

AN EXPLORATION OF ORIENTATION TO NEW TEXT WITHIN THE CONTEXT
OF THE READING RECOVERY™ LESSON

by

Joan P. Paterson

A Thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree
of
MASTER OF EDUCATION

Joan P. Paterson ©2007

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Winnipeg, Manitoba

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The focus of this study is on teacher talk and in particular the language interactions teachers have with their students. Martin (1985) describes the role of language and specifically conversation as an “interchange of ideas by those who see themselves not as adversaries but as human beings come together to talk and to listen and learn from one another” (p. 10). Thank you to all my teaching colleagues, especially my Reading RecoveryTM colleagues, who are so adept at having professional conversations aimed at listening and learning from one another. I have learned a great deal from them.

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Abstract

This descriptive qualitative study investigated the characteristics of the orientation to new text within the context of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson. The purpose of the study was to examine the ways in which teachers support the reading of new text through the orientation or storybook introduction. The intent of the study was to identify and examine elements within the orientation given by fourteen trained Reading RecoveryTM teachers. Transcripts of the taped lessons were analyzed, coded, and classified into common language groupings. Groups were further divided into subcategories of the language. Six main teacher-language categories with sub-characteristics and two student-language categories with sub-characteristics emerged from the data. The language data were compared with Clay's (1998) nine teacher-language features described in her Teacher-Language Framework.

This study provided insights into the new book orientation component of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson and would be of interest to Reading RecoveryTM teachers, teacher leaders, and researchers. Findings from the research may also prove interesting to teachers of literacy in the early years as well as teachers of English as an additional language.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

The nature of human interaction provides a dynamic, rich, and complex resource for the study of learning. In order to comprehend learning more fully, it is essential to understand the role that language and, in particular, the role that teacher-student talk play in these interactions. Rebecca Barr (2001) writes, “We study teaching not only to know more about the process in a theoretical sense, but for its assumed utilitarian value—to inform teachers so they may be able to help all children become literate” (p. 390). It is this important quest for a deeper understanding of pedagogy in the service of all types of learners that interests me.

Over a period of twenty-six years, in various teaching roles, I have been able to observe the power that teacher-student language interactions have in shaping learning. My observations were first as a special educator where clarity and simplicity of dialogue is critical for student understanding, and second as an early year’s classroom teacher striving to find the time to place value upon conversation as a conduit for learning. And, third, I observed as a Reading RecoveryTM teacher, and subsequently Reading RecoveryTM teacher leader, continuously honing the craft of using explicit dialogue to foster learning in the hard-to-teach student as well as promoting professional conversation in order to further theoretical understandings for Reading RecoveryTM teachers.

I have always been interested and fascinated by the acts involved in active, complex, and constructive teaching. David Wood (2002) writes, “When you see someone

trying to do something that you can do and they're struggling, there is a real desire to get in there and help" (p. 3). The storybook introduction described by Holdaway (1979) as "a brief and lively discussion in which the teacher interests the children in the story and produces an appropriate set for reading it" (p. 142) is a place where teachers are able to support and set the stage for the successful first reading of text. Most early years teachers engage in conscious and strategic introductions of storybooks on a daily basis in the course of teaching reading.

In my work as a Reading RecoveryTM teacher leader I have had many opportunities to observe Reading RecoveryTM teachers working at the craft of teaching. These observations provide rich reflective opportunities regarding teacher-student instructional interactions. As with all children just learning how to read, students in a Reading RecoveryTM setting, read and engage with new text with varying degrees of success. I have observed the struggles of some children in their attempts to make sense of new and unfamiliar vocabulary, foreign text structures and settings, as well as concepts outside their domains of experience while reading a storybook for the first time. I began to wonder how effective the introductions given both by classroom teachers and trained Reading RecoveryTM teachers were in enabling the novice reader to enter a new book with ease. I observed that some introductions given by Reading RecoveryTM teachers allowed the reader to enter into the new text with success and limited support while other introductions seemed to lack important elements that may have assisted the child with the initial reading. It was these observations of teaching and a curiosity concerning the connection between the teacher's book orientation elements and the child's successful first reading of the new book that motivated me to explore the nature of book

introductions within the context of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson. Clay (2005b) explains, “The first reading of the new book is not a test; it needs to be a successful reading. Prepare the child for correct responding on the first encounter. Success can be expected if the child has had recent and successful encounters with the language of the book, so think about what you expect him [*sic*] to know and help with unfamiliar words. The teacher must plan for the child to have in his [*sic*]head the ideas and the language he [*sic*] needs to complete the reading” (p. 91). What teachers actually say when preparing students for successful first encounters with text, during the rich but brief orientation to new text, was of great interest to me. This curiosity coupled with the knowledge that there is potential for powerful learning by deepening teacher awareness of the importance of conversation as teaching is what brought me to the present study.

Reading RecoveryTM is grounded in the belief that the conversations that take place between the teacher and student are critical to learning. Reading RecoveryTM is an early intervention that is designed for low-achieving first graders who are at risk of failing to learn to read and write. Clay (1993) notes that “individually designed and individually delivered lessons can bring the child’s progress back to the average band of achievement in a very short time” (p. 1). Achieving this goal requires that Reading RecoveryTM teachers reflect hard on how to make the learning seamless and possible for the child. Learning is facilitated through individualized teacher-student language interactions or conversations. This study will look at the language interactions that take place in the part of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson known as the *orientation to new text* or *book introduction*.

Outson (2003) defines book introductions as “helpful conversational transactions designed to give children access to a new story so that they can read it fluently and independently during the first reading, with some reading work required” (p.9). It is this ability to acquire or access information from text that is critical in becoming literate. Goldman and Rakenstraw (2000) state that “literate people often take for granted their ability to understand the meaning of what they read” (p. 311). Clay’s complex theory of reading encompasses the idea of developing tentative, flexible, and interactive working systems that enable readers to acquire or access information from text. Singer (1970) postulated a theory of reading in which readers activate flexible working systems to solve particular tasks while reading, and in discussing an interactive model of reading, Rumelhart (1994) writes, “Reading is at once a ‘perceptual’ and a ‘cognitive’ process. It is a process that bridges and blurs these two traditional distinctions. Moreover, a skilled reader must be able to make use of the sensory, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic information to accomplish this task” (p.137). The idea that reading comprises the ability to work with multiple knowledge sources that interact with each other to make meaning is at the core of Clay’s theoretical model. Rosenblatt (1994) refers to the reading process as less of an interactive model and describes the process as a transaction among the teacher, reader, and the text. Her transactional model implies that the text is shaped by the speaker, addressee, and their individual interpretations of the text. It is this mutual shaping process during face-to-face communication and the conversation during the interaction with text that facilitates the making of meaning.

Teachers can facilitate the student’s use of integrated information systems as postulated in the theories of Clay, Singer, Rumelhart, and Rosenblatt. For the purpose of

this research focused teacher-student conversations and deliberate teaching moves will be examined.

The assumption would be that providing the opportunity for deliberate teaching interactions and transactions makes it possible for children to read and understand new text with a greater measure of independence. In the new book orientation, teachers have an opportunity to create the climate where *recency* and *familiarity* are resonating in the child's mind before the initial reading in order to assist with the cognitive integration of strategic activities involved in reading. Clay (1998) states, "We can facilitate this by providing a rich introduction to story instead of reading the whole story to them in advance" (p. 171). Providing a good orientation by deliberately "creating a set for the task" (p. 171) serves to make the text more accessible, and therefore, it becomes easier for the children to understand the meaning of what they read. "If we fine-tune our understanding of what book introductions can achieve, we can become more sensitive to the different needs of individual children" (Clay, 1998, p.171). The goal of the book orientation is to make the book accessible to the child. The child is given the opportunity of "aligning oneself or one's ideas to the surroundings or circumstances" (Clay, 2005b, p. 90) involved in the reading of a new text. Therefore, the book orientation is critical in assisting the child to access the syntactic, semantic, and graphophonemic information from the text which, in turn, allows for integration of and transaction between these sources of information to allow for a more successful reading.

It follows then that deeper knowledge and fine-tuning of (a) the characteristics which most commonly occur in the language interaction of orientation to new text and (b) the salient features of these characteristics are vital to our understanding of how to

provide strong story orientations. Franklin (1996), as quoted by Wells (1999), highlights the following critical features in recognizing the power of discourse interactions:

“Knowledge is an intrinsic part of doing things, knowledge is created between people, knowledge is constructed in collaborative meaning-making through discourse” (p. 5). The power of language interaction in teaching, and in particular language embedded in the orientation to new text component of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson, cannot be underestimated. Wells (1986) comments “Teaching is essentially a matter of facilitating learning, and where that learning depends on communication between the teacher and the learner, the same principles apply as in any successful conversation. The aim must be the collaborative construction of meaning, with negotiation to ensure that meanings are mutually understood” (p. 101). The new book orientation is one component in the Reading RecoveryTM lesson in which collaborative, constructive negotiation of meanings is fostered through conversation. In discussing the role of conversation in learning, Martin (1985) writes, “A good conversation is neither a fight nor a contest. Circular in form, cooperative in manner, and constructivist in intent, it is an interchange of ideas by those who see themselves not as adversaries but as human beings come together to talk and to listen and learn from one another” (p. 10). These conversational interactions, potentially rich resources for learning, are embedded in all parts of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson. The language interactions found in the storybook orientation provide only one area of rich language interaction. These conversations provide powerful opportunities for observation and study. It is with these thoughts in mind that the above study is proposed.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the ways in which trained Reading Recovery™ teachers supported the reading of new text through the storybook orientation component of the Reading Recovery™ lesson. The intent of the study was to identify and examine characteristics within the language orientation given by trained Reading Recovery™ teachers in order to describe the nature of the conversation. This study concentrated on the language interaction in the new book orientation portion of the Reading Recovery™ lesson where the teachers try to facilitate learning through explicit conversation about text.

Specific Research Questions

The following research questions provided direction to the study:

1. What are the characteristics of teacher-student conversations that most frequently occur during the orientation to new text within the Reading Recovery™ lesson?
2. What are the common themes and features of these characteristics?
3. How do the features that emerge from the data compare with the teacher language framework proposed by Clay (1998)?

Culture and Scope of the Study

Reading RecoveryTM is a well-designed, research-based early literacy intervention developed in New Zealand by Dame Marie Clay. Since 1984, Reading RecoveryTM has been successfully implemented in many countries including Canada in 1988.

In Canada during the 2004-2005 school year, Reading RecoveryTM was implemented in eight provinces and one territory. In Manitoba in 2004-2005 a total of 299 Reading RecoveryTM teachers provided Reading RecoveryTM lessons for 2,430 students in 169 schools (Matczuk, 2005).

Reading RecoveryTM identifies the lowest achieving six-year-old children in grade one who, for a variety of multiple and different reasons, are experiencing difficulty in reading and writing. Reading RecoveryTM provides early, intensive, daily thirty-minute, comprehensive, one-to-one reading and writing instruction. It is an intervention that has one clear goal “to dramatically reduce the number of learners who have extreme difficulty learning and the cost of these learners to education systems” (Pinnell, 2000, p. 53).

In outlining the powerful comprehensive approach to reading instruction that Reading RecoveryTM provides, Gay Su Pinnell (2000) writes, “Reading Recovery is a balanced approach within which powerful instructional components work together to enable young, initially struggling readers to strategically process written texts. There is attention to needed details, for example, letters, sounds, and word parts; there is attention to the use of decoding strategies while reading and writing texts. And, there is attention to the language aspects of reading such as monitoring for comprehension and using phrasing and fluency. There is direct instruction and there is supported practice” (p. 10).

It is from this population of hard-to-reach, hard-to-teach learners that the research sample was taken. A sample of fourteen audiotaped book introductions was collected for analysis from 14 Reading RecoveryTM teachers working in four Manitoba school divisions. Three of the participating school divisions were from urban areas, and one was rural. The Reading RecoveryTM teachers involved had a minimum of two years' experience teaching Reading RecoveryTM lessons and were currently active in the ongoing professional development sessions required for Reading RecoveryTM teachers. Particular attention was given to the language features of the conversation between the teacher and student in the two- to four-minute book orientation component within the thirty-minute Reading RecoveryTM lesson.

Limitations of the Study

This investigation is limited to the one-to-one tutorial situation of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson. The study is further limited in the extent to which findings can be generalized to other settings and classroom instruction using groups of children. The research design includes a small sample of new text orientations and therefore may not be readily generalized to the broader Reading RecoveryTM population.

It is common practice for Reading RecoveryTM teachers to participate in audio, video, and live teaching demonstrations. I acknowledge the fact that the introductions may be subject to internal bias due to the participating Reading RecoveryTM teacher's awareness of the investigation and knowledge that the introductions are being taped and analyzed for research purposes.

This paper examines in detail the salient characteristics that emerge from a limited research sample of storybook orientations. There is no assumption that definitive

answers to the proposed research questions will be found. Further, there will be no attempt to correlate specific introductions with successful first readings of text. Rather, this study documents and classifies characteristics that emerge within the limited sample of new text orientations, and by doing so, discloses the salient features embedded within the orientations, thus providing insights into the complex language of instruction within the orientation to new text component of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson.

Significance of the Study

In order to improve the quality of teaching interactions, teachers need to understand, recognize, and value conversation as a model for teaching. The book orientation component of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson provides an opportunity for teachers to engage in conversational interactions in which the sole purpose is to make the first reading of a new text more accessible. The new book orientation, before the first reading of a new book, involves an unscripted dialogue between the teacher and child that includes the important ideas that are embedded in the story to be read. These contain, but are not inclusive to, the overall meaning of the story, introduction of new and unusual vocabulary, the pointing out and stressing of interesting and new text language structures and text styles. Learning more about what salient characteristics are embedded within the orientation to new text can serve to inform Reading RecoveryTM teachers, teacher leaders, and researchers.

This research may provide insights into how Reading RecoveryTM teachers might strengthen and scaffold (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976) the learning in order for students to complete the first reading of a new book with ease. Clay (1998) writes, "The teachers' introduction creates a scaffold within which children can complete a first reading of a

whole story". She continues to explain the orientation to new text as a "process of drawing the children into the activity before passing control to the children and pushing them gently towards problem solving the whole first reading of the story for themselves" (p. 172). Although I recognize the limitations of this particular study, research findings may resonate with and be helpful and instructive for the classroom teacher, particularly in the early years setting, and other teachers who work in a one-to-one setting with children which might include resource teachers and those working with children learning English as an additional language.

Every day in early-years classrooms, teachers select and introduce storybooks to children as part of a comprehensive literacy curriculum. Fountas and Pinnel (1996) write that teachers, "need to think carefully about a particular group of children so that the introduction can flow much like a conversation among people who are interested in the same thing" (p. 137). Engaging in this reflective process requires that teachers have a deep understanding of which features will be important to draw to children's attention in order to ensure a more successful reading of text on the first attempt. This study has significance in that it provides information and insight into the storybook orientation, a common and essential aspect of instruction in reading, which may prove helpful to all teachers assisting children who are learning how to read.

Glossary of Terms

For the purpose of clarity in this study the following terms are defined.

Reading RecoveryTM: Reading RecoveryTM as defined by the Reading RecoveryTM Council of North America (2002) is “a short-term intervention that supports classroom instruction for the lowest-achieving children in first grade. Children meet individually with a specially trained teacher for thirty-minutes daily for 12-20 weeks” (p. 12).

Reading RecoveryTM teacher: A Reading RecoveryTM Teacher is a teacher who has received certification for a year’s professional development training given by a certified Reading RecoveryTM teacher leader.

Reading RecoveryTM Teacher Leader: A Reading RecoveryTM Teacher Leader is an experienced teacher who has completed the diploma course for Teacher Leaders, a year of full-time study at a recognized Training Institute in preparation for training Reading RecoveryTM teachers.

Continuing Contact: Continuing Contact consists of six to eight, two-and-one-half-hour professional development sessions conducted by trained Teacher Leaders. This includes demonstrating the teaching through a one-way glass as well as theoretical discussions.

Reading RecoveryTM lesson: A Reading RecoveryTM lesson is an individual one-to-one, daily, thirty-minute lesson in which a new book introduction and reading of a new book are essential components.

Orientation to new text formerly known as the Storybook introduction:

(For the purposes of this study the terms *new text orientation* and *storybook introduction* are used interchangeably) The Orientation to new text as defined by Clay (1993) involves “the teacher ensuring that the child has in his [sic] head the ideas and the language he

[sic] needs to produce when prompted in sequence by print cues. He [sic] should know what the story is about before he [sic] reads it” (p.37). The new book orientation also refers to the conversation initiated by the Reading RecoveryTM teacher about any or all features of a new book before the student attempts a first independent reading. Clay (2005b) states that orientation by the child means, “aligning oneself or one’s ideas to the surroundings or circumstances” (p. 90).

Scaffolding: Scaffolding as defined by Cazden (1983) is a “temporary framework for construction in progress” (p 6). Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) define scaffolding as a process by which a teacher supports the learner in completing a task that the learner might not be able to complete on his/her own.

Pre-reading: Pre-reading refers to the teaching activities or strategies that occur during the period of time usually immediately before the first reading of a new text.

New text/book: The new text/book refers to a book/text not previously read independently by the student.

Audiotaped introductions: Audiotaped introductions included an oral introduction of the new book component of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson that was previously taped and submitted to the researcher for analysis.

Reading Recovery Book Levels: Reading RecoveryTM book levels are books that are leveled according to gradient of difficulty and come from “an approved list of text levels that has been field-tested” (Clay, 2005a, p. 53).

Pre-Reading: Pre-reading consists of teaching activities or techniques that occur during the period of time immediately before the reading of new text (Beck & Block, 1979,

Chastain, 1988). Clay (1998) talks about pre-reading instruction as, “creating a set for the task” (p. 17).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter, literature supporting the basis for this study is reviewed. The primary focus of this review is to reveal information related to storybook orientations in general and within the context of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson.

The review presented is divided into three sections. The first section reviews literature on instruction for pre-reading and in particular those techniques that apply to book introductions. The second section examines the importance of viewing conversation in terms of a socio-linguistic educational theory. The third section considers characteristics of book orientations and teacher-student language interaction within the context of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson.

Pre-reading Instruction

An examination of the literature on pre-reading begins with recognizing that determining which pre-reading instructional strategies or combination of strategies will be effective for both individual and groups of learners is a complex and dynamic issue. Rumelhart (1994) writes,

Reading is at once a 'perceptual' and a 'cognitive' process. It is a process that bridges and blurs these two traditional distinctions. Moreover, a skilled reader must be able to make use of sensory, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic information to accomplish this task. These various sources of information appear to interact in many complex ways during the process of reading. A theorist faced with the task of accounting for reading

must devise a formalism rich enough to represent all of these different kinds of information and their interactions. (p. 137)

It would follow then that employing instructional techniques that enhance the opportunities for success in conquering the complexities in reading requires an intimate knowledge not only of the task but also of the individual learner.

For the purpose of this review pre-reading is defined as teaching activities or techniques that occur during the period of time usually immediately before the first reading of a new text. Pre-reading activities could be thought of as a dimension of instructional contingency (Wood, 2002). Teachers adjust the kind and amount of help offered based on their past and present knowledge of the learner.

Chastain (1988) defined pre-reading activities as those activities that occur before the reading that serve to motivate students to read and prepare them for the reading of new text. Similarly, Beck and Block (1979) describe preparing-to-read activities found in basal readers which included setting a purpose, introducing new sight words, decoding, and comprehension. Others have described activities that occur before a first reading as enabling activities that provide the reader with the necessary background to organize and comprehend the text (Ringler & Weber, 1984). These enabling activities involve understanding the purpose for reading and building a knowledge base necessary for dealing with the content and structure of the text. Clay (2005b) describes this teaching before the reading as “preparing the child for correct responding on the first encounter. Success can be expected if the child has had recent and successful encounters with the language of the book, so think about what you expect him[her] to know and help with

unfamiliar words. The teacher must plan for the child to have in his[*her*] head the ideas and language [S]he needs to complete the reading” (p. 91). Clay (1998) calls this pre-reading preparation, “creating a set for the task” (p. 171).

Pre-reading strategies may focus on clarification of the linguistic difficulties in text as well as reminding readers of what to do in order to activate existing knowledge. Duke and Pearson (2002) quote Pearson and Johnson (1978) when they describe these comprehension pre-reading activities as instruction that provides a “bridge between the known and the new” (p. 213). Along the same line of thinking Au (1979) developed a pre-reading technique called the experience-text-method which consists of students’ expressing their own experience about the topic before they read.

Langer (1981) developed a pre-reading procedure and assessment plan (PRep) which allows the teacher and student to interact in order to generate and extend ideas as well as determine what information and vocabulary development is necessary to facilitate comprehension of the text. Langer (1981) writes,

When preparing students for a reading activity, we can help them become aware of relevant prior knowledge, while we judge whether or not that knowledge is sufficient for comprehension of text. At that point we will be able to make knowledgeable decisions about reading assignments and instruction and related concepts. (p. 153)

Barr (2001) writes, “Strategy research has focused on preparing students to read prior to reading, encouraging them to monitor their reading while reading, and helping them remember what they have read (p. 398).

In Shanahan and Neumanns' (1997) review of the literacy research that has influenced instruction, they cite the classic U.S. Cooperative First-Grade Studies (Bond & Dykstra, 1967) in which data from twenty-seven studies on instructional approaches to beginning reading and spelling were examined. These studies included a variety of techniques and approaches ranging from phonics, linguistic readers, language experiences, various grouping arrangements, and combinations of instruction. Shanahan & Newman note that these first-grade studies found "no instructional method was superior to the others for students at either high or low levels of readiness" (p. 208). It would appear that a single instruction method is not sufficient in preparing learners for reading. Rather it is important to have an understanding of which teaching techniques will be of benefit in introducing specific texts to individuals and groups of learners.

Recognizing which instruction will be useful for particular readers at any given time is not an easy task. Clay (2005b) suggests that teachers and children work together "in ways that allow a myriad of instructional adjustments to be made" (p. 2). What aspects of instruction individual learners need to attend to at specific times in their active development as early readers is highly dependent on individual knowledge within their repertoire of known experiences with the world and texts. Teachers and researchers need to be constantly asking what instruction will be effective in order for the learner to "use, apply, transform, relate, interpret, reproduce, and reform information for communication" (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996, p. 149). Clay writes that "the competent children resourcefully cast around all their experience to find cues, strategies and solutions. The appropriate questions are: What do I know that might help? How do I know this? What can link up with this? Is the message still clear?" (Clay, 1991, p. 341).

Duke and Pearson (2002) write that studying what good readers do will give us insights into strategies and processes that will enable readers to engage more successfully and independently with text. Pressley (2000) agrees when he writes, "Comprehension instruction can be enhanced by long-term instruction that fosters development of skills and knowledge articulated by very good readers as they read" (p. 557). It is the ability to effectively orchestrate a combination of activities that enables the learner to engage with increasing confidence and success with new text.

Clay (1991) continues this line of thought when she postulates, "A young child may be able to rehearse a list of numbers or words if [s]he is required to by the instructions that [s]he is given but left to himself he does not think to do so. [S]He does not seem aware that [s]he, himself, can relate one area of knowledge or one cognitive strategy to another" (p. 340). Duke and Pearson (2002) reiterate the importance of "connecting and integrating these different learning opportunities" (p. 208) in order to assist the learner with successful and comprehensive reading. Langer (2002), in reviewing studies of instructional practice, discovered that "in effective schools, learning and instruction related to knowledge and conventions of English and high literacy take place as separated, simulated, and integrated experiences. In contrast, in typical schools, although each approach might be used at some time, one or another approach dominates" (p. 14). It would seem, then, that research suggests multiple-strategy instruction used in integrated ways in the service of cognition provides for stronger pre-reading instruction.

In yet another comprehensive review of reading comprehension research Duke and Pearson (2002) highlight pre-reading instruction and activities that improve the overall comprehension of text. This body of research includes, but is not exclusive to

instruction that emphasizes: activating prior knowledge with an emphasis on schema theory, vocabulary instruction, prediction and think-alouds, teacher modeling, teaching text structures, and summarization. These are all areas of instruction to be considered in pre-reading instruction. The research compiled by Flood, Lapp, and Fisher (2003) into pre-reading teaching that fosters comprehension also highlights the importance of activating prior knowledge, previewing assigned texts (Graves, Penn, & Cooke, 1985), and using anticipation-reaction guides (Herber, 1978).

Vocabulary development is another area to be included in pre-reading instruction. Vocabulary for this study will involve word meaning and word recognition. It is not a surprise to find that vocabulary was enhanced when teachers offered explanations of the vocabulary found in storybooks (Dickenson & Smith, 1994; Elley, 1989; Nagy & Scott, 2000). Sulzby and Teale (1991) discuss storybook readings in which the words being read from text are elaborated on by the reader through explanations, comments, and questions allowing for children to understand new vocabulary with greater understanding. Research suggests that vocabulary and comprehension have a positive relationship (Baumann, Kame'enui, & Ash, 1991; Duke & Pearson, 2002). Clay (2005b) suggests that teachers, "give the child opportunities to hear and use new words and structures that [s]he will need to use in reading" (p. 91). Therefore, instruction associated with increasing vocabulary and understanding words becomes important for building stronger early reading ability.

Although there is a large body of research in support of instructional practices involving phonemic awareness and phonics in order to strengthen reading proficiency (Adams, 1990; Bryant, MacLean, Bradley, & Crossland, 1990; Jule, 1988; Wagner, et al.,

1997), this research was not included in this review as it was not considered directly relevant to the specific area of new text introductions.

Barr (2001) highlights the work of Green, Harker, and Golden (1986) in discussing how storybook interactions, during the text reading, taken from different perspectives (sociolinguistic, discourse analysis, semantic analysis, and comprehension of text, and text analysis and reader response theory) require children to attend to different types of information and to respond in specific ways (p. 393). The work of Hansen & Pearson (1983) stresses the importance of making predictions and activating the child's prior knowledge before reading new text. Delores Durkin's (1966) studies of children who read early helped dispel the notion that children need to be "ready to read." The knowledge that children could learn to read early, plus Durkin's later work (1978) in which she shed light on the lack of reading comprehension instruction being done in classrooms, served to emphasize the critical role that strategy instruction has in teaching reading. Durkin (1972) writes, "Whatever it is that constitutes readiness for reading is the product not only of genetic endowment and maturation but also of prior experience and learnings. Within this context, much about readiness is teachable" (p. 58).

Duke and Pearson (2002) cite a study by Pichert and Anderson (1977) in which they demonstrate that a reader's perspective influences both comprehension and recall. This study had a major influence on the formulation of schema theory with the emphasis and interest focused on activating prior knowledge and instructional technique to assist readers. The idea of using story grammars to determine story parts and assist in remembering narratives emerged from the work of cognitive psychologists (Mandler & Johnson, 1977; Stein & Glenn, 1979).

The work of Kenneth Goodman in the 1960s challenged the instructional practices of using phonics drills, word lists, and other skills-based strategies taken out of the context of reading (Shanahan & Neuman, 1997). As Shanahan and Neuman (1997) point out, much of Goodman's work, which spawned the "whole language" movement, has been severely challenged. However I agree with the authors when they state, "Nevertheless, there is little doubt that it has been influential on instructional practice" (p. 209). The following linguistic elements of reading instruction including the view of reading as involving the use of multiple cueing systems and learning and recognizing words within meaningful context all have been popularized by the work of Goodman.

From the 1980s through to the present, we have witnessed a renewed interest in research that focuses on the value of teaching children how to use the structures of text to assist with the identification of the main ideas in story and learning about the structural features that facilitate comprehension and learning in different genres of text. Goldman and Rakenstraw (2000) argue that "structural aspects of text-driven and of knowledge-driven processing make important contributions to the meaning construction process" (p. 328). Duke and Pearson (2002) in discussing research on instruction of text structures write, "The significance of attention to text structure, pointing out that students—for whatever reasons, including the fact that they are simply better readers—who are more knowledgeable about text structure recall more textual information than those who are less knowledgeable". They go on to note that, "In general, the research suggests that almost any approach to teaching the structure of informational text improves both comprehension and recall of key text information (Duke & Pearson, 2002, p.217).

Metacognition is a process through which the development of strategic reading can occur. This process has received much attention in the past twenty years (Brown, 1980; Flavell, 1976). Schmitt (2003) describes a type of metacognitive knowledge termed “declarative (knowing that or what about something)” (p. 59). It is this type of pre-reading knowledge that has relevance to the promotion of reading comprehension instruction conditional to when it occurs (before, during, or after the reading) in reading. In an important, albeit lengthy, passage, Schmitt quotes Paris et al (1991) in describing the nature and importance of strategy instruction for success in reading. She quotes:

Strategic reading is a prime characteristic of expert readers because it is woven into the fabric of children’s cognitive development and is necessary for success in school. There are six critical reasons why strategic reading is fundamental to the development and education of children. First, strategies allow readers to elaborate, organize, and evaluate information derived from text. Second, the acquisition of reading strategies coincides and overlaps with the development during childhood of multiple cognitive strategies to enhance attention, memory, communication and learning. Third, strategies are controllable by readers; they are personal cognitive tools that can be used selectively and flexibly. Fourth, strategic reading reflects metacognition and motivation because readers need to have both the knowledge and disposition to use strategies. Fifth, strategies that foster reading and thinking can be taught directly by teachers. And sixth, strategic reading can enhance learning throughout the curriculum, (p. 73)

The research suggests that metacognitive strategies such as predicting and verifying; previewing text in order to activate, access, and incorporate relevant prior knowledge; self-questioning techniques; and summarization coupled with self-correction strategies have a positive influence on reading (Palinscar & Brown, 1984; Schmitt, 2003). Clay (1991) advocates that teachers purposefully plan for instruction that will facilitate the development of these helpful metacognitive strategies. She comments, "The model of literacy instruction discussed in this book assumes that formal education can and should capitalize on these two existing self-extending systems and that one of the school's tasks is to help the child build a self-extending system for literacy which includes reading and writing" (p. 325). It is this self-extending system of learned metacognitive strategies that assists in strengthening reading capabilities each time a child reads.

In the research review on instructional techniques and activities in pre-reading, those that appear to prepare the learner for a successful first reading include: fostering comprehension such as accessing the learners prior knowledge and existing schema; making predictions prior to reading; introducing and teaching new and unfamiliar vocabulary; teaching decoding instruction; providing word instruction; sensitizing students to the structural elements in text; and supporting the use of metacognitive strategies. Research appears to indicate that more instruction is now being devoted to reading comprehension than in the past (Barr, 2001; Shanahan & Neuman, 1997). Instruction before reading has shifted from relying on a single strategy methodology to using a variety of strategies in combination (Barr, 2001).

This review of research on pre-reading demonstrates that there are numerous instructional techniques that, when used alone or more successfully in combinations, have a positive impact on the successful reading of text. Pre-reading instruction, the instruction that occurs before the student reads a text, should be considered an integral aspect of the reading process. It is rich in complexity for both teacher and learner. Instruction in the pre-reading stage is critical and essential to successful engagement with both novel and previously read text.

Therefore, I think it will be interesting to discover which if any, of the previously mentioned instructional pre-reading activities do emerge from the storybook orientations being analyzed for this study. Other considerations will be the clarity of language and quality of the pre-reading instruction that emerge from the research sample.

Conversation as Teaching

This section of the review will focus on the important role that conversation plays in teaching interactions and how that relates to the teaching conversations in storybook introductions. The essential role that instructional conversation has in cognitive development and, in particular, the role discourse interaction that allows for constructive learning cannot be minimized. As an essential part of human interaction, discourse proves to be complex and unique. Vygotsky posited the critical and prominent place social interactions including discourse have in setting the stage for learning. He wrote:

Any function in the child's cultural development appears twice, or on two planes. First it appears between people as an interpsychological category. This is equally true with regard to voluntary attention, logical memory, the formulation of concepts, and the development of volition

Internalization transforms the process itself and changes its structure and functions. Social relationships or relationships among people genetically underlie all high functions and their relationships. (Vygotsky, 1981, p. 163 quoted in Wilkinson & Silliman, 2000, p. 341)

Social constructivism, with the belief that human thought is shaped through social relationships and communication, provides a solid structure for describing and interpreting the learning that occurs between teachers and students. Wells (1999) states, "Each individual's understanding of an issue or topic is the result of an active transaction between new information and what the individual can bring to bear in interpreting it in terms of his or her past experience, culturally shaped beliefs and personal interests and sense-making strategies" (p. 9). Wells (1999) identifies language as an essential instrument for building knowledge from experience when he quotes Halliday in the following passage: "Language is the essential condition of knowing, the process by which experience becomes knowledge" (p. 9). Wilkinson and Silliman (2000) continue the conversation illuminating the important role language plays in learning when they state, "To a great extent within classrooms, the language used by teachers and students determines what is learned and how learning takes place. The classroom is a unique context for learning and exerts a profound effect on students' development of language and literacy skills, particularly in the early years" (p. 337).

Originating in the early 1970s and 1980s the sociolinguistic approach to classroom language research emerged with rich descriptions of language interactions between teachers and students (Wilkinson & Silliman, 2000). The research done in classroom studies during that time revealed that much of the conversation in reading

instruction was teacher led and dominated (Cazden, 1988; Durkin, 1978). McVee and Pearson (2003) describe the teacher-led type of conversation that was revealed in the above studies when they write about teachers using scripts in which they use “the traditional IRE (Initiate, Respond, Evaluate) sequence, teachers typically ask known-answer questions (Cazden, 1988) and there is little variation from a set pattern of discourse moves” (p. 49). In her discussion of methodological changes that have occurred in the study of literacy teaching, Barr (2001) summarizes the shifts that have occurred:

This shift from behavioristic to socioconstructive formulations marks a change from thinking of teaching and learning as separate processes to those that are tied together, from viewing the teaching-learning process as unidirectional to inter-active, from believing what is taught is also learned to understanding that what is taught may not be what is learned, from viewing learning as an individual process to one that is social. The theoretical shift incorporates the active role of learners in the process of learning. (p. 407)

Wells (1999), in describing how knowledge is constructed, discusses Vygotsky's and Halliday's views on collaborative discourse and meaning making and writes, “What both Vygotsky and Halliday are proposing, I believe, is that utterance—or rather, the dialogue in which utterances respond to each other, as Bakhtin (1986) put it—is the site in which both knowledge building and learning occur” (p. 9). Wells goes on to relate the importance of collaborative discourse to classroom instruction: “There needs to be a major reorientation in teachers' conceptions of their role of the genres of classroom talk that they encourage and model” (p. 13). This concept of recognizing and valuing what

conversation has to offer educational instruction is reiterated by Cazden (1988) as she quotes notable British researcher Douglas Barnes:

The study of linguistic phenomena in school settings should seek to answer educational questions. We are interested in linguistic forms only insofar as through them we can gain insights into the social events of the classroom and thereby into the understandings which students achieve. Our interest is in the social contexts of cognition: speech unites the cognitive and the social. The actual (as opposed to the intended) curriculum consists in the meanings enacted or realized by a particular teacher and class. In order to learn, students must use what they already know so as to give meaning to what the teacher presents to them. Speech makes available to reflection the processes by which they relate new knowledge to old. But this possibility depends on the social relationships, the communication system, which the teacher sets up. (p. 2)

As Cazden writes, the study of classroom and instructional discourse embodies the above-mentioned communication system. It could be said then, that it is this relating of the 'known to the new' that is important in pre-reading activities.

In reviewing the research it becomes evident that educators must move beyond only recognizing the important and critical role curricular conversations have in teaching and learning. Planning for and fostering instructional discourse must become a course of action. In discussing curriculum as conversation, Applebee (1996) recognizes that, "a curriculum provides domains or conversation, and the conversations that take place within those domains are the primary means of teaching and learning" (p. 37).

Just as pre-reading instruction needs to become an integral aspect of the reading process, so the notion of conversation is to teaching. Applebee uses the words of Graff (1992) to make the case for discourse as curriculum, “In short, reading books with comprehension, making arguments, writing papers, and making comments in a class discussion are social activities. They involve entering into a cultural or disciplinary conversation, a process not unlike initiation into a social club” (p. 39).

Reggie Routman (2000) captures the importance of conversation as teaching when she writes, “All learning involves conversation. The ongoing dialogue, internal and external, that occurs as we read, write, listen, compose, observe, refine, interpret, and analyze is how we learn” (p. xxxvi).

In my teaching and observations as a Reading RecoveryTM Teacher Leader, I have been able to observe first hand the richness and importance of conversation in teaching. In particular, the orientation to new text is rife with conversational opportunity that supports learning. The proposed study will help to illuminate the dialogue found within the orientation to new text component of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson.

The Orientation to the Story before Reading

This section of the literature review presents background information specifically pertaining to the orientation to new text component of a Reading RecoveryTM lesson. The orientation to new text portion of a thirty-minute Reading RecoveryTM lesson is part of a framework of literacy components and procedures in the early intervention program of Reading RecoveryTM. These lessons are individually designed for students based on daily interactions and analysis of student progress, by astute, trained Reading Recovery

TM teachers (Clay, 1982; 1993). Each Reading RecoveryTM lesson comprises distinct literacy components. They include the following:

1. *Reading Familiar Books*: In this part of the lesson the child rereads several familiar storybooks. The aim here is two fold: 1) “to provide the child scope for practicing the orchestration of all the complex range of behaviours he must use (and this is best achieved on easy or familiar texts” and 2) “to encourage him to use his reading strategies on novel texts and to support his tentative efforts” (Clay, 1993, p. 36).
2. *A Running Record Analysis* of a book introduced once in the previous lesson: In this section of the lesson a Running Record is taken and after the reading a check is made on the child’s reading, processing, and potential learning and instructional opportunities that arise.
3. *Linking Sound Sequence with Letter Sequence, Letter Identification, and the Act of Making and Breaking Words*: In these procedures the child becomes more aware of how letters and words work by manipulation of magnetic letters on a white board. As Clay (2005b) writes “The reader builds up massive experience with letter sequences. Teachers talk about letter-sound relationships” (p. 118).
4. *Writing Stories*: Clay (1993) writes “The focus of this section is on getting the child to compose and write his own stories. It is also about constructing words from their parts” (Clay, p. 28). Clay (2005b) continues, “It is about
 - going from ideas in the head
 - to spoken words

- to printed messages
- and finding out that you can reconstruct those messages” (p. 51).

It is in the writing portion of the lesson that teachers provide opportunities for the child to learn how to write new and unfamiliar words through procedures such as hearing and recording sounds in words, high utility fluent word practice, and use of analogy to link what the child knows about words to new word production.

5. *Assembling Cut-up Stories*: Clay (2005b) writes that “Cutting up the story (which the child composed, then wrote, and then reread more than once) provides the child with opportunities to relate reading to writing, writing to speaking, and reading to speaking. The interrelationships of these three language activities become implicitly and explicitly apparent to children as they learn about

- assembling messages (one sentence or more)
- one-to-one correspondence of words spoken words and written words
- directional behaviours
- checking behaviours
- monitoring behaviours
- self-correcting behaviours
- and breaking the oral language into segments” (p. 81).

6. *Orientation to the Story before Reading*: This is the storybook introduction or orientation to new text portion of the lesson. In this component the teacher

pre-reads and then introduces a new book that has been carefully selected with a particular child in mind. The teacher makes sure [s]he familiarizes the child:

- with the story
- with the plot
- with the phrases of language that he might never have heard
- with unusual names and new words
- and with old words used in an unusual way. (Clay, 2005b)

7. *First Reading of the new book with help:* The child reads the new book, with *limited* support, and contingent scaffolding, having been prepared in the previous book introduction section of the lesson.

It is the orientation to the new story or book introduction component of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson that is of interest and relevance in this study. It would seem that the importance of talk, specifically the conversations between the teacher and child, will be a key factor in an orientation to new text. Rogers (1998) in quoting Wells and Chang-Wells writes, "Talk in and about the activity can no longer remain an optional aspect of the collaboration . . . but must be seen as both central and essential" (p. 3). Clay (1991) reinforces the importance of viewing talk as central to learning when she writes, "We have known for a long time that conversation in the company of an adult was the best tutorial situation in which to raise the child's language functioning to a high level" (p. 70). It is from this interactional, constructive, and instructive component of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson that the research data are obtained.

As introduced earlier in this paper, social constructivist theory posits that human thought is shaped through communicative activity. This coupled with effective

instructional strategy that supports comprehension forms the foundation from which teacher-child interactions occur. In describing reading as a thinking-feeling-communicative process Jones (1995) writes:

In addition to its psycholinguistic complexity at any particular point in time, reading involves a complex processing that changes gradually over time (diachronically) influenced by psychological, linguistic and social-communicative factors. Stated over-simplistically, any act of reading involves personal choice (emerging from a complex mix of interests, feelings and ideas), activation of prior knowledge and schemata, engagement with the text, metacognitive control, generation of ideas and emotions, integration with existing knowledge and feelings, and judgment evaluation. (p. 4)

In discussing the role of comprehension in the Reading RecoveryTM program, Askew and Frasier (1994) illuminate the assumption made by Reading RecoveryTM developer Marie Clay when they write, "Comprehension is an inherent focus in a meaning-based program. A person taking running records of text reading is observing for behavioral evidence of the reader's understanding" (p. 89). This comprehending process requires an active construction process in order for meaning to occur. Askew and Frasier (1994) continue this discussion quoting Goodman (1985), "So, effective comprehending is essential to effective comprehension, but not sufficient" (p. 89). Clearly a distinction is being made between viewing comprehension as an end product and comprehension as a dynamic process.

The orientation to new text component of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson uses supportive instructional conversation as the primary basis of instruction. Clay (1991) writes:

As the child approaches a new text he is entitled to an introduction so that when he reads, the gist of the whole or partly revealed story can provide some guide for fluent reading. He will understand what he reads if it refers to things he knows about, or has read about previously, so that he is familiar with the topic, the vocabulary or the story itself [*sic*]. (p. 335)

The orientation to new text component of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson is a brief (usually no more than two to three minutes in length) but essential and powerful instructional opportunity in which teachers engage in conversational interactions of with the singular purpose of making the reading of a new book a resounding and enjoyable success.

Embedded within Reading RecoveryTM theory and practice is the recognition that meaning and the sociocommunicative context are critical elements for success in beginning reading. Quality instruction should include a combination of the effective instructional strategies previously described in both the pre-reading and conversation as teaching research reviews. Jones (1995) continues this train of thought with a particular emphasis on the Reading RecoveryTM storybook introduction when he writes:

The book is introduced to the child so that he/she has a good sense of what it is about and so that paths are cleared for that child to be able to understand and read that book at that particular time. Assistance given during reading is carefully gauged to help the child maintain a focus on

meaning and orchestrate cues from all sources (meaning, language syntax and phonology, print, pictures, prior knowledge, etc.); meanwhile the teacher keeps the task easy enough so that it is enjoyable and rewarding for the child. (p. 5)

Learning how to juggle and balance the what, when, and how of instruction is often a challenging task for Reading RecoveryTM teachers. Yet, they learn to give support that is contingent upon the child's needs in order to ensure more successful first reading. A study done by Maribeth Schmitt (2003) investigating metacognitive strategy knowledge in former Reading RecoveryTM students suggests that "children learn more than how to perform reading and writing strategies during the intervention; they also develop metacognitive knowledge about tasks and strategies"(p. 60). The book orientation to new text is replete with opportunity, using intentional instructional dialogue, to teach strategies that aid in comprehension. In the case of instruction before reading, these would include predicting and verifying, previewing, accessing and drawing upon existing schema and background knowledge, and setting purposes. Further, Clay (1991) suggests that instruction that fosters the use of strategic reading serves to "expand the range and effectiveness of strategies which the reader can bring to the task, and the size of the practiced response repertoire upon which [s]he can draw" (p. 331). The teacher-child language interaction in the orientation to new text, characterized by conversational instruction, is of utmost importance. Clay (1991) states that the question one needs to ask with regard to positive agents of change in early reading acquisition is, "What kind of teacher-child interaction accompanies the reading?" (p. 196). Reading RecoveryTM book orientations have at their core the understanding that concepts such as

recency and familiarity are critical to maintaining a successful first reading. Clay (2005b) writes, "The teacher must plan for the child to have in his head the ideas and language he needs to complete the reading [*sic*]" (p. 91). Backed by strong evidential research supporting instructional strategies in which prior knowledge and existing schema are valued, the book orientation is considered a key instructional strategy that promotes understanding.

Providing a book introduction presents an opportunity for the child to orient and align [her] himself and his ideas to the surroundings and circumstances of the text (Clay, 2005b). The orientation to new text serves to demystify the unfamiliar elements in the new text in addition to clarifying the actual reading process.

Just as Wood (2002) described the extreme frustration that toddlers experience when they are unable to problem solve independently until they see somebody else do the very task they are striving to do, so teachers must strive toward conceptualizing teaching as the ultimate act of helping with the view to enable the learner, reduce the frustrations, and maximize the opportunities to learn. In writing about the classroom language that children need, McNaughton (2002) states, "So, unlocking what is unfamiliar becomes partly a question of the language that children need to acquire to be successful" (p. 122). Understanding the power and complexities of human language and its relationship to human thought will no doubt provide insights into comprehending what is read. McNaughton (2002) quotes this insightful passage by Bruner (1996) about the inherent nature of the conflict between effective teaching and learning: "How human beings achieve a meeting of minds, expressed by teachers usually as 'How do I reach the children?' or by children as 'What's she [*sic*] trying to get at?'" (p. 8). Resolving these

questions is our constant quest as educators. We must find, through our conversations and informed instruction, what will facilitate and nurture this bringing together of the minds of teachers and learners. Research into storybook orientations is a place to begin our inquiry into what constitutes and supports communication for learning.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this qualitative, descriptive study was to explore the ways in which teachers support the reading of new text through the orientation to new text component of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson. The intent of the study was to identify and examine characteristics within the orientation given by trained Reading RecoveryTM teachers in order to describe the nature of the conversation. This chapter presents a qualitative, descriptive research design that concentrates on the language interactions in the new book introduction or orientation to new text portion of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson where the teachers are trying to facilitate learning through conversation. Clay (1998) writes,

Book introductions enlarge the range of what children can do with whole stories at first reading. They highlight a particular kind of support for the reader that teaching practice often ignores. With a whole view of the uninterrupted story, children have a feel for the progression of the story through to its climax, so the story itself provides a support within which the detailed processing of information in the text occurs. (p. 175)

The study relied on grounded, descriptive data to present the findings. A constant-comparison method (Glaser, 1978) was utilized to develop theory by attempting to code, describe, and account for characteristics that emerge from the data. This research was grounded in data from the field. Audio-taped data were used to analyze the teacher-student talk during the orientation to new text. The data were sorted, classified, and

analyzed in an attempt to identify teacher-student language characteristics in order to gain a better understanding of the nature of the characteristics. In discussing qualitative research designs, McMillan & Wergin (2002) write,

The purpose of grounded theory study is to discover or generate a theory, an abstract theme, or a set of propositions that pertain to specific experience, situation or settings. The theory is developed from or 'grounded in' the data collected from the field. The primary method of collecting data is the individual interview, which typically is open-ended, searching and extensive. The theory is developed through a process of constant comparison in which emerging ideas and themes are continually 'tested with new data.' (p. 12)

The study was purposefully designed to seek answers to the following three questions:

1. What are the characteristics of teacher-student language interactions that most frequently occur during the orientation to new text within the Reading RecoveryTM lesson?
2. What are the common themes and features of these characteristics?
3. How do the features that emerge from the data compare with the teacher-language framework proposed by Clay (1998)?

The Setting

The following provides a description of the physical setting in which this research and the individual Reading RecoveryTM lessons take place. This is a unique setting

particular to the one-to-one situation of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson. The research was conducted in the Reading RecoveryTM teaching rooms of the individual Reading RecoveryTM teachers. Reading RecoveryTM lessons are most often conducted in small rooms or separate classrooms specially designated for the purpose of thirty-minute one-to-one lessons. Although the actual design and composition of the rooms may vary slightly, the settings for this research share the following common characteristics:

- Lessons occurred outside of the classroom setting,
- Lessons were conducted in a small, designated space considered the Reading RecoveryTM room,
- Lessons occurred at a small table with the teacher sitting directly beside the child,
- The book to be introduced was shared, flat down on the table between the teacher and the child,
- The book introduction component of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson for this research was audiotaped by the Reading RecoveryTM teacher during the regular lesson.

It is in this setting that teacher-student language and conversations were recorded on audio-tape for the purpose of this study.

The Participants

From September through June, 2006-2007, fourteen previously-trained, practicing Reading RecoveryTM teachers and their individual Reading RecoveryTM students from four Manitoba school divisions participated in this study. The participating Reading RecoveryTM teachers were invited to be involved in the research by their corresponding

Reading RecoveryTM teacher leaders at one of their Continuing Contact Professional Development sessions. Reading RecoveryTM teachers were invited to participate by their Reading RecoveryTM Teacher Leaders verbally and by posting written invitations outlining how to participate in the study. Interested Reading RecoveryTM teachers volunteered to participate in the study by audio-taping the orientation to new text component of one student's Reading RecoveryTM lesson. Reading RecoveryTM teachers and their students had the opportunity to opt out at any point in the study. Each participating teacher submitted an audiotape of the storybook introduction with one student accompanied by the appropriate consent forms, directly to me, the researcher, by mail.

Reading RecoveryTM students are six-year-old children (at the time of lesson entry) selected to receive one-to-one, thirty-minute lessons with a trained Reading RecoveryTM teacher. The children are selected for Reading RecoveryTM lessons based on their performance on six literacy tasks in *An Observation of Literacy Achievement* (Clay, 1993) which identifies them as the lowest achieving students from the population of grade one students in their schools.

The student participants were at various stages in their Reading RecoveryTM lessons. Sample audio-tapes were selected from students who were in the series of lessons ranging from week five through to week 15. Unlike non-Reading RecoveryTM students who would be in their final month of a grade one Language Arts program, the Reading RecoveryTM students were at early, mid, and late-points in their series of Reading RecoveryTM lessons.

Data Collection

The primary data source for this study consisted of transcripts from 14 audiotaped book orientations. All voluntarily-submitted audiotapes, with the exception of one inaudible tape, were used in the study. Written consent was obtained from all participants (see Appendix A-D). The names of individual schools, teachers, and participating students were not identified. All audiotapes and transcriptions were kept in a locked, secured filing cabinet in my office. Tape recordings of the orientations were transcribed and read only by myself and one other independent researcher. All computer files pertaining to this study were password protected. Furthermore, all data pertaining to the study will be destroyed upon completion of the study.

Data were gathered from September through June of the 2006-2007 school year. The verbatim transcripts of the storybook orientations were analyzed for emergent characteristics. The characteristics were sorted by frequency counts into broad categories that emerged and then further grouped into subcategories. These categories were discussed and analyzed with an independent graduate student researcher and then compared to the teacher-language framework of storybook orientations proposed by Clay (1998) and described in detail.

Data Analysis

A qualitative research design using the constant-comparison method (Glaser, 1978) that relies on descriptive data to present theory was applied. The audiotaped introductions were examined for regularity and emerging patterns.

These patterns were then sorted and preliminary, broad coding categories were established. From these initial categories, further subcategories were determined. The

categories were then compared to the following teacher-language framework for storybook introductions proposed by Clay (1998):

- Maintaining interactive ease
- Increasing accessibility
- Prompting the child to be constructive
- Accepting partially correct responses
- Tightening the criteria of acceptability
- Probing to find out what children know
- Presenting new knowledge
- Asking children to work with new knowledge
- Providing a model

An independent graduate student researcher was enlisted to verify and interpret the data in order to ensure soundness of the categories. The independent rater collaborated with me in order to discern the presence of the emergent characteristics, features, repeated patterns, and identified categories.

The strength of instruction, be it in the Reading RecoveryTM lesson or in classroom teaching, is dependent upon teacher knowledge of literacy development. It is critical for teachers to know and understand what and when to teach a child in order for the child to move forward along his/her personal literacy journey. Reading RecoveryTM provides intensive, ongoing, monitored training in which dialogue about what and when of literacy learning is vigorously pursued.

Using the structure of Clay's (1998) suggested teacher-language storybook framework, this research identified the extent to which current practice in the Reading RecoveryTM orientation to new text matches Clay's existing theoretical framework.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the ways in which teacher-language supports the reading of new text during the storybook orientation component of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson. Specifically, this study sought to discover what characteristics of teacher-language emerged from teacher-student language interactions during the storybook orientation portion of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson and to further identify the common features of these characteristics.

The research questions that guided this study included:

1. What are the characteristics of teacher- student language interactions that most frequently occur during the orientation to new text within the Reading RecoveryTM lesson?
2. What are the common themes and features of these characteristics?
3. How do the features that emerge from the data compare with the teacher-language framework proposed by Clay (1998)?

This chapter will identify and discuss in detail the dominant characteristics of teacher-student language that emerged from the research data. Data were compiled by listening to and transcribing 14 audiotapes of the orientation to new text component of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson. These audiotapes represented 14 teachers and 14 students recorded in separate locations. The conversation during the first reading of the new text was also transcribed as it was included on the audiotapes.

Section 1

Data Overview

The fourteen orientations ranged in length from one minute, twenty-seven seconds to four minutes, three-seconds. The mean talk time for both teacher and student during the orientation averaged two minutes and seventeen seconds. Book levels, which indicate gradients of difficulty in the reading, included texts previously leveled at 4, 6, 8, 9, 10, 13, 14, 15, and 17 as indicated by a Reading RecoveryTM book leveling system. There did not appear to be a relationship between ease or difficulty of text and length of the orientations. Some easy, simple texts had shorter introductions (Level 4 at 2:22) as did some longer more complex ones (Level 14 at 2:00). One of the longer texts had the longest introduction time of 4:03. (See Summary of Orientation Data Table 1.) The number of words spoken in the orientation was calculated for both teachers and students. The total number of words spoken by teachers was 3700 with a total of 651 words spoken by the students. This creates a teacher-to-student spoken word ratio of 4.7:1. The length of each language-statement was also calculated. The teacher's average length of language statement was 13.2 words. The student-language statements averaged 3.9 words. This constitutes a ratio of 3.4:1.

The ratio of spoken teacher words to that of spoken student words during the language interaction portion of the book orientations indicates that teachers spoke nearly five times more words than the students. As well the length of teacher-language statements compared with student-language, statements were three times longer. In a research study on conversation during Reading RecoveryTM book introductions, Yerington (2004) found similar teacher-student word ratios. Yerington states that it would

be logical that the teacher would speak more words than the students and that having a higher word ratio might be a positive influence on the interaction. She suggests that in a one-to-one tutorial situation word, ratio might be compared with that of a “caretaker-child” conversation. This is a situation where the adult in the caretaker position assumes the responsibility of filling in the missing conversation in the language-interaction making it logical, therefore, that the teacher would speak more words than the student. This may be logical for Yerington’s research; however, even given the nature and intensity of a one-to-one tutorial, a teacher to student word ratio of 4.7:1 does raise questions regarding the balance and turn-taking of language interactions between teacher and student. There may be other variables that cause the teacher-student language ratios to be so unbalanced. Some of these variables might include: the individual student’s oral English competency, the individual student’s personality-type (like the verbally outgoing versus the verbally shy student), and the student’s lack of understanding of his [her] role or of the teacher’s expectations during language-interactions. Other influences might include whether the experience was the first time at a new level, the first time with a new series, and the first time with a new text structure. Furthermore there may be students who do not relate to the chosen text or to the personality of the teacher.

Similarly, the length of language-statements created a teacher-student ratio of 3.4:1 with the teacher’s statements averaging 13.2 words to the student’s average length of 3.9 words. The cause for this higher teacher-student ratio may be a matter of too much teacher talk. Clay (2005b) describes “crisp” bits of teaching where teachers use “an economy of words” (p. 87). Teachers are encouraged to use words wisely. Clay (2005b) writes: “[During the first readings of a book] do not waste words. Commend the child for

good work on processing the print, praise to boost morale, say whatever is necessary to keep the story flowing [BUT] eliminate all unnecessary talk”(*emphasis in original*) (p. 95). Given the high teacher-student language-interaction ratios for word and language-statement length, teachers must continue to question the value of what they are saying and if what they are saying is enabling the student to achieve easy access to the new text or just creating wasted time or worse yet confusion. Lyons (2003) claims that “ findings from fifteen years of longitudinal research examining how children become literate reveal that the single most important factor contributing to young children’s success or failure in learning how to read and write is the teacher and the opportunities he [*sic*] provides for children to negotiate meaning through conversation” (p. 163). Given the results of the disproportionate teacher-student language-interactions ratios, teachers need to listen very carefully and assist the child in being an engaged, active oral participant in the interactions regarding the book orientation.

Other variables such as familiarity with text type and context, by the teacher and the student, as well as individualizing the orientation to each learner, would most certainly influence the length of time for any given orientation.

The following Table contains a summary of the data collected during the storybook orientation component of 14 Reading Recovery™ lessons.

*Table 1**Summary of Orientation Data*

Transcript	Time (in minutes)	Teacher Words	Student Words	Average number of words in Teacher Statements	Average number of words in Student Statements	Book Title	Text Level
1	1:27	175	21	14.5	2.6	Kitty Cat and the Paint	L9
2	1:38	182	37	9.6	2.1	Sam and the Waves	L6
3	2:53	433	60	15.7	3.7	Ben's Tooth	L13
4	2:16	204	58	10.9	3.8	Sam Plays Paddleball	L9
5	2:50	321	36	16	2.4	Sam's Painting	L10
6	2:00	300	31	14.7	2.2	After the Flood	L14
7	1:38	124	46	11.7	4.4	Little Chimp Runs Away	L6
8	2:00	233	38	13.6	3.5	Little Chimp Runs Away	L6
9	4:03	232	63	12.4	3.1	Hungry Monster	L15
10	2:48	336	38	24.6	2.7	The Rock Turtle	L8
11	3:14	404	84	16.2	4.2	Lucky Day For Little Dinosaur	L8
12	2:02	268	37	20.9	4.6	Come Back Pip	L17
13	1:30	182	7	18.2	1.7	The Kite That Got Away	L15
14	2:22	306	95	10.4	3.9	Tom is Brave	L4
Total 14	M 2:17	Total 3700	Total 651	M X=13.2	M X=3.2		Range 4-16

Process of Analysis

Transcripts of the taped lessons were analyzed, coded, and classified into common language groupings. Groups were further divided into subcategories of the language. Percentages were calculated for the dominant categories of teacher-student language by counting the number in that category and comparing it to the total number of categories.

Data were further calculated to determine the number of teacher and student language statements and utterances, word counts for the teacher and student statements, mean length of individual utterances, and student responses to teacher questions. The data were sorted in order to compare them with the categories determined by Clay (1998) in her teacher-language framework and reported in the second part of this chapter.

Teacher-Student Language Statements/Utterances

Teacher-student language statements were counted to determine how often each participant engaged in the language interaction. This indicated how much each participant was interacting in the conversation. A language statement or utterance comprised the language word, phrase, utterance, statement, or question used when talking in turn with each other.

Number of Words

The number of teacher and student words spoken during the orientation was recorded. Further, the mean length of teacher and student-language statements/utterances was established.

The context from which the teacher-student language was taken was an extremely important factor in determining the placement of language into the specific categories.

Where there was ambiguity in category placement, I returned to the original language-interaction transcripts for guidance in assignment of language to specific groupings. An independent rater was enlisted to assist with verification and interpretation of the data categories.

The analysis and presentation of the research findings was guided by the questions that inform this study. The first section addresses research questions one and two specifically: 1. What are the characteristics of teacher-student language interactions that most frequently occur during the orientation to new text within the Reading Recovery™ lesson? and 2. What are the common themes and features of these characteristics? The term category and characteristics are used interchangeably to refer to the broader classification groupings and the term sub-characteristic is used interchangeably with common features found in the broader groupings.

Characteristics of Teacher-Student Language Interactions

Teacher Language Responses

There were six categories of teacher language and two main categories of student language that emerged from analyzing the research data. The specific categories were determined by listening to and transcribing the audiotapes. After the tapes were initially transcribed, each individual teacher and student language statement and/or utterance was retyped and numbered. A teacher-student language statement or utterance is defined as a word, phrase, statement, or question used during the teacher-student language interactions. Language categories were grouped according to similar characteristics. Within each category, sub-characteristics were identified and recorded. What follows in

Table 2 are the characteristics and sub-characteristics of teacher language that emerged from the audiotaped orientation portion of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson.

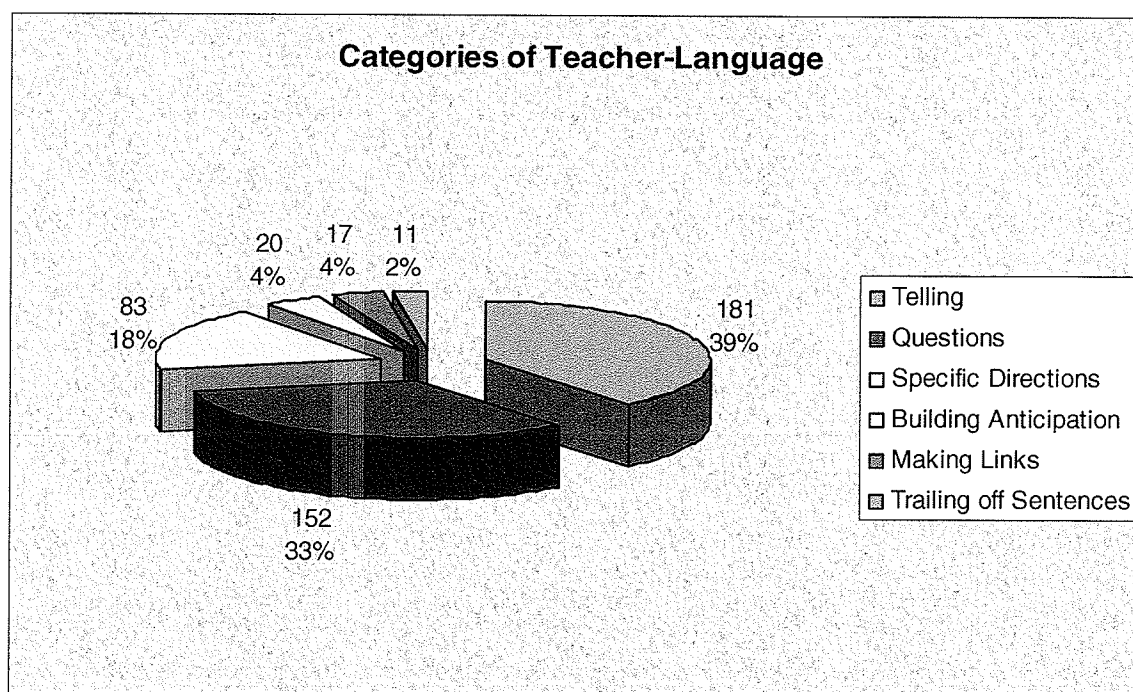
*Table 2**Teacher Language Characteristics*

Characteristics of Teacher Talk During Orientation	Sub-Characteristic	Number
1. Telling n=181	a. Explanation about the story	107
	b. Repeating, expanding or confirming	61
	c. Affirmation, praise, confidence building	13
2. Questions n=152	a. Inference/Prediction (drawing a conclusion from evidence or reasoning)	43
	b. Connections to child's knowledge and experiences	25
	c. Text to text connections	5
	d. Drawing attention to a word	3
	e. Drawing attention to details or seeking information (usually from the pictures)	64
	f. Drawing attention to a structure	3
	g. Rhetorical (a question asked that does not require an answer)	17
3. Specific n= 83	a. To or about the pictures	32
	b. To a specific word or vocabulary	6
	c. To say or repeat a structure	25
	d. Expectations for reading behaviours	20
4. Building n=20	a. Building an anticipation and excitement what is to come	20
5. Making Links n=17	a. To child's experiences	13
	b. To other texts	4
6. Trailing off n=11	a. Pausing before the sentence is finished in order for the student to think and generate a response	11

Data in Percentages

The data described above were further analyzed to report in percentages. The percentages were determined by counting the number of teacher-language statements in each category and sub-category and comparing them to the total number of teacher-language statements, then presenting them in percentages. Figure #1 presents the findings converted into percentage.

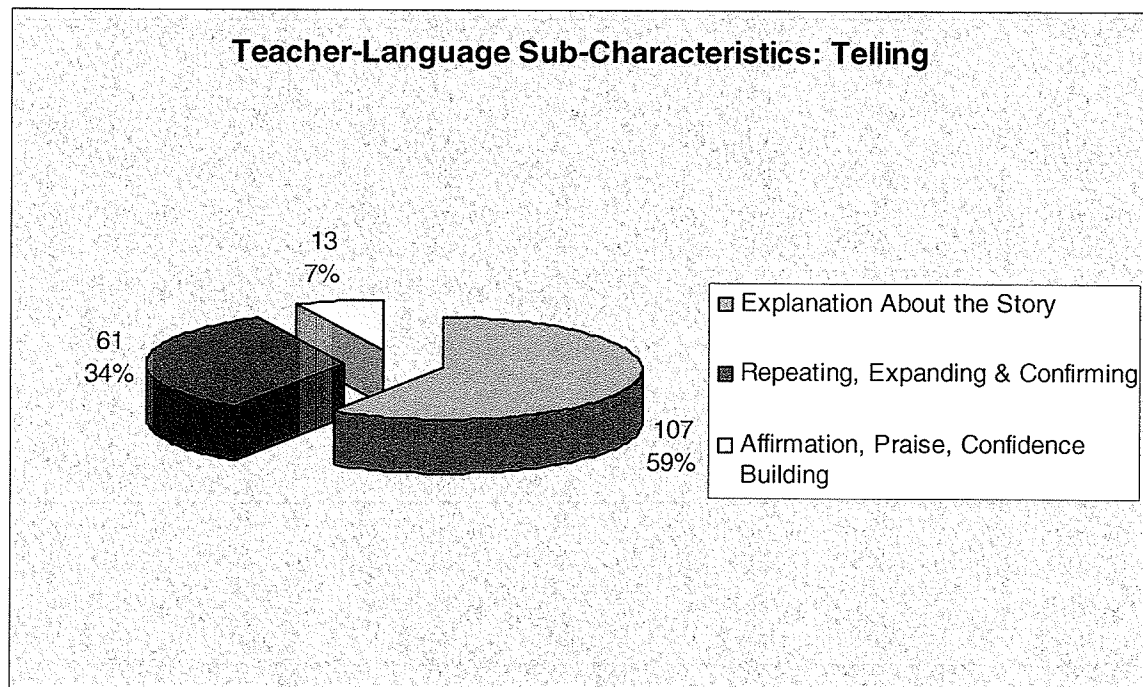
Figure 1. Six Teacher-Language Classifications



In the teacher-language categories, the largest percentage of teacher-language was focused around telling at 39% of the total language groupings. This was followed closely by questions comprising 33%. The giving of specific directions took up 18% of the total categories of talk. Building anticipation (4%), making links (4%), and the use of trailing off or oral cloze sentences (2%) made up the remaining ten percent of the language categories. In the largest category of teacher-language there were three main sub-

characteristics. Explaining about the story made up fifty-nine percent of the talk while repeating, expanding, and confirming student responses comprised thirty-four percent of the language statements. Affirming and praising the student made up the remainder of the language statements, taking up seven percent of the total talk. The second most common category in teacher-language was the asking of questions. Emerging from this category were six sub-characteristics. Drawing attention to the pictures in the story was the most popular type of question and made up 41% of the total questions asked. Twenty-seven percent of the questions called for inference or prediction, and sixteen percent of the questions were to do with connections to the student. Teachers' asking of rhetorical questions made up eleven percent and connections to texts comprised three percent. The question sub-characteristic that made up the smallest percent (2%) was that of drawing attention to words.

Figure 2. Sub-characteristics of Teacher-Language: Telling



Discussion of Telling

The largest category of teacher-language to surface from the data is grouped under the class of Telling. This group included 181 statements, which accounts for 39% of the total teacher-language and was divided into 3 sub-categories. The sub-categories for this group included 107 or 59% teacher-language statements that involved explaining about the story, 61 or 34% statements that repeated, expanded, or confirmed what the student said, and 13 or seven per cent statements that served to build confidence by affirming and praising students. Table 3 provides examples of teacher-language from this category.

Table 3

Examples of Teacher Language: Telling

Telling	Example
Explanation	T - This story is about Kitty Cat and the Paint.
Repeating, Expanding, or Confirming what is said	T - Oh, yes it went flying away in the wind.
Affirmation, praise, confidence building	T – You sounded just like Little Chimp.

All teachers in the study used some form of Telling and used some form of the three sub-categories found in the larger category of Telling in their book orientations. Teacher language found in the category of Telling is a powerful way to introduce the important aspects of the new text that teachers feel the student will not understand. Clay (2005b) encourages teachers to “give thoughtful attention to the level of help the child

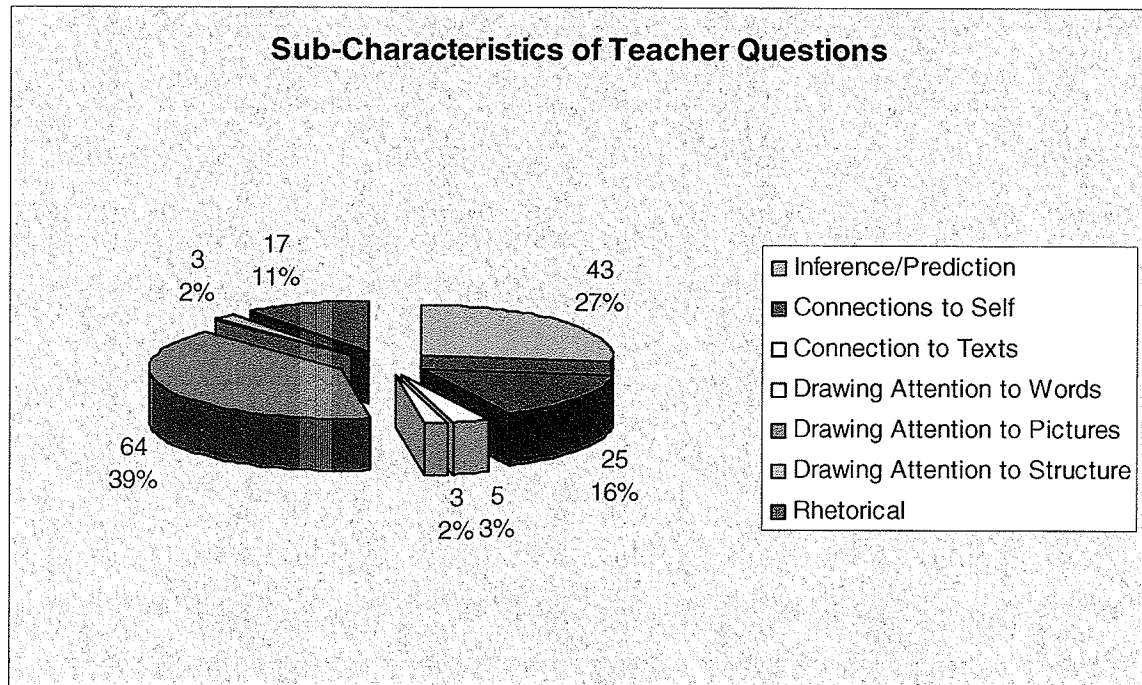
needs and decide when you are prompting for processing or when you should be supplying information that the learner does not have (teaching)” (p. 94). Teachers frequently included language statements about the meaning of the story including the plot and sequence of events. This kind of telling assists the student to connect with the main ideas and order of occurrence and therefore gain better access to the meaning. Repeating, expanding, and confirming what the students have said serves to reinforce and build on what the student knows to enhance his/her understandings. Receiving affirmation, praise, and confidence building are all necessary prerequisites in order for the child to seize opportunities to think about language, use language, and move forward reflecting upon and refining their language while communicating. Lyons (2003) writes:

Children’s evolution of social development and learning processes begins at birth as they interact with parents and caregivers and continues through schooling as they interact with teachers. Communications with others is the heart of this learning process. Children who have been particularly successful language learners and users are surrounded by adults who

- Create many opportunities for children to use language to think, problem solve, and reflect on their learning;
- Recognize and praise children often for little successes;
- Provide specific praise when children accomplished something they initially found difficult learning;
- Show, through their actions and words, high expectations for children’s ability;

- Understand that children and students will live up to the expectations of their parents and teachers. p. 5

Figure 3. Sub-characteristics of Teacher Questions in Percentage



Discussion of Questions

Questions was the category to emerge from the teacher's language data with the most types or sub-categories. There were a total of 152 questions from the 14 audiotapes accounting for 33% of the teacher-language. The seven sub-categories represent the type of question asked by the teachers. Questions that called for the student to draw conclusions from evidence presented and/or predict what would happen next in the text were included in the sub-category of Inference/Predictions. There were 43 or 27% questions of this nature. There were 25 questions representing 16% that related specifically to connecting the text with the student's schema, knowledge, and

experiences. Five questions or 3% of the total number of questions specifically made the attempt to link one text with another.

The largest group of sixty-four directed questions, representing 39% of the questions asked, was aimed at having the student pay attention to details or seek out information from the text. In this sub-category the attention was mainly drawn to the pictures in the text totaling 64 in number or 39% of the questions. There were three questions or 2% of the questions aimed at pointing out specific words and 3 questions or 2% of the total number of questions related to familiarizing the student with text structures. There were seventeen rhetorical questions representing 11% of the questions, which required no answers. Examples of each question category are included in Table 4.

Table 4

Examples of Teacher Language: Questions

Question	Example
Inference/Prediction	T – What do you think he is going
Connections to Student's knowledge and experience	T – Has that ever happened to you? T – What did you do when your
Text to text connections	T - Remember the other book where you thought Willy looked like a big
Drawing attention to a specific	T – [How] did you know that word
Drawing attention to	T – Does it look like he got away?
Drawing attention to language structure	T – Can you say that? T – Will you say that with me?

Rhetorical	T – I think the waves are a little too big, aren't they?
------------	--

In an attempt to align and 'orient' the student with the new text, the teachers rely on questions to engage the students and make the students' first reading as easy as possible. In this research the *Question* category was the second largest and produced seven sub-characteristics or types of questions. The sub-characteristics encompassed most of the types of effective pre-reading instruction that were discussed in Chapter II, The Review of Related Literature. The largest sub-characteristic to emerge was that of asking questions that drew information from the pictures accounting for 39% of the kinds of questions asked. Clay (2005b) states, "The pictures may lead the child to engage about the book providing opportunities to discuss new ideas and new language" (p. 92). For example questions from the orientations that might engage and provide new opportunities include the following:

T: What do you see coming here?

T: How did she get onto the slide?

T: Where did he put his tooth?

T: What do you see laying on the ground here?

Clay (2005b) writes, "Once the child has constructed a 'reading process' he (*sic*) can be challenged by novel text that has not been introduced (unseen)" (p. 92). Teachers must be very aware of how and if the pictures are helping the student gain meaning from the text. An over reliance on the pictures may interfere with instead of enhance the student's understanding of text. Beck and McKeown (2001) explain, "Vivid, delightful pictures are a hallmark of children's trade books and children are naturally drawn to

them. However, if children rely on pictures to construct their understanding of story, they may focus on characteristics of the pictures that interfere with constructing meaning of the story” (p. 11). Some examples of questions from the orientations that might lead away from the intent of the story include:

T: Is she happy there?

T: And do you think Willy wants to eat the turtle?

T: You see this guy?

T: Does his dad put his arm around here?

Questions that draw in the student’s personal connections, knowledge, and experiences with the world and other texts serve to strengthen their engagement with and ultimately understanding of the text. These two sub-characteristics in the question category serve to make the text more accessible. Clay (1998) explains, “The children’s own background knowledge had been called to mind and some new knowledge has been introduced in a measured way” (p. 172). She continues, “Good book introductions explore, test out, and draw on children’s knowledge” (p. 174). Here are some examples from the orientations that demonstrate the drawing out of prior knowledge and/or text to text connections:

T: What did you do when your tooth fell out?

T: So what happened after your flood?

T: Has that ever happened to you?

T: Why do you come into the school?

T: Remember the other book where you thought Willy looked like a big monster?

There were 17 rhetorical questions where no answer was required.

These questions included:

T: Did it?

T: To Mother Chimp, right?

T: Right?

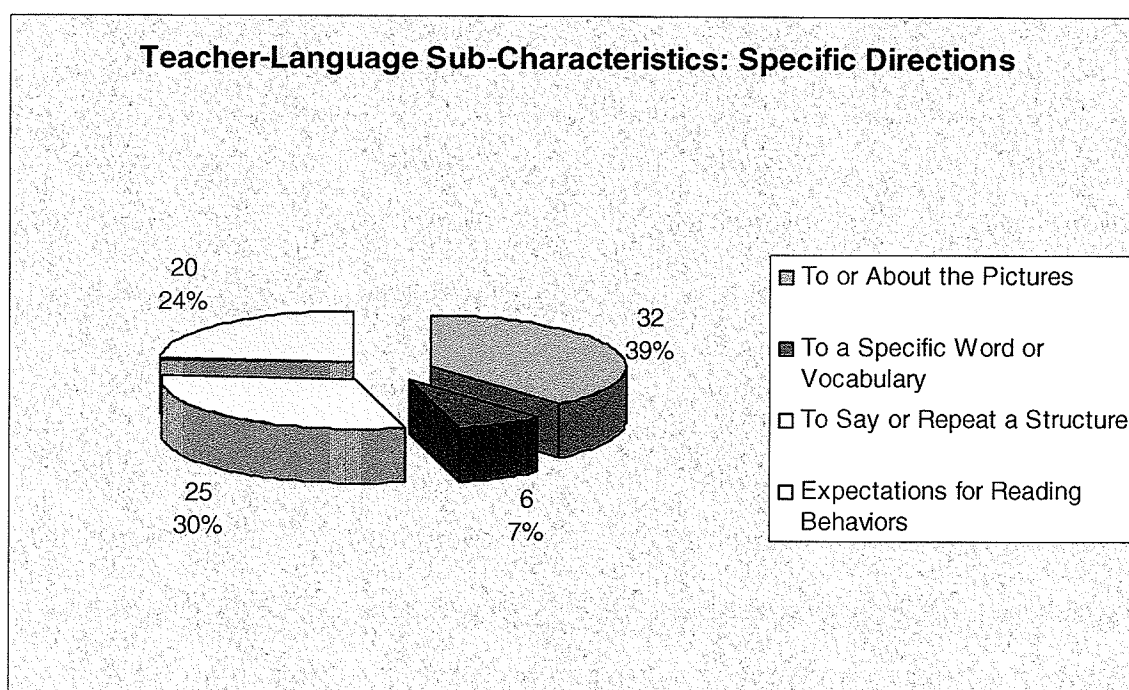
T: She is supposed to be inside isn't she?

T: Dad wasn't careful was he?

These types of question serve to confirm, affirm, and maintain the language interaction.

There were two sub-characteristic types of questions that did not occur as frequently as the others. Three questions representing two percent of the total number of questions, each was found for the sub-characteristics of drawing attention to words and to language structures. This was an interesting finding as Clay (1998) encourages teachers to anticipate "new and unusual words within the context of the whole story" (p. 175). Later she suggests that teachers "give the child opportunities to hear and use new words and structures that he will need to use in the reading" (2005b, p. 91). The fact that there are also so few questions and examples from the new words category in *Telling* might be an indication that those students participating in the study did not need the word meaning vocabulary or word identification instruction, or attention to particular language structures, or that the teachers did not feel they needed to draw attention to these areas in order to ensure a successful reading. A closer look at the first reading of the new text would give information as to whether the child was able to read the vocabulary and language structures with ease and therefore did not need the instruction. Nevertheless, it is unclear as to why so little vocabulary and language structure modeling occurred in these particular book orientations.

Figure 4. Sub-Characteristics of Teacher Language: Specific Directions



In the category of *giving specific directions*, the two most common sub-characteristics were those of statements about the pictures at thirty-nine percent and giving the direction to say or repeat an oral language structure such as a word, word phrase or sentence at thirty percent. Twenty-four percent of the attention went to directions that entailed specific reading behaviours and seven percent of the time specific direction was directed to specific words or vocabulary.

Discussion of Specific Directions

Eighty-three teacher-language statements involved giving specific directions, accounting for 18% of the teacher-language. In this group, 32 specific directions or 39% of the language statements were given regarding the pictures, six or seven percent directed the student to specific words or vocabulary, 25 directions or 30% were directed

to say or repeat a structure and 20 or 24% of the statements directly involved directions for reading behaviours.

In the category of *Specific Directions* four sub-characteristics of the category emerged. This category includes teacher talk that calls attention to specific words, vocabulary, and language structures as well as explaining procedures for participation. The smallest sub-grouping was language attention that was directed to specific words or vocabulary accounting for only six percent of the teacher-language. Specific direction to the pictures, repeating a language structure, and giving directions for specific reading behaviours were all given more attention by the teachers.

In Table 5 the language of giving specific directions is highlighted.

Table 5

Examples of Teacher Language: Specific Directions

Specific Directions	Example
To or about the pictures	T – Let's have a look. T – Look at that.
To a specific word or vocabulary	T – Find the word 'ladder' for me.
To say or repeat a structure	T – He's going to say, "Go away and let me sleep in the sun." T – Right, Mother Chimp is calling
For behaviours or expectations for reading	T – Ok, we can go back to the beginning and read now. T – Yea, alright, let's push right in. (refers to pushing in of student's chair)

Discussion of Making Links

Another category to emerge from the data involved the teacher's attempts to make connections and links for the child. Seventeen statements were made accounting for four percent of the teacher-language. Thirteen involved the teacher making connections with the student's own experiences, and four concerned linking one text with another.

Examples of these statements are shown in Table 6 below.

Table 6

Examples of Teacher Language: Making Links

Making Links	Examples
To student's experiences	T – And you were telling me that you had a flood in your yard.
To other texts	T – You know (student's name) we were talking about that other book yesterday, The Flood book.

Discussion of Building Anticipation

Four percent of the teacher-language was accounted for by twenty statements where the teacher's intent appeared to be one of building anticipation and excitement for the reading and/or what was to come next in the story. Although not every teacher built in this anticipatory excitement here are some examples of teacher language that did serve to build the readers anticipation and excitement for story. These examples are highlighted in Table 7.

*Table 7**Examples of Teacher Language: Building Anticipation*

Building Anticipation	Example
	T – So, we have to see what happens to Little Chimp at the end of the story. T – I wonder if dad will get his new kite back?

Discussion of Trailing off Sentences

Two percent of the teacher-language was accounted for by eleven teacher-statements in which the end of the teacher's language sentence would trail off creating an oral cloze situation where there was a pause. This strategy gave the student an opportunity to think and at times generate a response. Examples of the statements that were categorized this way are included in Table 8

*Table 8**Examples of Teacher Language: Trailing Off Sentences*

Trailing Off Sentences	Examples
	T – Now she's putting some...
	T – They are going...

The teachers' goal is to assist the student to build connections between what [she]he knows and its usefulness in reading the text. The above categories, Building Anticipation, Making Links, and Trailing off Sentences all use teacher language in order to allow for the students' construction of meaning. Cazden (1988) emphasizes the important role that teacher-student interactions play in the meaning making process. She writes:

In order to learn, students must use what they already know so as to give meaning to what the teacher presents to them. Speech makes available to reflection the processes by which they relate new knowledge to old. But this possibility depends on the social relationships, the communication system, which the teacher sets up (p. 2).

Teachers build student interest, anticipation, and excitement in their anticipatory statements. These teacher language statements serve the purpose of keeping the students engaged in and involved with the conversation about the story. Making links, as we have discussed earlier in the other categories, is an important way to connect what the student knows with what is being introduced in the book orientation. By providing the opportunity for students to complete sentences, teachers provide opportunities for student thinking and generation of responses.

Student-Language Responses

Student language categories fell into one of two main groupings. The categories included those responses that were student initiated and those that were responses to the

teacher's previous question or statement. See Table 9 below for an overview of the emergent categories and sub-characteristics.

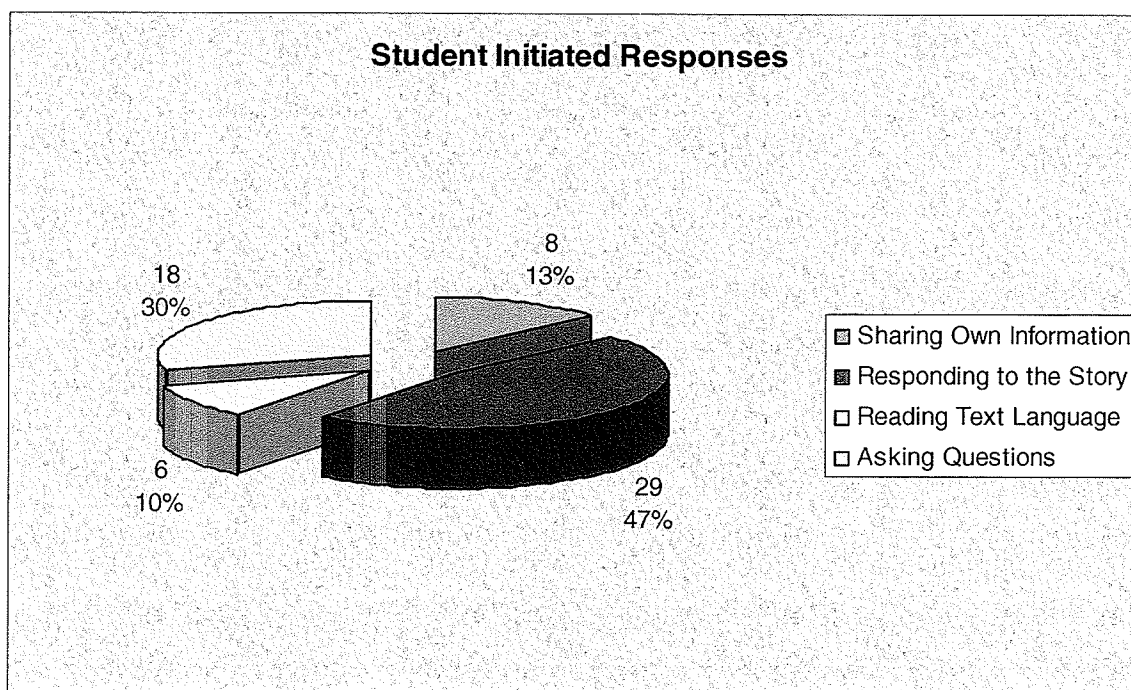
Table 9

Student-Language Categories

Characteristics of Student-Talk during the Orientation	Sub-characteristic	Number
1. Student initiated responses n= 61	a. Sharing own information/making own connections	8
	b. Responding to the story	29
	c. Reading text language	6
	d. Asking questions	18
2. Response to the teacher n=133	a. Answering the teacher	121
	b. Repeating words or phrases in response to teacher prompt	2
	c. Filling in missing words at the end of teacher utterance	10

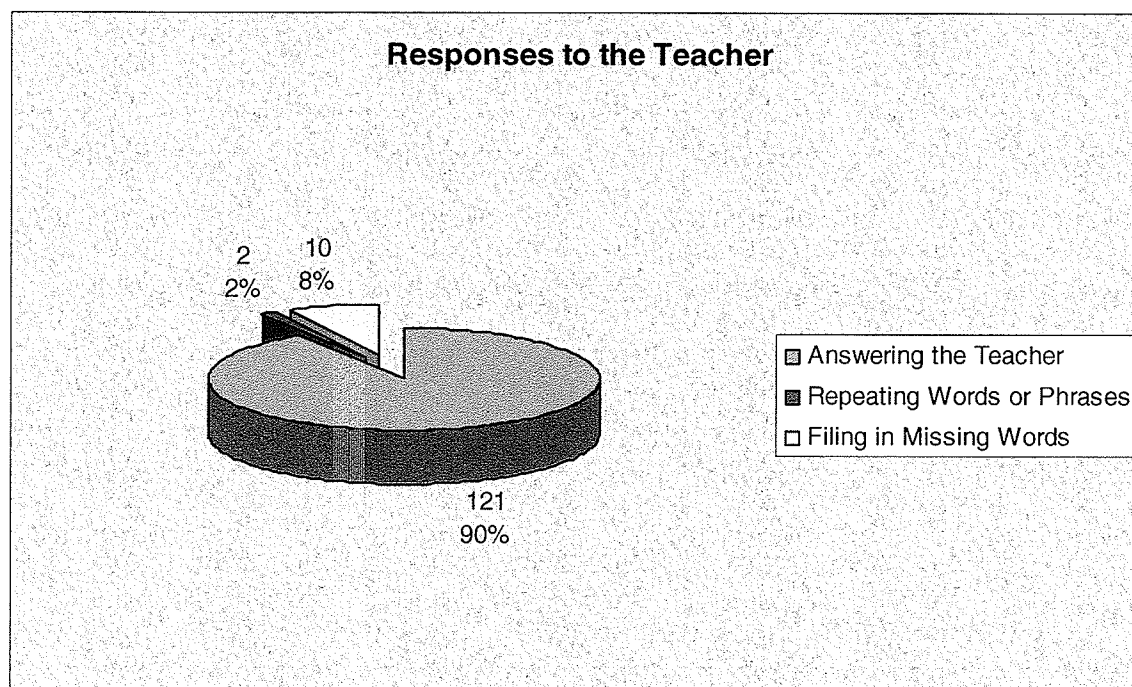
Two main language categories emerged from the student-language data. There were 61 student-initiated responses and 133 responses to the teacher. In each of these categories, sub-characteristics were defined. Four sub-characteristics were defined within student-initiated responses. These included 47% responding to story, 20% asking questions, 13% sharing of own information, and ten percent asking questions of the teacher. Figure 5 represents the percentage depiction of the student-initiated characteristics.

Figure 5. Student-Initiated Responses: Sub-characteristics



student-responses involved answering the teacher. Eight percent of the responses were repeating words or phrases, and in two percent of the responses the students were filling in missing words from the previous teacher statement. These percentages are highlighted in Figure 6.

Figure 6. Student-Responses to the Teacher: Sub-characteristics



The breakdown of the student-initiated responses category indicates that the majority of language interactions on the part of the students came in the form of response to the story followed by asking questions. There were fewer examples where language was initiated that represented sharing their own connections and reading the text language. It could be that the time and pace of the orientation interaction did not allow enough time for the student to engage in the thinking, communicating, and responding it would take to initiate more language in the sub-characteristic of sharing information. In the Responses to Teacher category, it isn't surprising, but it is concerning that the student is not generating more or different kinds of talk. The largest student-language response took the form of answers to the teacher with the least response falling into the category of repeating words or language phrases from the text.

The next section of the paper will compare the findings from this research study with the features of teacher-student language found in Clay's (1998) teacher-language framework.

Section 2

Comparison with Clay's (1998) Teacher-language Framework

Clay (1998) provides an interactive language framework for classroom teachers that offers examples of what she terms "deliberate teaching moves" (p. 175) designed to assist learners to enter into the reading of a new text with successful ease. This framework is divided into nine features that provide for ways of interacting with students during the orientation to new text. Clay (1998) writes, "As the children's task will be to read the new book independently, the teacher will not read it to them, but will provide some framework to guide the children through the story" (p. 174). What follows is a discussion of the nine teacher-language features within this framework and how the data from this study compare with those features.

The first feature of interacting with learners during the orientation involves what Clay (1998) terms *Maintaining Interactive Ease*. This feature involves providing purposeful, planned "teaching moves" (p. 175) that serve to maintain and enhance the teacher-student interaction. The teacher may repeat or expand on the student's statements in order to keep the conversation going, thus creating a comfort zone of interaction for the student. The research data provided several areas where Clay's description of *Maintaining Interactive Ease* was evident. In the teacher-language category thirty-nine percent of the language involved giving or telling the student information. Thirty-four

percent of those structures were identified as statements where the teacher repeated, expanded, or confirmed what the student said.

Examples of *Maintaining Interactive Ease* from the transcripts are illustrated below:

1. Repeating or expanding on student-language to maintain interactive ease:

T: They are laughing, right, and then mom sees it.

T: You're right, so they have to be really careful.

T: And he didn't look where he was going and he tripped and fell down.

When giving *Specific Directions*, 30% of the time the teacher said or repeated a structure for the student thus enhancing interactive ease. These examples from teacher-language giving specific directions would include:

2. Giving specific directions to maintain interactive ease:

T: He's going to say 'go away and let me sleep in the sun'.

T: Exactly, it goes around and around and around.

T: She might be saying that and she might also be saying 'Come Back Here'.

The second deliberate teaching move that Clay explains is the teacher's drawing attention to and providing information regarding specific new or novel aspects of the text. This includes aspects of language such as unusual syntax, different vocabulary, or meaning of the story. According to Clay's framework, when teachers provide support in these areas they are *Increasing Accessibility* of the text to the child. There were many illustrations from the data that fit the category of familiarizing the student with the story and fewer examples of teaching moves designed to teach new or novel words. Thirty

percent of the teacher-statements provided specific directions to say or repeat structures where seven percent of the *Specific Directions* were directed to the teaching of word or vocabulary. A large portion of teacher-talk, 59% of the statements, was devoted to *explanations of the story*, which could be considered under the feature of *increasing accessibility*.

These teaching statements would include:

Specific directions to word, vocabulary or structures:

T: Those are called roller-skates, roller-skates.

T: Find the word ladder for me.

T: I think the waves are a little too big for her aren't they?

Explanations of the story to increase accessibility:

T: This story is about Kitty Cat and the paint. Have you read some Kitty Cat books before?

C: No.

T: Kitty Cat is kind of naughty. What do you think he is going to do?

C: Splash the paint all over.

T: Maybe. Let's have a look. Here is Kitty Cat and he's looking out the window at Fat Cat. Look at her.

C: Yea.

T: Yea, he's enjoying a nice sunny day and she sees that red paint too.

The third feature of Clay's framework is *Prompting the Child to Construct*. This involves asking the student to engage in constructing the plot or story. To do this, the child may be urged to search for and make links with personal experiences and

knowledge, be given time during the interaction to think and generate endings to open-ended statements or questions, and be requested to reflect and make [his]her own judgments when interacting with the text. The data indicated that four percent of the total teacher-language involved making links with students' experience and knowledge as well as making connections with other texts. In the teacher-language question category, sixteen percent of the language-structures were questions pertaining to connecting the text to the student's knowledge and/or experiences, and three percent of the questions directed the students to connect from one text to another. In only two percent of the teacher-language statements, concentration was on creating opportunities where students could work actively and cooperatively with the teacher to construct meaning. This was evident in the statements where the teacher would leave a sentence or question unfinished, allowing pause time for the student to complete the oral cloze or trailing sentences. Where there were student-initiated responses, thirteen percent of the language structures involved sharing personal information and knowledge that related to what was being read. The following language interaction provides an example of prompting the student to construct:

Prompting the student to construct:

T: Let's take a look at it and see what makes him scared.

C: (coughing)

T: Tell me what's happening.

C: They are running.

T: They are going... (thought trails off and pauses for response)

C: to get a drink.

T: Yea, maybe down to the river and Little Chimp is running. Uh Look...

(thought trails off and pauses for response)

C: She's wondering what she's wondering (*sic*) where is mother.

A fourth feature of Clay's language framework involves *Accepting Partially Correct Responses*. This is where a teacher would accept and confirm the student's partially correct responses and then build on this information to guide the child toward the correct response. Seven percent of the teacher-language in the category of *Telling* contained examples of affirmation, praise and confidence building. There were many examples of accepting partially correct responses in most categories, in particular in the fifty-nine percent of statements that involved direct telling.

Here is an example from the data that illustrates guiding the student toward the correct response:

Accepting partially correct responses:

T: No? What do you think she might be saying? (*pauses 5 sec*)

C: Oooh, uh, uh.

T: She might be saying that and she is also saying 'Come Back

Here'. She is worried because Little Chimp is gone. Right,

she is saying "Come Back Here.' Turn the page. Oh, oh

what happens here? (*pause 3 sec*)

C: Um she sees the snake.

T: Little Chimp sees the snake in the grass right?

And he says Oooh, Oooh, Oooh. Can you try that?

C: Oooh, Oooh, Oooh.

The fifth feature in the framework involves *Tightening the Criteria of Acceptability* through guided teacher language. Here the student is called upon to use the same constructive process that was demonstrated on one problem to solve or develop a closer approximation to the correct response on another problem or area of solving. In the research data there were very few, if any, examples of calling for the child to use what [s]he had just learned to solve another problem.

In the orientation to new text, teachers need to find out what information the students already possess so that this information can be drawn upon to assist them in understanding the concepts in story. In the sixth feature which Clay describes, *Probing to Find out What Children Know*, this information will assist not only in understanding what the child knows but also, and, more importantly, will identify concepts that teachers do not need to spend valuable time teaching. This probing serves to bring the information into the realm of recency making it more accessible when required in the reading. Examples of teacher-language that probed for the student's prior knowledge could be found in both the questioning and telling categories of teacher-language.

The following are some examples from the transcripts of teacher-student language interactions that probe to find out what the child knows about the text about to be read:

Probing to Find Out What Children Know:

T: This is about jumping to conclusions. Do you know what that means?

C: No.

T: If you jump to conclusions it means you think that something happened when it really didn't. You really didn't know for sure you just thought that that (*sic*) happened. So in this story this little boy here

his name is Ben and his mother are looking after their neighbor's pet canary.

C: Ah...

T: Our new book today is called Ben's Tooth. You know Ben. You've had lots of stories about him right and in this story Ben loses his first tooth. Have you lost any teeth yet?

C: Two.

T: Two, already and Ben isn't quite sure what to do with his tooth. He wants to show it to everyone but then his mom has an idea of what he should do with his lost tooth. What did you do when your tooth fell out?

C: Um...put it under my pillow.

In the seventh feature of Clay's teacher-language framework, teachers *Present New Knowledge* in order to increase the student's understanding of new ideas, concepts, words, and text structures. The data showed that in the category of questions, two percent of the total questions were directed at providing attention to specific words. In the telling category of teacher-language, fifty-nine percent of the statements pertained to explanations about the story, and specific directions were given thirty percent of the time for syntax explanations, and seven percent of the specific directions were to do with specific words. When the teacher suspected that the student did not have the understanding of story, syntax, or vocabulary, the teacher provided this knowledge for the student. These are some examples from the research transcripts that highlight the teacher presenting new knowledge:

Presenting New Knowledge:

T: This is the funny part where the turtle, he thinks that Willy
wants to eat him and so he says he is looking at me with
'Hungry Eyes' (says with emphasis). See the hungry eyes.

C: Um hum.

Example 2:

T: Do you know what that is? (pause doesn't wait for an answer)
That's a mailbox. Would you ever eat a mailbox?

C: No.

T: No, we don't eat mailboxes, but I guess Hungry Monsters do.
What else is he eating?

C: I.....a skateboard.

T: You know what we call those. Those are roller-skates, those are
roller-skates. You don't see them....

C: Oh.....

The eighth and next feature of Clay's framework involves *asking the Children to Work with New Knowledge*. In this teaching move, teachers ask the student to work with newly-acquired knowledge by creating opportunities for the student to use recently-gained understandings before he/she engages in the first reading. There were fewer examples from the data that illustrated this teaching feature. Here is one language-interaction that gave the student the opportunity to think about and use newly acquired vocabulary.

Asking the Children to work with New Knowledge:

T: Do you know what this kind of bug is called?

C: No.

T: It's called a beetle.

C: Oh.

T: Do you remember my bug tin? When I had the beetles in a bug tin?

C: but he's gonna do it (*sic*).

T: He's eating it. He doesn't go to McDonalds like you do, does he? But
he is very happy because he found a beetle.

C: Yea and I found, saw, a beetle at McDonalds too.

The ninth and final teacher-language feature found in Clay's framework is *Providing a Model*. In this feature teachers model what they consider to be important reading aspects designed to meet the needs of the individual student. Modeling can be used to assist the student in many reading processes. Providing a model can assist the student in learning how to anticipate the story outcome, reflect on the story, and learn new syntax intonations and unfamiliar cadences in the language structures. New words and vocabulary can be introduced in the context of the story by modeling. Evidence of modeling was found in the data across the various categories of teacher-language structures.

Providing a Model:

Example 1

T: Oh Oh what's Sam upset about?

C: Pants.

T: I um, don't think she's upset about her pants. I think the waves are a little too big for her aren't they?

C: Yea.

T: Yea, they're a bit scary. O what are mom and Sam doing?

C: Going to the waves.

T: Well, I think they are going home. Does Sam look happy?

Example 2

T: This book is called The Rock Turtle.

C: Rock Turtle (repeats title)

T: And in this story the little turtle is afraid of Willy because he thinks

Willy looks like a big monster. Remember the other book where you thought Willy looked like a big monster? And Willy he thinks he's found a new rock for his collection. You know how when the turtle gets scared he puts his leg inside his shell, well then it looks just like a big rock to Willy and he likes to collect rocks so he puts it in his wagon. How do you think the little turtle is going to feel then?

C: Scared.

Example 3

T: Little Chimp sees the snake and the snake is in the grass right? And he says Oooh, Oooh Oooh. Can you try that?

C: Oooh, Oooh, Oooh.

T: You sounded just like Little Chimp. Ooo he sees the snake so what do you think he is going to do?

In summary, matching up teacher-student language interactions to the framework Clay provides was a complex task. Many of the teacher moves Clay describes could be found in most of the categories as defined in the research data. It became important to provide the context in which the language interactions between the teachers and students took place. This allowed for more accurate classification and descriptions of the language-structures as well as provided more accurate insight into the teaching intent in the interactions. Examples for seven of the nine framework teaching moves could be found in the data. The exceptions, where no or very few examples were found, involved the features *Tightening the Criteria of Acceptability* and *Asking Children to Work with New Knowledge*. There were also limited examples (seven percent) of teacher-language statements directed at providing instruction for new or unusual vocabulary which was addressed under Clay's *Increasing Accessibility* teacher interaction. Table 10 below illustrates what categories with the data elements of Clay's Framework were found. One would not expect all of the teaching moves described by Clay in her nine categories to be found in each category and sub-characteristic of the data. Rather, it is a positive finding that most, if not all, of her described teacher-language moves could be found within some portion of the orientation data.

Table 10

Data comparison with Clay's Teacher-language Framework

	Telling			Questions							Specific Directions				Anticipation	Making Links		Trailing-off	Total
	a	b	c	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	a	b	c	d	a	a	b	a	
Clay's Categories	Explaining	Repeating	Affirming	Inference	Connections	Text to Text Connections	Attention to a Word	Attention to Details	Attention to Structure	Rhetorical	About Pictures	To Specific Word	About a Structure	Expectations for Behaviours	Building Anticipation	To Child's Experiences	To Other Texts	Pausing for Thought	
1. Maintaining Interactive Ease	x	x	x										x						4
2. Increasing Accessibility	x											x	x						3
3. Prompting the child to construct				x	x	x										x	x	x	6
4. Accepting Partially Correct Responses	x		x																2
5. Tightening Criteria of Acceptability	x			x															2
6. Probe to Find Out What Children Know	x			x	x	x	x	x	x										7
7. Present New Knowledge	x				x		x					x	x						5
8. Asking Children to Work with New Knowledge				x															1
9. Providing a Model	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			x	x		15

Note: X denotes presence of Clay's framework

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This qualitative research was designed to provide rich, descriptive examples of what the teacher-student language interactions sound like during the orientation to new text portion of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson. The questions that provided a focus and guided the study included: 1. What were the characteristics of teacher-student language interactions that most frequently occurred during the orientation to new text within the Reading RecoveryTM lesson? 2. What were the common themes and features of these characteristics? and 3. How did the features that emerged from the data compare with the teacher language framework proposed by Clay (1998)? The findings from each of these areas will be discussed relative to the present study and current literature from the field.

In Chapter One of this paper I expressed my curiosity concerning the nature of book orientations within the context of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson. I reflected on how children learning to read in Reading RecoveryTM attempting to make sense of new and unfamiliar vocabulary, foreign text structures and settings, as well as concepts outside the domains of their knowledge and experience. Of particular interest to me was what teachers actually said when preparing students for successful first encounters with new text. In her Reading RecoveryTM research on understanding teacher talk within the Reading RecoveryTM lesson, Emily Rogers (1998) highlights the importance of the teacher talk itself. She writes, "These findings demonstrate that talk within one-to-one tutoring is critical to the student's growing literacy understandings. While scaffolds are necessary to a student's learning, the nature of the talk within the scaffolds is even more

critical if the student is to become an independent reader” (p. iii). The nature of teacher talk during the book orientation is critical in order to promote a successful reading and understanding of the story and provide a level of challenge required for learning about, from and interacting with teacher and text.

The data from this study provided rich samples of the language-interactions between teachers and students and shed light upon the questions I initially pondered. The data presented in this study represents the teacher-student language interactions from fourteen new book orientations given within the Reading RecoveryTM lesson. What follows is a discussion of the results organized to address the three research questions mentioned above as well as a discussion of the salient findings that emerged from the research data.

Research Questions

The Categories and Sub-characteristics

For the purpose of clarity the terms *category* and *characteristic* are meant to be one and the same and are used interchangeably and *sub-characteristics* and *features* are also used interchangeably.

The answers to research questions one, two, and three (What were the characteristics and common features of the teacher-student language interactions and a comparison to Clay’s 1998 teacher language framework?) were presented in Chapter IV: *The Results*.

In summary, there were six major characteristics that emerged from the transcripts of teacher-student language interactions and two characteristics of student talk emerged during the orientation portion of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson. Each of the six

categories of teacher language produced sub-characteristics and the student talk categories produced sub-characteristics as well. These are presented and discussed at length in Chapter IV.

The two categories that comprised the largest portion of teacher language statements in the orientation to text were *Teacher Telling* and *Teacher Questions* and both warrant further discussion. These two categories together comprised seventy-two percent of the teacher-language interactions. By far these were the most common groupings of language interactions used by all teachers. These two categories served to assist the children to attend to information in the text through giving information and asking questions. *Telling* and *Questioning* fall into the second level of contingent support for learning described by Wood (2002) and labeled “specific verbal intervention” (p. 12). Language is often expressed as a question or specific instruction in order to draw the student’s attention to something to be thought over or searched for. The job of answering the question or reflecting on the instruction is then left up to the student. Clay (1998) explains, “The teacher’s role is to keep the learner at the cutting edge of his or her competence (where Vygotsky would have said the learner should be). The teacher is continually interacting with unseen processes the unseen strategies used by readers to produce overt responses or silent reading responses” (p. 183). Through instruction and questioning, the student is learning how to attend to what is being introduced in order to enter the book with ease. Clay (2005a) continues to describe the importance of this language interaction between teacher and student when she writes, “The text is not read. Teacher and child discuss plot and vocabulary, and rehearse language structures. The child learns how to attend to and use the teacher’s introduction to orient himself [sic] to

the new book” (p. 51). Language, both of the teacher and the student, plays a different and central role in learning.

Halliday (1975) identified seven functions that language serves for young children. In the first four functions he describes language he terms as *instrumental*, *regulatory*, *interactional*, and *personal*. These functions assist the emotional and social needs of the child. The other three functions of language, *heuristic*, *imaginative*, and *representational* involve helping the child come to terms with his [her] environment. Here is where the language of *Telling* and *Questioning* on the part of the teacher assists the child in gaining heuristic knowledge from the environment through questioning, imaginative creativity through telling, and most importantly for this study, the use of representational language through which the child conveys facts and information. Halliday (1993) describes how “children construe their resources for meaning, how they simultaneously engage in *learning language* and *learning through language* . . . for . . . language is the essential condition of knowing, the process by which experience becomes knowledge” (pp. 93-94). The student then is learning through the language and the teacher-student language interactions provide the talk necessary for language learning. Perhaps more significantly, teacher-student talk provides the language necessary for making meaning from one another and from the texts. Wells (1994) in discussing the importance of talk in learning writes,

Language does not consist of sentences; it consists of texts, or discourse—the exchange of meanings in interpersonal contexts of one kind or another. The contexts in which meanings are exchanged are not devoid of social

value; a context of speech is itself a semiotic construct, having a form (deriving from the culture) that enables the participants to predict features of the prevailing register—and hence to understand one another as they go along (p. 47)

The following teacher-student language interaction highlights the language categories of telling and questioning and the role they play in assisting the students to attend to and orient themselves to concepts in the new book.

Telling

T: Today's story is Sam's Painting. This is a story about a little girl named Sam who is going to be painting a picture of something that is special to her and when she takes her painting outside in the wind something happens to her picture. What do you think might happen?

C: The paint will go off.

T: Maybe the wind will make the paint go off. Let's have a look at the pictures to see what is happening. Here is Sam and she is painting a big picture.

Questions

T: Now, let's see what happens at the end. What's Little Chimp doing?

C: Going on Mother Chimp's back.

T: That's right. Why is he on Mother Chimp's back? (pause 1 second)

C: Because he doesn't get wanna (*sic*) get lost again and get scared.

T: That's right and what scared him?

C: The snake.

T: The snake. That's right. Ok you can go to the beginning and read the story.

Comparison of the Research Data to Clay's Teacher-language Framework

To answer the third research question (How do the features that emerge from the data compare with the teacher language framework proposed by Clay [(1998)]?), I looked to see if I could identify any of the nine features Clay identifies in her framework within the teacher-language categories that emerged from the study data. These data are described, presented, and compared in CHAPTER IV (see Table 10).

In order to identify which categories of data met the criteria for each of the nine features of Clay's language framework, each category of the research data was compared to the framework description. If the descriptor of Clay's framework could be found in the study research data category, it was marked with an 'x' to indicate that it was present in that category. The comparison results indicated that the teaching moves described by Clay for interacting with learners during book orientations could be found in some of the teacher-language categories that emerged throughout the orientations. There were only a few of Clay's framework features found within the categories of *Tightening Criteria of Acceptability* and *Asking children to work with new knowledge*. This absence could be due to the fact that in order to work actively with new knowledge, the student needs to be in the reading new text portion of the lesson.

Major Findings

The major finding from this qualitative research study was the identification of the categories and sub-characteristics that emerged from the teacher-student language interactions found in the data and the comparison with Clay's (1998) teacher language framework. In addition to these data were findings that were repeated several times throughout the data. It is those findings that are discussed below.

1. There was a very high teacher-to-student word ratio (4.7:1) and statement length ratio of (3.4:1), calling into question the opportunity for the orientation to be conversational in nature.

Van Bramer (2003) in discussing the importance of conversation in teaching writes, "Effective Reading Recovery teachers provide opportunities to negotiate meaning through talk." Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord (1993) quote Clay (1985) when they write:

Sensitive and systematic observation of young children's reading and writing behaviours provides teachers with feedback which can shape their next teaching moves. Teaching can then be likened to a conversation in which you listen to the speaker carefully before you reply. (p. 25)

One example from the research that demonstrates the opportunity to negotiate meaning through the conversation follows:

T: This story is called Little Chimp Runs Away. In this story Little Chimp is running away from his mother in the forest but he gets scared. (pauses briefly) Let's take a look at it and see what makes him scared.

C: (coughing)

T: Tell me what's happening?

C: They are running.

T: They are going.....(*leaves thought to trail off*)

C:....to get a drink?

T: Yea, maybe down to the river and Little Chimp is running. Uh look...

C: She is wondering what she's wondering is where is mother.

T: He's getting farther ahead when he's running away, hey?

C: Where is (*hard to make this out*) water (*hard to make out next word*)

T: Right Mother Chimp's calling 'Come Back Here'.

C: That what makes him scared. The big snake.

T: Yea! (*with enthusiasm*) Oooh Oooh Oooh that's kind of what a monkey says or
a chimp says (*teacher pauses here 5+ seconds*)

C: He runs back.

T: To....Mother Chimp right?

C: Yea and then...

T: I think something is going to happen when he sees Mother Chimp (*teacher
pauses 4 sec*) What do you think?

C: Um they have..

T: Watch now when they go down to the river.....

C: They are all together.

T: He is on Mother Chimp's back. He is not running ahead now is he?

C: Cause he was too scared of the snake.

T: He was. Let's try Little Chimp Runs Away please.

This conversational language interaction between teacher and student highlights how the teacher listens carefully to the student's responses, waits for an oral response from the student, and then gradually turns over the responsibility for the talk back to the student. This teacher is learning how this child is beginning to orient him/herself to the new text. Right from the beginning of the language interaction there is a maintaining of interactive ease, expanding, repeating, confirming, and expecting an oral response. You can hear deliberate phrases ("down to the river") being modeled and therefore increasing the accessibility of new information. The student's partially correct responses and statements are accepted and extended. This student even begins to model the teacher's language form of using *Trailing off sentences* in order to allow for thinking and the generation of a response.

In contrast to this conversational orientation there were some interactions that did not provide the opportunity for the child to think and generate responses or indeed did not help the student to understand it was his/her job to think and respond. Providing a challenge for response from the student is what I term a *cognitive challenge*. Students need to be very aware from the beginning of the series of lessons, not just in the book orientation portion of the lesson, that it is expected that they will provide the best oral response that they can. Providing students with this *cognitive challenge* will allow for the language interactions in the book orientation to work toward being less teacher centered and more balanced with student interactions. Giving the *cognitive challenge* to students will provide greater opportunity for them think, respond, and communicate within the conversation.

The following is another example of an introduction where there is less opportunity for the child to talk in the orientation:

T: Ok (*child's name*) we are going to read Little Chimp Runs Away. I think you have read a Little Chimp story already haven't you? (*pause 4 sec*)

C: Uh, no that was Tiger.

T: Oh that was Tiger, Tiger. Right, so we haven't read a story about Little Chimp but he runs away and he runs away from his mother. So we have to see what happens to Little Chimp at the end of the story. So see how Little Chimp and his mother are going down to the river? See how he is running?

C: Yea.

T: Good, I like the way you are turning the pages. Now he's in the trees. Oooh he's not listening is he? There's Mother Chimp. Can she see Little Chimp?

C: No .

T: No. What do you think she might be saying? (*pause 4 sec*)

C: oooh uh uh

T: She might be saying that and she is also saying 'Come back here'.

She is worried because Little Chimp is gone. Right, she is saying 'Come back here. Turn the page. Oh , oh what happens here (*pause 3 sec*).

C: Um, she sees a snake.

T: Little Chimp sees a snake in the grass right? And he says Oooh Oooh

Oooh Can you try that?

C: Oooh Oooh Oooh

T: You sounded just like Little Chimp. Oooh he sees the snake so what do you think he is going to do? (*pause 2 sec*)

C: Ummmm go back.

T: That's right he runs back to Mother Chimp. Will he find her? Yes, can they see one another?

C: Yep.

T: Yes she can see little Chimp and he can see Mother Chimp (*pause 5 sec*) Oh he runs to Mother Chimp. Now let's see what happens at the end. What's Little Chimp doing?

C: Going on the Mother's back.

T: That's right and what scared him?

C: The snake.

T: The snake. That's right. Ok you can go to the beginning and read the story.

In this introduction the teacher clearly tries to bring in the student's past reading experiences, introducing possible text-to-text connections, and increasing accessibility by modeling the language of the text for the child. However, the questions used in this introduction do not provide an opportunity for the child to give his[her] own responses, instead, the teacher gets a "no" or a confirming response.

As Clay (1998) writes, "The overview of the story is like a conversational exchange, and the attention to detail should not dismember the flow of the story" (p. 175). So in the limited amount of time given for the brief orientation, teachers must constantly

keep in mind the conversational nature of the interaction and the primary intent of preparing the student for a successful and joyful first reading of the text. The more the student is part of the language interaction the more knowledge the teacher has with which to make important teaching moves and decisions.

2. The orientations from the 14 transcripts showed that there was limited teacher language dedicated to the development of word or vocabulary awareness.

In the category of *Questions*, under the sub-characteristics of *drawing attention to a word*, and *drawing attention to language structures*, there were limited language interactions (three statements in each sub-characteristic). Also, in the category of *Specific Directions*, in the sub-characteristics of *specific direction to word or vocabulary*, there were only a total of six statements. When discussing the importance of vocabulary instruction in learning how to read, Blachowicz & Fisher (2000) write,

These realizations imply that teachers need to be knowledgeable about what they want students to know with respect to both the depth and breadth of learning and the kinds of connections to be made. Also, they must take into account the students' starting points. What do they already know that can help make the connection to new learning? What might conflict or confuse them? Teaching vocabulary becomes not a simple process of teaching words but one of teaching particular words to particular students for a particular purpose (p. 517)

The last sentence that Blachowicz and Fisher write is a powerful one for Reading RecoveryTM teachers to consider. It is the teaching of or increasing familiarity with particular words found within the new text that is of importance in order for particular

children to have a successful first reading of and understanding of those particular words in the book. Clay (2000b) continues this train of thought when she writes, "You might draw the child's attention to an important idea, or give the child opportunities to hear and use new words and structures that he will need to use in the reading" (p. 91). And further on Clay (2000b) continues, "The introduction to the new book is particularly important for the child who does not have good control of language (for whatever reason). This is the activity in which the observant teacher can introduce into her talk any concept, or word, or phrase structure that she [*sic*] has not heard this child use" (p. 91). It may be that the students in these fourteen book introductions did not need the vocabulary teaching required to better ensure a successful reading. However, vocabulary instruction is such an important factor in learning how to read that I believe it warrants careful consideration and awareness on the part of Reading RecoveryTM teachers.

3. There was a great deal of attention drawn to picture information from the text in the teacher language interactions.

As discussed in CHAPTER IV, teachers must skillfully and with knowledge of the child's pattern of processing decide if drawing attention to the pictures in the new text will assist or hinder the student's understanding of what is being explained. The data indicated that attention to details or seeking information from the pictures, both in the *Question* and *Specific Directions* categories, occurred in early level text as well as in higher level text where more limited assistance from the picture cues occurs. Teachers must take care not to create an overreliance on the prompt or to use the pictures to access meaning when indeed the pictures may not provide assistance but actually cause confusion when the student is trying to read the text.

4. Teacher language interactions showed strength in attempting to explain the story or plot, and repeating, expanding, and confirming what students said.

The data highlighted the fact that teachers spent a great deal of time engaging in language interactions that concentrated on enhancing the student's awareness of meaning of the story. The largest sub-characteristic in the category of *Telling* was *explanation about the story*, with 107 or 59% of the language statements directly pertaining to helping the child gain a better understanding. When questioning the student, the teacher's goal in drawing attention to details or pictures may have been to ensure clarity and understanding of the story. In discussing the teaching of reading comprehension, Kintsch (2004) states,

Because for student readers comprehension is not the automatic, fluent, process that it is for mature readers, students need to engage in active problem solving, knowledge construction, self-explanation, and monitoring activities very different from the automatic, fluent comprehension of experts." (p. 1323)

Therefore Reading RecoveryTM teachers need to be constantly aware of how to prompt active problem solving to raise the knowledge construction of meaning for those whom Kintsch terms *student readers*.

5. Transcript data information reinforced that when given at least a 5 second response time after a teacher question or teacher-language interaction, the student produced an oral response much more frequently than if the wait time was less than 5 seconds.

In her Master thesis on research on the writing development of Reading RecoveryTM children, Matczuk (2004) discovered that, "it was clear that students need

some time, three seconds or more to initiate word-solving for themselves. When wait time is provided students increased the number and variety of words they were able to write independently and needed fewer highly supportive teaching moves by their tutors” (p. 114). Although Matczuk’s research pertained to writing and not oral language-interactions, the premise is the same. Students need to be given the time to think and reflect. Given a longer wait time, they are more likely to formulate a response be it in writing or in words.

McIntyre (2007) in her article on story discussions in the primary grades, talks about the importance of wait time when she writes:

Indeed, there are periods of two to five seconds in which no one talks, a characteristic of real conversation and not traditional classroom discourse.

In doing so, she [the teacher] communicates that she [*sic*] is expecting the children to do the majority of the talking.” (p. 617)

It is this expectation of response that I wrote about earlier when I introduced the concept of presenting a *cognitive challenge* to the child. McIntyre (2007) continues, “It is important for the teacher to explain to children *how* they should participate in conversation (Kong & Fitch, 2002/2003)” (p. 611). Modeling *how* and reinforcing the student for an oral response after a teacher question or statement will encourage active participation and move the language interaction closer to a more authentic conversation.

The following are some language examples from the transcripts where it is evident that allowing for at least a 5 second wait time produced some type of oral response from the student. Based on this oral response, the teacher is able to decide which form of

scaffolding, prompts through *Telling, Questions, Building Anticipation, Making Links*, or using *Trailing Off Sentences*, will be most successful in eliciting future responses.

T: Hum...he is eaten something. I don't know what it is. (*pause 5 sec*).

C: He's eating car nails.

T: Yea! (*with enthusiasm*) Oooh Oooh Oooh That's kind of what a monkey says or a Chimp says (*teacher pauses 5 sec*)

C: He runs back.

T: What is he doing? Fighting? (*pause 5 sec*)

C: There is Max.

T: Yea do you see the legs coming out here? (*pause 5 sec*)

C: Yes, yes, yes. Why does he say yes, yes, yes?

In discussing how primary-grade teachers used language, in the forward to Johnston's *Choice Words* (2004), Allington writes, "They interrupted successful readers less often and waited longer for them to figure words out, and their comments to them focused on making sense rather than on the details of print, on sustaining their efforts rather than on correcting them" (p. ix). Although the student responses may not be directly related to the question the teacher asked, producing an oral response gives the teacher insight into what the student is thinking and allows for redirection and prompting to get back to the topic.

Implications for Teaching

This research represents a small but rich descriptive sample of the teacher-student language interactions that occur during the new book orientation portion of the Reading

RecoveryTM lesson. The language interactions from the study provided the following reflective insights into teaching practice during the book orientation.

- Teachers should establish *Interactive Ease* when teaching, how the student can take up the cognitive challenge of turn-taking and providing a thinking, reflective oral action not only in the book orientation portion of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson but right from the moment the lesson begins.
- The teacher-student language interaction is just that—an interaction. This involves more than turn-taking. It involves an active listening response from both teacher and student that assists in moving toward a more authentic conversation where both participants are contributing more equally to the conversation. When balance is achieved, the interaction will not be so teacher centered and directed as the word and sentence length ratios in this study indicate. Although I could not find research where optimal ratios for number of word and sentence length were presented, it would seem that these ratios should strive for closer more equal contributions from both teachers and students.
- When teachers provide a wait-time for student responses of at least five seconds, the student is more likely to generate some type of oral response.
- Teachers should develop a repertoire and variety of prompts from within the categories and sub-characteristics that emerged in this research. Decisions on which prompts from which language categories should be used are based, first and foremost, on the student's needs at any particular time in his/her lesson. Based on the data it seemed that the language sub-characteristic of drawing attention to or details from the pictures needs to be looked at more closely as to their

effectiveness in assisting with understanding the story or concept in question.

Teachers should be thinking about drawing equally using a variety of techniques from the categories and sub-characteristics that would provide the greatest assistance to the student. Teachers should also keep in mind that the needs of the student are constantly changing, therefore, so should the prompts through language to the student change accordingly.

- Reading RecoveryTM teachers need to keep in mind the importance of teaching new vocabulary meanings and unfamiliar words, and teach them when necessary within context, during the orientation to text portion of the lesson.
- Reading RecoveryTM teachers need to constantly be aware of the important role they play as language models for the students. At times the quality and clarity of teacher language is called into question. The following are language examples from the transcripts that represent questionable language clarity and quality:
And so he went home and when look what he did when he went home. Because look at that. What is gonna [sic] have to do with that car?
- Reading RecoveryTM teachers can maximize student learning if they are fully aware of the teaching moves described by Clay (1998) in her teacher-language storybook framework and of their implications for language interactions in the orientation to new text.
- It makes sense then for the Reading RecoveryTM Teacher Leaders to continue to study and apply Clay's teacher moves within her framework as well as Clay's

(2005b) outline for orienting the student to the new text. The Teacher Leaders need to stress the importance of using a balance of these teaching moves based on the individual student needs.

Implications for Future Research

It would be interesting to research further into any relationship that might be found between the language interactions between teacher and student in the book orientation portion of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson and the student's first reading of the new text. Also, the degree of success experienced by the student compared with the teacher's choice of language interactions warrants further attention.

Another area where more research possibilities lie might include studying the non-verbal discourse of teacher and student with the orientation portion of the lesson.

This research highlights the importance of teachers having a good understanding of the text being presented to children for a first reading. All teachers need to be apprised of the text challenges for a specific child or group of children prior to introducing the text. As the data indicated, there may be a tendency on the part of teachers to over rely on information from the pictures when introducing a new book. Thirty-nine percent of the questions in this research directed the student to the pictures to acquire information while only two percent of the questions pertained to drawing attention to words or tricky language structures. More research is needed on how to assist teachers in recognizing the variety of challenges new text presents and how to use statements and questions that will serve to benefit the student or group during a first read.

It would be useful to have further study on the value of wait time with respect to generating oral responses from students. One-to-one specialists and classroom teachers

would benefit from knowing if there is a relationship between providing more wait time for student responses and increased student language interactions. Does waiting a certain amount of time after a teacher-language interaction give the student more of an opportunity to process the information and engage in the language interaction? This study demonstrated that, in most cases, providing a five second or more wait time after presenting a question or statement resulted in some type of oral response from the student.

Further investigation is needed into how conversations between teachers and students can facilitate new learning. This would assist teachers in gaining a better understanding of how allowing time for children talk with the teacher about new text features enhances the opportunities for successful reading.

Final Thoughts

The results of this study provide information on what the language interactions between teachers and students sound like and the categories and sub-characteristics they can be sorted into during the book orientation portion of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson. These results shed light on the powerful influence that language and in particular teacher-student language interactions have on shaping the developing, novice, hard-to-teach learner. The teachers presented orientations that provided safe, personalized, and scaffolded environments within which to learn.

It is remarkable that such a small portion of the 30-minute Reading RecoveryTM lesson with a short two to three minute language interaction can be the source of such interesting and informative data and have such a profound impact on the learning of students. Teachers must never lose sight of how important one-on-one language interactions with students are. Johnston (2004) in quoting Davies and Harre (1999) writes,

“I assume that each conversational exchange between teacher and student(s) provides building material for children’s understanding of a wide range of literate concepts, practices, and possibilities, and helps shape their identities, as each exchange ‘becomes a fragment of autobiography’” (p. 10).

I extend a special thank you to all the dedicated Reading RecoveryTM teachers who allowed their language interactions to be analyzed. Through your teaching you provide the building blocks necessary for the hardest-to-reach students to engage in successful learning experiences. Research allows educational professionals to ponder over what emerges from the data and use this information to begin to reflect upon what will be best practice for all students. Through careful and objective analysis of what current practice is achieving, teachers can build on and increase their teaching effectiveness and success with struggling young readers. Your dedication to and participation in this ongoing and ever-changing process of discovery are highly admired and valued.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Consent Letter for Reading RecoveryTM Teachers



UNIVERSITY
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Faculty of Education

Department of Curriculum,
Teaching and Learning
262 Education Building
Winnipeg, Manitoba
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ctldept@ms.umanitoba.ca

Date: May 1, 2006

To: Participating Reading RecoveryTM Teachers

Research Project Title: An Exploration of Orientation to New Text within the
Context of the Reading RecoveryTM Lesson

Researcher: Joan P. Paterson

Sponsor: University of Manitoba
Graduate Studies
April, 2006

This consent form, a copy of which will be left with you for your records and reference, is only part of the process of informed consent. It should give you the basic idea of what the research is about and what your participation will involve. If you would like more detail about something mentioned here, or information not included here, you should feel free to ask. Please take the time to read this carefully and to understand any accompanying information.

Dear Reading RecoveryTM Teachers,

As a Masters student at the University of Manitoba, under the supervision of Dr. Stan Straw, I am conducting a research study about Reading RecoveryTM teacher talk during the story book introduction component of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson. The purpose of this study is to examine the ways in which teachers support the reading of new text through storybook introductions.

Your participation in this study will be completely voluntary and involves audiotaping one (1) storybook introduction plus the subsequent reading of the new text (10 minutes) during one

regular Reading RecoveryTM lesson. You will be asked to indicate the title of the book being introduced, the lesson number and number of weeks in lessons on the cover of the audiotape. This audiotape will then be submitted anonymously by you, through the mail, to me. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time, and I will honor that decision. If you decide to withdraw, I will not use any of your information in the study.

Should you decide to participate you will be asked to seek written permission from your participating student, your student's parents/guardians, and your school. Consent forms will be provided to you for this purpose. This researcher will seek consent from your school division.

Every attempt will be made to keep the names of participating Reading RecoveryTM teachers, students, schools and school divisions anonymous. At no time will the names of any of the participants appear or be used in any written documents in the study. The only exception to this will be the signed consent forms that will be submitted to me in a sealed envelope. On the outside of the sealed envelope will be a checklist indicating to me that official permission has been granted from all the key participants.

I will be the only researcher listening to the audiotapes. Tape recordings of the introductions will be transcribed and read only by me and Jennifer Antymis an Education Graduate Student Researcher. All computer files pertaining to this study will be password protected. Further more all data pertaining to the study will be destroyed upon completion of the study.

I look forward to conducting this research. It is my hope that, with your assistance, this study will provide insight and information into the complex language of instruction found within the storybook introduction component of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson.

Sincerely,

Joan Paterson

Your signature on this form indicates that you have understood to your satisfaction the information regarding participation in the research project and agree to participate as a subject. In no way does this waive your legal rights or release the researchers, sponsors, or involved institutions from their legal and professional responsibilities. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time, and/or refrain from answering any questions you prefer to omit, without prejudice or consequence. Your continued participation should be as informed as your initial consent, so you should feel free to ask for clarification or new information throughout your participation

How to contact the researcher: Joan P. Paterson

Office #

Cell #

Email: jpaterson@

This research has been approved by the Human Subject Research (ENREB) Committee. If you have any concerns or complaints about this project you may contact Human Ethics Secretariat at 474-7122 or Dr. Stan Straw at 474-9074. A copy of this consent form has been given to you to keep for your records and reference.

(Participant's Signature)

(Date)

(Researcher's Signature)

(Date)

A summary of the study will be available to you through your Reading RecoveryTM Teacher Leader upon request.

Appendix B

Consent Forms for Participating Schools



UNIVERSITY
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ctldept@ms.umanitoba.ca

Letter of Consent

Schools where Reading Recovery™ lesson takes place

To: Principals of Participating Schools

This consent form, a copy of which will be left with you for your records and reference, is only part of the process of informed consent. It should give you the basic idea of what the research is about and what your participation will involve. If you would like more detail about something mentioned here, or information not included here, you should feel free to ask. Please take the time to read this carefully and to understand any accompanying information.

Dear _____ (Insert principal of participating school),

As a Masters student at the University of Manitoba, under the supervision of Dr. Stan Straw, I am conducting a research study about Reading Recovery™ teacher talk during the story book introduction component of the Reading Recovery™ lesson. The purpose of this study is to examine the ways in which teachers support the reading of new text through storybook introductions.

In order to pursue this study, I am seeking your assistance and permission in allowing the participating Reading Recovery™ teacher in your school to audiotape the last 10 minutes of a regular Reading Recovery™ lesson with one of their Reading Recovery™ students. This audiotape will then be submitted to me for use in the study. There are no likely risks to students

and teachers outside of those that would occur naturally during the course of a regular Reading RecoveryTM lesson. Participation in this study is strictly voluntary.

Every attempt will be made to keep the names of participating Reading RecoveryTM teachers, students, schools and school divisions anonymous. At no time will the names of any of the participants appear or be used in any written documents in the study. The only exception to this will be the signed consent forms that will be submitted to me in a sealed envelope. On the outside of the sealed envelope will be a checklist indicating to me that official permission has been granted from all the key participants. This researcher will seek consent from your school division.

I will be the only researcher listening to the audiotapes. Tape recordings of the introductions will be transcribed and read only by me and one other independent researcher. All computer files pertaining to this study will be password protected. Further more all data pertaining to the study will be destroyed upon completion of the study.

I look forward to conducting this research. It is my hope that, with your assistance, this study will provide insight and information into the complex language of instruction found within the storybook introduction component of the Reading RecoveryTM lesson.

Sincerely,

Joan P. Paterson

Your signature on this form indicates that you have understood to your satisfaction the information regarding participation in the research project and agree to participate as a subject. In no way does this waive your legal rights or release the researchers, sponsors, or involved institutions from their legal and professional responsibilities. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time, and/or refrain from answering any questions you prefer to omit, without prejudice or consequence. Your continued participation should be as informed as your initial consent, so you should feel free to ask for clarification or new information throughout your participation.

This research has been approved by the Human Subject Research (ENREB) Committee. If you have any concerns or complaints about this project you may contact Human Ethics Secretariat at 474-7122 or Dr. Stan Straw at 474-9074. A copy of this consent form has been given to you to keep for your records and reference.

(Participant's Signature)

(Date)

(Researcher's Signature)

(Date)

May 2006

-----Please

Indicate if you wish a summary of the research sent to you upon completion of the research project and provide an address (home or email) where the summary can be sent.

Please return this signed consent form directly to the school's participating Reading RecoveryTM Teacher and she/he will forward it to the researcher.

☐ Yes I wish to receive a research project summary

Please forward the summary to: _____

Appendix C

Consent Forms for Parent/Guardian



UNIVERSITY
OF MANITOBA

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262 Education Building
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Telephone (204) 474-9014
Fax (204) 474-7550
ctldept@ms.umanitoba.ca

Letter of Consent

Parent/Guardian Permission for Child to Participate

To the Parents/Guardians of _____,

This consent form, a copy of which will be left with you for your records and reference, is only part of the process of informed consent. It should give you the basic idea of what the research is about and what your participation will involve. If you would like more detail about something mentioned here, or information not included here, you should feel free to ask. Please take the time to read this carefully and to understand any accompanying information.

My name is Joan P. Paterson. I am a Graduate student at the University of Manitoba under the supervision of Dr. Stan Straw. I am asking your permission to audiotape the last 10 minutes of your child's regular Reading RecoveryTM lesson to use in a Masters Research study on teacher talk during storybook introductions.

I am studying teacher talk during the storybook introduction and reading of new text. This is a time when the teacher and your child engage in teaching conversations. Your child and his/her Reading RecoveryTM teacher will not do anything different than in their regular lesson. Your child's Reading RecoveryTM teacher will explain to your child why he/she is taping part of the lesson, and seek written permission from your child prior to the

audiotaping. When permission is granted from you and your child the audiotaping will proceed.

The audiotapes will be sent to me through the mail. Teacher and student names will not be identified or disclosed, and will be kept as anonymous as possible. The signed consent forms will be kept sealed, in an envelope sent to me, and not opened or divulged at any time. This will ensure both you and your child as complete anonymity as is possible.

Your child will continue to have Reading RecoveryTM lessons, even if you decide that he/she should not be in the study. Your decision will not affect his Reading RecoveryTM lessons at all. At any time, you may withdraw your child's participation in the study. All audiotapes and notes used for the study will be destroyed upon completion. All computer files will be password restricted and accessible only by me.

I would be happy to answer any questions you have about this study. Please feel free to contact me: Joan P. Paterson Office # _____ Cell # _____
Email: _____

Sincerely,

Joan P. Paterson

Your signature on this form indicates that you have understood to your satisfaction the information regarding participation in the research project and agree to participate as a subject. In no way does this waive your legal rights or release the researchers, sponsors, or involved institutions from their legal and professional responsibilities. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time, and/or refrain from answering any questions you prefer to omit, without prejudice or consequence. Your continued participation should be as informed as your initial consent, so you should feel free to ask for clarification or new information throughout your participation.

This research has been approved by the Human Subject Research (ENREB) Committee. If you have any concerns or complaints about this project you may contact Human Ethics Secretariat at 474-7122 or Dr. Stan Straw at 474-9074 .A copy of this consent form has been given to you to keep for your records and reference.

(Participant's Signature)

(Date)

(Researcher's Signature)

(Date)

-----Please
indicate if you wish a summary of the research sent to you upon completion of the research project and provide an address (home or email) where the summary can be sent.

☐ Yes I wish to receive a research project summary

Please forward the summary to: _____

Appendix D

Consent Form for the Child



UNIVERSITY
OF MANITOBA

Faculty of Education

Department of Curriculum,
Teaching and Learning
262 Education Building
Winnipeg, Manitoba
Canada R3T 2N2
Telephone (204) 474-9014
Fax (204) 474-7550
ctldept@ms.umanitoba.ca

Participating Student Consent Form

To be given by the student's Regular Reading Recovery TM Teacher

(Insert student's name) _____,

Today I am going to tape record our talk during the new book part of our regular Reading Recovery TM lesson. This taping will help a researcher who is studying about the teaching talk during our lessons.

We will do the same things that we always do in our lesson. You do not have to let me record this part of the lesson. You can say no. If you so say no, we will have our lesson as usual.

Do you agree that we can go ahead and tape the storybook introduction and first reading of the book? (If yes please have the child sign name below).

Student Signature: _____

Reading Recovery TM Teacher Signature: _____

Date: _____

d

Appendix E

Consent Form Checklist



UNIVERSITY
OF MANITOBA | Faculty of Education

Department of Curriculum,
Teaching and Learning
262 Education Building
Winnipeg, Manitoba
Canada R3T 2N2
Telephone (204) 474-9014
Fax (204) 474-7550
ctldept@ms.umanitoba.ca

Consent Form Checklist

**To be completed by participating Reading Recovery™ Teachers
and forwarded to the researcher**

☒ Indicates the signed consent forms have been received from the following
participants in the study and are included in the sealed envelope provided.

- ☐ Reading Recovery™ Teacher
- ☐ Reading Recovery™ Student
- ☐ Parents/Guardians of Reading Recovery™ Student
- ☐ Participating School

Note: This researcher will send consent forms to participating school divisions and school
division will return the signed consent form directly to the researcher.

Send all forms plus the 10 minute audiotape marked with title of the book and

of weeks/lessons, in the stamped, pre-addressed envelope provided to:

Joan Paterson



Appendix F

Raw Data: Teacher-Language Categories

1. Telling n=181

a. Explanation about the story n=107

1. This story is about Kitty Cat and the Paint.
2. Kitty Cat is kind of naughty.
3. Here is Kitty Cat and she is looking out the window at Fat Cat.
4. She can see Fat Cat.
5. She's kind of curious about it so out she goes.
6. And now she wakes up Fat Cat.
7. Fat Cat I think is going to try and chase him away.
8. I think he's annoyed.
9. At the Beach.
10. It starts with a W sound.
11. I don't think she's upset about her pants.
12. Well. I think they are going home.
- 12, No, she is kind of sad.
13. (name) our new book today is called Ben's Tooth.
14. You know Ben.
15. He wants to show it to everyone, but then his mom has an idea of what he should do with his tooth.
16. Bye bye tooth.

17. It's called Ben's Tooth.
18. And I guess that is where he is going to put the little tooth so he doesn't lose it cause it is very small.
19. He could lose it easily.
20. Now this is not the teacher.
21. And that's where Ben's mom tells Ben about the tooth fairy.
22. But you know what, Ben's mom really doesn't believe her.
23. He thinks she's being kind of silly.
24. He even says that to his mom.
25. And she just kind of laughs at him.
26. But he does what she says.
27. He didn't really put it under his pillow.
28. He's not sure what's going to happen.
29. He's kind of thinking, you know in these stories when the words are slanted it kind of means it is something you are supposed to think about in your head.
30. So he is wondering if the fairy will come or not.
31. So he was very surprised to see that money.
32. And very excited to show mom.
33. Sam plays paddleball.
34. The bell rang.
35. The bell rang.
36. So they all went in.
37. She's got the paddleball in her hand.

38. She forgot to go inside.

39. This little girl's name is Kate.

40. Today's story is Sam's Painting.

41. This story is about a little girl named Sam who is going to be painting a picture of something that is special to her and when she takes her painting outside in the wind something happens to her picture.

42. And Sam's painting looked beautiful.

43. Oh now she's going to add something very special in the sky that we like to see a lot of.

44. It looked like a brown dog.

45. So she added some eyes and two ears and a black nose.

46. This one is what happens after the flood.

47. Remember the flood came into the playroom and made all that muddy water.

48. So they came back.

49. He's going to have to hose it down right, but luckily upstairs everything was fine, even their water is working and their phone is working right, but the problem is gonna be with that playroom.

50. So Spot goes running down in the playroom and mom says to stop him.

51. And Spot is having a great time running through the mud and then Sam's calling him but he is not stopping and then Rachel comes down.

52. See they are hosing down the car.

53. And you know what the kids had fun.

54. They said I like cleaning up.

55. They thought that was fun.

56. After the Flood.

57. This story is called Little Chimp Runs Away.

58. Tell me what is happening.

59. He's on Mother Chimp's back.

60. Ok (name) we are going to read Little Chimp Runs Away.

61. No

62. She is worried because Little Chimp is gone.

63. Oh, he runs to Mother Chimp.

64. Here it is.

65. It says Hungry Monster.

66. The title tells us.

67. Eating.

68. That's a mailbox.

69. You know what we call those.

70. Hum..he's eaten something.

71. I don't know what it is.

72. No, it is just your voice being taped.

73. Ok (name) this book is called The Rock Turtle.

74. And in this story the turtle is afraid of Willy because he thinks Willy looks like a big monster.

75. And Willy thinks he's found a new rock for his collection.

76. You know how when the turtle gets scared he puts his leg inside his shell, well then it looks just like a big rock to Willy and he likes to collect rocks, so he puts it in his wagon.

77. Scared, and he thinks the big monster got it and then he finds out that he doesn't have a rock after all and his friend Max the moose helps him.

78. There is Max.

79. (name) this book is called A Lucky Day For Little Dinosaur.

80. He is coming out of his hole in the rock.

81. He gets to eat something special on his lucky day.

82. It's called a beetle.

83. He's eating it.

84. But he is very happy because he found a beetle.

85. This beetle, they come in different colors, but this one is brown.

86. Now, Little Dinosaur likes to eat dragonflies too so that is another lucky day.

87. I think there is...could be Duckbilled dinosaurs in there.

88. Something is in there.

89. Something big made that in the sand.

90. This is about jumping to conclusions.

91. If you jump to a conclusion it means you think that something happened when it really didn't.

92. So in this story, this little boy here is name (sic) Ben and his mother are looking after their neighbor's pet canary.

93. She is going away for a week.

94. And they are going to look after it, but they have a big problem because they have a pet cat.

95. So Ben says well I'll put the cat outside when I see Pip, that's who Pip is.

96. So um this is where he ends up jumping to conclusions because one morning when he woke up he looked and looked.

97. Ate him right and he was so upset he was nearly crying.

98. So whew he thought oh goodness cause he didn't know what he was going to tell Mrs. Sand.

99. Poor bird, got eaten up, anyways let's read Come Back Pip.

100. This book is called The Kite That Got Away.

101. He has a special way to hold the kite.

102. He got this beautiful kite for his birthday.

103. He needs to put his arms through that round part and then he can hold on and won't blow away.

104. Right now Ben is being careful but when dad has a turn to fly the kite you can see.

105. The kite is blowing away.

106. (this is) About not being afraid.

107. Tom doesn't look where he is going and he falls down.

108. When Tom went to the store for his mom he wasn't looking.

109. He was looking at a motorcycle.

110. And he didn't look where he was going and he tripped and he fell down.

102. So there he is.

103. He went to the shop but he wasn't looking where he was going.

104. Here's a funny part in the story.

105. Because he doesn't.

106. Well you know what he decides is that he better go home and his mom helps him and she tells him he is brave.

107. Tom is Brave.

b. Repeat, expand, or confirm what is said n=61

1. Yea, he's enjoying a nice sunny day and she sees the red paint too.

2. Mom

3. A wave.

4. Yea, they're a bit scary.

5. A pool.

6. A slide.

7. A ladder.

8. Oh.

9. Yea, and the teacher has a little box.

10. That's his mother, yea, and then they have this little conversation about the tooth falling out and what they should do with it next.

11. Yea, just right next to his bed.

12. Yea.

13. Yea.

14. That's right.

15. Yea, they're at school.
16. That's exactly it.
17. Yea.
18. Oh, yes it went flying away in the wind.
19. Yea.
20. Water and some mud.
21. It does kind of look like a dog and guess what there you are so smart.
22. That's exactly what Sam thought it looked like too.
23. Yea, she's going to make it look just like Bingo.
24. She sure did.
25. Yea.
26. Wash them off.
27. Yea, ok, you give it a try.
28. Yea, maybe down to the river and Little Chimp is running.
29. He was.
30. Right, so we haven't read a story about Little Chimp, but he runs away from his mother.
31. That's right , he runs back to Mother Chimp.
32. Yes, she can see Little Chimp and he can see Mother Chimp.
33. That's right.
34. The snake.
35. That's right.
36. It sounds like that.

37. He's eating stuff, umhum.

38. No, we don't eat mailboxes, but I guess Hungry Monsters do.

39. Uhhuh.

40. Uhhuh, I don't think he knows when to stop/

41. I think you are right.

42. No, No, he doesn't even eat turtles.

43. Right, well you know that Little Dinosaur's Lucky Day is kind of like that too.

44. Umhum, it's a green dragonfly.

45. I think it is the same day.

46. Yea, we didn't look at them all.

47. Ok.

48. You're right, so they have to be really careful.

49. You're right he was.

50. Uhhum, this little boy's name is Ben.

51. No, he didn't.

52. Right, he fell down and look at the kite.

53. Not quite a needle.

54. There you go.

55. No, not yet.

56. Yea, I'll bet.

57. Yes, he was really bleeding.

58. Yea.

59. Yea, that's right.

60. Um.

61. Yea.

62. Yep, and Max sees the legs and they realize they've got a turtle so it starts out as a very unlucky day for the turtle cause he gets picked up by Willy, but it turns into a pretty lucky day by the end of the story.

c. Affirmation –praise, confidence building n=13

1. Excellent

2. Excellent

3. Good noticing.

4. Excellent

5. Excellent

6. Good job.

7. Excellent

8. Good

9. Umhum.

10. Really.

11. Great job (name).

12. You sounded just like Little Chimp.

13. Don't ever worry ok, cause I am here I can help you.

2. Building Anticipation n=20

1. Maybe.

2. Maybe.
3. Maybe.
4. Let's read it and find out if Kitty Cat gets away from Fat Cat.
5. Let's find out.
6. Maybe the wind will make the paint go off.
7. With the hose.
8. They are laughing right and then.. mom sees it.
9. I think something is going to happen when he sees Mother Chimp.
10. So, we have to see what happens to Little Chimp at the end of the story.
11. Now let's see what happens at the end.
12. Let's check on some of those predictions you had.
13. We are going to have to read and find out why.
14. So we are going to find out what happens.
15. We're going to have to read it and find out.
16. You still think it is going to be a lucky day, well let's see if your prediction is right.
17. I wonder if dad will get his new kite back.
18. And(sic)guess we'll find out.
19. We'll have a look and see.
20. Let's see how brave he is.

3. Making Links n=13

a. To Child's experiences

1. And you were telling me that you had a flood in your yard.
2. You did and these kids in the story and mom and dad are going to have to clean up too.
3. Uh, Fridays are always your lucky day.
4. So you get to eat something special on your lucky day.
5. I'll bet your not afraid sometimes.
6. You weren't afraid when your tooth came out.
7. Just like Tom, you were brave just like Tom.
8. Yea, you are pretty brave I think.
9. You're tough.

b. To Other Texts n=4

1. You've had lots of stories about him right and in this story Ben loses his first tooth.
2. Two already (books) and Ben isn't quite sure what to do with his tooth.
3. You know (name) we were talking about that other book yesterday, The Flood Book.
4. Oh, that was Tiger, Tiger.

4. Specific Directions for Behaviors/Expectations for Reading n=20

1. Read me Sam and the Waves.
2. Ok, let's hear you read the story called Ben's Tooth.
3. Alright, you can have a look at that book.

4. Alright, you read me that story.
5. Alright, now I'm going to let you start reading Sam's Painting.
6. Let's try Little Chimp Runs Away Please.
7. Good, I like the way you are turning the pages.
8. Turn the page.
9. Ok, you can go to the beginning and read the story.
10. So, remember your strategies if you get stuck.
11. Think about what would make sense, look at the first letter, go back and reread.
12. We are going to read your book.
13. Ok, we can go back to the beginning and start now.
14. Now, when you get stuck there is going to be tricky bits, ok, there is supposed to be.
15. Read it again.
16. But you've got lots of strategies so use your strategies and then ask me.
17. Let's read the Kite That Got Away.
18. I want you sitting up tall here.
19. No this one. (refers to a book)
20. Yea, alright let's push right in.(refers to pushing in the chair).

5. Trailing off sentences: n=11

Pausing before the sentence is finished in order to give the student the opportunity to think or generate a response

1. First he is at school, then he's at home, and that's his.....
2. Now she's putting some.....
3. It's all.....it's all on the floor there.
4. They are going.....
5. Watch now when they go down to the river.....
6. He wants, he wants some breakfast I think.....
7. You don't see them.....
8. Eggs and.....
9. You don't have to get it.....
10. That's what he is kind of thinking that he looked everywhere but Pip was
nowhere to be seen and he looked all over and there he sees his cat Socks here and
right away he jumped to the conclusion.....
11. And when.....

6. Directions to a specific word/vocabulary n=6

1. Find the word ladder for me.
2. Really, so you know in this story you might see the words with tooth fairy, ok.
3. Those are called rollerskates, those are rollerskates.
4. Anymore here but those are rollerskates.
5. Mrs. Sands is her name.
6. Pip is the bird.

7. Directions to say or repeating of a structure/syntax n=25

1. He's going to say go away and let me sleep in the sun.
2. Go away (teacher says phrase)
3. And let me sleep in the sun. (teacher says phrase)
4. Exactly, it goes around and around and around (teacher repeats phrase)
5. Yea, again and again. (teacher repeating phrase)
6. She's hitting it again, and again. (repeating phrase)
7. I forgot to come inside. (teacher saying phrase)
8. Paddleball is fun. (teacher saying sentence)
9. Right, Mother Chimp's calling Come Back Here.
10. Oooh, Oooh, Oooh, that's kind of what a monkey says or a chimp.
11. She might be saying that and she might also be saying Come Back Here.
12. Right she is saying Come Back Here.
13. And he says Oooh, Oooh, Oooh.
14. That's the funny part where the turtle thinks that Willy wants to eat him and so he says he is looking at me with hungry eyes.
15. So this is his lucky day.
16. So this is a lucky day for Little Dinosaur.
17. And look where you are going. (teacher says phrase)
18. Its says look where you are going.
19. Look where you are going. (repeats phrase with student)
20. Oh, Oh, Oh. (teacher repeats phrase)

21. She says you are brave.
22. You say that with me.
23. You are brave. (teacher says phrase)
24. You say it.
25. You are brave. (teacher and child together)

8. Directions to or about the Pictures n = 32

1. Let's have a look.
2. Look at her
3. Look at that.
4. Yea, it looks like a little toothy stuck right in there.
5. Look at that.
6. Look at that.
7. Let's have a look at the pictures to see what is happening.
8. Here's Sam and she is painting a big picture.
9. And on the bottom we see some green.
10. Oh it looks like a nice painting.
11. But her picture was still too wet so she took it outside and it was windy and look what happened.
12. And look where it landed.
13. Look what was on her painting.
14. Look at the car.
15. Let's look.

16. Yea, look at it.
17. Let's take a look at it and see what makes him scared.
18. Uh look.
19. Now he's in the trees.
20. And the pictures.
21. Look at that how fat he is.
22. I'm noticing he has a fork and a knife and he is still eating.
23. That's Max and he's the one who sees when the wagon starts to move (sic) the Little Turtle puts his legs out.
24. See the hungry eyes.
25. You can look at the rest.
26. Oh look at the turtle.
27. Oh and look at what else he finds to eat.
28. A dragonfly and this (sic) and they come in different colors too but look at the colors on this one.
29. And you can see in the picture that mom is showing him what to do so that the kite won't blow away.
30. And so he went home and when (sic) look what he did when he went home.
31. Let's have a look.

Because, look at that.

Appendix G

Raw Data: Teacher Questions

Teacher Questions:

T#1=6

Have you read Kitty Cat books before?

What do you think he is going to do?

What do you think Fat Cat is going to do?

Do you think so?

Can you say that?

Do you think Fat Cat is going to catch up with Kitty cat?

T#2=17

Where do you think Sam is?

Who is Sam with?

What do you see coming here?

Can you find the word wave on this page for me?

How did you know that word was wave?

How did you know that word was wave? (repeated question)

Oh, what's Sam upset about?

I think the waves a little too big for her aren't they?

So what are mom and Sam doing?

Does Sam look happy?

What did Sam find?

Are they going to go in there?

Oh my goodness what does Sam see here?

How did she get onto the slide?

What did she have to go up?

Is she happy there?

You could tell that?

T#3=17

Have you lost any teeth yet?

What did you do when your tooth fell out?

Did you?

And what happened?

Did anything go in it's place in the morning?

You got money?

Who put the money there?

Can you see how Ben lost his tooth?

How did your tooth come out?

Now, what do you think he is showing first?

Could you tell he was still at school?

You see that in her desk drawer?

Who is this?

Well, who do you think?

Where did he put his tooth?

But in the morning what does he find in the little box there?

Can you tell?

T#4=16

What do you think she is going to do?

Have you ever played Paddleball?

What do you do with the paddle ball?

Right?

Remember when Tim was too little to play soccer?

Where do you think this story takes place?

Where do you think they are?

Where do you think they are going now?

Why?

Why would they be going in the school?

Why do you come into the school?

Did Sam go in?

What's she doing?

What do you thing is happ...oh what's happened here?

Where is Sam?

What do you think Kate is going to do for the teacher?

T#5=10

What do you think might happen?

What is she painting?

What color is her house?

With what color of roof?

What happened?

What do you see laying on the ground here?

What do you think is going to happen when Sam picks up that painting?

What is that?

Well what is that from the ground?

Who do you think she is going to change it into?

T#6=12

So what happened after your flood?

What did you have to do?

What is gonna have to do with that car?

How is he going to clean the car do you figure?

Right?

Do you know why?

Why would mom say stop Spot?

Oh what happened?

What happened to the kids?

Do you think they are having fun?

So what are they gonna have to do to those kids?

What's dad going to do?

T#7=2

To mother chimp right?

What do you think?

T#8=12

I think you have read a little chimp story already haven't you?

Can she see Little Chimp?

What do you think she might be saying?

Oh what happens here?

The snake is in the grass right?

Can you try that?

What do you think he is going to do?

Will he find her?

Can they see one another?

What is Little Chimp doing?

Why is he on Mother Chimp's back?

What scared him?

T#9=15

What's the title of this story?

What do you think this story is about?

How do you know that?

What do you think he has gone and done?

And what are you thinking about?

What is he doing?

Do you know what that is?

Would you ever eat a mailbox?

What else is he eating?

What do you think this is?

What do you think about him eating all those things?

He is getting pretty big isn't he?

What happens to you when you eat too much?

What do you think will happen to him?

You think he's going to have a tummy ache?

T#10=5

Remember the other book where you thought Willy looked like a big monster?

How do you think the turtle is going to feel then?

You see this guy?

And do you think Willy wants to eat the turtle?

Yea, do you see the legs coming out here?

T#11=17

Do you see the Little Dinosaur?

Have you ever had a lucky day?

What happened on your lucky day?

Do you know what this kind of bug is called?

Do you remember my bug tin?

Does he?

Did you?

What color is the beetle?

Do you know what that's called?

But do you think it's the same day or a different day?

Now can you guess what he likes to eat here?

Do you see how the sand is kind of pushed down?

Now does it still look like it is a lucky day?

You want to look at the end?

Does it look like he got away?

So it is a very lucky day isn't it?

What are you going to do?

T#12=6

Do you know what that means?

Now what do you think might be a problem with the cat and the canary?

Is Pip in the cage?

What does he think?

Now what do you think?

Oh how did you know that?

T#13=5

Have you ever had a chance to fly a kite?

What do you do so that the kite won't blow away from you?

What do you need to do?

Does his dad put his arm around here?

And then what happened?

T#14=12

Were you?

Has that ever happened to you?

And do you think he's stops crying?

Think so?

Why would you stop crying?

Did it?

It hurts doesn't it?

Will you say that with me?

Oh what's going to happen?

What do you think?

Would you cry like he is?

Is he brave just like you are?

Total # of teacher questions in the orientation = 152 $m=152/14=10.8$

Appendix H

Raw Data: Student-Language during Orientation

Individual Transcripts

T#1. =21 words/utterances

1. No (response to question)
2. Splash the paint all over. (response to question)
3. Yea (response to question)
4. I don't know. (response to question)
5. Yea.(response to question)
6. Go away (repeating a structure from the text)
7. and let me sleep in the sun (repeating a structure from the text)
8. Yea (response to question)

T#2 = 37 words/utterances

1. At the Beach (response to question)
2. Mom (response to question)
3. Waves (response to question)
4. I don't know (response to question)
5. Cause w..w.. (response to question is the sound for w)
6. Pants (response to question)
7. Yea (response to question)
8. Going to the waves. (response to question)
9. No (response to question)

10. A pool (response to question)
11. Yea (response to question)
12. A slide. (response to question)
13. Yea (response to question)
14. A ladder (response to question)
15. Yea (response to question)
16. I told you she was going on the little one. (shares own information)
17. Yea. (response to question)

T#3 = 60 words/utterances

1. Two (response to question)
2. Um, put it under the pillow (response to question)
3. And putted (sic) it in a bag....(continued giving own connected response)
4. Under my pillow (connecting to own experience)
5. Bye bye (response to question)
6. Money (response to question)
7. I got it um...two dollars (continues own connected response)
8. The tooth fairy and... (response to question)
9. When he was eating an apple? (asks question)
10. Ah... I just pulled it out. (response to question)
11. And it the tooth was lost and then I found it. (expanded with own information)
12. Teacher (response to question)
13. The principal (response to question)
14. Mother (filling in a for a trailing response)

15. In the chair. (response to question)

16. Money. (response to question)

T#4 = 58 words/utterances

1. Um, yea. (response to question).

2. The/the ball goes up in the air.(response to question)

3.They hit it back where it was. (response to question)

4. Yea. (response to question)

5. Oh, yea. (response to question)

6. Uh they won't let her...they won't let her play. (response to question)

7. At school? (tentative question in response to a question)

8. Away? (tentative response to a question)

8. Um, because the bell rings. (response to question)

10. Nope. (response to question)

11. Hitting the ball? (tentative response to question)

12. She's supposed to be inside. (response to story)

13. Yep. (response to question)

14. They don't know where she is. (response to question)

15. Go look for Sam outside. (response to question)

T#5 = 36 words/utterances

1. The paint will go off. (response to question)

2. A house. (response to question)

3. Yellow (response to question)

4. Red (response to question)
5. Grass (filled in for missing word)
6. Sky blue. (filled in for missing word)
7. It blew away. (response to question)
8. On the ground (filled in the missing response)
9. Water. (response to question)
10. Don't know. (response to question)
11. I don't know. (response to question)
12. Mud (response to question)
13. It looks like a dog (volunteers own information based on picture)
14. Bingo (response to question)
15. And she added a sun. (volunteers own information based on picture)

T#6 = 31 words/utterances

1. Uhhuh. (response to question)
2. Clean-up (response to question)
3. Uhhuh (initiated response)
4. I know. (initiated response)
5. Clean it? (tentative response to question)
6. With the hose. (response to question)
7. Why? (responds to a question with a question)
8. Because there is water. (response to question)
9. Mud. (filling in for a missing word)
10. They all fell in the mud. (response to question)

11. Umhum. (response to question)
12. Wash them (response to question)
13. Spray them with the hose.
14. Uhhuh (own response)

T#7 =46

1. They are running. (own response to tell me)
2. To get a drink (response to trailing off sentence)
3. She's wondering what she wondering where is mother. (response to trailing off)
4. Where is (inaudible) water (inaudible)? (initiated question)
5. That what (sic) makes him scared. (initiated sentence)
6. The big snake. (initiated sentence)
7. He runs back. (initiated sentence)
8. Yea, and then.. (response to question)
9. Um they have... (response to question)
10. They are all together (response to trailing off sentence)
11. Cause he was too scared of the snake. (response to question)

T#8 =38 words/utterances

1. Uh, no that was Tiger. (response to question)
2. Yea. (responses to question)
3. No. (response to question)
4. Oooh, uh, uh. (response to question)
5. Um she sees a snake. (response to question)
6. Oooh, Oooh, Oooh. (response to demand to repeat a phrase)

7. Ummmm go back. (response to question)
8. Yep. (response to question)
9. Going on the Mother's back. (response to question)
10. Because he doesn't get wanna (sic) get lost again and get scared. (response to question)
11. The snake. (response to question)

T#9 = 63 words/utterances

1. Uh, it's... (response to question)
2. Um, a hungry monster. (response to question)
3. Because the title (sic). (response to question)
4. and the picture (initiates further response)
5. Ooo..eating stuff. (response to question)
6. Um hum (response to trailing sentence)
7. Um, uh mmmm the pictures and what he is doing. (response to question)
8. Eating stuff. (response to question)
9. No. (response to question)
10. I...a skateboard. (response to question)
11. Oh...(response)
12. Uh...(response)
13. He's eating car nails. (initiated response)
14. And he is eating a car. (initiated response)
15. and (initiated response)
16. Pretty fat. (response to question)

17. Oh (initiated response)
18. You..uh get a tummy ache. (response to question)
19. Get a tummy ache. (response to question)
20. A very very bad one. (response to question)

T#10 = 38 words/utterances

1. Is that going to be on TV? (initiated question)
2. Rock Turtle (repeats title)
3. Scared. (response to question)
4. Um hum
5. Little bit? (tentative initiated response)
6. Why? (initiated question)
7. Um hum (response to question)
8. No. (response to question)
9. We only read two pages. (initiated response)
10. What is he doing? (initiated question)
11. Fighting? (initiated question)
12. The dog. (initiated response)
13. Yes, yes, yes. (reading the text language)
14. Why does he say yes, yes, yes? (initiated question)

T#11=84 words/utterances

1. Um Um on Friday I got to bring Jamie to McDonalds.(response to question)
2. No. (response to question)
3. Oh (initiated response)

4. But he's gonna (sic) do it. (initiated response)
5. Yea, and I found, saw a beetle at McDonalds too (initiated personal knowledge experience response)
6. Brown (response to question looking at pictures)
7. A dragonfly. (response to question looking at pictures)
8. Light green. (initiated response to look at)
9. I think it is the same day. (response to question)
10. Eggs. (response to question and looking at pictures)
11. Are there ducklings in there? (response to trailing sentence and pictures)
12. Yep. (response to question)
13. Can we go over it to the end? (initiated question)
14. Cool that monster...look at its tail, it's red. (initiated response looking at pictures)
15. Yep. (response to question)
16. Hey we didn't look at this page either. (initiated response looking at pictures)
17. That says help. (initiated response to words in text)
18. Yea. (response to question)
19. So, can I ask you? (initiated question)
20. Read again. (response to question)

T#12 =37 words/utterances

1. No. (response to question)
2. Ah...(initiated response)
3. The cat likes to eat birds. (response to question)

4. No. (response to question)
5. Oh the cat climbed up there and then onto the microwave and. (initiated response looking at the pictures)
6. He thinks that the um the cat ate him. (response to question)
7. He's in the bathroom. (response to question)
8. I don't know. (response to question)

T#13 =7 words/utterances

1. Nope. (response to question)
2. Pull the strings. (response to question)
3. No. (response to question)
4. Fell down (sic). (response to question)

T#14 =95 words/utterances

1. I don't want to read. (initiated response)
2. There, oh getting a needle (sic). (initiated response looking at picture)
3. No. (response to question)
4. Are we going to read this story today? (initiated question)
5. Am I going to take that one home? (initiated question)
6. and he is bleeding. (initiated response looking at pictures)
7. Yea, but...(initiated response)
8. Look it (sic) (initiated response looking at picture)
9. No. (response to question)
10. Yea. (response to question)
11. Yea. (initiated response)

12. That happened to me on my elbow. (initiated response using personal knowledge)
13. Umhum (response to question)
14. Yea, but it does it stay on there for a long time? (initiated question)
15. A very long time. (initiated response)
16. It's still showing. (initiated response)
17. A long time ago. (initiated response)
18. Look where you are going. (repeated phrase from the text)
19. Oh no Oh no (response to question reading from text)
20. Oh, no he is bleeding and bleeding. (initiated response)
21. Yea. (response to question)
22. You are brave. (repeated phrase from the text)
23. Yea. (response to question)
24. He would be tough enough. (initiated response)