbach, P. (Eds.) (2011). <i>Handbook of reading research</i> (Vol. IV).
2	National Reading Panel (2000). <i>Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction, Report of the National Reading Panel</i> .
2	Armbruster, B., Lehr, F., & Osborn, J. (2001). <i>Put reading first: The research building blocks for teaching children to read</i> .
2	Snow, C., Burns, S. & Griffin, P. (Eds.) (1998). <i>Preventing reading difficulties in young children</i> .
2	International Reading Association (2010). <i>Standards for Reading Professionals</i> .
2	<i>Handbook on Reading Research</i> (multiple copies)

Note: *f*=frequency of listing

TABLE 5 Other

<i>f</i>	Work
3	Johnson, D. & Johnson, B. (2011). <i>Words: The foundation of literacy</i> .
3	Tunnell, M. & Jacobs, J. (2011). <i>Children's literature, briefly</i> (5th ed.).
2	Bond, G. & Dykstra, R. (1967). <i>Report of the coordinating center for first-grade reading instruction programs</i> .
2	Chall, J. (1967). <i>Learning to read: The great debate</i> .
2	Chall, J. & Feldmann, S. (1966). <i>A study of depth of first grade reading: An analysis of the interactions of professed methods, teacher implementation, and child background</i> .
2	Heath, S. (1983). <i>Ways with words: Language, life, and work in communities and classrooms</i> .
2	Shaywitz, S. (2003). <i>Overcoming dyslexia</i> .
2	Sternberg, R. & Spear-Swerling, L. (1999). <i>Perspectives on learning disability: Biological, cognitive, contextual</i> .

Note: *f*=frequency of listing

Respondents to the original request (32 professors) were sent a list of the works named two or more times. Participants were asked to rank each work and assign a reason for each ranking. Sixteen professors from 15 universities returned completed questionnaires. The authors tallied the results and 29 works were cited as either being 1 (Very Important) or 2 (Somewhat Important) by a majority of the respondents. The results of the second round of questionnaires presenting the most frequent choice for those works in which a majority of professors ranked the work a 1 and a 2 are presented in Table 6. The results present the respondent's most frequent choice of a work's importance, the most frequent reason given for selection, and category.

TABLE 6 Round-two Modal Rankings of Works' Importance and Reason for Ranking

Level of Importance	<i>f</i>	Reason for Ranking	<i>f</i>	Work	Category
1	13	D	8	Allington, R. (2011). <i>What really matters for struggling readers: Designing research-based programs</i> (3rd ed.).	LI
1	13	B	7	International Reading Association (2010). <i>Standards for Reading Professionals</i>	R
1	12	A	6	Ruddell, R. & Unrau, N. (2004). <i>Theoretical models and processes of reading</i> (5th ed.).	T
1	12	B	7	<i>Handbook of Reading Research</i> (multiple volumes)	R
1	11	A	7	Clay, M. (2002). <i>An observation survey of early literacy achievement</i> .	A
1	10	A	14	Vygotsky, L. (2002). <i>Thought and language</i> .	T
1	10	B	13	National Reading Panel (2000). <i>Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction</i> .	R
1	10	B	10	Samuels, S. & Farstrup, A. (2011). <i>What research has to say about reading instruction</i> (4th ed.).	LI
1	10	E	7	Any Comprehensive Informal Reading Inventory	A

1	9	A	11	Bond, G. L., & Dykstra, R. (1967). <i>Coordinating center for first-grade reading programs.</i>	O
1	9	A	10	Rosenblatt, L. (1995). <i>Literature as exploration</i> (5th ed.).	T
1	9	A	10	Rosenblatt, L. (1994). <i>The reader, the text, the poem. The transactional theory of the literacy work.</i>	T
1	9	B	8	Pressley, M. (2000). <i>What should comprehension instruction be the instruction of?</i>	LI
1	9	B	8	American Psychological Association (2001). <i>Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association</i> (6th ed.).	R
1	8	A	13	Chall, J. (1967). <i>Learning to read: The great debate.</i>	O
1	8	B	11	Snow, C. (1998). <i>Preventing reading difficulties in young children.</i>	R
1	7	E	14	Fountas, I. & Pinnell, G. (2003). <i>Guided reading: Good first teaching for all children.</i>	LI
1	7	E	6	Bader, L., & Pearce, D. (2008). <i>Bader Reading and Language Inventory</i> (6th ed.).	A
1	7	E	7	Gambrell, L. (2011). Seven rules of engagement: What's most important to know about motivation to read. <i>The Reading Teacher</i> , 63(3), 172-178.	LI
1	5	E	5	Gallagher, K. (2009). <i>Readicide: How schools are killing reading and what you can do about it.</i>	LI
2	8	A	8	Smith, F. & Goodman, K. (2008). On the psycholinguistic method of teaching reading revisited. <i>Language Arts</i> , 86(1), 61-65.	T
2	8	B	6	Johnson, D. & Johnson, B. (2011). <i>Words: The foundation of literacy.</i>	O

(Continued)

TABLE 6 Round-two Modal Rankings of Works' Importance and Reason for Ranking (*Continued*)

Level of Importance	<i>f</i>	Reason for Ranking	<i>f</i>	Work	Category
2	8	D	8	Gunning, T. (2009). <i>Assessing and correcting reading and writing difficulties</i> (4th ed.).	A
2	8	E	10	Bear, D., Invernizzi, M., Templeton, S., & Johnston, F. (2012). <i>Words their way: Word study for phonics, vocabulary and spelling instruction</i> (5th ed.).	LI
2	8	E	6	Afflerbach, P. (2007). <i>Understanding and using reading assessment K-12</i> .	A
2	7	A	6	Smith, F. (2004). <i>Understanding reading</i> (6th ed.).	T
2	7	B	8	Stahl, S., & Hayes, D. (Eds.). <i>Instructional models in reading</i> .	T
2	3	A	5	Cobb, J. B., & Kallus, M. K. (2011). <i>Historical, theoretical, and sociological foundations of reading in the United States</i> .	T
2	2	B	2	Tunnell, M. O., & Jacobs, J. S. (2011). <i>Children's literature, briefly</i> (5th ed.).	O

Note: *f*=frequency of listing

Level of Importance: 1) Very Important; 2) Somewhat Important;

Reason for Ranking: A) Historical Significance; B) Impact on field; C) Reader Friendly;

D) Covers Essential Content; E) Relevant to Teachers; F) Other.

Category: ^{LI}Literacy Instruction; ^AAssessment; ^TTheoretical; ^RReference; ^OOther

Sixty-two works had been listed two or more times in round one. In round two, 29 works were designated as being either a 1 (Very Important) or 2 (Somewhat Important) by the majority of the 16 respondents. For instance, Gallagher (2009) had 5 people rate it 1 (Very Important), 4 rated it a 2 (Somewhat Important), and 7 respondents were not familiar with the work. In contrast, Rasinski and Padak (2004) was one of the works named in round one and is not included in the results of round two because a majority of respondents did not rate it a 1 or a 2. In all, 37 of the works named in round one were not listed as either being Very Important or Somewhat Important by the majority of respondents.

COMPARING TO THE ORIGINAL STUDY

The third purpose of this study was to compare the results to the Pearce and Bader (1980) study. In the original study, the categories included Developmental, Diagnosis and Remediation, Psychology and Language, Other, and Studies. The current study categorized recommended works into five categories: Classroom Instruction, Assessment, Theory, Reference, and Other.

The Pearce and Bader study had 55 professors list 156 books. Of these, 47 works were listed at least 3 or more times. They categorized the works into five areas. The five categories and the four most recommended works in each of these categories is given below. See the list of titles and authors below.

DEVELOPMENTAL

- Spache, G. & Spache, E. (1977). *Reading in the elementary school* (4th ed.).
Harris, A. & Sipay, E. (1975). *How to increase reading ability: A guide to developmental and remedial methods* (6th ed.).
Herber, H. (1978). *Teaching reading in content area* (2nd ed.).
Durkin, D. (1978). *Teaching them to read* (3rd ed.).

Psychology and Language

- Huey, E. (1968). *Psychology and pedagogy of reading*.
Smith, F. (1978). *Understanding reading* (2nd ed.).
Singer, H. & Ruddell, R. (1976). *Theoretical models and processes of reading* (2nd ed.).
Gibson, E. & Levin, H. (1975). *The psychology of reading*.

Diagnosis and Remediation

- Ekwall, E. (1976). *Diagnosis and remediation of the disabled reader*.
Bond, G. & Tinker, M. (1973). *Reading difficulties: Their diagnosis and correction* (3rd ed.).
Fernald, G. (1943). *Remedial techniques in basic school subjects*.
Spache, G. (1976). *Diagnosing and correcting reading disabilities*.

Other

- Smith, N. (1965). *American reading instruction*
Chall, J. (1967). *Learning to read: The great debate*.
Huck, C. (1976). *Children's literature in the elementary school* (3rd ed.).
Fader, D. & McNeil, E. (1977). *Hooked on books: Program and proof*.

Studies

- Robinson, H. (1946). *Why pupils fail in reading*.
Thorndike, E. (1917). Reading as reasoning: A study of mistakes in paragraph reading. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 8, 323-332.
Bond, G. & Dyskstra, R. (1976). The cooperative research program in First grade reading. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 2, 5-142.
Clymer, T. (1963). The utility of Phonic generalizations in the primary grades. *Reading Teacher*, 16, 252-258.
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In addition, Pearce and Bader (1980) listed the 10 most frequently listed works from the two students. The list is found in Table 7.

TABLE 7 Comparison between Top 10 Most Frequently Cited Works

1980 Study	2013 Study
Title	Title
• <i>Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading</i>	• <i>Theoretical Models of Reading</i>
• <i>Understanding Reading</i>	• <i>Understanding Reading</i>
• <i>Reading in Elementary School</i>	• <i>Readicide: How Schools are Killing Reading and What You Can Do About It</i>
• <i>How to Increase Reading in the Elementary School</i>	• <i>What Research Has to Say About Reading Instruction</i>
• <i>Teaching Reading in Content Areas</i>	• <i>Words Their Way: Word Study for Phonics, Vocabulary and Spelling Instruction</i>
• <i>American Reading Instruction</i>	• <i>Handbook of Reading Research (multiple copies)</i>
• <i>Learning to Read: The Great Debate</i>	• <i>Best Practices in Literacy Instruction</i>
• <i>Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading</i>	• <i>The Reader, the Text, the Poem. The Transactional Theory of the Literacy Work</i>
• <i>Diagnosis and Remediation of the Disabled Reader</i>	• <i>Assessing and Correcting Reading and Writing Difficulties</i>
• <i>The Psychology of Reading</i>	• <i>What Really Matters for Struggling Readers: Designing Research-Based Programs</i>

In addition to comparing the 10 most frequently cited works from both studies, this study compared the most often cited authors. Pearce and Bader (1980) listed the 10 most frequently cited authors. Table 8 presents the 10 most frequently cited authors from both studies.

TABLE 8 Comparison between Studies of Most Cited Authors

1980 Study	2013 Study
Author	Author
• Smith, F.	• Smith, F.
• Spache, G.	• Ruddell, R. B.
• Huey, E.	• Unrau, N. J.
• Spache, E.	• Gambrell, L.
• Smith, N. B.	• Farstrup, A. E.
• Ekwall, E. E.	• Gallagher, K.
• Harris, A.	• Morrow, L. M.
• Sipay, E.	• Rosenblatt, L. M.
• Herber, H. L.	• Samuels, S. J.
• Chall, J. (tied with Herber)	• Kamil, M. & Pearson, P.

DISCUSSION

The results of this survey indicated that there is a range of choices the professors surveyed would recommend to students finishing a degree in literacy. The most recommended work was Ruddell and Unrau's (2004) *Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading* (5th ed.) which was recommended by a quarter of those who responded to the survey. While no single work was named by a majority, a number of professors' recommendations encompassed works from five areas: classroom instruction, assessment, working with struggling readers, theory, and/or works which synthesized existing research.

Upon reflection, some possible reasons were posited which might explain this diversity. The first explanation involves the respondents. We surveyed members of PRTE, an International Reading Association's Special Interest Group (SIG). We made no attempt to identify where participants taught (private, public, region, masters, doctoral or region of the country). A different population, either larger or more specified, might have yielded different results. A second posited explanation involved the number of publishing companies who offer a large number of choices for professors to use in their class. This, and online availability, have changed the way instructors identify and adopt texts. Today's professors are no longer limited to word of mouth or a visit by a publisher's representative to identify potential textbooks. Potential works can be identified and examined through the web. This, we speculate might result in a range of recommended works for graduate literacy education. And while no single title might be the choice of a majority of responding professors, the choices did reflect common themes across the works identified.

We compared the results of the current survey with Pearce and Bader's (1980) results for two reasons. The first was to identify changes in the kinds of works deemed important by professors. While we expected some changes, an examination of the results from the two studies supplies a lens in which to look at the evolution of the field. A second related reason was curiosity. We, and our doctoral students, wanted to see if any of the works or authors deemed important in 1980 would be either named by a plurality of today's professors or deemed as still being important.

The works named in round one, when compared to the 1980 study, reflect some specific changes in the world of literacy instruction. In the 1980 study, no works were listed which specifically addressed writing while such works were recommended in the current study. This reflects an awareness of the strong interaction between reading and writing and the emphasis upon literacy as opposed to just reading. Another indicator of change is that in the current study informal reading inventories were listed both as individual works and as the general statement of any comprehensive informal reading inventory. No informal reading

inventories were listed in the 1980 study. This may reflect market availability or the current emphasis on high stakes assessment. Other indicators of the evolution in the field were the inclusion of the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association and the International Reading Association's Standards for Reading Professionals; neither of which appeared in the Pearce and Bader (1980) study. The authors posit that this development reflects increasing demands for the professionalization of the reading/literacy discipline. This professionalism manifests itself in two ways. The first is increased national, regional, and state accreditation of programs, which is supported by the respondents naming of the IRA Standards book. The second is increased pressure on faculty members to have students write scholarly papers. For instance, the Southern Association for the Accreditation of Colleges and Universities (SACS) specifies that master's degrees must have a thesis, written capstone project, or a comprehensive exam. Another difference between the two studies is the absence of any works dealing with Language Experience. We interpret this as a manifestation of the emphasis on uniform instruction focusing on one or more of the five pillars of reading (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998).

Some works were named in both surveys. These were different editions of *Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading* (Singer & Ruddell, 1976; Ruddell & Unrau, 2004), *Smith's Understanding Reading* (1978; 2004), and while cited differently, the *First Grade studies* (Bond & Dykstra, 1967; 1976). Only Frank Smith was among the 10 most frequently named authors in both studies.

The results of the second round of the survey offer additional information that goes beyond a listing of works. Twenty nine different works were named as being either Very Important or Somewhat Important by a majority of those who responded to round two. An examination of these works indicates that while variation might exist in an individual's recommendations, a commonality exists in the pattern of recommend works deemed important or somewhat important. The 29 works that were deemed Very Important or Somewhat Important deal with classroom instruction, assessment, working with struggling readers, theory and/or works which synthesized existing research. This supports the authors' earlier observation that while individual recommendations differ, a pattern exists in the kinds of works recommended.

The reasons given for selecting the importance of the work in the second round fall into two main categories: Historical Significance and Impact on the Field. The reason for 10 of the 16 works named as being Very Important was Historical Significance. These results suggest that while individual recommendations vary, there is recognition by professors, or those professors that participated in this survey, that reading/literacy instruction has a history and that those involved

in the field need to be aware of that history. At the same time, 7 of the 16 works deemed Very Important were chosen because of their Impact on the Field. These two factors, Historical Significance and Impact on the Field suggest that professors want graduate students to be aware of the past and be familiar with newer works which are having an impact on the field.

This survey has limitations as do all surveys. Another survey with a different group of literacy professors might result in a different list of works, importance, and reasons. Still, Pearce and Bader's (1980) statement, "While there are limitations to the present survey, it will have served its purpose if it spurs an interest in reading about reading" (p. 373) is as valid now as it was then.

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MEASURING THE LASTING EFFECTS OF DIALOGIC READING TRAINING ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING CHILDREN AND FAMILIES

Diana Brannon
Elmhurst College

Linda Dauksas
Elmhurst College

Abstract

Dialogic reading is a shared reading strategy used to encourage language interactions between parents/caregivers and their children. The current study was designed to measure the lasting impact dialogic reading training had on the interactions between English language learning (ELL) children and their families and children's expressive language skills. Parents/caregivers involved in the study received five weeks of dialogic reading training three days a week over the course of ten weeks at the beginning of the school year. At the end of the school year, five months after training, parents/caregivers who received the dialogic reading training shared the pictures in the book significantly more, and posed and solicited questions significantly more often than those who did not receive training. ELL children with parents/caregivers who received dialogic reading training also experienced significant increases in their expressive language and accuracy identifying 9% more words than children of parents/caregivers who did not receive training.

Reading aloud to children is an important tool for parents/caregivers to encourage and enhance their children's literacy development. Reading aloud has been found to increase young children's vocabulary, knowledge of

print (Reese & Cox, 1999), language acquisition, early reading performance, and school success (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). Although reading aloud has many benefits, there are other things parents/caregivers can do with their children to increase expressive language skills.

Dialogic reading is a commonly accepted shared reading strategy used to encourage expressive vocabulary development in young children (Mol, Bus, De Jong, & Smeets, 2008). During dialogic reading, parents, teachers, or caregivers share the book reading experience with children through discussion and questioning (Cutspec, 2006). Dialogic reading shifts the interaction and conversation from being adult-led to child-led. Dialogic reading techniques focus on open-ended questions and expanding on children's comments and ideas regarding the book being shared. Participation in shared book activities such as dialogic reading positively affect children's language and literacy development (Philips, Hayden, & Norris, 2006; Shapiro, Anderson, & Anderson, 2002), vocabulary development (Frijters, Barron, & Brunello, 2000), and motivation for reading (Sonnenschein & Munsterman, 2002; Kotaman, 2007), which result in greater school success (Wilde, & Sage, 2007).

There is a strong research base for the benefits of dialogic reading (Hargrave & Sénéchal, 2000; Whitehurst, Falco, Lonigan, Fischel, Valdez-Menchaca, DeBaryshe, & Caulfield, 1988; Arnold, Lonigan, Whitehurst, & Epstein, 1994). However, there is limited research regarding the impact dialogic reading training has on ELL children and families or about programs that are offered in languages other than English.

CURRENT STUDY

The current study was designed to measure the impact dialogic reading training had on ELL children and their families' interactions and children's expressive language skills. The study was conducted in a preschool in the Midwest where the attendees included a large population of ELL children and families. The preschool requires parents/caregivers to spend the first 15 minutes of school with their children reading aloud before leaving their children at school. This read aloud time is called "Family Time".

Parental education (Myrberg & Rosén, 2009) and home language (Halle, Hair, Wandner, McNamara, & Chien, 2012) were studied because each has been found to have an effect on student achievement. The home environment of each group was also studied to make sure that the home environments were similar at the onset of the study. There were no significant differences between the two groups regarding children's involvement in afterschool programs, the

number of adults and children living in the home, number of books in the home, visits to the library, or the number of times children see a parent reading in the home.

PARTICIPANTS

There were three groups of participants for this study. First, there were 42 preschool children (25 boys, 17 girls). Second, there were 21 parents/caregivers whose children attended morning preschool classes that received dialogic reading training during Family Reading Time. There were also 19 parents/caregivers whose children attended afternoon preschool classes who also participated in Family Reading Time, but did not receive any training.

Preschool Children. The average age of the children with parents/caregivers in the dialogic reading group was four years three months while the average age of children with parents/caregivers in the traditional Family Time group was four years two months. An initial survey was given to compare demographic data for the two groups. As Table 1 illustrates, there were no significant differences between the two groups regarding parental education levels or home language.

Parents/Caregivers of Dialogic Morning Group. The parents/caregivers of morning preschool children were asked to participate in dialogic reading

TABLE 1 Characteristics of Parents/Caregivers

Education	Total Group (N=38)	Dialogic Morning Group (N=20)	Traditional Afternoon Group (N=18)
Less than high school	8	5	3
Some high school	6	3	3
High school	13	7	6
Some college	9	4	5
College graduate	2	1	1
Language at Home			
English	9	4	5
English and Spanish	10	5	5
Spanish	16	10	6
Other	3	1	2

Note. Data regarding 1 family in each group was not collected due to absence.

training. Twenty parents/caregivers agreed to participate in the program. Five had not attended high school, 3 attended some high school, 7 completed high school, 4 completed some college, and 1 graduated from college.

Parents/Caregivers of Traditional Afternoon Group. Eighteen parents/caregivers of afternoon preschool children agreed to participate in the study as a member of the traditional Family Time group. Three had not attended high school, 3 attended high school, 6 completed high school, 5 completed some college, and 1 graduated from college.

DIALOGIC READING TRAINING

Parents/caregivers were provided dialogic reading training during Family Time three days a week every other week for 10 weeks. Every other Monday, parents/caregivers received 15 minutes of dialogic reading training focusing on the dialogic reading strategies of Comment, Ask, and Respond (CAR) and 1, 2, 3 Tell Me What You See. The CAR strategy, part of the *Language is the Key Program* designed by Washington Research Institute, was taught for the first two weeks. The last three weeks of training focused on a technique designed by the author specifically for this study called *1, 2, 3 Tell Me What You See*. The parents/caregivers prompts for CAR and 123 are below:

- CAR Prompts
 - C – Comment (Comment on something)
 - A – Ask (Ask child a question)
 - R – Respond (Respond to what child says and add more)
- 123 Prompts
 - Tell (Ask child to tell what he sees)
 - Teach (Teach new vocabulary)
 - Connect (Connect the story to real life)

Dialogic reading parent/caregiver training was provided in English and Spanish by college students. All of the students providing training were asked to attend a full-day in-service on the dialogic reading method and to observe in the preschool classrooms for the first couple of weeks during the semester to build familiarity with the preschool program and with the families before the dialogic reading program began.

During the Monday meetings, parents/caregivers were provided with sample questions in English and Spanish after the CAR or 1, 2, 3 strategy was taught

in the school's library during Family Time. Then, parents/caregivers worked with partners to practice coming up with their own questions in their native language using the book being modeled. Every other Tuesday, parents/caregivers watched the dialogic reading method being modeled in English and Spanish in their child's classroom during Family Time for 10-15 minutes. Every other Wednesday, parents/caregivers practiced the dialogic reading method with their child in their native language using the book being modeled that week. Parents/caregivers were provided books that were written in both English and Spanish. Opportunities for parents/caregivers to work directly with their children at school with support from the program administrators were provided on Wednesdays to allow both parents/caregivers and children time to practice the strategies being learned. Researchers have found that providing opportunities for parents/caregivers and children to work together has been found to be more effective than providing services for either group alone (Cleveland, Corter, Pelletier, Colley, Bertrand, & Jamieson, 2006).

METHODS

Adult – Child Interactive Reading Inventory

Parents'/caregivers' literacy interactions with their children were videotaped in the fall before the study began, in the winter at the conclusion of the dialogic reading training sessions, and at the end of the school year. Families were videotaped for seven minutes each time. This paper compares parents'/caregivers' interactions from the beginning of the school year, prior to dialogic reading training, to the end of the school year, 8 months later in order to see what long-term impact the training program had. Interactions were measured using the Adult – Child Interactive Reading Inventory (ACIRI) developed by Andrea DeBruin-Parecki (1999).

The ACIRI is an observational tool designed to assess adult/child interactions during storybook reading. The ACIRI measures both adult and child behaviors related to 12 literacy behaviors in three categories of reading including: 1) enhancing attention to text, 2) promoting interactive reading and supporting comprehension, and 3) using literacy strategies. The items, categories, and total mean scores for the adult and child portions of the ACIRI were each found to be significantly correlated (DeBruin-Parecki, 1999). Alpha coefficients were calculated for both pre- and post-tests, subscales, and overall. The ACIRI was found to be reliable with Alpha coefficients of .80 or above (Duran, 2008). The construct and consequential validity were also found to be high (DeBruin-Parecki, 1999). ? Details regarding each literacy behavior can be found on Table 2.

Two undergraduate research assistants were trained to score the shared reading videos.

The ACIRI protocol directs each behavior to be scored on a 4-point scale, with 0 indicating that the behavior was not exhibited and a 4 indicating that the behavior happened frequently. However, growth over time was being measured; therefore, the research assistants did not use the 4-point scale. Instead, they recorded and counted the frequency for each of the 12 literacy behaviors exhibited so that the exact number of times each behavior occurred could be measured. Interrater reliability for scoring using the ACIRI was calculated for a random subset of videos (25%). Interrater reliability was 84%.

RESULTS

Paired *t*-tests were performed between groups and within groups across time to determine the effect dialogic reading training had over time on program participants. There were no significant differences between the groups of parents/caregivers or children who were going to receive the dialogic reading training instead of participating in the traditional Family Time and the traditional Family Time group regarding interactions according to the ACIRI at the beginning of the program (Table 2).

TABLE 2 Interactions of Parents/Caregivers and Children from Each Group at Pre-Test

Item	Parent/Caregiver				Children			
	Dialogic Group		Family Time Group		Dialogic Group		Family Time	
	(N=21)	(N=21)	(N=19)	(N=19)	(N=21)	(N=21)	(N=19)	(N=19)
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Enhancing Attention to Text								
Maintaining physical proximity	.05	.22	.05	.23	-	-	.05	.23
Sustaining interest & attention	.62	.80	.26	.65	1.81	1.50	2.74	2.21c
Holding book & turning pages	.33	.58	.16	.37	1.62	3.94	1.05	1.31
Displaying a sense of audience	.38	.59	.26	.45	.09	.30	-	-

Promoting Interactive Reading

Posing and soliciting questions	5.05	2.75	3.32	2.69	4.05	3.07	2.37	2.22
Identifying and understanding pictures & words	3.86	2.74	2.90	2.28	.71	1.15	1.53	1.50
Relating content to experiences	.67	1.02	.32	.58	.19	.40	.05	.23
Pausing to answer questions	.76	1.30	.79	1.36	.95	1.47	1.00	1.76

Using Literacy Strategies

Identifying visual clues	1.10	1.18	2.00	1.97	.76	1.67	.63	1.61
Predicting what happens next	.14	.36	-	-	-	-	-	-
Recalling information	.05	.22	.05	.23	.05	.22	.05	.23
Elaborating on ideas	.09	.30	-	-	.52	.81	.26	1.15

As seen in Table 3, there were significant differences between the interactions of parents/caregivers, and children who attended the dialogic reading training compared to those who did not have training at the end of the year. Parents/caregivers who received dialogic reading training posed and solicited questions significantly more often ($p < .01$) than parents/caregivers in the traditional Family Time group. The parents/caregivers who received training also allowed their children to hold the book significantly more often ($p < .05$). Children whose parents received dialogic reading training also were able to identify visual clues from the story significantly more often ($p < .05$). Parents/caregivers in the dialogic reading group also exhibited significantly stronger skills overall promoting interactive reading and using literacy strategies ($p < .01$) (Table 4).

TEST OF EXPRESSIVE LANGUAGE

Childrens' expressive language was measured using the picture-naming portion of the Individual Growth Developmental Indicators (IGDI) test developed at the University of Minnesota (1996). The IGDI test is designed to monitor the literacy development of young children. Children are given one minute to verbally identify as many objects as they can represented on picture cards. The picture naming portion of the IGDI has been found to be a valid and reliable measure of language development in young children. One-month alternate form reliability coefficients range from $r = .44$ to $.78$ (McConnell, Priest, Davis, & McEvoy, 2002). It has been found to correlate with results from other norm-referenced language skill measures for young children including the Peabody

TABLE 3 Interactions of Parents/Caregivers and Children from Each Group at Year's End

Item	Parent/Caregiver				Children			
	Dialogic Group (N=21)		Family Time Group (N=19)		Dialogic Group (N=21)		Family Time (N=19)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Enhancing Attention to Text								
Maintaining physical proximity	.07	.26	.18	.40	.13	.35	.09	.30
Sustaining interest & attention	1.27	1.58	.64	.67	1.53	1.81	2.54	2.50
Holding book & turning pages	.67**	.72	.09	.30	.93*	1.44	.09	.30
Displaying a sense of audience	.93	.59	.73	.47	.07	.26	-	-
Promoting Interactive Reading								
Posing and soliciting questions	13.53**	10.23	4.18	3.49	11.27**	8.91	1.91	2.17
Identifying and understanding pictures & words	3.00	2.62	3.18	1.60	2.20	2.93	1.18	1.47
Relating content to experiences	.06	.26	.36	.67	.07	.26	.45	.69
Pausing to answer questions	1.80	2.93	.55	.93	2.00	3.38	.82	1.25
Using Literacy Strategies								
Identifying visual clues	1.13	1.25	1.00	.63	1.13*	1.55	.18	.40
Predicting what happens next	.40	.83	-	-	.60	.99	-	-
Recalling information	.40	1.06	-	-	.40	1.06	-	-
Elaborating on ideas	.07	.26	-	-	.67	1.05	-	-

* p < .05

** p < .01

TABLE 4 Overall Scores for Interactions from Each Group at Year’s End

	Dialogic Morning Reading Group (N=15)		Traditional Afternoon Family Time Group (N=11)	
	M	SD	M	SD
Attention to Text	1.38	.68	1.09	.75
Promoting Reading	8.47**	4.59	3.16	1.91
Using Literacy Strategies	1.20**	.71	.30	.22

* p < .05

** p < .01

Picture Vocabulary Test (3rd edition) and the Preschool Language Scale (McConnell, Priest, Davis, & McEvoy, 2000).

The children in the dialogic reading group and traditional Family Time group had similar percentages regarding the number of words correct compared to the number of words attempted on the IGDI at pretest (Table 5). However, by the end of the year, the difference between groups was significant with the dialogic reading group children performing 9% better than the traditional Family Time group. The dialogic reading group correctly named 74% of the words while the traditional Family Time group correctly named 65% of the words at year’s end. The dialogic reading group children improved 8% from pretest to the year’s end. They began the program with 66% accuracy and ended the year with 74% accuracy. The traditional Family Time group began the program with 63% accuracy and ended the year with 65% accuracy resulting in only a 2% increase in accuracy from pretest to year’s end.

DISCUSSION

The current study was designed to address the need for research about the effectiveness of the dialogic reading method in increasing literacy interactions between ELL parents/caregivers and their children and the effect the interactions had on children’s expressive language development over the course of an academic year. ELL parents’/caregivers’ literacy interactions were positively influenced with dialogic reading training in English and Spanish. In addition, because the training had an impact on interactions during Family Time, there was also a significant increase in preschool children’s expressive language skills.

TABLE 5 Children's Number of Picture Naming Words Correct Compared to Attempted

	Dialogic Morning Group	Traditional Afternoon Group
Pretest	66%	63%
Year-End	74%	65%

Parents/caregivers in the dialogic morning reading group allowed their children access to the book significantly more, and posed and solicited questions significantly more often than the parents/caregivers in the traditional afternoon Family Time group by the end of the school year, thus encouraging their child's comprehension (Kertoy, 1994). Children whose parents/caregivers received dialogic reading training correctly identified an average of 19.2 words while attempting an average of 25.9 words (74% accuracy). Children whose parents/caregivers did not receive dialogic reading training correctly identified 17.8 words while attempting an average of 27.2 words (65% accuracy). Therefore, ELL children with parents/caregivers who received dialogic morning reading training experienced significant increases in their expressive language and accuracy by the end of the school year, identifying 9% more words on the IGDI than children of parents/caregivers who were in the traditional afternoon Family Time group. This increase in expressive vocabulary is very important because research has consistently shown the importance expressive and receptive vocabularies play in young children's ability to learn to read and succeed in school (Wasik, 2010). This is especially true for young children with parents/caregivers with low levels of education such as the ELL families in this study because researchers have found that these children are less competent in their language comprehension, vocabulary, and communication skills (Marjanovic-Umek, Fekonja, Podlesek, & Kranjc, 2011).

LIMITATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Not all parents/caregivers were videotaped reading with their children at the end of the year. Also, not all children were assessed due to their frequent absences, problems with scheduling, and families moving away. Thus, 71% of the families who received dialogic training were videotaped at the end of the year compared to 58% of families who participated in the traditional Family Time. All children of parents/caregivers who received dialogic training were able to be assessed at the end of the school year. However, only 76% of children who had parents/caregivers who participated in the traditional Family Time were assessed. The

lack of complete data for the end of the year regarding all participants reduces the power of the findings regarding the long-term impact the program had on parents/caregivers and their children.

Another limitation to the generalizability of these findings for ELL families with young children is the way that eligibility for the preschool program was determined. All of the ELL children attending the preschool in this study were identified as “at-risk” based on screening results of children’s expressive and receptive language, fine and gross motor skills, and/or social-emotional and intellectual processing. Although children’s lack of English proficiency greatly impacted the decision to include children in the preschool, some of the children included had needs beyond issues related to being ELL. Therefore, the population of ELL children and families in this study is not representative of all ELL children and families.

Finally, the books used for the dialogic reading training matched the preschool curriculum. However, they often had repetitive or simplistic pictures that may have limited opportunities for discussion, therefore negatively impacting children’s language gains, representing another possible limitation.

Dialogic reading appears to be a powerful strategy for increasing the expressive language skills of ELL children. However, further research is needed to determine ways to effectively implement training for parents/caregivers who are not able to commit to training at their child’s school. Parents/caregivers involved in this program attended training three days a week for five weeks. Many parents/caregivers would not be able to make such a commitment due to issues related to childcare, work, transportation, or other obstacles. However, it is important to note that some type of direct dialogic training is often required for parents/caregivers with lower educational levels such as the ELL families in our study to provide an opportunity to convey and model strategies for books to be shared with children. Researchers have found that few lower-income, less educated parents/caregivers, as those represented in this study read using dialogic reading strategies without training (Huebner, 2000), which is supported by this study. It is encouraging to see the effectiveness of the training. The next question is how can schools effectively and economically provide this training to families often in the most need?

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