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Year one children's literacy behaviours and perceptions of literacy learning in the classroom and reading recovery contexts

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**Year One Children's Literacy Behaviours and Perceptions of
Literacy Learning in the Classroom and Reading Recovery Contexts**

Fiona Callaghan

Dip. Teach. Prim., B.Ed.

A Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of

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in the Classroom and Reading Recovery Contexts

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the ways in which four Year One children engage in the literacy events of their regular and Reading Recovery classrooms. It explores how these children perceived their beginning reading instruction and possible relationships between the children's perceptions and the ways in which they 'did' literacy in each setting. The study draws on research in beginning reading instruction from both a psychological and socio-cultural perspective, as well as research into withdrawal programs for children experiencing difficulty in learning to read and the Reading Recovery program itself. A case study approach was used in this study and data collection methods included videotaped observations of the children in their two classrooms, interviews and examination of artefacts. Observation data was categorised into two main groups of reading and writing behaviours and literacy related behaviours. Results showed similarities in the children's reading and writing behaviours across the two settings, with some differences noted in their literacy-related behaviours from one setting to the other. The differences were particularly marked in the children's dispositions to literacy learning, with two of the children showing a more active learning stance in Reading Recovery than in the classroom setting. These results are interpreted in light of previous research literature on classroom learning, continuities and discontinuities between classroom and withdrawal settings, and the effectiveness of the Reading Recovery program.

It is suggested that while the withdrawal reading program may assist children to develop their reading and writing skills it may not necessarily develop in children an active learning stance and a positive disposition for literacy learning. The study points towards the need for both classroom and withdrawal teachers to work collaboratively to carefully monitor the individual reading and writing behaviours, literacy learning behaviours and learning stances of at-risk Year One children.

Declaration

I certify that this thesis does not, to the best of my knowledge and belief:

- (i) incorporate without acknowledgement any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any institution of higher education;
- (ii) contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text; or
- (iii) contain any defamatory material.

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

This chapter provides a background to the study explaining its significance, purpose and the questions it aims to answer. This research study aimed to investigate a) how poor readers in Year One engage in the literacy events of their classroom and the Reading Recovery withdrawal room, b) how they perceive their beginning reading instruction in both the classroom and Reading Recovery withdrawal room and c) possible relationships between the children's perceptions and the ways they 'do' literacy in each setting.

Child centred interpretations of learning to read and write are particularly important in the context of the instructional methods provided for beginning literacy learners. In order to provide effective instructional contexts for beginning readers, it is suggested that educators need to know how these children experience the literacy learning programs to which they are exposed (Dahl & Freppon, 1998). In the case of children who are not making anticipated progress and who are receiving supplementary reading education in a withdrawal setting, it is crucial that reading instruction be closely aligned with children's developing knowledge and skills. Withdrawal reading programs often do not take into account the reading instruction of the regular classroom and it is hypothesised that this incongruence of instruction may lead to confusion for children who may already have a poor understanding of what reading is all about.

Background

It is generally accepted that most children will be well on their way to successful literacy acquisition by the end of Year One. However, some children experience difficulty in their attempts to read and write and at some stage during Year One are deemed "at risk" for literacy failure. Some of these children may be less able to attend

to instruction or may lack familiarity with the kinds of social interaction that occurs in many classrooms (Spiegel, 1992). Some may come from homes that have different literacy experiences to those valued by the school. Studies of schooling and literacy show what appears to be a strong relationship between socio-economic status and school achievement, suggesting a difference between literacy practices in low socio-economic homes and school literacy practices (Freebody, Ludwig & Gunn, 1995). Other factors that appear to predict children's success in literacy are their perceptions of literacy, in terms of what they believe and understand reading to be, and the methods used to teach it. There is great controversy over how to best teach reading to beginning readers in order that difficulties with literacy learning can be minimised.

Much of this controversy has centred around the place of teaching the alphabetic code and phonemic awareness, that is, awareness of the individual sounds in words. Arguments have tended to polarise around two broad schools of thought: one stresses the importance of the sequential and systematic teaching of letter-sound correspondences and is commonly known as a skills approach; the other stresses teaching reading as a meaning-making process and sees the alphabetic code as just one of a wide range of important information sources. This is commonly known as a whole language approach. Researchers of beginning reading instruction, for example, Adams and Bruck, 1995; Beck and Juel, 1995, Spiegel, 1992; Snow, Burns and Griffin, 1998, have called for a more balanced approach to literacy instruction where phonics and whole language are seen as complementary. These researchers promote the development of phonemic awareness and phonic knowledge through meaningful reading and writing experiences and through explicit teaching.

One of the reasons for debate about the 'best' instructional approach to beginning reading is that early success in literacy development is critical for the continuing

development of effective literacy learning in later grades. According to Juel (1988), there is an almost 90% chance of children who are poor readers at the end of Year One, remaining so at the end of Year Four. The cumulative difference between high and low volume readers has been termed the 'Matthew effect' by Stanovich (1986). It refers to the effects of large differences in reading practice of individual students which begins in Year One and continues throughout primary and secondary school. Better readers read increasingly more written language than poorer readers as they become more motivated to read. In the classroom context, poor readers are less efficient learners and this disadvantage spills over into other areas of school learning (Watson & Badenhop, 1993).

When children do not make anticipated progress in reading they are often referred for help in special programs. These often take the form of 'remedial reading' programs run by a specialist teacher at the school in a room separate to the classroom. These programs exist to serve the needs of children who have not learned to read as quickly or as well as their peers, or whose progress is slower than expected. This situation is known as the 'withdrawal program'. Children are usually identified by some form of achievement or diagnostic test and if deemed 'at risk' are removed from their classrooms sometime during the school day or week so that they can work with a specialist teacher. Various problems with withdrawal programs have been documented that include a lack of coordination between withdrawal and classroom services and negative effects on the self-esteem of students who are separated from their peers (Allington, 1993). Also problematic is the possibility that classroom teachers may abdicate responsibility for the child's learning to read since the withdrawal teacher may be expected to assume such responsibility (Dudley-Marling & Murphy, 1997). The lack of congruence between withdrawal and classroom services sees children having to contend with conflicting

methodologies; often withdrawal programs involve different reading materials and different strategy instruction from those of the classroom. Therefore, children having difficulties with reading may experience two instructional settings, two teachers and often, two sets of program materials (Lipson & Wixson, 1997). In addition, participation in withdrawal reading lessons usually interrupts some part of the classroom literacy instruction block. All of this means that the children having the most difficulty in integrating new information and transferring learned skills to new situations are often in a position where they are receiving the most fragmented instruction of all (Allington, 1994).

For children who do not thrive in their first formal year of school there is a variety of early intervention programs operating across school systems, which are designed to accelerate the child's literacy development and have them reading at 'grade level' as soon as possible (Hiebert & Taylor, 1994). The essential aim of these early intervention programs is to avert the need for later remediation. One of these programs, Reading Recovery, (Clay, 1985) has attracted a great amount of attention for its reported effective treatment of children with reading difficulties, bringing children up to grade level or higher within a period of 12 –20 weeks. However, some researchers have questioned the size of the effect and the degree to which student gains are maintained over time (Shanahan & Barr, 1995; Center, Wheldall & Freeman, 1995). This intervention program has also attracted criticism for locating failure within the individual (rather than acknowledging failure of the school system) and for portraying reading as a technical process, requiring mastery of a finite number of skills (Dudley-Marling & Murphy, 1997).

While the patterns of difficulties in learning to read and write have been widely documented, few studies have sought children's interpretations of their beginning-reading-instruction experiences (Dahl & Freppon, 1998). Child-centred interpretations of learning to read and write are particularly important in the context of debates about beginning reading instruction. In order to provide instructional contexts for beginning readers and writers, teachers must know how children experience the literacy programs they are exposed to and what consequences may arise (Dahl & Freppon, 1998). This view is supported by research on the evolution of young children's ideas about the nature of reading (Strommen and Mates, 1997). In a longitudinal study of children from 3-6 years of age, Strommen and Mates observed that, whilst learning to read is a developmental process, young children's chronological age and skills in decoding, and other specific skills, are not necessarily reliable indicators of what they understand reading to be, and therefore, may not be reliable indicators of what instructional intervention may be useful (p. 106). These researchers believe that a basic objective of beginning reading instruction should be to develop children's understanding that, in written language, the message is encoded in the print, and that readers use multiple strategies to construct meaning from text. They also stress the need to provide information that will enable children to construct strategies for accessing the meaning in print. This requires explicit instruction in how good readers read but this is problematic in many classrooms where the focus of a literacy lesson is often not made clear to children (Baker & Freebody, 1989b).

Research has found that the discourse surrounding many literacy lessons is often too implicit and random in focus (Baker, 1991; Baker & Freebody, 1989b; Freebody, Luke & Gilbert, 1991; Luke & Freebody, 1999) and that there is a need for classroom talk to be more explicit in providing information about 'how to do literacy'. Baker and

Freebody (1989a) examined teachers' practices with books in Year One classrooms. They observed that much of the talk occurred in the form of question and answer exchanges and that this taught very little about reading. The focus of this style of lesson was on interpreting the pictures, using culturally acquired background knowledge and identifying alternative vocabulary (Anstey, 1996). In their study of Year Two literacy learning interactions, Ludwig and Herschell (1998) found that displays (ways of showing what children know) of acting out classroom management procedures and pedagogical routines were more prevalent than displays of subject knowledge or language features. Ludwig and Herschell claim that the talk of the literacy lesson often does not focus on language as the object of study, that is, texts and their features, but on the "sharing of everyday cultural experience and learning to participate in a specialised and distinctive literacy pedagogy." (p.70). These researchers also believe that some children are excluded from participating in classroom literacy practices, not because of an inability to understand the content but because they have not developed the procedural competence to engage in pedagogical routines such as question-answer exchanges.

A study of children's interpretations of reading and writing in both skills and whole language classrooms by Dahl & Freppon (1998), reinforces the notion that consideration must be given to the learner's perspective and individual differences in reading and writing development. These researchers state that educators need to know what children believe and what literacy events and contexts shape learners' thinking. In their comparison of methodological settings the greatest difference appeared to be not what was being taught, but what children were learning – about themselves, about reading and writing and about school. Other studies (Baker & Freebody, 1989a & 1989b; Ludwig & Herschell, 1998, Anstey, 1998) show that while teachers need to

ensure that children are provided with explicit instruction in strategies for accessing meaning from text, they also need to ensure that they are instructed in “how to do literacy” (Anstey, 1998, p. 207; Rivalland, 2000). It is crucial that the pedagogy of the classroom allows for inclusion of all its members and not just those of the mainstream group. Dahl and Freppon (1998) conclude that a disposition for learning may be the most critical acquisition of children in the early years of school. Children who are engrossed in books and think of themselves as readers and writers in Year One may continue to read and write with this positive disposition in the grades ahead. Conversely, those who have disengaged from literacy instruction in the early grades may have begun the pattern of “turning away from school” (Dahl & Freppon 1998, p. 313).

Significance

The findings of the above research (Dahl & Freppon, 1998; Strommen & Mates, 1997) reinforce the need to know what children believe about reading and writing, what events and contexts shape their thinking, and how instruction can better match children’s evolving knowledge and skills. For example, just as frequent re-reading of a text can help build a child’s knowledge of written language, it may also suggest to a child that reading is memorising text (Strommen & Mates, 1997). If this is what a child believes readers do, then demonstrating to children that readers also read unfamiliar texts may assist in shifting the child’s thinking. Exploring children’s understandings and beliefs about the literacy process may help to avoid debates about beginning reading instruction and help teachers to tailor literacy instruction to the child’s ideas about what readers do.

Research in the area of children's beliefs and understandings about literacy development that has been undertaken with preschool children in the U.S. (Kantor, Miller & Fernie, 1992; Neuman & Roskos, 1992) has found that varying classroom contexts shape the nature of literacy events and outcomes. Research into children's interpretations of literacy instruction in the early grades has been carried out in classrooms that had differing methodologies, that is, skills-based and whole language, in order to shed light on how learners' interpretations may differ when they experience these different methodologies. Studies were undertaken in the United States with low SES and inner-city children as participants (Dahl, Purcell-Gates & McIntyre, 1989, cited in Dahl & Freppon, 1998; Dahl & Freppon, 1991).

The present study is concerned with poor readers in Year One and examines their perceptions of the nature of reading and writing and their experiences and interactions with the literacy environments of the regular classroom and the withdrawal room used for the Reading Recovery program. The subjects chosen for study were monolingual English speaking children whose cultural backgrounds were similar to the majority population of the school. Previous studies, as mentioned above, have studied children from marginalised groups, that is, low SES and inner-city U.S. children. These children often have to contend with a cultural mismatch of home and school, putting them at a disadvantage compared to children whose home literacies are similar to those of the school. The present study, however, focuses on children who did not appear to be socially or culturally marginalised, yet were experiencing difficulties with reading and writing in the latter half of Year One.

A study of the children in the Reading Recovery withdrawal program was made in order to determine whether there was a match or mismatch between their interpretations

of literacy learning in this setting and the classroom setting and whether children transferred learning from the withdrawal setting to the classroom and vice versa. It has already been shown that withdrawal programs have been criticised for their lack of congruence with classroom instruction (McGill-Franzen, 1994). In the research examples are cited of instructional practices in which children, who are unable to cope with the regular classroom material, are given a competing load of material to master in their withdrawal program. Such situations may confuse children rather than support them. For example, when teaching children how to work out unfamiliar words, the class teacher might stress the use of context and beginning letters and the withdrawal teacher might teach synthetic phonics where the task of decoding is broken down into its component parts and instruction proceeds from letter sounds to blending to reading words (Stahl, 1998). This incompatibility may result in the child with reading difficulties having to learn more than the child without these difficulties who remains in the regular classroom.

Early intervention programs need to accelerate literacy development in order for children to interact successfully with the classroom literacy program as soon as possible (Allington, 1994). An investigation of how children experience the literacy environments of these two educational settings may shed light on how classroom and withdrawal room teachers can collaboratively plan congruent instruction tailored to the needs of these children. This may in turn provide direction for optimal instructional conditions in both settings and help any gains made during intervention carry over to the regular classroom setting. A recommendation for congruence of instruction between classroom and withdrawal programs was made in a recent report on the needs of children with literacy difficulties in Australian settings (Rohl, House, Loudon, Milton & Rivalland, 2000)

Purpose of the study

Research has shown that children struggling with written language in Year One are often still struggling with written language in the middle and upper primary grades (Juel, 1988 and Stanovich, 1986). Multiple perspectives are necessary to accommodate the needs of diverse learners. Research carried out in early years of school suggests that children's growth in understanding of both what readers do and in what reading is, are interdependent. Therefore instruction should be matched to children's interpretations of what readers and writers do (Strommen & Mates, 1997). Struggling readers are often placed in intervention programs designed to accelerate their literacy development. These often produce immediate results but sometimes fail to achieve long term gains for all children (Iversen & Tunmer, 1993; Shanahan & Barr, 1995; Center, et al, 1995). Dahl and Freppon (1998) claim that there is a need to go beyond the documentation of classroom curricula and their consequences and find out what children believe and what events and contexts shape their thinking in order to find how instruction can better fit children's evolving knowledge and skills.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the literacy behaviours and the perceptions of literacy of Year One children who had been identified as having difficulty with reading. These children had completed three or four terms of Reception and two terms of Year One. In South Australia, the Reception year is the child's first year of school. Children commence when they have turned 5 years of age and may enter Year One when they have completed three or four terms. Normally children who commence Reception in the third term of school automatically complete another four terms of Reception. Each of the study children participated in Reading Recovery, an early intervention program which requires withdrawal from the classroom for 30

minutes each day. The study examined the children's behaviours and perceptions in both the classroom and the withdrawal setting.

It was anticipated that this study would result in (a) implications for the literacy instruction of children experiencing difficulties in Year One, and (b) implications for both classroom and Reading Recovery teachers as to how they can work together to maximise the effectiveness of programs for these children.

Research Questions

The questions guiding this research were:

1. How do four children who take part in a Reading Recovery program 'do' literacy in
a) the regular classroom and b) in Reading Recovery?
2. What are the similarities and differences in the ways in which these children do
literacy in the classroom and Reading Recovery settings?
3. What perceptions do these four children have about doing literacy?

Chapter 2 provides a review of the relevant literature. Chapter 3 describes the methodology used to conduct this research. Chapter 4 describes the two learning environments and provides some analysis of the two teachers' literacy lessons. Chapter 5 presents a description of each of the four children as they go about their literacy learning in each setting. Chapter 6 presents an analysis of the data as they relate to each of the three research questions and Chapter 7 discusses the results of the study along with implications for education and directions for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

This chapter provides a review of literature relevant to the research study and is organised under the headings of:

- a) Theories of Reading and Beginning Literacy Instruction
- b) Pedagogy of the Literacy Environment
- c) Children who have Difficulty in Early Literacy Learning
- d) Withdrawal Programs for Reading Instruction

In order to undertake an investigation into children's perceptions of and actions in the literacy environment of both the classroom and withdrawal room it is necessary to look at recent research into beginning reading instruction from both a psychological and socio-cultural viewpoint. The psychological perspective explains both skills based and whole language approaches to reading instruction. The socio-cultural perspective assists us to understand how the pedagogy of the classroom impacts on student/teacher interactions and students' learning. The literacy environment of the classroom and withdrawal room where the poor readers of this study were investigated is determined by the theory which drives the instructional practices of the teachers. Therefore, looking into the theory of beginning reading instruction is important in understanding how the literacy environment of particular settings is created.

Theories of Reading and Beginning Literacy Instruction

The debate over the best method of instruction in beginning literacy has been one of the most controversial in the field of literacy, and has occurred generally within the arena of contending psychological theories about reading and their related pedagogies.

Cognitive information processing perspectives led to models of reading which divide reading into subprocesses, each with a different function. For example, hierarchical models see reading as linear, progressing from the smallest unit of meaning (letters) to the largest (text meaning), with each level of analysis triggering the next and the sum of these analyses adding up to meaning. The subprocesses in this model are visual perception, leading to letter identification, searching one's lexicon, and accessing memory for meaning (Lipson & Wixson, 1997). Another view which divides reading into subprocesses focusses on the functions of different types of memory: visual, phonological, semantic and episodic. Central to this model is attention, the process that allocates reader's efforts to the subprocesses or memory type needed for the reading task. This view does not see reading as linear as attention may be allocated to different memories in different patterns (Lipson & Wixson, 1997). Such models of reading led to 'bottom-up' theories of reading instruction. When put into practice they involve teaching children individual letters and sounds, then blending sounds in words, before reading sentences and larger pieces of text. The texts used to teach reading in this approach are often basal readers containing controlled vocabulary and words that can be sounded out using phonic knowledge. The hierarchy of knowledge and skills in a bottom-up model generally translate into what is commonly known as a skills-based approach to teaching reading where systematic and sequential schemes for teaching letter-sound relationships are advocated.

In contrast to the bottom-up theory where the reader commences with perception of print and finally arrives at meaning, a 'top-down' theory sees the reader commencing by trying to make meaning. According to this model readers use their prior knowledge and experience in combination with the print. This enables the reader to sample from the text and predict, then confirm or reject predictions, rather than read letter by letter.

Since the reader is only sampling the text in order to test predictions, the reading process is viewed as being driven by higher level conceptual processes rather than by the low level analysis of the bottom-up model.

Both bottom-up and top-down models of reading have been criticised for not being able to account for all that fluent readers do (Stanovich, 1980) and have given way to interactive models of reading (Rumelhart, cited in Stanovich, 1980). These models of reading suggest that

“the processing of text is the flexible interaction of the different information sources available to the reader and that the information contained in higher stages of processing can influence, as well as be influenced by, the analysis that occurs at lower stages of analysis” (Lipson & Wixson, 1997).

This view of reading suggests that skilled readers simultaneously use many different areas of knowledge as they read and do not rely solely on bottom-up or top-down processes. A deficit in any knowledge source results in a heavier reliance on other knowledge sources, regardless of their level in the processing hierarchy (Stanovich, 1980). For example, on a piece of text containing familiar and unfamiliar information, a reader may use top-down processes when reading familiar information and bottom-up processes when reading unfamiliar information.

Top-down and interactive models of reading have resulted in meaning focused approaches to teaching, with specific focus on using authentic texts and authentic purposes and contexts for literacy learning where possible. This type of approach is often termed ‘whole language’ and is more implicit in its approach to teaching letter-sound relationships. A further conceptualisation of an interactive model of reading posited by Lipson and Wixson (1997) recognises the sociocultural nature of reading and

writing: “that the sociocultural setting in which people live, learn and work determines how reading is defined, instructed and evaluated” (Lipson & Wixson, p. 8, 1997). Their view of an interactive model of reading is a combination of cognitive information processing and social views. This perspective of reading makes the assumptions that the construction of meaning in reading results from an interaction between the reader and the context of the reading situation, and that the interaction is dynamic as a function of numerous reader and contextual factors (Lipson & Wixson, 1997). Factors associated with the reader that affect reading performance and processes include prior knowledge of content, knowledge about reading processes and motivation and attitude. The context factors include the setting in which the reading and writing events occur, the reading and writing curriculum, the instructional methods employed, the instructional materials (e.g., types of texts) and tasks (Lipson & Wixson, 1997).

The sociocultural nature of reading and writing is developed further by Freebody and Luke (1999) who argue that reading involves more than a fixed set of psychological characteristics independent of context. As changes in social and cultural contexts impact on literacy standards and practices it is inappropriate to view literacy as a unitary set of skills to be used in any situation. Literacy requires drawing upon an “appropriate body of literacy knowledge” (Anstey, p. 207, 1998) and adapting and using it in conjunction with the particular context in which one is operating. Freebody and Luke (1999) claim that reading a text requires a set of resources to understand the graphic, semantic, pragmatic and ideological codes that have been orchestrated in its writing and they develop this idea further by providing a conceptual framework for four practices of a successful reader. This requires orchestrating these four reading practices simultaneously: coding practice (‘How do I crack this?’), semantic practice (‘What does this mean?’), pragmatic practice (‘What do I do with this?’) and critical practice (‘What

does this do to me?’). The authors argue that all of these practices form part of successful reading and that literacy instruction at all developmental points should include systematic and explicit treatment of each of these components.

Research studies that support each of the above perspectives of literacy learning are reported below.

A review of research on the effects of phonics versus other beginning reading programs by Chall (1967) led to the conclusion that phonics instruction, that is, the mapping of speech sounds to print, is necessary for beginning readers. More recent comparisons of phonics-focused and meaning-focused instruction also show that programs that include systematic phonics instruction lead to higher word reading achievement and spelling, e.g., Adams, 1994; Ball & Blachman, 1991; Ehri, 1991; Juel, 1991. Many of these studies conclude that there is much benefit in systematic sequential phonics programs, where the central component is teaching correspondences between letters or strings of letters and their pronunciations. Juel (1991) speculates that the usefulness of these programs lies in their provision of a strategy for sounding out patterns in words. A study, which examined the effectiveness of many interventions for young ‘at risk’ readers, made the recommendation that, among other factors, beginning readers need explicit instruction and practice with spelling-sound correspondences and that this is dependent on adequate progress in learning to read (Snow, Burns & Griffin, 1998).

The National Reading Panel (of the National Institute of Child Health & Human Development in the United States) reported in its findings on reading and implications for reading instruction that systematic and explicit instruction in both phonemic awareness and phonics proved most effective in enhancing reading and spelling skills in kindergarten and first grade children. The report concludes that explicit, systematic

phonics instruction was a “valuable and essential” part of the classroom reading program but that teachers need to exercise caution in not allowing phonics to become the sole component of the reading program. The report states the need for children to learn how to apply their letter-sound knowledge in reading and writing and claims that programs which focus too much on teaching letter-sound relations and not enough on applying this knowledge to reading and writing are unlikely to be effective (National Reading Panel, 2000)

Other areas of research, however, including theories of language learning and psycholinguistic research, question the necessity of systematic and sequential phonics instruction. Some studies of children in preschool and Year One in whole language classrooms have shown that many children can acquire knowledge of letter sound correspondences without this kind of systematic and sequential instruction (Freppon, 1991; McIntyre, 1990; Mills, O’Keeffe & Stephens, 1992; Morrow, 1992, cited in Freppon & McIntyre, 1998; Moustafa, 1998). Many of these studies indicate that children construct their phonic knowledge through their explorations of print and interaction with one another and that further exposure to printed words results in increased awareness of the sound structure of words.

Studies of emergent reading suggest that children acquire some knowledge of letter-sound correspondences before they begin to read or write conventionally (Ferreiro & Teberosky, 1983; Gough & Hillinger, 1980, cited in Freppon & McIntyre, 1998; Sulzby, 1985; Adams, 1994; Strommen & Mates, 1997). Children first learn concepts about print such as book orientation, directionality and the semantic and syntactic nature of print. They then become focused on the graphic cues of the text and finally they bring all this information together in order to read new text. Freppon and McIntyre (p. 183, 1998) claim that the development of these skills does not occur in discrete stages

but rather in a “continual and seamless manner”. Nevertheless in her study of children’s story re-enactments, Sulzby (1985) found that children in what she calls the emergent phase of reading focused on sound-symbol relationships to the point that their renditions of stories showed an exclusive phonics focus. Other studies (Bissex, cited in Freppon & McIntyre 1998; Freppon & Dahl, 1991) suggest that at some point in their development toward conventional reading children will apply conscious attention to sounds and symbols, regardless of whether or not they are comprehending.

A model of phases of word learning proposed by Ehri and McCormick (1998) explains the point from which readers begin to become focused on the graphic cues of the text. This model proposes that the learner begins by looking at words as objects. At this stage children do not appear to pay attention to detailed components of the word but rely on its visual appearance. It is at this ‘pre-alphabetic’ stage that children begin to recognise environmental print. This phase is followed by the ‘partial alphabetic stage’ where children become conscious of sounds in words. At this stage children have not fully developed analytic skills, but have a partially developed cue system that helps them to read words. In the ‘alphabetic stage’ words are fully segmented both visually and phonologically. The final phase in becoming fluent is the ‘orthographic stage’ where the child attends to the groups of letters that go together to form spelling patterns.

Both the skills approach and whole language approach to beginning reading instruction appear to acknowledge the necessity of children acquiring letter-sound knowledge. However, current concern appears to be whether beginning readers need to learn “phonics first”, in isolation from other aspects of literacy development and as a precursor to reading development, or whether phonics is best learned in the context of reading and writing (Strickland & Cullinan, 1994). In order to examine this further it is

necessary to understand the differences in the terms, “phonics”, “phonological awareness” and “phonemic awareness”.

“Phonics” is the knowledge of letters and their corresponding sounds, and involves the ability to match letters to their sounds. “Phonological awareness” is awareness of the sound structure of oral language and that it can be broken down into its component parts of awareness at the level of syllables, onset and rime, and individual phonemes (Wagner, Torgesen, Rashotte, Hecht, Barker, Burgess, Donahue & Garon, 1997). It includes skills such as rhyme, alliteration, analysing sounds in words, blending sounds and breaking words into syllables (Love & Reilly, 1998). “Phonemic awareness” is a component of phonological awareness, that is, a conscious knowledge of the individual speech sounds within words. The distinction between phonological awareness and phonemic awareness highlights the difference between individual and multi-sound units and has implications for teaching (Munro, 1998).

In traditional phonics programs children are taught the spelling-sound correspondences for all the phonemes in spoken English. It is assumed that once children know the rules for sounding out different combinations of letters in words they can decode new words by applying these rules. This is problematic, however, given the many different spellings of the same sounds. A major problem with the ‘phonics first’ approach is that for many children, learning the individual spelling-sound correspondences can be a difficult way into reading as they cannot ‘hear’ these individual sounds in the words they are trying to decode (Goswami, 1994). In order for phonics instruction to develop word identification skills, children must first be able to segment the sounds that letters represent, that is, phonemes (Juel, 1988). Without phoneme segmentation skills, children may not be able to take advantage of early phonics instruction.

One view of the relationship between individual differences in phonological awareness and reading put forward by Wagner et al. (1997) is that the influence is bidirectional. Individual differences in phonological awareness influence the development of subsequent individual differences in reading skills. Individual differences in reading skills influence the development of subsequent individual differences in more developed phonological awareness, namely, phonemic awareness. As these skills do not necessarily come naturally, researchers claim that many children may benefit from instruction in phonological awareness in kindergarten and Year One (Juel, 1988; Iverson & Tunmer, 1993; Gough, 1996; National Reading Panel, 2000; Ehri, Nunes, Willows, Schuster, Yaghoub-Zadeh & Shanahan, 2001).

A study into the training of phonological awareness in kindergarten children (5-year-olds) demonstrated that early training in phonological awareness is both possible and efficacious (Ayres, 1998). The study compared three treatment groups. Treatment Group A received direct instruction using puppets, oral language stories written for this treatment, games and songs. Rhyme, alliteration and segmentation were directly instructed by puppets who drew children's attention to the phonological features in words, stories and songs. Treatment group B received indirect instruction using a literature-based approach which included attention to rhyme and alliteration derived from text and involved book making and writing activities. The third treatment group, AB, combined the direct approach of the first treatment with the indirect approach of the second. Poems and books similar to those used for group B were used. In addition, the puppets, songs and word games used for group A interacted with the text, merging both approaches to deliver lessons in phonological awareness.

The study resulted in direct instruction having the greatest effect on children's ability to segment phonemes in words, whereas indirect instruction appeared to have more

impact on children's ability to detect rhyming and alliteration patterns. The author accounted for this by the fact that the indirect instruction treatment was based on literature selections chosen for the rhyming and alliteration patterns contained in the text. This study also explored the effect of treatment sequence and found that direct instruction seemed to be most effective when delivered during the second part of the year, after the children had participated in a variety of literature-based experiences.

A comparison study of children's development of alphabetic knowledge in whole language and skills-based classrooms from kindergarten through to Year One (McIntyre & Freppon, 1998), found that phonics instruction is a necessary ingredient in beginning reading instruction. As the children in this study developed more sophisticated uses of alphabetic knowledge they moved through the emergent stages of literacy development. However, while the findings support Chall's conclusions made in 1967, they suggest that such instruction can successfully take place in very different instructional contexts. The comparison study's skills-based setting included letter-sound correspondences taught in isolation with follow up worksheets and oral drill. The whole-language setting comprised of Big Books with attention to letter-sound relations and daily writing where invented spelling was encouraged. The pattern of acquisition for children in the study was similar, regardless of the kind of instruction they received; as long as they received some code instruction. The researchers reported that the differences found in this study were not in how fast or how well children learned the alphabetic system in their differing instructional settings, but in what the children did with their new knowledge. Observations of both instructional settings showed that direct teaching about sound-symbol relationships occurred every day although instruction was contextualised differently. Being explicit did not necessarily involve using specific instructional sequences or teaching phonics in isolation.

Another comparison study of children's interpretations of reading and writing instruction in the early grades was undertaken by Dahl and Freppon (1998) to shed light on two issues: first, how children make sense of their beginning reading and writing instruction, and second, how these interpretations may differ when children experience whole language or skills-based classroom programs. The study took place over eight school sites with twelve learners from each site chosen randomly from a pool of kindergarten children deemed as being of low socio-economic status. The investigation involved both qualitative and quantitative measures. The researchers generated field notes in twice weekly classroom visits across a 2-year period, as well as administering a series of six tasks designed to assess various aspects of written language knowledge at the beginning of kindergarten and the end of Year One. Comparisons of data were made by tracing the focal students through a series of comparable events in the skills-based and whole language classrooms. In order to determine how children's interpretations differed in each instructional setting, measures of written language knowledge were analysed and further comparisons were made.

The findings from quantitative measures showed that the children made progress in both instructional settings, yet the qualitative measures showed children used their knowledge differently in the two settings. The findings about the children's letter-sound knowledge suggested that it was not how the children were taught but how they made sense of their phonics instruction. The essential difference was in how the children applied their letter-sound knowledge and whether it made sense to them in terms of their knowledge of written language.

Strickland and Cullinan (1994) have called for the two disparate groups in the teaching profession, that is, phonics proponents and whole-language proponents, to recognise phonics instruction as a part of an integrated approach to literacy teaching,

with some direct instruction, in context, on spelling-to-sound correspondences. In such an approach phonics is taught explicitly through meaningful literacy activities such as Shared Book Experience with Big Books. In this way instruction proceeds from whole text to whole word and to parts of words (Moustafa, 1998). Contextualising explicit phonics instruction is also supported by Beck and Juel (1995). They suggest that instruction proceed from children's oral language, nursery rhymes or shared books to making individual sounds explicit. An explicit approach where the sounds associated with letters are directly provided is contrasted with an implicit approach where children are expected to induce these sounds from reading words in stories and lists that contain similar spelling-sound patterns (Beck & Juel, p. 25, 1995). These authors believe implicit phonics to be problematic as it requires the ability to segment phonemes right from the start; an ability with which many children do not come to school. This view is supported by the National Reading Panel (2000) whose findings suggest that systematic and explicit phonics instructions is a necessary component of the classroom reading program.

Despite the controversies about the place of teaching letter-sound knowledge, research converges on the point that the association of spellings with sound is a fundamental step in the early stages of literacy instruction (Adams & Bruck, 1995). Interactive and socio-cultural theories of literacy acquisition also state the need for children to become familiar with the alphabetic principle of written English, which is the notion that there are systematic correspondences between the sounds of language and the letters of the alphabet. However, it is the emphasis and context for teaching this knowledge that appears to differ across the various theories. The International Reading Association's position statement on The Role of Phonics in Reading Instruction (1997), states that, "the teaching of phonics is an important aspect of

beginning reading instruction”, and calls for phonics instruction to be embedded in the context of the total literacy program.

Pedagogy of the Literacy Environment

The above mentioned models of literacy provide a cognitive view of literacy and describe the psycholinguistic processes involved in learning how to read. The cognitive view treats literacy as a neutral object to be studied and mastered. This view is described by Street (1995) as an ‘autonomous’ model of literacy; one where literacy itself is treated as an autonomous object, that has a life-world of its own, not connected to the ways in which it is used in real life. In certain contexts it is more appropriate to look at literacy from a cognitive perspective, such as when teaching decoding skills and particular reading strategies. However, teaching skills and strategies do not make up for all of what can be counted as literacy. Literacy is multidimensional and can be seen in different ways in different situations. In contrast to the autonomous model of literacy, Street (1994) posits a model of ‘ideological’ literacy which sees literacy as emerging from social practices in which individuals are engaged. These practices derive from participation in a wider range of cultural groups, each with its own set of literacy practices. Within the cultures of communities and families, literacy meanings are constructed through the values, practices, routines and rituals of their members (Kantor, Miller & Fernie, 1992).

This view of literacy, often referred to as ‘sociocultural’, focuses on literacy not as a private, invisible, psychological matter but on the visible aspects of literacy and how they are manifested in various contexts. This view sees literacy as “... sets of practical activities engaged in by many different people in many different interpersonal and cultural contexts” (Baker & Freebody, 1989a, p. xi). A critical feature emerging from this view is that there is no one set of literacy practices common to all communities, so

that the literacy practices of the school may be quite different to those of the home and community of many students. A psycholinguistic view of literacy, however, does not take into account the habitual ways of using literacy, of valuing and of behaving, that students bring to school (Anstey & Bull, 1996).

With this in mind, children's classroom literacy learning can be viewed as socio-linguistic. This view of learning accounts for the learner's actions during instruction as well as accounting for the ways in which each learner's linguistic-experiential reservoir, background, and stance influences those actions (Rosenblatt, cited in Dahl & Freppon, 1998). Sociolinguists view the school as a "social context different from home and other contexts" (Anstey, 1996, p. 110) and are concerned with the effect of particular patterns of interaction and the school/home differences on students and their learning. Many researchers (Baker & Freebody, 1989b; Baker, 1991; Luke, 1993; Gee, 1990) have focused on the differences of the classroom discourse compared to discourses of other social contexts. Observation of classroom reading lessons have shown that there is more than 'reading instruction' taking place, such as the talk around reading lessons which introduces children to "institutionalised ways of reading and talking about texts with teachers in classrooms" (Baker, 1991, p. 161). Baker claims that "learning to read takes place concurrently with, and as a crucial procedure in, acculturation to the social codes that govern schooling." (p. 162).

Baker and Freebody (1989a) explored the social context of reading lessons in Year One and found that the talk around text formed a basis for the social organisation of authority relations between teachers and students. In this study teachers were shown to use various practices to assign authority to the text and simultaneously to themselves. Question-and-answer exchanges taught very little about reading, but more about interpreting the pictures in books using culturally acquired background knowledge.

These researchers found that in order for children to participate in reading lessons they needed to bring 'cultural logic' to an interpretation of a text. This was particularly evident when responding to teacher elicitations about the text, because it was only when the child's response appeared to model the logic of the teacher that an answer was deemed adequate and thus 'counted' as reading. Further observations by Baker and Freebody showed the teacher to be the holder of knowledge with the one correct answer being in his/her head. The implicit message to students was that there is only one way to read a text and it is the teacher who knows this correct way. Similarly, an investigation of teachers' questions in early literacy classrooms (French & McLure, 1982), found that teachers were often so determined to obtain the one correct answer that they reformulated questions during the question-answer-exchange in order to narrow the possible answers.

Further difficulties that may arise from the pedagogy of the classroom are reported by Winch (1985) who explored the high level of abstraction in teacher talk and found that much of the oral and written language of the classroom contained summaries or generalisations. This is not a problem for children who have a sufficient knowledge base to generalise from, but if children lack such a knowledge base they are likely to have difficulty understanding abstractions and generalisations. This could lead to children displaying the verbal behaviour modelled to them without any real understanding. For example, when asked about the stages of the writing process they may state that they draft, revise, edit and publish but have no understanding of what these terms mean (Anstey, 1996). Research in the area of metacognition (Brown & Campione, 1980; Lawson, 1984) and studies of literacy teaching (Heap, 1991) provides information that may help to address this shortfall of instructional practice. This research has identified three types of knowledge as necessary for effective literacy

learning: propositional knowledge (knowing the literacy skills and strategies available), procedural knowledge (knowing how to use the skills and strategies to complete the literacy task), and conditional knowledge (knowing the context in which their use is most appropriate). Some researchers recommend teaching strategies which include explicit verbal instruction and the provision of verbal scaffolding during reading skills instruction (Paris, Cross & Lipson, 1984; Brown & Palincsar, cited in Anstey, 1998).

These findings are supported by Ludwig and Herschell (1998) who analysed the teacher-student talk in a Year Two classroom to describe literacy learning interactions. They found that the literacy pedagogy of the classroom created a literacy practice that was not simply reading and writing and making meaning from text, but that these factors were entwined with classroom management procedures and pedagogical procedures. They conclude that in order for children to participate successfully in literacy practices they need to know how and when to display knowledge. The authors also conclude that the complex and conflicting demands for the display of knowledge in many classrooms excludes some children from learning, not because of a lack of understanding of the literacy learning content, but because some children have not developed the procedural competence required of the pedagogy. A further finding from this research was the issue of “randomly focused learning” (p. 69), whereby teachers’ attempts to contextualise and integrate learning was often only loosely related to learning objectives. This can result in students being unable to identify the literacy learning content and makes it difficult for them to transfer understandings to other learning contexts. Ludwig and Herschell conclude that there is a need for classroom talk that provides explicit knowledge about language and literacy as well as providing information about ‘how to do’ literacy.

In an examination of teachers' typical literacy lessons, Anstey (1996) identified three styles of teaching which she categorised as pedagogy of school, pedagogy of literacy lessons, and pedagogy of literacy learning. The first of these focuses on learning how to 'do school' as children engage in modelling question-answer behaviours rather than learning how to use particular cognitive processes. The second type of teaching style involves student-teacher exchanges that focus on how to do the literacy task (e.g., worksheet) rather than learning how to use literacy. Literacy lessons in the third category focus on learning about literacy and the usefulness of literacy skills and processes, rather than on 'doing school' or 'doing the task'. This third teaching style is more desirable if children are to learn literacy skills and processes and how to apply these in various situations (Anstey, 1996, p. 94). Nevertheless, Rivalland (2000) has shown that children need to know how to 'do school' in order to engage in classroom routines.

Anstey (1998) draws together the research in the area of literacy pedagogy and posits a set of lesson characteristics which may work towards providing effective explicit literacy instruction. These suggestions are that literacy lessons:

- Be functional and goal-directed;
- Be seen by the children to be relevant to a variety of real life contexts;
- Develop and enhance the concept of literacy, not just skills;
- Contain explanations and demonstrations by the teacher which give propositional, procedural and conditional knowledge;
- Incorporate practice, adaptation and transfer of the strategy through activities which encourage self monitoring;

- Acknowledge children's social contexts outside the classroom in the selection of content and materials;
- Use materials which resemble real life contexts and situations in which the skills or strategies might be used.

Implementing explicit teaching of literacy skills involves foregrounding their utility and relevance in real life contexts and this requires detailed attention to the teacher talk, structure and use of materials in the classroom. It is this attention to the micro level of literacy teaching in the classroom that facilitates effective literacy learning and accounts for the multiple practices that make up children's literacy experiences (Anstey, 1998).

Much of the research into literacy as sociocultural practice emphasises the disjuncture that occurs when children of culturally diverse backgrounds experience the "culturally bound nature" of school learning (Ludwig & Herschell, 1998, p. 69). However, children who are experiencing confusion in their literacy learning due to a possible mismatch of their perceptions about literacy and the kinds of instruction they are receiving, irrespective of cultural diversity, may also benefit from an explicit approach. In many classrooms, aspects of literacy education are left implicit or to be learned incidentally and it is not enough to expect that all children will learn through exposure to and immersion in particular patterns of language use (Ludwig & Herschell, 1998, p. 79).

Children Who Have Difficulty in Early Literacy Learning

A recent survey of learning difficulties in Australian primary schools suggests that 10-30% of school age children have significant difficulties in learning to read (Rohl & Milton 2002). Children who are achieving at a significantly lower level than their age

peers or who demonstrate a discrepancy between cognitive ability and school achievement in literacy learning are often considered to have learning difficulties. These children may have difficulties that relate to a variety of social and cultural factors, such as differences between home and school language and culture; a mismatch between home and school literacies, and other social circumstances such as poverty and family disruption. Other children may have difficulties that relate to cognitive ability or behaviour that prevents school learning and language development.

Many children with literacy learning difficulties are identified in the first few years of schooling as the demands for reading competence become apparent. Therefore, early identification and assessment of children at risk of having difficulties in literacy learning is recognised to be beneficial. Many children who are identified as being at risk for learning difficulties may have their needs met in their own classroom setting. Conditions required for supporting children in the classroom include regular timetabled blocks for literacy learning, oral language development, a range of contexts for reading and writing, explicit instruction in letter-sound correspondences, activities that develop comprehension skills and regular assessment to monitor children's progress. This is known as "First Wave" teaching and is described as "good initial early years teaching" by Clay and Tuck (1991).

Some children do not progress at the expected rate during "First Wave" teaching and require additional assistance in the form of early intervention programs or "Second Wave" teaching that often takes place outside the mainstream classroom. Rohl, et al recommend that intervention programs be conducted in a positive atmosphere and include: regular diagnostic assessment; integration with the classroom program; parent involvement; small group or individual teaching on a regular basis that uses multi-sensory techniques and mastery learning. Some of the issues surrounding Second Wave

programs that require children to be withdrawn from the regular classroom are discussed below.

Withdrawal Programs for Reading Instruction

Withdrawal programs for children experiencing difficulties with reading have been criticised for segregating children unnecessarily, reducing time on task, minimising classroom teacher responsibility for instruction and fragmenting the curriculum (Allington, 1993). Further limitations to withdrawal programs are that often there is inadequate collaboration between withdrawal and classroom teachers. Many teachers are not sufficiently aware of the materials and instructional methods used by each other with the children whom they share. Consequently children may be participating in two quite distinct literacy programs that are not well integrated (Meyers, Gelzheiser and Yelich 1991).

Given these concerns about withdrawal programs, several alternative models have been proposed and examined. A study into the effects of withdrawal room and in-class support settings on remedial reading programs (Bean, Cooley, Eichelberger, Lazar and Zigmond, 1991) investigated the nature of the programs and the differences between them. This study involved poor readers in Years 4 and 5. Findings from this study suggested that in the withdrawal setting, the materials and selection of skills seemed unrelated to the reading instruction received in the classroom. Also, the children in these groups, of between 2-5 members, did not receive individualised instruction. The reading specialist tended to teach the same lesson to all groups of children seen on a specific day.

The in-class support model saw more congruence between the remedial and classroom reading program, as well as more individual contact between the remedial

child and the specialist teacher. It was found in this model, however, that there was an unexpectedly large amount of time in which students were not actually working, when scheduled instruction had ceased or when there was no interaction between the reading specialist and the children. Over a third of the instructional time was spent on skill related activities. The focus of the text was on after-reading activities. The researchers conclude that setting can make a difference in terms of what students experience in support programs and that this difference is not necessarily in the desired direction. For example, in this case, the inclusion program saw increased non-instructional time and focus on isolated skills practice. The study also found that in-class support programs were not easy for the specialist teacher to implement and the authors recommend that teachers be given training to help them function effectively as collaborators in the child's reading program. The authors concluded that further study into the nature of the instruction in both in-class support and withdrawal settings is needed.

Teacher collaboration in planning in-class support programs is the focus of a study by Meyer, Gelzheiser and Yelich (1991). This study compared the collaborative planning between specialist teacher and classroom teacher on withdrawal reading programs, to the planning between specialist and classroom teacher for in-class reading support. The study found that the latter of these two approaches fostered collaboration which was focused on instructional planning and improving the teacher's skills in the delivery of instruction. In this approach, the classroom reading program was no longer distinct from the supplemental program. Both teachers contributed to plans for teaching new content and skills, as well as learning activities designed for children having difficulties. The researchers emphasised that the teachers in this study had volunteered to work together and they drew attention to research showing that classroom instruction did not improve when in-class support was mandated for a school

and use of a specific model required (Bean, Zigmond & Eichelberger, cited in Meyers, Gelzheiser & Yelich, 1991).

A study by Marston (1996) compared withdrawal and in-class support with a third model of instruction, “combined services”. This study was undertaken with primary age students from 5-12-years-old. In the combined services arrangement, children received instruction in their IEP (Individualised Education Program) in both the withdrawal setting and in the regular classroom. Results of this study indicated that teacher satisfaction and student progress in reading were significantly greater for the combined services model. In cases where the specialist teachers were successful in the combined services model, there was a change in the attitude of classroom teachers toward serving the needs of these students and a commitment to addressing the students’ needs by collaborating with specialist teachers.

It appears that the research on the effectiveness of in-class support compared with withdrawal programs is equivocal. There is wide ranging opinion on whether children’s needs are best met in the classroom, in the withdrawal room, or in a combination of both (Marston, 1996). Some researchers conclude that withdrawal models of education have not been effective for the students involved (Lipsky & Gartner, cited in Marston, 1996). Vaughn and Schumm (1995) concluded that “responsible inclusion” (p. 265) led to effective inclusion models. However, in a review of five case studies of in-class support programs, Baker and Zigmond (1995) noted that some elements of effective instruction were missing or infrequent, such as adapting programs for an individual’s needs, attention to the specific needs of a student in the classroom and monitoring progress of individual students. Further to the argument, other researchers (Fuchs & Fuchs, 1995) found many instances where withdrawal programs promoted greater academic achievement than regular classrooms.

McGill-Franzen (1994) criticises special education withdrawal programs for teaching children at a slower pace and not attempting to accelerate the literacy development of its students. She claims that the idea that development can be accelerated is “counterintuitive” for many educators (p. 32) and contrasts this notion with the philosophy behind intervention programs such as Reading Recovery and Success For All (Slavin, 1996). These programs intervene early in the child’s school life, no later than Year One and focus on accelerating literacy development so that children can function at the average (or higher) level of the class as soon as possible.

The Reading Recovery Program

Reading Recovery has gained a great amount of attention for its effectiveness as an early intervention program (Pinnell, Lyons, Bryk & Selzer, 1994). It is a school-based, individual intervention program which focuses on children who, after one year of schooling are not developing effective reading and writing processes. These are children whose reading progress falls in the lower 10 per cent to 20 per cent of enrolment in the school. Class teachers identify the children who are not making satisfactory progress and these children are assessed by means of the Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement (Clay, 1993a). The program is based on individual instruction for a period of 12 to 20 weeks and takes the form of daily 30 minute lessons. This one to one intervention does not follow a predetermined curriculum but is tailored to meet the needs of each child within a defined instructional framework.

The design of Reading Recovery incorporates a constructivist theory of learning (Clay, 1985) and the program is based on the assumption that learning takes place by constructing meaning through social interactions. Reading Recovery is designed to provide the social interactions that support the child’s ability to work at a level where

he/she may not have full control but with the support of an adult will be able to reach further and problem solve or perform successfully (Pinnel, Lyons, DeFord, Bryk & Seltzer, 1994).

Clay states that “all readers need to use, and check against each other, four sources of information: semantic (text meaning), syntactic (sentence structure), visual (graphemes orthography, format and layout), and phonological (the sounds of oral language)” (Clay & Cazden, 1990, p. 207). Readers search for and use this information when reading. Clay refers to these sources of information in print as *cues* and categorises them into meaning cues, structure cues and visual cues. Visual cues include graphemes, orthography, format and layout, as well as phonological information. The goal of Reading Recovery is to produce “independent readers whose reading and writing improve whenever they read and write” (Clay, 1993b, p. 43). This is known as a ‘self-extending system’. Clay states that this is evident when the child:

- monitors own reading and writing
- searches for cues in word sequences, in meaning, in letter sequences
- discovers new things for him/herself
- cross-checks one source of cues with another
- repeats as if to confirm his/her reading or writing so far
- self corrects, taking the initiative for making cues match, or getting words right
- solves new words by these means. (Clay, 1993b, p. 43)

An integral element of the Reading Recovery lesson is analysing the information in print that children use when trying to reconstruct the message of the text. This is done by way of the *running record*, whereby the teacher uses a tick for each correct response

and records every error in full. In order to work out whether the child is responding to the different sources of information and the different kinds of cues that could be used, teachers look at the child's errors and question what led the child to do or say that. Teachers are to consider only the reading behaviour up to the error and then try to work out whether the child was using information from the meaning of the sentence, the structure of the sentence or from the visual cues. It is only by analysing all the child's errors that teachers are able to conclude that the child, for example, "pays more attention to visual cues than to meaning or is guided by structure and meaning but does not search for visual cues" (Clay, 1993a, p. 31). Similarly, analysis of self correction behaviour informs teachers of whether a child is aware that he/she has miscued and what cues have been used to correct the miscue. Teachers analyse the information the child was using up to the point of the initial error and then consider what extra information the child used in order to self correct (Clay, 1993a)

Lesson Components

Familiar text reading.

All lessons begin with the child reading one or two familiar texts, that is, books they have already read in Reading Recovery. During this reading the teacher may prompt the child to use the cues that will assist in making meaning of the text where appropriate but as the child is already familiar with the text the main aim is "to allow the child scope for practising the orchestration of all the complex range of behaviours that must be used" (Clay, 1993b, p. 36). Aspects of reading, such as phrasing and fluency, can be focused upon during this lesson component.

Running Records.

During each lesson, the teacher takes a running record of the child reading a book that was introduced at the end of the previous lesson. This book is at the child's *instructional level*, that is, a text that the child is able to read with 90%-95% accuracy. During this reading the teacher does not prompt or assist the child as it is a record of what the child can do unaided. Running Records are analysed according to the information sources (cues) used and neglected by the child when reading. The three main information sources analysed are *meaning*, understandings of the world; *structure*, understandings of sentence structure and grammar, and *visual* which includes understandings about the visual features of text. Analysis of a child's error behaviour can illustrate the kind of information being used up to the point of the error. The recorder writes M S V alongside each error and circles the cues it is thought the child used. The uncircled letters then show the cues neglected. Self correction behaviour is also analysed in this way but in a two step process. The information used up to the point of error is recorded and then the cue or cues used to self correct are circled.

An accuracy rate is calculated by dividing the number of errors into the number of words read and using the conversion table (Clay, 1993a) to determine whether the book is *easy*, *instructional* or *hard*. A self correction rate is calculated by adding the number of errors and self corrections and dividing this by the number of self corrections. Clay (1993a) states that evidence of self corrections is a good prognosis as it is a sign of the need to read the precise message. She goes on to say the self correction rates can only be understood when they are interpreted with text difficulty and accuracy scores.

Making and breaking.

The purpose of this component is to help the child understand the process of word construction, how words work and how using known word parts can help in recognising and writing new words (Clay, 1993b). For example, the teacher may begin

with a word the child already knows how to read, such as *make* and then proceed to make new words by changing the initial letter to construct *wake* and *bake*.

Sentence writing.

The focus of this component is on having the child compose and write a sentence or sentences. This is a shared activity between the child and teacher. The three main teaching aims are to: help the child hear and record the sequence of sounds in a word, use analogy to make a word from a known word (e.g., *day* to *way*) and to take a high frequency word to fluency. In helping the child to segment the sounds in words the teacher uses *sound boxes* on the designated practice page. A counter is placed in a box as the teacher says each sound in the word and the child then does the same and records the letters for each of the sounds. When the teacher *takes a word to fluency*, the purpose is to have the child add this word to his/her writing vocabulary and be able to write the word when next it is needed. This involves the child writing the word on the practice page up to five times, covering it each time. The child then writes the word into the sentence from memory.

Assembling cut-up sentences.

The teacher cuts up the child's sentences at the level of phrases, words or word parts, providing the child with practice in assembling the sentences and further checking and monitoring behaviours.

Introduction of new book.

A new book that is within the child's control is chosen and the child is made familiar with the story, the words, the sentences and the writing style. The child is required to read the book as independently as possible. The teacher assists by providing prompts

that direct attention to the information needed to solve the problem, for example, meaning, structure or visual cues.

Text reading levels.

Text levels are based on a gradient of difficulty that takes into account the text's sentence structure and vocabulary. For example, level 3 texts contain a very simple story, mainly repetitive in structure but with some minor variation. Level 6 texts contain an increasing amount of print on each page with increasingly complex plot, sentence structure and language. For the purpose of running records, texts are categorised as *easy*, *instructional* and *hard*. An easy text is one that the child reads with an accuracy rate of above 95% and provides insights into how the child orchestrated effective reading. An instructional text is read with 90%-95% accuracy and provides insights into how processing and problem solving can be done. A hard text is read with an accuracy rate of 80%-89% and provides information about how and when effective processing breaks down (Clay, 1993a).

Discontinuation from the program.

Children are discontinued from the program when they can read at the average (or above) class level and when they have developed a self-extending system. This means that a child approaches text strategically and continues to learn to read and write by engaging in further reading and writing activities (Clay, 1993b).

Criticism of Reading Recovery

Criticism of Reading Recovery has mainly been directed at the cost effectiveness of the program and the maintenance of gains into the middle primary years (Hiebert, 1994; Shanahan & Barr, 1995). As Reading Recovery is an individualised program it is necessarily expensive and raises questions about whether the expenditure is justified

or cost effective (Center, Wheldall & Freeman, 1995 and Shanahan & Barr, 1995). Further, Hiebert's (1994) study of Reading Recovery data from 1984-1993 in the United States showed low levels of maintenance of progress at Year 4. Shanahan and Barr's (1995) study concludes that some children who participate in the program in Year One may need additional support in subsequent years, so that shifting all resources for reading support to Reading Recovery in Year One would be unwise.

Reading Recovery has also been criticised by Iversen and Tunmer (1993) on the grounds that phonological awareness is not necessarily explicitly taught, in that the individual Reading Recovery teacher makes the decisions about what each child will focus on in the lesson. Thus, if she decides that the child does not need to focus specifically on phonological awareness she will not make it a focus of the lesson.

Reading Recovery has also been criticised on socio-political grounds by Dudley-Marling and Murphy (1997) who believe that such intervention programs preserve the status quo by protecting the structures of schooling from social criticism. Additionally they claim that these programs appear to explain and solve the problem of school failure without implicating the structures of schooling. The authors claim that these structures of schooling allow for the reproduction of inequities related to race, class, gender and language by favoring the knowledge and pedagogical practices that privilege students of the mainstream group. If the pedagogy of schools addressed the diverse literacy practices and experiences of all its students and not just the dominant mainstream group, children whose literacies do not coincide with those of the school may not need to attend such withdrawal reading programs.

Dudley-Marling and Murphy acknowledge that remedial reading programs such as Reading Recovery do provide support for children whose needs are not met in the regular classroom, but they believe that schools tend to use such programs to avoid

their responsibilities to enact meaningful changes that are considerate of the diversity of literacy experiences that students bring to classrooms. However, Johnston (1998) claims that this critique of Reading Recovery is paralysing because it could be used against any “successful social or educational program” (p. 282). He believes that while there is a need for societal and educational change, this may take a long time and encounter great opposition. In the meantime educators cannot become paralysed by the realisation that their efforts are not addressing the whole problem.

In an Australian context, various early literacy programs and other teacher professional development programs are attempting to address the diversity of children’s literacy experiences. Programs such as Cornerstones (South Australian Department for Education and Children’s Services, 1997), draw on research into literacy as social practice and attempt to address the literacy learning outcomes of children in the early years, through an inclusive curriculum. Professional development programs such as Literacy and the Information Age: Changing Technologies, Changing Literacies (Catholic Education, South Australia, 1999) aim to develop teachers’ understandings of the implications for literacy of diverse school populations.

To the extent that Reading Recovery may discourage classroom instructional change and reduce the responsibility of classroom teachers, Dudley-Marley and Murphy suggest that both Reading Recovery and classroom teachers might work together to adapt classroom reading instruction on the basis of what can be learned from research on Reading Recovery. For example, providing children with the opportunity to engage in sustained periods of reading and writing, and developing structures that provide opportunities for individual attention within classroom reading lessons through partner reading or peer tutoring. The above mentioned early years programs along with the Early Years Literacy Project (EYLP) and Children’s Literacy Success Strategy

(CLASS) (Catholic Education Office, Melbourne, 1998) accommodate such procedures, both programs incorporating Reading Recovery as their 'second wave' of literacy teaching.

The critique of Reading Recovery by Dudley-Marling and Murphy focuses on the inequities of schooling related to students who are marginalised by language differences. However, there are also many students who do not appear to be marginalised in this way but who have difficulty with literacy in their first years of school. Regardless of whether children's background experiences match that of the school, teachers, in both the classroom and Reading Recovery program need to be aware of how children 'do' and perceive reading and writing and how instruction can better fit children's evolving knowledge and skills.

Summary

In the review of the literature it has been shown that whilst questions remain as to its place in instruction, research converges on the point that instruction in the alphabetic principle and phonemic awareness is necessary for continued literacy development across the primary grades (Adams, 1990; Beck & Juel, 1995). The research does not necessarily advocate a return to a "skill-and-drill" approach, but rather this instruction should be integrated with the teaching of reading in meaningful contexts (Iversen & Tunmer, 1993). In many classrooms, exclusive use of bottom-up or top-down models of reading have given way to an interactive approach to teaching reading where letter-sound and phonological awareness instruction takes place alongside a meaning-centred literacy program.

Research also shows that literacy instruction must take into account the understanding and perceptions that children have of reading and of the purpose of their

literacy instruction (Freppon, 1991; Strommen & Mates, 1997; Dahl & Freppon, 1998). In a study of Year One children's concepts of the nature and purpose of reading instruction, Freppon, (1991) concluded that instruction most likely to succeed is instruction oriented toward children's emerging understandings about written language. Similarly, Dahl and Freppon's (1998) comparison of inner-city children's interpretations of reading and writing in whole language and skills based classrooms, found little difference in the phonics knowledge that the learners gained, rather, they found variance in what the learners in the different settings did with their knowledge and whether it was meaningful to them in terms of their understanding of written language. The need to understand the purposes of reading and writing is supported by Teale and Martinez (1989). In their description of a classroom context for reading and writing, these authors emphasise that it is the connections teachers make between what is being done in the classroom and reading and writing that is more important than the literacy activities themselves.

This study draws on knowledge about beginning reading instruction, the pedagogy of the literacy environment and factors associated with withdrawal from the classroom for supplemental reading programs, as it analyses the understandings and beliefs about reading and writing held by the children under study. It was anticipated that an investigation of these factors in the two instructional settings, Reading Recovery and the regular classroom, would show some connections and disconnections between the two settings and reveal links between how children 'do literacy' in each setting (and their perceptions of literacy).

CHAPTER THREE

Methodology

This chapter examines the methods and strategies used to collect, record and analyse the data obtained during observation of the four children under study.

The aim of this research project was to determine how children who take part in Reading Recovery 'do' literacy and how they perceive their literacy instruction. The following three questions were formulated to guide this research:

1. How do four children who take part in a Reading Recovery program 'do' literacy in a) the regular classroom and b) in Reading Recovery?
2. What are the similarities and differences in the ways in which these children do literacy in the classroom and Reading Recovery settings?
3. What perceptions do these four children have about doing literacy?

Research Site

The research took place in a South Australian R-7 school in a metropolitan area approximately 6 kilometres from the CBD. The site was a Catholic Parish school with an enrolment of 250 children.

Research Participants

The participants were four Year One children, the classroom teacher and the Reading Recovery teacher. The school site began implementation of the Reading Recovery program in the year of this study. Accordingly, the Reading Recovery teacher (myself) was still being trained in Reading Recovery while this study was undertaken. The four research participants were Year One children who were considered 'at risk' in their literacy development. In order to select children for inclusion in the Reading Recovery program the Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement (Clay, 1994) was

administered to the 8 lowest performing children in Year One. Subsequently, the lowest achieving four children from this pool were chosen for inclusion in the program. In order to make a study of these children, permission was obtained from their parents and the voluntary nature of participation was explained.

The Four Children.

Details of each child's Observation Survey, reading and writing behaviours and literacy-related behaviours can be found in Appendix 3a.

Tyson had completed three terms of Reception and two terms of Year One before he commenced Reading Recovery in term 3. He had been in the program for approximately 6 weeks at the time of observation. He commenced the program reading texts at instructional level 2 (a description of text levels can be found in Chapter 2) and showed a strong tendency to construct the story from pictures and a sense of story language but did not attend to print. His sight word vocabulary consisted of only one word word, *a*. At the time of the study Tyson had progressed to instructional text level 9. At this time he demonstrated understanding that reading requires drawing on multiple cue sources to reconstruct the message in texts but when reading became difficult he tended to neglect letter information beyond the initial letter of a word. His class teacher stated that Tyson had commenced Year One with little knowledge about "how words work" and that he did not understand that print contained a message. She believed that Tyson had become more enthusiastic since commencing Reading Recovery and he had started learning strategies like "stretching words out to hear sounds" and had begun to recognise more words. It was anticipated that he would be discontinued from the program when reaching level 17.

Jesse had completed three terms of Reception and two terms in Year One before he commenced Reading Recovery early in term three. He had been in the program for approximately 6 weeks at the time of observation. He began the program reading texts at instructional level 1. He had a sight vocabulary of seven high frequency words and could write several of these correctly. When reading he tended to rely on cues of meaning and structure but did not attend to print, other than sometimes using the initial letter to make a guess at words. At the time of the study he was reading texts at instructional level 8 and, although he was attending to print, still tended to rely on meaning and structure cues when reading became difficult. His class teacher said that Jesse had begun the school year with “seemingly no idea about sounds and letters and what they represented” but at the time of the study she had seen a slight improvement in Jesse’s ability to use letters and sounds. It was anticipated that Jesse would reach level 17 before being discontinued from the program.

Brad had completed three terms of Reception and two terms of Year One before commencing Reading Recovery in term three. He had been in the program for approximately 8 weeks at the time of the study. At the commencement of the program an instructional level of text was not able to be obtained for Brad. He was able to read one previously seen level 1 text with 97% accuracy, however other level 1 texts were read below 90% accuracy. He demonstrated confusion with many letters and lacked control over one to one matching of words when reading. When attempting to read texts he constructed a story from the pictures, but did not engage with the print. At the time of the study Brad had progressed to texts at instructional level 5. He had developed a small sight vocabulary and with prompting, was able to attend to some details in print. Brad’s classroom teacher was concerned with Brad’s lack of confidence and reluctance to attempt tasks. She stated that Brad’s confidence had been boosted by going to

Reading Recovery and that, at the time of the study Brad was “showing evidence of attempting to read and write some words.”

Robert had completed six terms of Reception and two terms of Year One when he commenced Reading Recovery. He was reading texts at instructional level 8 when he entered the program, but his teacher was concerned that he had not shown a great deal of progress since the beginning of the year and that, having had six terms of Reception, Robert’s reading level should have been higher. At the commencement of the program Robert’s reading showed an understanding of needing to draw on multiple cue sources to reconstruct the text, but his use of meaning cues was poor and he relied on using partial print cues, though often ineffectively. At the time of the study Robert had been in the program for approximately 10 weeks. His instructional text level had increased rapidly to level 16, but when reading became difficult he still had a tendency to neglect meaning and structure and rely on an ineffective use of visual cues, that is, poor word analysis skills. It was anticipated that Robert would be discontinued from the program when reaching instructional level 18.

Although she was not the focus of the study, the classroom teacher, Tracy West, was interviewed about her approach to teaching literacy and this information was used in the analysis of the children’s’ perceptions about literacy (see Chapter 4). Mrs West was a junior primary teacher of 15 years experience who had been teaching Year One at this research site for the past 6 years. During this time she had attended school based professional development on National Statements and Profiles and First Steps:Reading. Similarly, views on teaching literacy in Reading Recovery are also presented by myself, Marie Thomas, the Reading Recovery teacher. I had also been teaching for 15 years though was not a junior primary specialist. In recent years I had been working with small groups of children who were experiencing reading difficulties in Years One to

Three. At the time of this study I was in my year of training in Reading Recovery and had completed three quarters of the training program.

Research Method

Case study is a method that has a long history in educational research. It typically involves the observation of the characteristics of an individual unit, e.g., a student, a class, a school or a community. Case study is defined by Merriam (1988) as "an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single entity, phenomenon, or social unit." She goes on to describe case studies as, "particularistic, descriptive, and heuristic and rely heavily on inductive reasoning" (p. 16). A case study is particularistic because it focuses on an individual unit, as previously mentioned. It is descriptive in that it "draws a picture in words of something tangible: a classroom, a school, a system (Bassey, 1999, p. 87). It is heuristic in that it has the power to "illuminate the reader's understanding of the phenomenon under study" (Merriam, 1988, p. 13). Case studies utilize inductive reasoning since new understandings, concepts, and relationships arise from studying the data (Merriam, 1988). Case study is, according to Yin (1994), enquiry in a real life context "especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (p. 13).

A case study approach was chosen as it aims to understand in depth the particular individuals under study in their everyday school settings, in this study the regular classroom and Reading Recovery room. This type of qualitative methodology is based on the premise that the thoughts, feelings and perceptions of its informants are vital, as these form the basis of informants' behaviour. As some of the behaviours of the children in this study are observed, a qualitative method such as case study is necessary in gaining access to individual meanings. Such methodology attempts to "capture and understand individual definitions, descriptions and meanings of events" (Burns, 1997,

p.292). Case studies also provide the potential to establish generalisations about the wider population to which the units of study belong (Burns, 1997). Case studies require multiple sources of evidence in order to corroborate evidence from various sources.

In order to address the research questions of this study a variety of data collection methods was employed. These included participant observation; audio and video tape recording in the classroom and Reading Recovery room; semi-structured interviews with the children under study, an interview with the classroom teacher, collection of children's work samples and teacher assessments. Because the Reading Recovery Teacher was the researcher an interview such as with the classroom teacher was not thought to be appropriate. I reflected on the issues asked of the classroom teacher and some of my beliefs are presented in Chapter 4. In the Reading Recovery setting my role was one of participant observer, so to minimise the effects of this situation, lessons in the Reading Recovery room were videotaped and viewed later for data collection and analysis by myself and another teacher.

The study aimed to elicit young children's perceptions of reading and so required engaging them in semi-structured interviews. Such interviews allow for depth to be achieved by providing the interviewer with the opportunity to probe the subjects' responses. Although the interviewer asks the same questions of each of the children, the order of the questions can be varied in order to probe more deeply and to prevent anticipation of questions (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995, p. 157). Other research studies of early school literacy have used semi-structured interviews in order to elicit children's perceptions of reading and writing. Strommen and Mates (1997) explored young children's ideas about the nature of reading by asking open ended questions. Hill, Comber, Loudon, Rivalland and Reid (1998) explored the connections between literacy development prior to school and in the first year of formal schooling. Along with

quantitative measures, their use of semi-structured interviews with young children enabled a “fine grained description and analysis of the....school experiences” (p. 4) of the children under study. In the present study particular attention was paid to the subjects’ statements and actions that indicated their evolving perceptions of reading and writing in both the classroom and Reading Recovery. The focus was on documenting the subjects’ experience as it was substantiated in talk and overt reading and writing actions. In using the case study approach for this investigation the focus was on the case in its idiosyncratic complexity, not on the whole population of cases (Burns, 1997).

The research questions are set out below in order to show how they were addressed by this research design and the data sources accessed.

Research question 1.

How do four children who take part in a Reading Recovery program ‘do’ literacy in the classroom and in the Reading Recovery settings?

- Semi-structured interviews (Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire, Appendix 3a) were used to gain information about children’s perceptions of what reading is and what it is for.
- Non-participant observation was carried out in the classroom to gain information about how the children went about the literacy tasks. Children were videotaped while engaging in literacy lessons and observations of their behaviour were made for later analysis. Children in the Reading Recovery room were also videotaped but, as the researcher/interviewer was the Reading Recovery teacher, non-participant observation was not possible. The videotape was viewed later for observation of children’s behaviour while they engaged in the Reading Recovery lesson.
- As the children worked on classroom literacy tasks the interviewer asked questions such as, “What are you doing?”, and, “Why are you doing that?” This was to

provide further insight into how the children perceived literacy and the tasks they were required to engage in.

- The Observation Survey (Clay, 1993) provided information about how the children searched for information in printed texts and how they worked with that information at the commencement of their Reading Recovery program. This survey includes tasks that require children to show their letter knowledge, word recognition, concepts about print, ability to hear and record sounds in words, their writing vocabulary, and how they go about reading connected text. (See Appendix 3a). The field notes generated by observation of the children were used to show whether children were using what they knew in both settings.
- Children's work samples from the observed lessons, such as worksheets and writing samples, were collected. These provided information about their performance on literacy tasks, such as what skills and understandings they were able to transfer to new tasks.(See Appendix 3b)
- Oral reading samples in both settings were analysed by way of a running record to shed light on the cues that were used and neglected by the readers and which strategies were being brought to the act of reading. Analysis of the information sources being drawn upon or neglected when reading provided further insights into the child's perceptions of reading. (See Appendix 3c)

Research question 2.

What are the similarities and differences in the ways in which these children do literacy in the classroom and Reading Recovery settings?

- Data gathered in answer to Question One was used and similarities and differences in how the children used their reading and writing ability, as well as how they interacted within the context of both settings were noted and categorised.

Research question 3.

What perceptions do these four children have about doing literacy?

- Observation and recording of children in both settings as they went about their literacy tasks provided information to help answer this research question. Asking children about what they were doing and why they were doing it also provided some insights into children's perceptions about literacy and how these related to the way they engaged in tasks.
- The Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire provided information about children's perceptions of reading and what reading was for.

The data collection procedures are summarised in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1. Summary of Data Collection Procedures

Task	Data Collected	Analyses conducted
Observation Survey (See Appendix 3a)	Letter recognition Word recognition Concepts about print Writing vocabulary Hearing and recording sounds in words Running records (show how cues are used in reading connected text)	Showed how subjects search for information in printed texts and how they work with this information.
Interviews with subjects using semi-structured interview format (Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire. Appendix 3a)	Responses to interview questions.	Categorised according to emerging patterns in responses, eg. meaning related, decoding related.
Non-participant observation of subjects in the classroom setting. Subjects observed in the daily classroom 2 hour literacy block twice within the same week.	Fieldnotes describing subjects' actions during literacy lessons. Transcripts of subjects' talk.	Children's talk and actions analysed. Data coded according to emerging patterns. Patterns for each subject determined.
Participant observation of subjects in withdrawal	Fieldnotes describing subjects' actions during lessons (from	Talk and actions analysed from recorded lessons.

room setting.	viewing video of lesson.)	
Observation of each 30 min Reading Recovery session for the 4 subjects on 2 separate occasions within the same week.	Transcripts of subjects' talk.	
Collection of samples of work completed during the observed classroom and withdrawal room lessons	Samples of subjects' writing, response to reading activities and activity sheets. Running records or oral reading	Analysed according to the skills and understandings shown by subject eg, applying phonic knowledge to writing tasks. Analysed according to miscue and strategy patterns, eg, which cues were used and which were neglected
Collection of classroom teacher's literacy assessment tasks	Samples of work used for assessment by the classroom teacher	As above
Semi-structured interview with classroom teacher	Teacher's philosophy and approach to teaching reading. Teacher's perceptions of the subjects as learners.	Analysed according to approaches to teaching reading, eg, meaning centred, skills based, interactive.

Data Collection

Qualitative research focuses upon natural, ordinary, routine everyday situations (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995, p. 116). In order for the data for this study to be collected within the normal activities of the two settings, the children were observed during their timetabled literacy sessions, with the teachers carrying out their usual literacy program.

The data collection took place during term 3 of 1999. Initially, I made several visits to the children's classroom during their literacy time to observe the contexts set up by the teacher for literacy learning events. This also allowed for the class members to become familiar with the presence of both myself and the video camera. It was also hoped that these visits would reduce any inhibitions felt on the part of the teacher and children so that interactions during literacy activities would proceed in the usual way. Similarly, the video camera was set up in the Reading Recovery room for several sessions prior to data collection. During this period I conducted an interview with the classroom teacher to determine her philosophy and approach to teaching reading. As well as this I asked the teacher about her perceptions of the participants as learners and her views on their progress and development in literacy. These interviews were audiotaped and conducted during non-instructional time.

The Observation Survey had already been administered to the four targeted children at the commencement of their Reading Recovery program by myself and this information provided a picture of the children's literacy skills and knowledge prior to intervention. Prior to beginning the classroom and Reading Recovery room observations, I interviewed the children about their understanding of Reading using questions 1-7 of the Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire (Appendix 3a).

Observations for data collection were made over two sessions in each setting, classroom and withdrawal room. In the classroom, children were observed during timetabled literacy lessons. An observation proforma was used to aid this (Appendix 3d). A video camera was also set up in the classroom in order to tape the subjects' visible interactions and was used for later analysis. The focus children were asked questions such as, "What are you doing now"/ "Why are you doing that?". Their responses to these questions were audiotaped and later transcribed for analysis. Copies

of the children's writing samples and worksheets completed during observation sessions were collected, along with the teacher's running records of the children's reading in the classroom.

Observations of children in the Reading Recovery room were videotaped and audiotaped and children's running records and writing samples were collected. As I was both the researcher and Reading Recovery teacher, this one-to-one setting prohibited me from asking the same questions as in the classroom setting. In the classroom setting, I took the role of non-participant observer and so it was appropriate for me to visit each of the children as they worked on their set tasks and ask them to talk about what they were doing. In a Reading Recovery lesson children are not set tasks to be completed independently. As children read their texts and write their sentences the teacher constantly interacts with them asking questions to prompt them to solve reading and writing of unfamiliar words. The interaction between the teacher and child in a Reading Recovery lesson is crucial to meeting the aims of each lesson and asking the questions, "What are you doing and why?", would be disruptive to the flow of the lesson. Therefore my questioning proceeded as in a usual Reading Recovery lesson where children are prompted to use a variety of information sources to gain meaning from the text, for example, "What did you say in that sentence that didn't sound right?", "What would make sense there?" Because of my dual role, a later viewing of the videotaped lessons allowed for some distancing and enabled a more detached analysis of the children's engagement in this setting. Another teacher also viewed the material at this time.

From this data, extensive notes were written for each of the four participants, describing their strengths and weaknesses in reading and writing, their interactions with literacy tasks and their responses to the pedagogy of both settings.

Data Analysis

The analysis process consisted of a number of phases. These are outlined in Table 3.2. As pointed out by Hitchcock and Hughes (1995, p. 296), data analysis is not altogether a separate process in qualitative research and some form of analysis takes place simultaneously with data collection. The first phase of analysis took place during fieldwork when field notes of lesson observations were taken. Interpretations of observations were made and these assisted in drawing general conclusions and thinking about how to make sense of the information being collected.

During the second phase, the start of the more formal analysis, field notes and transcripts were scanned for patterns, themes and consistencies. For example, children's responses to the Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire were categorised according to emerging themes of how they perceived reading. At this stage, notes were written for each child in the categories of Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire; Observation Survey; Observations of Child's Reading Recovery Lessons; Observations of Child in Classroom Literacy Lessons.

During the third phase of analysis all data was closely perused and organised so that comparisons, contrasts and insights could be made. Codes and categories then emerged from the data and were identified. Data was analysed in terms of what it demonstrated about the children's perceptions of the reading and writing tasks they were involved in. Information was also analysed in terms of how children "did" literacy. This stage of analysis involved organising all field notes and transcripts and comparing and contrasting in detail all the information gathered. The categories that emerged from the Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire were then used to categorise children's responses to interview questions during classroom literacy lessons. Transcripts of these interviews

were examined for pattern development and responses that did not fit into Bruinsma categories were given their own category.

The fourth phase involved scrutinising classroom observation field notes and videotapes for the development of patterns in children's behaviour. As categories emerged, these were tallied for frequencies and amount of time spent in each identified behaviour. For the purpose of inter-rater reliability these categories and the tallies were checked with the classroom teacher, who also scrutinised the fieldnotes and videotape. Videotape of the children in their Reading Recovery lessons was also examined and coded according to categories of behaviour. This was done by noting patterns of behaviour during the lessons and then categorising them. The classroom teacher was also involved in the viewing of the taped Reading Recovery lessons and crosschecked with the researcher her interpretations of behaviours and categories. At this stage patterns emerged as to the children's on-task behaviour, how they engaged in the literacy lessons and how they coped when experiencing difficulties. Therefore, behaviour was categorised as 'attention to task', 'participation/engagement in literacy activity', and 'coping behaviour'.

In the fifth phase the data was further analysed according to the children's literacy use during the classroom and Reading Recovery lesson. Notes were written from fieldnotes and video observation on the ways each child used their literacy knowledge in both settings. Categories emerged and descriptions were written about each child's reading of connected text, reading of words in isolation and writing connected text. In the sixth phase of analysis comparisons were made as to how children "did" literacy in the classroom and Reading Recovery room, and how they used their literacy knowledge in both these settings. Table 3.2 provides an outline of the phases of data analysis.

Table 3.2. Phases of Data Analysis

Phases of Analysis	Data Sources
Phase 1. Observation of children in classroom and Reading Recovery. Began formulating how to organise information, ie, how the children attended to set tasks and how they coped at difficulties.	Field notes generated by a) watching children as they interacted in the learning environment, with others and with the literacy tasks and b) recording their responses to the interview questions.
Phase 2. Case notes written for each child under the headings of : Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire, Observation Survey, Classroom literacy lessons, Observation of Reading Recovery lessons. Data scanned for patterns, themes and consistencies.	Transcripts of interview questions in the classroom. Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire. Observation Survey. Field notes.
Phase 3. Data analysed for children's perceptions of the reading and writing tasks they were involved in. Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire categories used to categorise responses to interview questions.	Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire. Transcripts and observation field notes.
Phase 4. Data scrutinised for patterns in children's behaviour in both settings. Behaviours tallied for frequencies and placed into three categories: attention to task, participation/engagement in task	Classroom and Reading Recovery lesson field notes and videotapes.

and coping behaviour.

Phase 5. Data scrutinised for use of letter-sound and word knowledge. Data analysed in terms of how the children used their letter-sound and word knowledge to read words in isolation, in connected text and to write connected text.	Observation Survey Reading and writing tasks in both settings Running records Samples of writing
Phase 6. Comparisons of behaviours and use of literacy knowledge in both settings. Children's behaviours became known as 'Literacy Related Behaviours'. Use of literacy knowledge became known as 'Reading and Writing Behaviours'. Both these categories were compared across settings.	Patterns of behaviour categorised in previous phases. Observation of children's reading and writing behaviours. Running records Writing samples

By describing the steps taken during data collection and analysis, I have created an audit trail. Although personal bias by the investigator is problematic in a case study approach and personal views may influence the direction of the findings (Burns, 1997) the description of data collection and analysis procedures would enable others to replicate this study.

Ethical Considerations

Most educational case data gathering involves at least a small invasion of privacy (Stake, p. 57, 1995). Therefore permission was obtained from all participants. Letters of consent outlining the purpose of the study and the requirements on the part of the participants were signed by all participants including the school principal, classroom teacher, and parents of the children under study. (See Appendices, 3e, 3f and 3g.)

The data was collected by way of field notes, video and audiotape. The classroom teacher was informed of the taping and invited to sight the transcripts of the tapes and withdraw any part of the transcript. The featuring of actual accounts, words and stories of participants in case study research requires safeguarding the rights and confidentiality of the subjects (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995). Therefore, pseudonyms were used to protect the anonymity of the school, teachers and children participating in the study.

Limitations

A major limitation of the case study approach is that its findings provide little evidence for generalisation to the wider population. Each school's demographic make-up is different with differing focuses on curriculum and more particularly how beginning reading instruction is organised. Thus, the problems of inference from a small sample leaves uncertainties about what to expect from children's interactions in a different class or setting. However, the purpose of case study is to focus on the "circumstantial uniqueness and not on the obscurities of mass representation" (Burns, 1997). Another limitation relates to possible difficulties for Year One children in articulating their beliefs and perceptions of reading. To this end, a range of instruments were used to accomplish triangulation of data. A further concern was the potential for bias as the researcher's role was one of participant-observer in the Reading Recovery setting. To allow for the necessary detachment in making observations, the researcher viewed the videotaped Reading Recovery lessons and made transcripts from these for later analysis. Another teacher also viewed the videotaped lessons, read the transcripts that were made from them and cross-checked the analysis with the researcher. A further limitation was that the Reading Recovery teacher was in her first year of training and may not have been as effective as a more experienced teacher of Reading Recovery.

Another limiting factor was that the children were not interviewed in the Reading Recovery setting in the same way that they were in the classroom setting.

Timeline of the Research Program

In term 3, interviews were conducted with the class teacher and the participating children. Preliminary observations of the classroom and Reading Recovery settings began in term 3 and data collection took place in term 4 of the school year.

Chapter 4 will provide a description of the Reading Recovery and classroom settings as well as some analysis of the lessons provided in both these settings.

CHAPTER FOUR

The Reading Recovery and Classroom Settings

This chapter provides a description of the two learning environments including some transcripts and analyses of the two teachers' lessons.

Description of the Two Settings

Classroom setting.

The four focus children belonged to a Year One class of 30 children. Although the class contained children of a number of different ethnicities there were no children designated as ESL learners for the purposes of funding. One class member was designated a Special Needs child.

The desks were arranged into four large groups able to seat eight children each. The blackboard was the central focus of the classroom and between the blackboard and the groups was an area of floor space (*the mat*) where the children sat for lesson introductions.

The room featured a great deal of children's art work, some children's work on measurement and some children's writing (recount of an excursion). There were several teacher made, phonic based word lists posted around the room as well as commercially produced alphabet and number charts. A "Show and Tell" roster and spelling groups chart were posted in a prominent position. A section of the blackboard contained instructions for items needed from storage trays, for example, "You will need:

- Environmental studies book
- Story writing book
- Spelling homework
- Lead pencil

- Coloured pencils

As children arrived in the morning, parents busied themselves with reading the daily requirements and organising their children's books on their desks. Those children who were unaccompanied by a parent seemed to ask someone else what they needed and went about organising their materials.

At the entrance to the room was a small box containing the name cards of children who would read to a parent that day. If there were enough parent volunteers, each child would read to a parent once a week. When the bell rang at 8.50 a.m. a parent began organising children to read to her. The rest of the class seated themselves on the mat facing the blackboard in their designated spot.

The interview with the children's classroom teacher, Mrs West, provided insights into her beliefs and approach to teaching literacy. It was not easy to determine one clear methodological approach to literacy by Mrs West. Some comments would appear to indicate a 'whole language' approach as she stated that children should be immersed in language and that she used the shared experiences of the class to generate reading and writing activities. When asked how she taught phonic knowledge, her comment, "Looking at big books with those particular sounds..." also tended to indicate an implicit and contextualised approach to phonics. However, this did not seem to be a consistent approach as she then talked about how a new phonic focus was introduced, "We actually just look at a sound and then brainstorm as many words that we can think of that start with that sound...". This approach and her description of the ensuing activities would not appear to stem from a context or a "language experience". In talking about the four children's literacy development, Mrs West often referred to their ability to "sound out" and appeared to use this as a measure of their reading ability, as she referred to Robert's reading improvement in terms of his increased ability to sound

words out. Her approach to teaching literacy can be seen in the following example of her literacy lessons.

Example of classroom literacy lesson.

The following is an example of one lesson introduction using the story “Stone Soup”. See Appendix 4a for the full text of “Stone Soup”. See Appendix 4b for the student worksheet used in this lesson.

Lesson one: Retelling the story of “Stone Soup”

TW = Tracy West (teacher)

C: = Child

TW: Legs crossed, hands in laps. OK, this is called “Stone Soup” and it’s written by Anne McGovern. See why does this have an *M* here? It’s a book from the library.

C1: Because it goes on the *M* shelf?

TW: Why does it go in the *M* shelf?

C1: Because the last name starts with *M*.

TW: Good girl. The last name, Anne McGovern and that starts with an *M*, so it goes on the *M* shelf because that’s the first letter of the last name.

Mrs West then read the story. When she had finished she began the following questioning:

TW: So, who’d like to tell us what happened in that story?

C2: A young man goes down the road and he comes to a little house and says I’m hungry.

TW: Hmm, OK. So what else? Shane?

C3: The lady said she didn’t have anything to eat.

TW: Yes. But where did she end up getting the vegetables from?

C3: Umm, from the, umm, I can't remember.

TW: From the garden. What else happened in the story? Tyson?

C4: Umm, they put in some rocks.

TW: You mean the stone. Yes. Do you think it was the stone that make the soup really beautiful and delicious?

C4: No.

TW: What do you think?

C4: Umm, all the food.

TW: Do you think the food?. OK Well how do think he started with the stone then?

C4: I don't know.

TW: Not sure? Can anyone help? Why do you think the young man who was very hungry started off his soup with a stone?

C5: Because, to make the soup bubbly.

TW: To make the soup bubbly, OK. Has anyone else got a reason why you think the young man might have started off his soup with a stone? Jesse.

Mrs West continued asking children for their contributions and steered their responses to the significance of the stone in "Stone Soup". After responses from 9 more students she moved into the next phase of the lesson.

TW: OK, alright, good. People, what you need to do now, is we're going to actually write up some of the ingredients that were used to make stone soup. What you need to do after that. [She reprimands a child for not listening.] On this sheet it says *Stone soup is written as a play*. But our book wasn't actually as a play, it was a story. Rewrite it as a story and put it in your own words. You've got the front and you can turn over to the back as well. What you need to do now is to

write your own story using what you remember from the book, your own way of writing Stone Soup in your own words.

C14: Do you have to write the title?

TW: You can write the title, that would be a very good idea, and I'll put the author's name on the blackboard. You can even write the author's name. But first what we must do is list some of the ingredients on the blackboard so that you can use them in your story. OK who can tell me what was one of the first things that was put into the soup?

C15: Stone?

TW: Stone. Tyson, are you thinking? I'd like you to give me answer soon.

TW: Who can remember what came next?

C16: Onion.

TW: Onion.

Mrs West continued eliciting ingredients from the soup and writing them on the blackboard. After each child made their contribution she repeated it and wrote it on the blackboard. She then moved into the next phase of the lesson.

TW: OK who can tell me how they might start their story off? If you are going to write the "Stone Soup" story in your words how would you start it off? Tyson, how would you start your story off?

C20: Different.

TW: How?

C20: Umm, with different words.

TW: And tell me some of the words you might use.

C20: Umm, One day this man saw a house and he was very hungry and he made some soup to eat.

TW: Alright that's a great start. One day this man saw this, a house and he was very hungry. Excellent stuff. That lets me know what's going on and what might happen in the story. Who can tell us about a different way they might start the story? Brad, what about your story?

Mrs West asked several more children for their story beginning and then continued.

TW: Right. Good. Now I'm going to give you a sheet in just a minute. Now you need to put your name and date on the top of this sheet. Put your title and the author's name, Anne McGovern, and then write the story of stone soup in your own words.

The children returned to their desks to complete the task. This lesson introduction took 12 minutes. When it was finished the children sat in groups of desks that allowed for interaction with one another. While the children worked on the task there was a high level of working noise. A lot of the noise appeared to be children chatting to each other while they worked. Children moved around the room to borrow coloured pencils from classmates and called out to each other from group to group. Mrs West sometimes called a child by name and asked for the noise level to be kept down. When she wanted the attention of the whole class she rang a small bell and the children were generally compliant in this 'stop, look and listen' routine. As the children worked, Mrs West moved around the groups offering assistance and marking children's work 'over the shoulder'.

When Mrs West spent time on a lesson conclusion (many lessons did not incorporate this element as they had to be stopped for LOTE, Computing, Music, etc) it took the form of children bringing their work to the mat and being asked to "share" it. They were invited to raise their hands if they wanted to share and Mrs West selected those who then read their work, one by one to the rest of the class. During observations of 'mat

time' before and after lessons, there did not appear to be any significant management problems. The children in this class seemed to know the classroom rules such as, "Legs crossed, hands in lap, eyes to the front." While on the mat, children sat in three rows, each child having his/her own place in the line. Mrs West had determined place arrangements based on how the children interacted with each other. That is, if children were likely to chat to one another they were placed apart.

The majority of the classroom teacher's lesson introductions were in the style of the *pedagogy of literacy lessons* (Anstey, p. 92, 1996). They were focused on the task and the worksheet so that the focus of the lesson appeared to be 'doing the literacy task' rather than learning about the literacy requirements of the task and the utility of the literacy learning. In these introductions, the teacher-child exchanges had more to do with the functions and procedures of a literacy lesson than the teaching of literacy skills. For example, in the retelling of the traditional tale, "Stone Soup", the children's attention was drawn to the text in that it had an author and an illustrator, but the text was not referred to as a particular genre that has its own purpose, structure and language features. A lengthy question and answer exchange took place in this introduction to retelling the story with an emphasis on what happened in the story. There did not appear to be any explicit instruction or modelling on how to write a 'retell'. When Tyson was asked how he would begin his story he said, "Different...different words." He had understood the instruction that the story must be written "in your own words" and that he must use "different words" to that of the text, but he did not appear to understand that he was being asked to begin retelling the story.

In one observed lesson in which the task was to complete a worksheet with the instructions, "Read the sentence and circle the matching picture", Mrs West emphasised the need to "read the instructions" and "read the sentences". She reiterated these

statements as being how to complete the task. She did not mention skills or strategies which may have helped in reading the sentences, such as what to do when encountering an unfamiliar word.

On another occasion, Mrs West introduced a lesson designed to teach the letter string *ing*, by saying, “We’re going to make an *ing* booklet.” She showed the children the A4 worksheet that was divided into four sections. She then gave a detailed explanation of how to complete each of the four sections of the booklet that contained instructions. She read the sentence on the fourth page of the booklet, “Draw a boy on a swing in spring”. The question-answer exchange that followed was based upon what would be included in a picture of a spring scene.

A lot of the teacher talk in these lessons was imperative, instructing children: “Read the instructions”, and, “Circle the answer.” Many of the verbs, for example, *put*, *list*, *circle*, *draw*, *copy*, *underline*, *unjumble*, seemed to emphasise how to get the task done rather than learning about the literacy requirements of the activity. The literacy lessons observed tended to be “closed” tasks rather than “open” tasks (Turner & Paris, 1995), in that either the product, the process or both were specified by the teacher. However, there was scope for some openness within the writing tasks in that children were required to compose their own thoughts within a given framework.

Reading Recovery setting.

The Reading Recovery room was situated just metres from the school office and had once been the church office. It was separated from the Year One classroom by a quadrangular playing area. The room contained two filing cabinets, a desk and a round table with three chairs. One of the walls was lined with cupboards and on top of these were book boxes labelled with text levels. Ms Thomas and the child worked at the round table which leant against a wall directly in front of where the teacher sat. Pinned

to the wall were various sheets of information such as “New Zealand Stanine Score Summary Sheet”, “Calculation and Conversion Table” “Prompts for Readers”. The other walls featured some pieces of children’s writing, drawing, teacher made high frequency word cards and some colourful posters. On the table was a tray containing strips of paper, coloured Textas, scissors, some white adhesive tape and some plastic counters. On the cupboard above the table were four book boxes each labelled with the names of the four children (Brad, Jesse, Robert and Tyson) currently involved in Reading Recovery. The boxes contained familiar books recently read by the children as well as a scrapbook used for their writing. To the right of the table was a magnetic white board on a stand with a tray of coloured magnetic letters beside it.

The Reading Recovery Teacher, Marie Thomas, was in her first year of Reading Recovery training at the time of the study. She had completed three of her four terms of training and her approach to literacy teaching and learning was mostly in line with Reading Recovery theory and practices. Before undertaking the Reading Recovery training she had worked with small groups of poor readers in a withdrawal setting. She had used a meaning-centred approach to teaching reading but also believed that children’s letter-sound knowledge was crucial to their literacy development. She felt comfortable with the theoretical underpinnings of Reading Recovery but sometimes felt that children needed more explicit work in phonological awareness than the 30 minute Reading Recovery lesson allowed.

At the beginning of the school day Ms Thomas went to the Year One classroom to collect Jesse, her first child for the day. As they walked back to the Reading Recovery room they chatted and when inside Jesse sat down in the chair, to the right of Ms Thomas. In front of her were two pieces of paper side by side. One was her lesson plan pro forma and the other was a standard Reading Recovery running record sheet. She

began the lesson by offering Jesse a choice of three familiar books to read and began to make notes as he read.

The following is a transcript of one of the observed Reading Recovery lessons.

MT = Marie Thomas (teacher)

J = Jesse

MT: OK Jesse, choose a book to read.

[Jesse proceeded to read the book. He read two pages and made a miscue which he self corrected.]

MT: Good reading, Jesse, you checked that mistake and you fixed it.

[Jesse read several more pages and made another miscue]

MT: There's something not quite right on that line there.

[Jesse located the error.]

MT: That's it Jesse.

[Jesse proceeded to the end of book.]

MT: Well done Jesse, that was good reading.

J: No mistakes, except a couple of mistakes and I fixed 'em.

MT: And that's what good readers do.

MT: Are you ready for "A lucky Day For Little Dinosaur"?

[Jesse nodded.]

Jesse read this book while Ms Thomas took a running record of his reading. While Jesse read, Ms Thomas did not offer any assistance. She looked at the running record sheet and the book Jesse was reading but did not have eye contact with him. When he had read approximately 150 words she asked Jesse to stop and then returned to several of his miscues.

MT: Let's just go back here. You said, "He ran to look *over* eggs". Does that look like *over*?

J: No.

MT: What could it be?

J: Umm, *for*.

MT: How do you know it's *for*?

J: 'Cos it's got a *f* first.

In the Making and Breaking component of the lesson at the magnetic board, Ms Thomas worked with Jesse on adding the suffixes *ed* and *ing* to *look*. After making *looked* she asked him to make *looking*.

MT: "OK, now what if you wanted to make *looking*? How could you change it to looking?"

J: "i?"

MT: "I don't know, I'm asking you."

[Jesse then substituted the *e* in looked for an *i* so the word read, *lookid*.]

MT: That says *look - id*. I want you to make *looking*.

J: Oh, I know a *n* and a *g*. [Jesse found these two letters and made the word, *looking*.]

MT: "That's good, you've made *looking*. If you know how to add *ing* and *ed* it will help you to write and read new words."

During the writing component of the lesson Ms Thomas and Jesse worked on his sentences, *On my Nintendo I played Zelda. It's very hard to win*. Jesse had written *on my* independently and when Ms Thomas syllabified "Nintendo" for him he also managed to record the correct letters for each sound of the word. He then attempted the next word, *played*.

J: *Played*.

MT: *Played*. OK let's have a look at that word. [She proceeded to draw sound boxes on his practice page. She pointed to the sound box for *ay* and *ed*]. The dotted line means that there's one sound but it has two letters. Ready to listen to this Jesse? [She then moved a counter into each box while segmenting the phonemes in *played*.]

You try.

Jesse did this successfully.

MT: Now put in what you'd expect to see.

J: *P*...which way does a *p* go again?

MT: That way.

Jesse wrote in, *p - l - a - d*. Ms Thomas explained the *ay* and then referred to the *ed* in *looked* to link it to the *ed* in *played*.

MT: OK now read what you've got.

J: On my Nintendo I played Zelda.

MT: Do you know how to spell Zelda?

J: Yeah it's on the box but I don't know if I should say Mink or Zelda 'cos his second name is, his first name's actually Mink.

MT: Well we'll try Zelda. [While Ms Thomas was saying this Jesse continued to speak.]

J: And he's a kid, and he goes... [Unable to decipher what Jesse is saying on tape]

MT: Oh I see, well, have a look at this.

Ms Thomas drew sound boxes for the word *Zelda* while Jesse continued speaking about the game. She pointed to the sound boxes and Jesse persisted with the explanation of the game.

MT: Ready? *Z - e - l - d - a*.

Jesse continued talking about the game.

MT: Stop talking and listen to this. [She segmented each sound again.]

J: I know what the last letter is.

MT: OK, put the last letter in the box.

They continued to work on hearing and recording the sounds in *Zelda* and progressed with the rest of the story. Jesse wrote independently the words, *on, my, I, it's very, to, win*. Ms Thomas used sound boxes to help Jesse with *Zelda* and *played*. She used analogy to link the suffix of *played* with *liked*. She told Jesse which two letters he needed to make the *ar* sound in *hard*.

Ms Thomas then introduced Jesse's new book, "Snowy Gets A Wash" which features a white teddy bear that has turned grey because of being played with in the garden.

MT: And the water starts going grey because of all the dirt [turns page]. They string him upon the line to dry [turns page] and look, Snowy dries and then he's white again.

J: Does that say *dries*, *Snowy dries*? [Jesse points to the words]

MT: Yes it does.

Ms Thomas then turned to the beginning of the book and Jesse began reading.

J: *Nick.....* [Jesse scanned the page of text] Oh this is hard. There's a lot of writing. [He laughed].

MT: I don't think so. Let's start from the first page. We won't get it finished. We'll just read a few pages.

J: Umm... *Nick liked...*umm.

MT: Hmm, what could that word be? What does she like doing with Snowy?

J: Holding?

MT: Could that word be *holding*?

J: Nah it doesn't start with *h*.

MT: What does this word start with?

J: *P...playing.*

MT: Could that word be *playing*?

J: [Nods] *playing in the...umm...*

Ms Thomas and Jesse continued with the new book for a few more minutes before the teacher ended the lesson by saying, "I think we'll stop there. You did some good working out on that book. That's enough for today."

When the lesson with Jesse drew to a close he put the book from which his running record had been taken into a plastic wallet along with an envelope containing the cut up sentence. Ms Thomas asked him to reassemble his sentence and read his book for homework. He returned to the classroom on his own and it was his responsibility to ask the next child, Robert, to come over to the Reading Recovery room.

During the Reading Recovery lessons observed Ms Thomas worked with the child for the 30 minute period. There was no time when her attention was not focused on the child. During the lesson she wrote notes on her lesson plan describing the child's reading and writing behaviours, for example which cues he used and neglected when encountering difficulties. Both Ms Thomas and the child moved from their seats only once and that was to work at the magnetic board.

Analysis of Reading Recovery teacher's lesson interactions.

In this setting Ms Thomas made it clear that there was a need to be focused on the task at hand. She engaged in chat with the children when they entered the room, but kept it to a minimum during the lesson. One of the children, Jesse, demonstrated an inclination toward chatting during the lesson and it was to this child that most of her

management talk was directed. The observed Reading Recovery lessons demonstrated teacher talk that was focused on reading and writing processes, with the addition of some management talk.

Much of the talk in this setting was imperative, but there was also declarative dialogue, such as, “That’s it, you’ve got it”, “I’m glad to see you using a capital letter”, “*ar* is made of *a* and *r*”, “If you know how to add *ed* to a word it helps when you’re writing new words and reading”, “These two letters make the sound sh.” These statements contained specific information about how to engage in literacy processes. Material verbs were used in the Reading Recovery teacher’s dialogue (*put, write, read*) but there were also more mental/behavioural verbs (*try, help, think, like, tell, want, work out*) which emphasised the cognitive aspects of tasks and how to do them. The focus in this setting appeared to be on learning about literacy and the usefulness of literacy skills.

Some differences between the classroom and Reading Recovery contexts.

The format of the Reading Recovery lesson was very different to the classroom lessons as the one to one ratio of teacher to student allowed for constant ‘on task’ behaviour by both the teacher and child. The child was not set a task to complete independently to later be marked by the teacher so there was no formal lesson introduction. As the child worked through each of the lesson components Ms Thomas responded according to his needs and introduced him to new learning. She made decisions, based on the child’s responses and decided where to direct the child’s attention in order to get the greatest gain from the “next small step” (Clay, 1993, p.26). This differed greatly from the classroom environment of this study, where the 30 children were generally given a demonstration of how to complete an activity and were then required to do so independently. Thus the classroom teacher’s talk was more

focused on the task and the worksheet than that of the Reading Recovery teacher, as the former setting required that all children understood the requirements of the task in order to master them independently.

In the Reading Recovery setting the teacher's focus seemed to be on having the child use what he knew in order to solve difficulties and to reach new learning. The focus appeared to be on learning ways to read and write new words and on learning *about* literacy. In the classroom setting Ms Thomas' focus appeared to be on ensuring that the children paid careful attention to carrying out the procedures for literacy lessons and completed worksheets and tasks correctly. What appeared to count as literacy in this setting seemed to be learning how to *do* the literacy tasks and worksheets.

Chapter 4 has described the two literacy learning environments. Chapter 5 will present a description of each of the four children as they were observed in both these settings.

CHAPTER 5

Cases Studies of the Four Children

This chapter presents a vignette for each of the four children as they go about their literacy tasks in the classroom and the Reading Recovery setting. The retelling of the story “Stone Soup” is used as the focus for how the children work in the classroom setting. The transcript at the beginning of the section for “Tyson doing literacy in the classroom” is used as a reference for each of the children.

Tyson

Tyson ‘doing literacy’ in the classroom.

During lesson introductions all children were seated on the mat. Tyson’s ‘spot’ was at the end of the front row of children, closest to the door. The teacher, Tracy West, told the children that she would be reading them a story called “Stone Soup”. She asked several children to cross their legs and put their hands in their laps and then proceeded to read the story. During the reading Tyson looked in the Mrs West’s direction and appeared to be listening to the story. When the story was over and Mrs West began asking the children questions about it Tyson began to appear physically unsettled. He rocked on his bottom, rolled his head, looked in the direction of the doorway and played with his shoe laces. Mrs West gave Tyson notice that she would soon be asking him a question, at which point he sat still and gave attention to proceedings.

TW: What else happened in the story, Tyson?

Tyson: Umm, they put in some rocks?

TW: The stone. Do you think it was the stone made that soup really beautiful and delicious?

Tyson: (Pauses) No.

TW : What do you think?

Tyson: Umm, all the food.

TW: The food. OK. Why do you think he started with the stone then?

Tyson: I don't know.

TW: Not sure? Can anyone help? Why did the young man who was very hungry start off the soup with a stone?

After this question, exchanges with six more children took place in an attempt to gain the answer. Tyson was then asked again.

Tyson: To make it go faster.

TW: To make what go faster?

Tyson: The soup.

TW: To make the soup go faster? What... is it running?

Tyson: Yep.

TW: Is the soup running in a race or something?

The children laughed at this and Tyson put his fingers in his mouth, attempted a laugh and said "no".

TW: What do you mean "go faster", what's happening?

Tyson: Cook faster.

TW: Cook faster. That's better. Good word. You need to tell us all the words.

Mrs West continued to ask children for an answer as to why the man started the soup with a stone. After several more exchanges Mrs West began to explain what the children were to do next.

TW: OK. People. what you need to do now...in a moment we'll actually write up some of the ingredients that were in the stone soup. What you need to do after...Robert... eyes and ears this way please. You haven't been a very good listener this morning. You need to show me that you're listening very

well. On this sheet of paper it says, *Stone Soup is written as a play*. But ours wasn't actually a play. It was actually a story. *Rewrite it as a story and put it in your own words*. You've got the front and you can turn over to the back as well. What you need to do now is write your own story using what you remember from the book, your own way of writing "Stone Soup" in your own words.

Child: Do you write the title?

TW: You can write the title. That would be a very good idea. I'll put the author's name on the blackboard and you can write that as well. But first what we must do is put some of the ingredients on the blackboard so that you can use them in your story. OK. Who can tell me, what was one of the first things that was put into the soup?

Children put their hands up and one by one were asked for their contribution which was then written on the board. Tyson resumed playing with his shoe laces. Mrs West called out, "Tyson are you thinking there? I'd like you to give me an answer in a moment." After the next child's response, Tyson was asked to suggest an ingredient, which he did. Mrs West continued to ask the children for the names of the ingredients until each of them had been written on the blackboard. She then asked children to talk about how they would start their writing.

TW: OK. Who can tell me how they'd like to start their story off? You are going to go and write the "Stone Soup" story in your own words.

Several children put up their hands and gave their ideas. Tyson was then asked to give his story beginning.

TW: Tyson, how would you start your story off?

Tyson: Different.

TW: How?

Tyson: I'd put different words.

TW: Tell me some of the words you might use.

Tyson: Umm...*One day this man saw a house. He was very hungry and he made some soup to eat.*

TW: Alright. That's a great start. *One day a man saw this house and he was very hungry.* Excellent start. That lets me know what's going on and is going to go on in your story.

Mrs West continued to ask children for their versions of the beginning of the story.

After several more exchanges she explained the next stage of the lesson.

TW: I'm going to give you your sheet now. You need to put your name and date at the top of the sheet. Ahh, Jesse, put that away please. That's not helping you concentrate very hard. Write the title and the author's name and then write me the story of "Stone Soup" in your own words.

The children went to their desks. Tyson began looking in his pencil case, at which point a classmate, Mike, approached him and asked for the return of his Textas. Tyson put his head in his hands as if in mock concern, while Mike rummaged around in Tyson's pencil case retrieving Textas. Tyson then engaged in exchanges with several more children, swapping textas and discussing their ownership. He spoke with his neighbour about coloured pencils and who had the best collection. After several minutes of this, Tyson commenced writing on his worksheet. He wrote a number of words independently before asking his neighbour, Amy how to spell a word and then wrote the word while she told him how to spell it, letter by letter. Tyson then continued writing his retell, using the words from the blackboard. His story consisted of an

orientating sentence followed by a list of the ingredients which were written on the blackboard.

One day there was a little man and he saw a house and he
fand a pat and he pot in a onion and a carrot and a chicken
and somell salt and somell pepper and somell beef and somell
meat bones.

He engaged in chat that was not task related while he did his writing. When he had finished, Tyson coloured the small pictures on his worksheet and decorated his writing. He was very focused on this task and chose carefully the appropriate colours for each picture. Mrs West complimented Tyson on the amount of work he had done.

When most children were finished, the class was asked to bring their work to the mat. Children were asked if they would like to share their story and many raised their hands in order to be asked. All children who wanted to were asked to read. Tyson did not volunteer and, while others read, he engaged in the previously mentioned quiet distractions while sitting on his spot. This continued until the children were asked to move for the next lesson.

Reading Recovery Setting

Tyson doing literacy in the Reading Recovery room.

Tyson entered the Reading Recovery room enthusiastically, bringing with him the book he had taken home to read the previous night. Ms Thomas greeted him, asked him how he was and then said, "Let's get started", at which point Tyson began reading the book he had brought in with him.

Tyson used his finger to track the words as he read. When he miscued, Ms Thomas waited to see if he would attempt to self correct, which he did several times during the text. When he did not attempt to correct his miscues she intervened with a prompt. The following examples illustrate Tyson's reading of familiar text.

Tyson: *"Bees make honey, said Baby Bear and I like honey said/he went into the..."*

MT: Hold on. There's a full stop there. Have a little rest before you go on to that sentence.

Tyson: *"...and I like honey. He went into the big forest to look for honey."*

After reading another sentence fluently Ms Thomas said, "You're reading well Tyson. Could you try reading without your finger?" Tyson put both hands by his side and continued reading. He read fluently until encountering the following text:

"Oh help, where am I?" said Baby Bear. "I'm lost. I'm lost". Tyson read, "Oh help, where am I?" said Baby Bear. I'm lost. I'm looking...for...I'm look...I'm...lost, said Baby Bear.

MT: That was very good checking, Tyson.

Tyson continued to read fluently until he came to the sentence, *"I will climb this big tree to see where I am"*. Tyson read, *"...to see where am I."* He stopped, aware that he had miscued. Ms Thomas waited while Tyson's eyes scanned the sentence he had just read. He then subvocalised, *"where I am"*, and then read the sentence correctly. He continued reading this text until Ms Thomas said, "I think we'll stop there, Tyson. That book's pretty easy for you. Let's have a look at our new book." She put the book from which the running record would be taken, in front of Tyson.

Tyson: Ooh, Little Bulldozer. We didn't get to finish that one.

MT: OK. Well, we'll read up to where we got to yesterday.

Tyson read this book with 98% accuracy and a self correction rate of 1:1. Generally, assistance is not given to the child during the running record as its purpose is to see what the reader can do unaided. However, Tyson was unable to read, "Hello", the first word of this text, reading it as "Help", but realising it was incorrect when scanning the

next words. Tyson appeared stuck so Ms Thomas provided the word and Tyson continued. He appeared to be very aware of the procedure for the running record and he did not appeal for help by looking at Ms Thomas' face. Tyson's reading of this text was not as fluent as the previous one and he encountered a number of difficulties. When he came to a difficult word he often re-read the sentence and was then able to self correct. He also used visual information to make some self corrections. His teacher stopped him after he had read approximately 150 words.

MT: OK. Just stop there Tyson. That was good reading. Now, you fixed up your mistakes in every place. Every time you made an error you worked out how to fix it up and that's what good readers do.

Tyson: Cos I re-readed it.

MT: Just go back to that first word, Tyson (*hello*). That's a new word. We haven't seen it before and it was a bit tricky for you wasn't it?

Ms Thomas then showed Tyson how he might have worked it out using letter-sound information. She then signalled for Tyson to move to the magnetic board where she had previously arranged the letters to be used in this brief session of "Making and Breaking Words".

MT : Alright, Tyson, here's a word that you know from the story. Can you read that?

Tyson: W – i – l. Will.

MT: OK. If you know that that's *will*, then you can work this out.

She changed the first letter to an *h*.

Tyson: H – ill. Hill.

MT: Good. Now you change it to make *pill*.

Ms Thomas asked him to make *fill* and then change it back to *will*. She then asked him to make *still*, which he did, laughing and saying, “That was easy.”

Ms Thomas then took Tyson’s writing book from his box.

Tyson: Woohoo, writing time.

MT: What are you going to write about Tyson?

Tyson: Little Bulldozer. *When big bulldozer was going down fast it went down.*

MT: What went down?

Tyson: Bulldozer.

MT: So, when big bulldozer was going down fast it sunk in the mud.

Tyson: Yeah.

Tyson then began writing his sentence. When writing *bull*, Ms Thomas intervened to tell him how to write the vowel sound.

Tyson: Don’t tell me. Double *o*.

MT: No. Sometimes it’s double *o* but in *bull* it’s *u*.

Tyson: Oh yeah, like *pull*.

Tyson continued writing by saying each word slowly and recording the sounds he could hear. He wrote correctly: *big, was, going, it, went, into, the, mud*. Ms Thomas used sound boxes to help Tyson with *fast* and *dozer* and she took the word *when* to fluency. (See Chapter 2). When Tyson went to write *down*, the following exchange took place.

Tyson: Don’t tell me. *D – ow*, that’s any easy one, *double o* [he wrote *doon*.]

MT: No, *Double o* would make *co*.

Tyson: Oh yeah, it’s an *o – w*. I knew it was that but it just tricked me.

As Tyson wrote his sentence he often re-read what he had written before writing the next word. As Ms Thomas cut up the sentence for reconstruction, she cut the *er* from

dozer and the *ing* from *going*. Tyson reconstructed the sentence in an animated fashion. As he picked up the pieces of paper containing individual words he repeated some of them many times in a sing-song voice. Ms Thomas then introduced Tyson's new book.

MT: Your new book, Tyson is completely different. It's called, "My Bike".

Tyson: Oh another my bike.

MT : Yeah, another one about bikes.

Tyson opened the book to the first page and scanned the picture.

MT: Ahh, remember "The Mumps" started with Monday and went to Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday? This book does too. This book says that "on Monday he rode his bike around the trees." And on Tuesday where did he ride his bike to?

Tyson: On the bridge.

Ms Thomas and Tyson continued to look at each page and discuss where the boy rode his bike. Tyson was then asked to start reading the book from the beginning.

During the reading of this new book Tyson used mainly meaning and structure cues at difficulties. Where the text read *over* Tyson read *around*. Where it read *branches*, Tyson read *trees*. Ms Thomas prompted use of visual cues at several difficulties and meaning cues at several more. For example, Tyson read *Tuesday* for *Thursday* and Ms Thomas asked him to provide the sound made by the first two letters in *Thursday*. When Tyson read *bridge* for *branches*, Ms Thomas prompted him to look at the illustration to extract further meaning. Tyson appeared to engage himself in the problem solving of new words. When attempting the word *through*, which Ms Thomas had told him on the previous page, Tyson said, "*Th...th...* it's not *over*, and it's not *on*. *Th...th.*" Ms Thomas assisted him by saying the consonant cluster *thr* and Tyson then worked out

the word. Tyson used visual information only to work out the word *bank* (pertaining to a river), as the picture did not assist him with this word.

After reading this book Ms Thomas praised Tyson for his efforts and sent him back to the Year One class to ask the next child to come for his Reading Recovery lesson.

Brad

Brad 'doing literacy' in the classroom.

During the lesson on "Stone Soup", described in Tyson's case study, Brad sat in his spot which was towards the end of the middle row of children. Brad looked at Mrs West while she read the story but when she started asking children questions about the story, he put his head down and fiddled with his shoes. Mrs West asked a number of children to give the names of soup ingredients and then said, "OK. Someone who hasn't put their hand up to give me an answer", and she started looking around at the children who she seemed to perceive as not participating. Brad then put his hand up tentatively and kept his eyes lowered. Mrs West noticed him and asked him to provide the name of an ingredient, which he did successfully. He then continued to play with his shoe laces.

Mrs West asked the children to think about how they would start their retell of the story. After several children had volunteered their ideas, Brad was asked to tell how he would begin.

TW: OK, Brad, what about your story?

Brad: (silence for 15 seconds)

TW: What do you think you could say first?

The child sitting next to Brad whispered, "One day".

Brad: One day.

TW: One day. And what could happen after that? One day...what? One day...

Brad: Umm... a man was hungry and he made some soup.

TW: OK. Right. Good.

Mrs West then gave out worksheets and children returned to their desks. Brad sat at his desk, waited for 20 seconds and then realised he did not have a worksheet so went to find one. He returned to his seat and for the next 4 minutes looked in his pencil case for

a pencil, listened to the chat of two children near him, engaged in chat with someone who called him and played with a wooden model aeroplane that was sitting on his desk. As Mrs West assisted some children in his group, Brad wrote his name on the worksheet and then simulated writing, with his pencil just slightly above the paper. He then looked at his neighbour's work and copied the word *once*. Mrs West went to Brad's side to assist him.

TW: What do you want to write, Brad?

Brad: Once.

TW: Once?

Brad: Once there was a man.

Mrs West then helped Brad to write, *there was*, and asked him to write the sounds he could hear in *man*. She then told him to keep going and that she would help him later.

When she left, Brad resumed playing with the model on his desk for approximately 2 minutes. His neighbour, Tim, looked at Brad's writing and told him he had misspelt a word. Brad did not respond, but Tim then told him how to spell the next few words and Brad wrote as Tim provided the letters. The interviewer came to speak with Brad for a few minutes. When she left his side he began playing with his Connector Pens. Mrs West then came and helped Brad to finish his writing. She wrote some words and had Brad sound out others. When she had finished helping Brad she asked all the children to bring their work to the mat. When children were asked if they would like to read their retell to the class Brad lowered his head and fiddled with his worksheet. He was not asked to read.

Brad was observed in another lesson in which children were required to read questions and circle the right answer from three choices (for example, *Which one can you eat?* is followed by pictures of an apple, a house and a ball). When given his worksheet he

went to sit at his desk and searched through his pencil case to locate a pencil. He dropped some pencils and spent more time than appeared necessary on the floor retrieving them. He then picked up some exercise books from his desk and walked around the room with them before returning to his desk and replacing them. He sat down and played with his Connector pens when Mrs West called the whole class to order as the noise level was rising. Brad then covertly, looked at Tim's worksheet and began copying his work. The interviewer came to Brad's side and the following exchange took place:

Int: Brad, tell me about what you're doing.

Brad: Putting circles around the sentences. Circles around the pictures. I read the sentences and I do the circles round the pictures.

Int: Why did you circle that apple?

Brad Because...the sentence...wants you to circle round the apple.

Int: Do you know what that sentence says?

Brad: [shakes his head]

Int: Do you know any words in that sentence?

Brad: Umm...*you*?

Int: Do you know any more words?

Brad: *Which*...umm, I don't know any more.

In all observed classroom lessons, Brad spent a good deal of time in task avoidance activities. He often did not appear to understand the work he had to carry out, although this was not always the case. When asked what he was doing or why he was doing it, Brad often replied, "I'm doing what Mrs West told me to do." At one point the interviewer asked Brad what he was doing and he replied, "I'm doing what you told me to". Brad had not been given any instructions by the interviewer, who then asked what

Mrs West had given him to do. Brad replied, "Mrs West told me to do some work."

Often, when asked to talk about what he was doing, Brad would begin with, "You have to..."; "I have to..."; "Mrs West said you have to..."

In the lesson based on the book, "I Wish I Could Fly", children had to copy from the blackboard, "I wish I could fly, but I can _____" and fill in the blank line with another action such as *swim*, *dive*, *crawl*. The following exchange between the interviewer and Brad took place:

Int: Brad, tell me about what you're doing

Brad: I'm doing what Mrs West told me to do.

Int: What did Mrs West tell you to do?

Brad: Mrs West told me to do some work.

Int: Tell me about the work you're doing

Brad: I have to umm... to do some kind of work.

Int: What kind of work do you have to do?

Brad: I'm doing some writing.

Int: And what are you writing about?

Brad: I don't know.

Brad had begun copying the appropriate text from the blackboard but clearly did not understand what he was required to do. When asked to talk about what he was doing Brad usually repeated Mrs West's instructions. For example, "I have to write it down"; "I'm cutting out the words"; "I'm drawing lines to the pictures"; "Putting circles around the sentences". When asked why he was doing a particular activity he replied, "I don't know", or "Because you have to." In one lesson in which the children were required to give rhymes for "at", Brad was asked why he thought his teacher had given him this task to do. He replied that she wanted them "to learn more words". This response did

indicate some understanding of why he was doing the task but didn't specify whether it was the meaning or the spelling of the word that was the focus.

Brad 'doing literacy' in Reading Recovery.

Brad entered the Reading Recovery room quietly. His teacher greeted him as he sat down. He was given three familiar books from his box and asked to choose one to read. He chose "The Bumper Cars" which was a level 4 text, his current instructional level. Brad used his index finger to point to each word as he read. He read some of this text word by word and some with fluent phrasing. When he read a word he was unsure of he looked at his teacher. He did this frequently, although often he had read the word correctly. His teacher appeared to try and avoid too much eye contact when this was happening. When he miscued he also looked at his teacher but did not verbally appeal for help. She provided a prompt for him in these cases. The following examples illustrate Brad's reading of familiar text.

The text read: *Dad and James looked at the bumper cars. Nick and Kate looked at the cars too.*"

Brad: "Dad... here [looked at teacher]...Dad and..."[looked at teacher]

MT: What could that name be?

Brad: "James. Dad and James looked at the bumper cars. Nick and Kate looked at the bumper...the cars too."

MT: Good checking. You couldn't see *bumper* there could you? Keep going
Brad, you're reading well.

Brad: "Kate and James are drive/are on/are in the red car."

MT: Good checking Brad.

Brad: "Nick said, can I go in the... [looked at teacher]

MT: Just check that what you said matches the words you can see.

Brad: “*Here is a blue car. Come on Dad...the...*”

MT: [Pointed to *we*] Does that look like *on*?

Brad: “*Can we go in the blue car?*”

Brad then looked at Ms Thomas whose eyes were averted as she was writing. He paused, but received no response and continued reading several more sentences until the last page which read, “*Bump!*”. Brad read, “*Bash/bang!*”

MT: Does that word match *bash*?

Brad looked at the word but did not respond.

MT: B...u...

Brad: “*Bump!*”

MT: Yes. I like the way you read that Brad and you said words louder when they were in the dark black print.

Ms Thomas then moved into the Running Record section of the lesson by re-introducing the book, “The Big Kick”.

MT: Remember that Tom and Dad play football and he kicks the ball over the fence.

Brad: And it lands in the tree.

Brad then read this book with 96% accuracy and a self correction rate of 1:2. At errors he used meaning and structure cues but neglected visual cues. However, he self corrected by using visual cues that he had neglected at the initial error. He received help at the word *I*, which he read as *A*. Brad looked at his teacher whenever he was unsure of a word. This occurred when he had read correctly but seemed unsure as well as when he miscued. Ms Thomas kept her eyes on the Running Record sheet and appeared to be avoiding eye contact with Brad during this text reading. Brad came to the end of the book having tried to look at his teacher’s face many times unsuccessfully.

MT: Good reading Brad. There were some places there, where, when you made a mistake you went back and fixed them up and that's what good readers do.

Brad: I turned the page and then I went back to the other page.

MT: Yes, when you realised you'd lost the meaning. It's a good thing to do. I just want to show you this word here Brad. You said, *no, shouted Tom*. If that word was *no* what would you expect to see at the beginning?

Brad: *n*

MT: Can you see *n*?

Brad shook his head.

MT: It starts with *o* and you can't really hear the *h*.

Brad: *Oh*

Ms Thomas then had Brad reread the sentence containing "*oh*".

As Ms Thomas placed the Running Record in his folder, Brad stood and moved to the magnetic board for the Making and Breaking component of the lesson. Ms Thomas followed and asked Brad to sort the letters on the board into two groups according to their shape. She asked him to name the letters in each group, which he did slowly but successfully. She then arranged the letters *c*, *a* and *n* into a group and asked him to make a word. He made *can* and looked at Ms Thomas who asked him what he had made to which he replied, "come". Ms Thomas then asked Brad to say the sound of each of the three letters and he was able to decode the word. She took the *c* away from *can* and asked Brad to say the word that was left which he was able to do. She then asked him to add a letter to make the word *man*, and when he did this successfully she had him make several more words with the rime *an*. Brad did as he was asked, but waited to be told whether the word he had made was correct before making another.

Ms Thomas took Brad's writing book from his box and asked him to read the story he had written the previous day. He needed some help to read the first word but continued with ease.

MT : What are we going to write about today?

Brad looked at Ms Thomas blankly and she waited for 5 seconds.

MT : Tom and the Big Kick?

Brad: Yeah.

MT: What do you want to say?

Brad: Tom and the Big Kick.

MT: That's the title of the book. What about what Dad or Tom did?

Brad: Dad kicked the ball... [He looked at Ms Thomas who raised her eyebrows and appeared to expect more.] Up, up, up?

MT: Where to?

Brad: Into a tree.

MT: Let's start with *Dad kicked the ball up into a tree*.

Brad started writing *Dad* by saying each sound as he wrote. His teacher acknowledged his use of a capital to begin the sentence. She then used sound boxes to help Brad with the next word, adding the suffix after Brad had recorded the sounds in *kick*. Brad had difficulty hearing the vowel in this word and Ms Thomas had to stretch it out several times for him. Brad continued in the following way.

Brad: *The*. I can't remember how to do *the*.

MT: We've written *the* on other pages. [She started turning back through the book.] There it is. Will you remember that if I turn the page now? Have a look at the letters there.

Brad: t, h, e

Brad then said each letter as he wrote the word. He wrote the first letter of *ball* and his teacher directed him to the practice page.

MT: Now, joined onto *b* is the word *all*.

Brad: l, l

MT: Not yet. *All* is *a*, *l*, *l*.

Ms Thomas then worked with Brad, taking the word *all* to fluency on the practice page and adding the initial *b* when he was ready to write *ball* into his sentence. She asked Brad to cover the word while writing it in his sentence and then check to see if he was correct. He did this successfully. Ms Thomas then reread his sentence so far and Brad followed by doing the same. Brad continued writing.

Brad: U [Wrote the letter *u*] P?

MT: You're right. You don't need to ask me that. You know how to spell *up*.

Brad: In. *I* for *Indian*.

MT: Yeah, you can write *in*.

Brad: I...n?

Ms Thomas did not respond to Brad's question but waited for him to write *in*. Brad then wrote *the* by checking where he had already written it in his sentence. Ms Thomas used sound boxes to help Brad with the word *tree*. She explained the need to double the *e*. She asked Brad to read his sentence and asked him if he had finished, which prompted him to complete the sentence with a full stop.

Ms Thomas cut the sentence into individual words and Brad reconstructed it successfully. She introduced a new book to Brad, "Father Bear Goes Fishing", instructional level 5.

MT: OK, here's your new book, Brad and it's called "Father Bear Goes Fishing". He goes down to the river to get some fish for their dinner.

Ms Thomas turned the pages and spoke about what was happening in the story. Brad made several comments such as, “Look at all the fish”, and, “They’re looking for Father Bear.” At difficulties in this text Brad tended to neglect visual cues and use meaning and structure cues, as in the following examples:

The text read, “*Father Bear went fishing. He went down to the river.*”

Brad: *Father bear went fishing for.*

He stopped, unable to read the next word.

MT: [Pointed to *He*] Could that word be *for*?

Brad: [looked at the word for 5 seconds] *Him. For him?*

MT: *Father Bear went fishing.* Fullstop. The next word is *he*.

Brad: “*He is looking*”

MT: [Pointed to *went*]. Does that look like *is*?

Brad looked confused and looked at Ms Thomas for prompting.

MT: Let’s go back and start again.

Brad: *He...(subvocalised w), went.*”

Brad looked at the next word, *down*, and then looked around the room. Ms Thomas then gave him the word.

Brad: *Down to the water.*

MT: What does water start with?

Brad: *W*

MT: And what does this word start with?

Brad: *R...river.*

MT: Yes. *He went down to the river.*

Brad continued reading. At one point, where the difficult text was at the beginning of a sentence, he was prompted for meaning as structure cues were not available and he

was unable to use the visual cues. He self corrected several times by crosschecking meaning with visual cues. When he finished reading, Ms Thomas acknowledged Brad's strategy of rereading when he was unsure and then reinforced Brad's recognition of the word *I*, which Brad has read as *a*, several times in the text.

Jesse

Jesse 'doing literacy' in the classroom.

During the “Stone Soup” lesson introduction Jesse looked in Mrs West’s direction, although he sometimes appeared to have a glazed look on his face. He raised his hand to contribute to the list of ingredients that were being written on the blackboard. He did not volunteer to answer any other teacher questions nor was he asked to. During mat time he started playing with a small toy that had been in his pocket and after some time of quiet playing was asked to put it away.

When returning to his desk to begin the retell of “Stone Soup” he chatted with his neighbour, Kate, about a Pokemon toy that was on his desk. Kate told him to get on with his work. He then began looking for a lead pencil and, when he found one, left his seat to sharpen it by the rubbish bin. Mrs West called out to him to hurry up and get started. As Jesse worked he frequently looked around the classroom and if someone nearby was chatting he joined in. He initiated chat with Robert who sat on the other side of Kate. At one point, Kate looked at Jesse’s writing and told him he had misspelt a word. He rubbed out his work and Kate told him how to spell the word. As he continued writing he asked Kate for the spelling of a few more words and she obliged. He held his work up to show Robert, saying, “Look how much I’ve done. How much have you done?”

Robert had completed more than Jesse, which caused Jesse to reply that Robert was not doing it “properly” and the two entered into a dispute about what the exact requirements of the task were. Mrs West called the class to order as the noise level was rising and Jesse put his head down to continue writing. He began copying words from the blackboard and, during this time, joined in the dispute of the children sitting opposite, about the ownership of a rubber. He continued writing and copying words

from the blackboard for a sustained period of approximately one and a half minutes. Then children were asked to bring their retell to the mat and to volunteer to read their work to the class. Jesse did not volunteer to read his writing, which consisted of an orientating sentence and then a list of the ingredients copied from the blackboard.

One day a hugre man he cam to a big hays he mad stone sup he sed we ned salt and stone and onion and meat and beef bones and carrot and salt.

In a lesson based on the book, "I Wish I Could Fly", children were required to copy from the blackboard, *I wish I could..... because..... but I can.....* The children needed to write in the blank spaces what they wished they could do, their reason for wishing it, and to finish the sentence with what they could do.

Jesse behaved in a similar manner to that described in the *Stone Soup* lesson, chatting with others in his group. He began to apply himself to the task when Mrs West told him to stop chatting and start work. He appeared focused as he copied the sentence from the blackboard. He looked around and joined in a conversation before going back to his writing and filling in the spaces with his own words. He then raised his hand for Mrs West to mark his writing before being given his "good copy" paper. After this the following exchange took place with the interviewer.

Int: Jesse, tell me what you've written.

Jesse: I wish I could fly because I could see the birds but I can run.

Int: And what will you do with this now?

Jesse: Gotta do a, umm, copy it on to this [Points to a large sheet of "good copy paper"]

Int: Right. Why are you putting it on this paper too?

Jesse: Umm, 'cos Mrs West said.

Int: Do you know why you need to put it on this paper?

Jesse No.

Jesse then transferred his writing to the larger piece of paper, chatting to the child opposite him. He also illustrated the writing and appeared more focused and less inclined to chat during this activity. As he was nearing completion of his illustration he spoke with the interviewer again.

Int: Jesse, can you tell me what this says from the start?

Jesse: *I wish I could fly because I could see the birds but I could, can, run...* That's me running and that's me with wingcaps, those are wings and those are wings.

Int: So that's you as a bird?

Jesse: Yeah.

Int: [points to the next picture] And that's you being able to fly?

Jesse: Yeah. It's like Mario, you get a wing cap and you have a cap, you cap the wings and it can make you fly and you drop three times. (Jesse was referring to Super Mario Brothers, a computer game)

Int: So what do you do with this paper now?

Jesse: Ahh, draw a picture?

Int: What will you do with it after that?

Jesse: [shrugged his shoulders.]

Int: Why do you think you had to do this? Why do you think your teacher gave you this to do?

Jesse: Umm, umm, if I could fly I'd know what to do, I'd know how to fly.

Jesse 'doing literacy' in the Reading Recovery room.

Jesse entered the Reading Recovery room quietly, appearing a little despondent.

He brought with him the book he had taken home the previous day, a level 6 book, Snowy Gets A Wash, which Ms Thomas asked him to begin reading.

Jesse read slowly but with appropriate phrasing. He stumbled several times, reading for meaning but neglecting visual cues. However, each time he did this, he self corrected quickly, saying, “I mean...”, and then reading the correct word. After several pages, his teacher praised his reading and self corrections and asked him to continue. At errors he was prompted to crosscheck what he had read with visual cues. In some cases he needed more assistance than just prompting. When his teacher asked him to stop reading he said, “I knew how to work those words out.”

His teacher then reintroduced the book, “Goodnight Little Brother”, instructional level 8, for the Running Record component of the lesson. Jesse exclaimed, “That’s easy!”, and then imitated the child in the story, saying, “I don’t want to go to bed”. As he opened the book to where the story started he asked his teacher, “What’s his name?” Ms Thomas said she didn’t know and pointed to the text for him to start reading.

Jesse read this text with 97% accuracy and a self correction rate of 1:2. His errors showed use of meaning and structure cues and neglect of visual cues. After completing the book Jesse was taken back to the word *close* that he had read as *shut*.

MT: You said, *just shut your eyes*. If that was shut what would it start with?

Jesse: Sh

MT: So what could that word be? It means *shut your eyes*, but it starts with *c*.

Jesse: Close.

MT: And how do you know it’s *close*?

Jesse: ’Cos it has a *s* nearly on the end.

MT: OK.

Ms Thomas then signalled for Jesse to move to the magnetic board for the Making and Breaking component of the lesson. She had placed on the board, the letters, *p,t,s,a,e,o*. She asked Jesse to make the word *pot* from this group of letters. He spent some time choosing the correct vowel but made the word correctly. Ms Thomas asked him to change the middle letter to make the word *pat*. He said the word several times, stretched it out and then replaced the *o* with an *a*. He was then asked to change *pat* to *pet* and back to *pot* which he did slowly and carefully. He asked, "What about the *s* ? What are we gonna do with that?"

MT: Now if we put the *s* at the end what would that make?

Jesse: Pos?

MT: What does that say? [She covered the *s* with her finger and then lifted it slowly.]

Jesse: Pot...pots

Ms Thomas then said it was time to do some writing and as she said this Jesse spoke over her saying, "Can you do it about Bradley's christening?" The teacher did not respond to this question and said, "Are you ready?"

Jesse: Can you do it about anything?

MT: Yes you can.

Jesse: Then I'll do it about Bradley's christening.

MT: What are you going to say?

Jesse: Umm....Bradley had his christening at school. Umm...*B*. Bradley starts with a capital *B*.

MT: Sure does. What can you hear next?

Jesse: Actually Bradley sounds a little bit like Brodie.

MT: Stretch out *Brad*.

Jesse: *B...r...a...d.*

He wrote each letter as he said it and Ms Thomas assisted in adding the remaining three letters. Jesse then wrote *had* and *his* unassisted, stretching each word out and writing the letters as he said the sounds. Ms Thomas said *christening* started “like Christmas”, and asked Jesse if he knew how to start *Christmas*. He provided the *c* but no more. Ms Thomas wrote in the *h* and then asked him to stretch out *chris*. He did this, omitting the *r*. Ms Thomas used sound boxes to help him hear the second consonant and then assisted with the next syllable. Jesse said he knew how to write *ing* and did so independently. He then exclaimed, “That’s a big word!” Jesse reread what he had written and then deliberated over how he would continue. He became sidetracked by talking about the food and the people who had been at the Christening and his teacher told him to stop chatting and get on with his writing. He began writing *school* with *sk*. His teacher told him he had the correct sound but not the correct letter.

Jesse: Oh, yeah, little *c*. I knew that.

MT: Now, a silent *h*.

She then stretched out the word *school*.

Jesse: Is that *oo*?

MT: Yeah.

Jesse: That means two *o*’s. *Double o*.

MT: Yes it is and what’s the last sound?

Jesse: *l*. Now I’m gonna read it.

Ms Thomas tried to elicit some more writing from Jesse, saying, “What happened next? We had a party didn’t we?”

Jesse: Yeah. *And we had a....*

Jesse wrote the words, *and we had a*, independently by slowly saying each sound as he wrote them. He mentioned other sentences he had written containing these words and that he had remembered how to spell them. His teacher acknowledged his good spelling. Jesse provided *celebration*, the last word of the sentence, which he looked pleased about. His teacher broke the word into syllables for Jesse to hear and he recorded the sounds of the first three syllables with teacher assistance. Jesse read his sentence and counted the number of letters in *celebration*, showing pleasure at having written this word. When reconstructing the cut-up sentence he had difficulty in discriminating between *christening* and *celebration* and Ms Thomas drew his attention to the *ing* of *christening* which enabled him to identify the correct word.

The new book, Lucy's Sore Knee, instructional level 8, was then introduced. Ms Thomas pointed out the words, *sore* and *knee*, saying that these would appear frequently throughout the book. Jesse looked at each page, closely scanning each picture and both he and Ms Thomas made comments on the story.

Jesse read this book slowly, referring to the illustrations often. He had some difficulty when he was unable to draw on meaning and structure cues, for example, at the beginning of a sentence, and had to rely on visual cues. In one such case he read the word *what* as *where*, realising he had miscued as he read several more words, but was unable to correct his error. When the word *this* appeared at the beginning of a sentence he said, "That's *th* and that's *is*, umm, *th...is...this*." He also had difficulty with *I've* and *we've*, reading them as *I have* and *we have* but realising he had miscued. At one point he said, "I don't know what that is", pointing to the letters *ve*. At some points, when he hesitated at a word, he studied the pictures, reread and was then able to decode the word. When he had finished reading he began explaining the behaviour of the characters in the story and added his own judgement of what they had done. As

appeared to be usual with Jesse, he only stopped when interrupted by Ms Thomas. She affirmed his efforts at self correction and explained the contractions *I've* and *we've*. She asked him to take home, Goodnight Little Brother, “for practice” and Jesse returned to his classroom.

Robert

Robert 'doing literacy' in the classroom.

During lesson introductions Robert sat in his spot on the mat, which was at the end of the front row, furthest from the door and close to Mrs West. In all observed classroom lessons, Robert was singled out before Mrs West commenced the lesson in order to check that he was attending.

In the lesson based on the book, "I Wish I Could Fly", Robert watched Mrs West as she read the book to the class. After reading, Mrs West began asking the class some questions about the story and Robert began showing signs of restlessness. He hugged his knees and rolled his head, though he kept his head in a downward position. At several questions he raised his hand to answer, but was not asked. He was however, asked to contribute when he did not have his hand raised and he did this satisfactorily. As the question-answer exchanges continued Robert became increasingly distracted, playing with something small from his pocket and giggling with the child next to him. Mrs West then moved to the next phase of the lesson.

Mrs West: "He wished that he could do a lot of things. 'I wish I could', he said. I want you to have a think about something that you wish you could do and tell me in a sentence, *I wish I could*. I want you to think about it. Put your heads down for a minute and have a little think. What about you Jesse, what do wish you could do? Tell me in a sentence."

Several children were asked to give their answer and all said that they wished they could fly. Robert was then asked the same question.

Robert: I wish I could fly.

TW: Why would you like to fly?

Robert: Because, umm, at the beach...going in the water, umm, I couldn't swim.

TW: Good. OK. Can anybody else tell us?

Several more children answered by saying they wished they could fly. Mrs West then asked that people only put their hand up if they had something else that they wished they could do. While more children were being asked to give their contribution Robert continued his restless behaviour on his spot. Mrs West then changed the line of discussion.

TW: Alright, now what I want you to think about is something that you can do. Like our little friend in our story, he couldn't do a lot of things but on the very last page he told us what he could do. OK, so I want you to think about something that you can do well and share that with us. Tell us something that you can do really really well.

Children then raised their hands to name something they could do well. Robert paid more attention at this point and raised his hand to contribute. After he gave his answer he resumed fiddling with the small item from his pocket and nudging the child next to him as more children were asked to give their responses. Mrs West then began explaining the task and Robert became attentive.

TW: Alright. What I want you to think about...we're going to do a draft copy and then we're going to make a page in a book, a big book and the sentence is going to start with...*I wish I could*, and you need to go on. *I wish I could*, say, *fly, because*, and give me the reason why. Then I want you to end with, *but I can*, and tell me what you can do.

Mrs West wrote on the blackboard as she spoke. She gave several examples and explained further how to carry out the task, what needed to be copied from the board,

what needed to be written by the children, which book needed to be used and the procedure to be followed for “conferencing”. She restated the instructions several times. She then recapitulated by asking, “Who can tell me and tell the class what do you need to do?” Several children raised their hands, but were overlooked and Robert (who had not raised his hand) was asked to tell the class what they needed to do.

Robert: You have to write *I wish I could*.

TW: And?

Robert: And then do your sentence.

TW: OK, and?

Robert: Then you draw... no, the reason why, *because*.

TW: And then you give the reason why you wish you could

Robert: And then on the bottom you have to write, *I can*.

TW: *But I can*, and what do you have to say in that sentence?

Robert: I can run.

TW: Yes, you have to tell us something that you can do really well. Then hands up. I will come around, conference your work, you come and collect one of these sheets. You can write in Texta as long as it's carefully written, but first you might like to do it in pencil and then go over it in Texta or you can do it in Texta first if you're careful.

When Robert returned to his desk to carry out this activity he spent some time in finding a pencil and walking around the room to find a sharpener, then wandered around until he had sharpened it. When he sat down he asked Kate where she was up to and engaged in some off-task chat with Cassie. Mrs West called out to Robert to get on task and he began writing. As he wrote he chatted with children around him, sometimes stopping his work to concentrate on the conversation and sometimes chatting while he

wrote. He looked at Cassie's work and began rubbing out his own as he had copied some words from the blackboard incorrectly. Several times he talked across Kate to Jesse, comparing how much work they'd done, arguing over who had done the most and whose work was better. He was called back on task several times by Mrs West. The interviewer spoke with him twice during this lesson:

Int: Tell me about what you're doing Robert.

Robert: You have to write, *I wish I could fly*.

Int: Why do you have to write that?

Robert: You don't have to if you don't want to.

Int: Why are you writing *I wish I could fly*?

Robert: I wrote, I'm writing *I wish I could dive*.

Int: Oh I see. And why are you doing it in this book?

Robert: So, um, when you finish you can show it to the teacher.

Int: OK. Tell me what you've written.

Robert had written, *I wish I could because*.

Robert: I wish I could because.

Robert apparently realised his mistake as he read saying, "I wish I could dive", and started rubbing out his work.

Seven minutes later he spoke with the interviewer again.

Int: Tell me what you've done so far Robert.

Robert: *I wish I could dive because I can see all of the animals but I can climb a tree.*

Robert had written, *I wish I could dive because I can see all.*

Int: OK. What are you going to do after that?

Robert: Then I can put my hand up and the teacher will come to me when I'm finished it. Then I can get the paper.

Int: OK. What are you going to do with the big piece of paper?

Robert: You can write with Texta.

Int: So what's this big piece of paper for?

Robert: For the conference.

Robert 'doing literacy' in Reading Recovery.

Robert entered the Reading Recovery room quietly and looked at his teacher. She greeted him in a friendly manner and he responded briefly. He brought in with him, The Careful Crocodile, from which his Running Record had been taken the previous day. His teacher asked him to begin reading this instructional level 16 book.

Before Robert began reading he looked at his teacher, as though he were waiting for a signal to start. Ms Thomas did not appear to provide one but Robert commenced the book after a few seconds wait. He read in a monotone, but with appropriate phrasing most of the time. The following examples illustrate Robert's reading of familiar text.

When Robert read *sunny* for *sandy*, Ms Thomas said, "Is that right?". Robert looked at her and answered, "No", in what seemed to be an automatic response. He looked at the word again and after a pause read it correctly. When Robert read the word *filled* as *felt*, his teacher said, "If that word was *felt* what would you see after the *f*?" Robert gave the answer, "e", but waited for his next instruction which was to try the word again. He miscued when reading *take* for *lake* and *get* for *eat*, but self corrected both of these without assistance.

Ms Thomas handed Robert his Running Record book, The Busy Beavers, instructional level 16, and asked him to begin reading. Robert read this book with 95% accuracy and a self correction rate of 1:4. At some of his errors he used meaning,

structure and partial visual cues, but some of them showed a neglect of meaning cues and response to either visual or structure cues. For example, he read, "The water was *pushing* out of the big hole" instead of *pouring*. This showed his use of meaning, structure and partial visual cues. When he read *had* for *hurried* he used structure and partial visual cues but neglected meaning. He struggled with the word *washed*, reading *was had*, and continued reading with no visible recognition that he had miscued. This miscue showed his use of visual cues only. When his teacher asked him to stop reading she affirmed his efforts at self correction and returned to the word *washed*. She reread the sentence and waited for him to attempt the word. He gave the same response as his previous miscue. When she asked him if that made sense he replied, "No". However, he appeared to give this response automatically and did not make any attempt to correct the word. Ms Thomas agreed that the first part of the word looked like *was*, but explained that *sh* changed the word and pronounced the sound made by the *a*. She prompted him to use meaning cues by restating what was happening in the sentence. Robert looked at Ms Thomas, but gave no response. She then told him the word.

While Ms Thomas took the Running Record Robert looked at her frequently but she kept her eyes on the record sheet. When Robert was unsure he had read a word correctly he often looked at the Running Record sheet to see if a tick had been recorded. Although he was reading quite difficult texts he seemed unsure of himself most of the time.

Ms Thomas then signalled for Robert to move to the magnetic board for the Making and Breaking component of the lesson. She had placed the letters *i, g, s, p, n, r, a* in a group on the board and asked Robert to make the word *ring*. He did this with no difficulty. She placed the letters *s, p* in front of the word and asked Robert what she'd

made. He looked carefully at the word and gave the correct response. Ms Thomas continued in the following way.

MT: Well done. *Spr – ing*. Now, how can I change this to *sprang*?

Robert replaced the letter *r* with *a*, making, *spaing*.

MT: We don't need the *ing*, (she pointed to the *ing* letters) we need *ang* now.

Spr – ang.

Robert looked blankly at her. She remade *spr* and asked Robert to name this consonant cluster which he did correctly. She then joined it to *ang* and Robert was able to read the word.

Ms Thomas then moved into the writing component of the lesson, saying, "OK Robert it's time for us to do our writing. Do you want to write a story about the busy beavers?"

Robert: The beavers had a helper. His name was Tyson.

MT: OK.

Ms Thomas waited for him to start writing and Robert also waited, apparently wanting to be given a signal to start. Ms Thomas indicated by tapping her finger on the writing page. He wrote *The* and the *be* of beavers, unaided. Ms Thomas told him the second sound needed an *a* as well. He then wrote *vrs* and she explained the need for inserting an *e*. He wrote *had*, *a*, *his* and *name* without assistance and his teacher used sound boxes for *helper*. He wrote *was* as *wes* and Ms Thomas took this word to fluency on the practice page. She also helped him write, *Tyson*.

MT: I think we could add a bit more. What did Tyson do?

Robert: Help the beavers?

MT: What did he help them do?

Robert: He used his tail to push the water back.

Ms Thomas took *used* to fluency, explained the vowel digraph in *tail*, used analogy with *put* and *push* and helped Robert to write *water*. She cut up only this last sentence of his writing, cutting *tail* into onset and rime and the *er* from *water*. Robert slowly began reassembling the sentence, looking at his teacher frequently for confirmation. She appeared to keep her eyes on the words and waited until he had finished to affirm his successful reconstruction.

Ms Thomas then introduced Robert's new book, "Two Little Goldfish", instructional level 16. She gave a precis of the story, turning several pages. Robert then said, "Can I have a look at it?", and he turned each page, looking at the pictures. He did not say anything while he did this and when he had finished he waited and looked at Ms Thomas. She signalled for him to start reading.

Robert read slowly and hesitantly, having difficulty with a number of words in the first paragraph. He looked at his teacher frequently, even when he had read a word correctly, as if to seek confirmation. At some errors he neglected visual cues, but maintained meaning and structure. For example he read, *Speedy flipped his tail* instead of *waved his tail*. At other errors he used some visual cues, neglecting meaning and structure, for example, reading *had* for *hide*. Ms Thomas used prompts for different cues at various errors. Whenever she asked Robert, "Does that make sense?" (prompting for meaning cues) or, "Does that sound right?" (prompting for structure cues), he automatically answered, "No". It seemed that he knew if these questions were asked then he must have miscued. He did not try to self correct when asked these questions but waited for further prompting.

Ms Thomas persisted with having Robert read approximately 80 words of this text but his concentration was apparently waning and he was looking around the room in a distracted manner whenever he miscued. She told him, "Stop looking around the room

and focus on the book”, but did not persist for long after this command. She concluded by saying, “We’re going to stop there, Robert. There’s some difficult words in this book, but you tried working some of them out.”

This chapter has provided some descriptions of how each of the children ‘did’ literacy in both of their literacy learning environments. The following chapter will present an analysis of these observations.

CHAPTER 6

Results

This chapter presents an analysis of the data as they relate to each of the three research questions.

Research question 1.

How do four children who take part in a Reading Recovery program 'do' literacy
a) in the classroom and b) in the withdrawal setting?

This question was answered in terms of children's observed behaviours in each setting. These included their reading and writing behaviours and their interactions during the observed literacy lessons, herein referred to as 'literacy related behaviours'.

Reading was analysed according to how the children used the information in print (meaning, structure and visual cues, Clay, 1994) to reconstruct a text's message. The children's writing was analysed according to how they used their word knowledge, that is, letter-sound knowledge and sight word knowledge, to communicate in print.

The ways the children interacted during their literacy lessons were categorised as literacy-related behaviours. These behaviours were placed in the following sub categories that emerged from the analysis: 'attention to task', 'participation/engagement in literacy lessons' and 'coping behaviour'. Table 6.1 shows the data sources that were accessed for these categories.

Table 6.1. Classification of Data Sources

Categories	Data Sources
Reading and Writing Behaviours	<p>Running records in both settings.</p> <p>Observation of children reading text in worksheets.</p> <p>Observation of children's writing in both settings.</p>
Literacy Related Behaviours	<p>Observation of how children interacted during the literacy lessons, with the tasks, their peers and their teachers.</p> <p>Children's answers to the interviewer's questions: What are you doing and why are you doing this? (classroom only)</p>

Reading and writing behaviours were analysed in the following categories: reading connected text, reading words isolated from sentences and writing connected text. These categories were chosen as they appeared to encompass all the observed reading and writing activities of both settings. In the classroom, children were observed reading connected text in worksheets. The classroom teacher's running records of connected text were also used for analysis. Further, the children were often required to read words in isolation when they appeared on worksheets and the blackboard. In the classroom setting children were required to write connected text as well as write words in isolation; these were analysed together as it was their phonological and orthographic awareness that was the focus of attention. In the Reading Recovery setting the children were required to read and write connected text only, thus reading words in isolation is not a category that appears in this setting. The *making and breaking* component of the lesson deals with individual words, but the focus is on how words are made up, e.g., adding *h* to *at* makes *hat*. In the classroom setting children were required to read lists of isolated words contained in worksheets and they needed to write isolated words in order to complete worksheets. See Appendix 6a for examples of classroom worksheets.

Classroom Setting

Reading and Writing Behaviours

Reading connected text.

The children's reading was analysed in terms of cues (meaning, structure and visual) used and neglected when encountering difficulties in text. Table 6.2 shows the cueing systems that each child used when reading connected text in the classroom.

Table 6.2. Cueing Systems Used in Reading Connected Text in the Classroom.

Brad	Tyson	Robert	Jesse
At most difficulties used meaning, structure and initial letter.	At some difficulties neglected meaning cues and focused on visual.	At most difficulties used initial letter and made a guess which was sometimes	At most difficulties used visual cues of initial letter and made a guess.
Neglected further visual cues.	neglect visual cues beyond the first letter.	structurally correct.	
When noticing miscues drew on visual information to self correct but tended not to look beyond initial letter.	Self corrected by rereading and searching for further visual cues.	Self corrected at times but often did not notice miscues.	Sometimes self corrected by searching for visual information.

It was found that on the whole, each of the four children appeared to read to make meaning and it was when they encountered difficulties that they showed what they knew about trying to get meaning out of print. When Brad encountered difficulties he usually used meaning, structure and partial visual cues, but sometimes neglected visual cues. For example, when reading his 'at' worksheet, (Appendix 6a) the text read, *I see a hat*, whereas Brad read, *I can see...* then re-read, *Look...at a hat*. He realised the text

didn't match *I can see*, using visual cues, so he started again, this time reading the *I* as an *L* and attempting the word *Look* (a word he had encountered in his Reading Recovery texts). This second attempt did not match the text either, but Brad did not try to self correct. Classroom running records also show that, when Brad maintained meaning and structure on easy to instructional level texts, he tended to neglect visual cues. When he noticed miscues he used the initial letter to attempt to self correct.

Tyson showed varying use of meaning, visual and structure cues and when he was aware of having miscued he searched for more information. The following example is taken from a worksheet which required him to read individual sentences and match them to pictures. The sentence read, *The bear hides in a tree*. Tyson read, *The...deer is...hid...h-ide in a tree*. Tyson's reading of *deer* for *bear* was most likely due to his confusion with b/d and a focus on the visual cues rather than meaning. Tyson's insertion of *is* suggested that he used structure cues but this impeded his reading of the next word, *hides*, so he resorted to visual cues, chunking the first three letters and arriving at *hid*, searching for more visual cues and chunking *ide*, arriving at *h-ide*. Although he had still not made complete sense of this sentence and his facial expression showed this, he continued with the next three words which he was able to read quickly. In the following sentence, *The bear jumps off the rock*, Tyson read *bear* instantly and did not confuse it with *deer*. He did not recognise *off* and so used visual cues, arriving at *for*. He repeated this word, perhaps because it didn't quite make sense to him and he continued using visual cues to put together the sounds *r - o - ck*.

Robert usually read to make meaning but sometimes neglected visual cues when he maintained meaning and structure. The sentence, *The turtle swims in the pond*, was read by Robert as, *The turtle is swimming in the pond*. Similarly, he read, *The dinosaur sits in the pond*, where the text read, *The dinosaur stands in the pond*. (It was not clear

from the picture whether the dinosaur was sitting or standing). Robert did not attempt to self correct as he had maintained both meaning and structure. The teacher’s running records showed that when Robert did not have a strong sense of the meaning of a text he used the initial letter and made a guess that was not related to meaning or structure.

Jesse used meaning and structure and varied in his use of visual cues at difficulties. When reading the sentence, *Which one can you ride?*, Jesse read, *Where ... what ... does ...what one can you r – i – d...ride?* Although Jesse did not read this sentence exactly, he did use all three sources of information. The teacher’s running records showed that at difficulties Jesse tended to use the initial letter and make a guess which sometimes did not maintain meaning. When the researcher asked Jesse to read from his worksheets he tended not to attempt difficult words, saying, “That’s a hard word”, or, “I don’t know that word”.

Reading words isolated from sentences.

Reading words in isolation, a skill that was important in the classroom context, is categorised separately, as information about meaning and structure is not available for the reader to call upon. Table 6.3 shows the cueing systems used when reading words in isolation.

Table 6.3 Cueing Systems used in Reading Words Isolated from Sentences.

Brad	Tyson	Robert	Jesse
Used the sound of the initial letter and sometimes decoded the word correctly particularly if it was on a list of similar words, eg, <i>get</i> , <i>pet</i>).	Decoded using a phonological analysis, <i>s-t-r-ing... string</i> .	Recognised many words as wholes. At difficulties did not make a close analysis of each letter but used several letters to make a guess. Read <i>spring</i> for <i>string</i> , <i>cold</i> for <i>cloud</i> .	Sometimes worked out a word by sounding the first 2 or 3 letters but did not progress beyond this level of analysis.

Often said, "I don't know"	Usually attempted all words, saying, "I don't know" when a phonological attempt was unsuccessful.	Always made an attempt, though many were erroneous.	Often said, "I don't know that word."
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Tyson generally used a sound analysis when reading isolated words, putting together the units of sound that he knew. For example, in decoding the word *classroom*, he said, *cl...ass...class...r...oom...classroom*. Brad tried using the initial letter of a word which helped if the words were of the same spelling pattern such as *wet, get, pet*. He tended not to go beyond the initial letter when trying to decode and often said, "I don't know", when faced with a new word. This happened when Brad had to place words from a worksheet in boxes labelled with their initial letters. He could place the words in the correct box but said, "I don't know", when asked to read words such as *bird, fish, dog*. Jesse would sometimes try and work out a word by using the first couple of letters, but if that was not successful he would say, "That's a hard word", or, "I don't know that word." Robert could recognise many words in his worksheets without having to work on them. When having to work out an unfamiliar word he used letters contained in the word and made a guess, rather than using a close left to right analysis. For example Robert read the word *cloud* as *cold*.

Writing connected text.

The children's writing was analysed in terms of word knowledge. Therefore, connected text and writing of words in isolation are analysed together. Table 6.4 shows how the children used their letter-sound knowledge and sight word knowledge to write connected text.

Table 6.4 Writing Connected Text in the Classroom

Brad	Tyson	Robert	Jesse
Said each word aloud and recorded sounds he could hear. Needed teacher attention to begin any writing tasks. Included major consonants and vowel sounds.	Subvocalised each word, recording the sounds he could hear. Recorded major consonants and vowels for each word.	Wrote some words from a phonological analysis. Said words aloud as he did this. Began some words with a phonological analysis and ended erroneously. Some words appeared to be written from a visual orientation rather than phonological.	Subvocalised each word, recording the sounds he could hear. Recorded major consonants and vowel sounds for each word. Sometimes the second consonant in a blend was included and sometimes omitted.
When required to write a list of <i>et</i> words, added initial letters that produced non words, such as <i>iet</i> , <i>cet</i> , <i>fet</i> .	Wrote some high frequency words correctly. Used some knowledge of spelling patterns such as <i>ou</i> in <i>cloud</i> . Searched the blackboard for correct spelling of words he needed.	Wrote some high frequency words correctly.	Wrote several high frequency words correctly.

Both Tyson and Jesse subvocalised as they wrote, recording the major consonant and vowel sounds they could hear. Jesse tended to omit the second consonant in words beginning with a consonant blend. Both children wrote some high frequency words correctly. Tyson also searched the blackboard for words he needed to write. Robert wrote some words from a phonological analysis and others he began with a phonological analysis, but ended erroneously, for example, *hend* (*head*), *pagrne*

(*pageant*). Some of his spelling showed a visual orientation rather than a phonological analysis, for example, *theer (tree) prka (park)*. Robert also wrote some high frequency words correctly. Brad tended not to begin any writing tasks until assistance was offered by the teacher who prompted him to “sound out” the words. As the teacher stayed by his side, Brad was able to record major sounds but did not continue this strategy once the teacher assistance ceased. In a worksheet requiring him to complete *et* words by adding the beginning letter, he added, *c (cet)*, *i (iet)* and *f (fet)*. When asked what words he had made he replied, “I don’t know.”

Literacy Related Behaviours

The ways the children interacted during the classroom literacy lessons were documented and then grouped into the categories that emerged from the analysis: ‘attention to task’, ‘participation/engagement in literacy activity’, and ‘coping behaviour’.

Attention to task.

The children under study showed varying levels of attention during mat time introductions and during desk work. Table 6.5 shows how the children attended to their literacy tasks in the classroom setting.

Table 6.5. Attention to Task in Classroom Literacy Lessons

Brad	Jesse	Robert	Tyson
Lengthy periods of task avoidance.	Spent time telling others how to do the task rather than making a start.	Initiated a lot of off task chat.	Got started on task quickly.
Did not begin task until help was given.	Poor organisation of materials delayed beginning activities.		Spent more time on colouring work than on completing worksheet questions.

Brad demonstrated significant task avoidance during classroom observations. While sitting on the mat for lesson introductions he looked at the floor or outside if the door was open. He often played with his shoes or some small item such a dice or counter. He did not at any time appear to be engaging with the lesson introduction and avoided eye contact, keeping his head down when the teacher asked for contributions. When sent back to desks to complete lesson work Brad spent up to half the allocated time quietly playing with pencils or chatting, if this was initiated by another class member. He commenced work only when the teacher came to check his progress and stopped working when she left his side.

Tyson showed similar behaviours during mat time, playing with his shoe laces, rocking and looking around the room and participating only when asked. When returning to his desk Tyson initiated chat with his neighbour in each observed lesson, although he began his set task relatively quickly. His materials were organised and he set about completing the worksheet quickly, apparently leaving more time for colouring. In several observed lessons Tyson spent considerably more time colouring than on reading/writing. Tyson spent time away from his desk when he needed to borrow Textas. Finding a person who would lend him these items often brought about a reprimand from his teacher, whereupon he would return to his seat and call out to someone to obtain the colour he wanted.

Robert usually appeared to be listening to the teacher during mat time. He was placed in a position where the teacher could “keep an eye on him”. He often looked at the teacher as she was speaking and voluntarily participated in question-answer exchanges. During desk work Robert initiated a lot of off task chat which impeded his commencement of tasks. Once started, Robert was easily distracted by joining in the conversations of others.

Jesse’s poor organisation of work materials often impeded his commencement of desk work. Observation data showed he took up to 7 minutes to get himself organised to begin a set task. He often could not find a pencil or the correct book in which to work. In one observed lesson he began working in a particular exercise book only to find later that it was the wrong book and so began a lengthy search for the correct one. Jesse also spent time in telling others how to do the set task, often entering into disputes over which book to use or how the task was to be completed. He also engaged in a lot of off-task chat.

Participation/engagement in literacy lessons.

Table 6.6 shows how the children participated in their classroom literacy lessons.

Table 6.6. Participation/Engagement in Classroom Literacy Lessons

Brad	Jesse	Robert	Tyson
During mat time appeared disinterested and keen to obscure himself from teacher’s view.	During mat time often appeared to be attending by looking in the teacher’s direction.	During mat time, often appeared to be attending by looking in the teacher’s direction.	During mat time appeared restless and disinterested.
Participated in question-answer routines only when asked.	Sometimes volunteered to participate in question-answer routines.	Volunteered to participate in question-answer routines	Participated in question-answer routines only when asked.

Concerned with “Doing what the teacher told me to do”	Concerned with “Doing what the teacher told me to do”.	Concerned with “Doing what the teacher told me to do.”	Concerned with, “Doing what the teacher told me to do.”
Attended to instructions as to how to do the task but did not appear to understand the nature of the task.	Attended to instructions as to how to do the task but did not appear to understand the nature of the task.	Attended to instructions as to how to do the task but did not appear to understand the nature of the task.	Attended to instructions as to how to do the task but did not appear to understand the nature of the task.
Often seen rubbing out work.	Appeared to see the focus of the lesson as the content/topic but not as literacy processes.		Appeared to see the focus of the lesson as the content/topic but not as literacy processes.

As mentioned earlier, both Tyson and Brad did not appear to engage in mat time lesson introductions, while Jesse and Robert both volunteered to participate and gave the appearance of focusing on the teacher. During desk work Brad was very dependent on others in order to get any of his work done. In the short periods when Brad was on task he worked quietly, copying work from the blackboard or attempting his own writing by subvocalising words.

Tyson often engaged in chat with others during desk work but usually managed to get started fairly quickly, spending more time on colouring his work than on actual task completion. Tyson engaged in reading and writing tasks by vocalising the worksheet

questions and his responses as he wrote them. He often rubbed out pieces of work and when asked why he was doing this, he said he needed to “get it right”. He was observed doing this when he had begun writing a word incorrectly and realised his mistake, and when he looked at his neighbour’s work and decided she knew better.

During desk work Robert engaged in reading and writing tasks by vocalising the worksheet questions and his responses as he wrote them. He talked a lot and engaged in disputes with other children about the “right” way to complete the task. Robert appeared most focused when he was colouring or illustrating his work, although he was often observed chatting during these activities as well. Robert always appeared cooperative whenever Mrs West called him back on task or told him to return to his seat.

Jesse sub-vocalised when reading text on worksheets and vocalised words that he was trying to write. He attended for longer periods and appeared more focused when he was colouring and illustrating his work. During desk work Jesse initiated a lot of chat among his group. At times he managed to chat while he worked and at other times he gave his full attention to off task talk.

When questioned about what they were doing each of the children frequently answered that they were, “doing what the teacher told me to do”. When questioned further, this response seemed to reveal a concern with carrying out the teacher’s instructions about both the procedure and the content of the task.

Coping behaviour.

Table 6.7 shows the ways the children coped when experiencing difficulties with literacy tasks in the classroom.

Table 6.7. Coping Behaviour in Classroom Literacy Lessons

Brad	Jesse	Robert	Tyson
When experiencing difficulties, did not ask teacher but looked at neighbour's work or asked another child	When experiencing difficulties, did not ask teacher but looked at neighbour's work or asked another child.	When experiencing difficulties, did not ask teacher but looked at neighbour's work or asked another child.	When experiencing difficulties, did not ask teacher but looked at neighbour's work or asked another child
Frequently rubbed out a word when he saw his neighbour had done it differently.	Frequently rubbed out work when his neighbour told him his work was incorrect	Frequently rubbed out work when he saw his neighbour had done it differently.	Frequently copied work from a neighbour.

When the children experienced difficulties with carrying out their literacy learning tasks in the classroom none of them was observed asking the teacher for assistance; instead they either looked at a neighbour's work or asked a neighbour for help. Brad covertly looked at his neighbour's work as he copied it and sometimes his neighbour offered assistance to Brad, unasked. Brad did not, at any time ask his teacher for help. When Mrs West noticed Brad was not on task she offered assistance and he compliantly responded to her guidance. However, when she left his side Brad returned to his quiet distractions.

Tyson, Jesse and Robert were also observed looking at their neighbours' work and rubbing out their own if they noticed it was not the same as their neighbour's. This was done in a more overt way than Brad's copying and these children sometimes actively sought assistance from their neighbours. This sometimes brought about the required

assistance and sometimes brought about complaints as they did not wish their work to be “copied”. The children were given assistance if the teacher saw they were not on the right track in the course of her walking around the groups to supervise. When any of these children were making too much noise they were called by name to stop and this tended to bring the child back on task for a while, although not for the remainder of the lesson. With the exception of Brad, the children called out to their peers when trying to spell new words.

Summary

In the classroom setting the children each appeared to use their reading skills in what could be described as an “interactive approach” (see Chapter 2). Tyson and Jesse both used a top-down approach when reading familiar text and then switched to a bottom-up approach when trying to decode unfamiliar words. Robert and Brad also used a bottom-up approach when reading unfamiliar words, but their use of letter-sound knowledge was sometimes not effective.

The children showed varying ways of working out unfamiliar words that were isolated from sentences. Tyson used phonological analysis when trying to decode words in isolation. When he could, he grouped familiar parts of words such as the onset and rime, to help work out unknown words. Brad used the initial letter to try and work out words in isolation, but he did not show evidence of moving beyond this point of analysis. Jesse tried to work out unfamiliar words by using up to the first three letters. At times this was successful but he did not show evidence of progressing beyond this level of analysis. Robert tended not to use a left to right analysis of the letters in a word but looked at the whole word and made a guess based on visual familiarity.

When writing, Brad, Jesse and Tyson all used their phonological and letter knowledge to record the sounds in words they needed to write. They also drew on their

core of high frequency words to write whole words when possible. Robert also did this but at times he wrote words from a visual rather than a phonological orientation.

In terms of literacy-related behaviours, two of the children, Brad and Tyson showed signs of being particularly distracted when sitting on the mat for lesson introductions, while Jesse and Robert appeared more physically settled and prepared to participate when asked. While completing tasks at their desks, each of the children engaged in a considerable amount of off task activity and all had to be called by name to become task focused during most observed lessons.

As the children engaged in their literacy tasks each of them appeared concerned with carrying out the instructions for task completion. They each demonstrated considerable interest in the work of their neighbours, Brad and Tyson erasing their own work to resemble that of their neighbours. The four children appeared most focused when they were either colouring or illustrating their own work.

When coping with difficulties neither of the children was observed asking their teacher for assistance. The children either looked at their neighbour's work and copied it or asked their neighbour for help.

In this setting the children compliantly completed the set tasks with varying degrees of success. They appeared to assume that they must do their work accurately, neatly and complete it within the given time, but overall they did not appear to engage in their literacy tasks at a level other than "getting the task done". When questioned, the children did not appear to see the purpose of the learning activity. Some saw it as the content or topic of the lesson, rather than learning about reading and writing and each of the children saw the need to do "what the teacher told me to do." The literacy lessons observed in the classroom setting appeared consistent with a teaching style described by Anstey (1998) as "doing the task". This involves student-teacher

exchanges that focus on how to do the literacy task (e.g., worksheet) rather than learning how to use literacy.

Reading Recovery Setting

Reading and Writing Behaviour During Reading Recovery Lessons

Reading connected text.

Analysis of children’s text reading is based on the cues used and neglected when reading books levelled for Reading Recovery. Table 6.8 shows the cueing systems used by the children when reading in the Reading Recovery setting.

Table 6.8. Cueing Systems used in Reading Connected Text

Brad	Tyson	Robert	Jesse
At difficulties, neglected visual cues.	At difficulties, neglected visual information beyond the initial letter. Often used the initial letter to make a guess.	At difficulties, relied on visual cues but tended to use this information ineffectually.	At difficulties, relied on meaning and structure and neglected visual cues.
Often noticed errors and tried to self correct by searching for visual cues. Did this by using initial letter or sometimes a distinguishing letter such as y in <i>you</i> and <i>they</i> .	When noticing errors, searched for more information in pictures and letter-sounds to self correct.	Tried to self correct by using the first letter to make a guess which often did not maintain structure or meaning. Alternatively, sounded each letter in a word. Needed prompting to look for familiar letter patterns.	When noticing an error he checked with visual information and attempted to self correct. Use of visual information at errors showed difficulty with moving beyond the initial letters.

Three of the children had a tendency to rely on meaning and structure and neglect visual cues at difficulties. Tyson and Jesse used the initial letter to make a guess which usually maintained meaning and structure. If these two cue sources were not maintained they would possibly search for further cues or make a statement such as, “I don’t know that word.” Both children had difficulty using visual information beyond the initial letter. Brad’s use of visual information included the initial letter and sometimes a distinguishing letter in the middle or at the end of the word. He did not, however, show ability in left to right analysis of a word. Robert tended to rely on visual cues at the expense of meaning and structure when word recognition became difficult. He used the first letter or several letters in the word and made a guess, which often did not maintain structure or meaning and he would then continue reading. He also, at times, sounded each letter in a word, sometimes arriving at the word and sometimes not. Robert also had a very low self correction rate, only occasionally attempting to correct his miscues. Both Tyson and Jesse had high rates of self correction. Brad sometimes noticed his errors and attempted self correction but was often not successful.

Writing connected text.

The expression *stretching out* is often used in regard to children’s writing in Reading Recovery lessons. Children are required to stretch out words by saying them slowly in order to hear and record as many sounds as possible. Sound boxes are used to aid this as children place a counter in a box (drawn on child’s practice page) for each sound they hear.

Table 6.9 shows how children used their letter-sound knowledge and knowledge of sight words when writing in Reading Recovery.

Table 6.9. Writing Connected Text in Reading Recovery

Brad	Tyson	Robert	Jesse
Needed prompting to say the word aloud and 'stretch out' the sounds. Could hear and record major consonant sounds and some vowel sounds.	Said words slowly and 'stretched out' the sounds. Could hear and record all major consonant and vowel sounds in words he needed to write.	Said words aloud and recorded the sounds he could hear. Needed prompting to 'stretch words out' to hear all sounds.	Teacher often 'stretched words out' for Jesse to hear and record. With prompting, Jesse did this himself. Recorded major consonants and some vowel sounds but often omitted vowels.
Small core of high frequency words.	Growing core of high frequency words that could be written correctly. Beginning to use some knowledge of common spelling patterns.	Growing core of high frequency words that could be written in all detail	Growing core of high frequency words that could be written in all detail. Becoming familiar with some common spelling patterns, such as <i>y</i> in <i>very</i> .

The four children showed varying degrees of ability in their writing tasks. Tyson attempted stretching out words, often without any prompting and could, in most cases, record all major consonant and vowel sounds. He was beginning to use some common spelling patterns such as silent *e* at the end of a c-v-c-v word (e.g., *kite*). As Robert wrote, he said words aloud, recorded the sounds he could hear and, with prompting, he

stretched words out to record missing sounds. Robert had a growing bank of high frequency words that he could write in detail. Both Brad and Jesse could record all consonant and some vowel sounds in words they tried to write. The teacher stretched words out for each of these children to hear and record and, with prompting, they were able to do this themselves. Jesse showed a developing knowledge of common spelling patterns such as y at the end of a word to make the sound ee.

Literacy Related Behaviours

Attention to task.

The children under study showed varying levels of attention during their Reading Recovery lessons. Table 6.10 shows the children’s attention to tasks in their Reading Recovery lessons.

Table 6.10. Attention To Task in Reading Recovery

Brad	Jesse	Robert	Tyson
Distracted by noises outside the room (ambulance sirens, etc) but on task when these noises were not present.	Sometimes distracted from the task by chatting about an experience associated with the content of the reading or writing. Physically unsettled at times.	Focused on the teacher and the task.	Focused on task at hand. Aware of each stage of RR lesson. Pre-empted teacher with comments such as “It’s writing time”. What’s my new book?”

Brad was easily distracted by outside noises, but was very compliant in carrying out each step of the lesson as directed by the teacher and did not make any attempts at task avoidance. Tyson was focused on the task at all times. He anticipated stages of the lesson with comments such as, “It’s time do to my writing. Now what am I gonna write

about today?” Robert also always appeared focused on the task. He seemed to be aware of the need to do exactly as the teacher directed and constantly watched her for non-verbal cues, appearing anxious as he did this.

Jesse sometimes distracted himself during Reading Recovery by initiating chat about popular television cartoon characters. During parts of the lesson he was also physically unsettled, fidgeting with some part of his clothing or body and moving about in his seat. In this setting the teacher often ignored his attempts at chat by placing his book in front of him and asking him to read. Jesse always did as he was asked, and did not show signs of resistance to being brought back on task.

Participation/engagement in literacy lesson.

Table 6.11 shows the ways the children participated in their Reading Recovery lessons.

Table 611. Participation/Engagement in Reading Recovery Lessons

Brad	Jesse	Robert	Tyson
Showed signs of persistence when trying to work out unfamiliar words in reading.	Suggested his own sentence to write and showed independence in writing.	Made a suggestion for a sentence to write after some teacher questioning and prompting.	Suggested his own sentence to write and began writing as independently as he could
Waited for teacher to suggest a sentence to write	Persistent in trying to solve new words. Made comments such as, "That's go and that's ing, umm I'm not sure...I've had that word before. I thinks it's going"	Often watched the teacher's running record to see if he was correct, as he was reading.	Active participant in learning. Made statements such as, "This word tricks me." "I'm stuck on this word." "That doesn't make sense."
Constantly checked with teacher before writing most letters in words.		Passive in his response to teacher's prompts. Concerned with guessing what was in the teacher's head	Stated his own achievement, eg, I've done a 'd' very neatly; I got no mistakes.

Brad appeared to be dependent on his teacher in Reading Recovery. Although he was on-task at all times, constant teacher attention assisted him to be focused. Brad always waited for teacher prompts during his writing task, but showed a little more independence in his reading when he tried to self correct without prompting.

Jesse showed engagement in his Reading Recovery lessons when he suggested his own sentence to write and did not wait for teacher prompting. He also demonstrated persistence in trying to solve new words. Tyson also showed active participation in his Reading Recovery lessons, working as independently as he could.

In Reading Recovery Robert watched the teacher constantly for cues as to what to do next. He seemed to be scanning the teacher’s face to see signs of confirmation or disconfirmation. His responses to prompts also showed that he seemed to be concerned with guessing what the teacher wanted.

Coping behaviour.

Table 6.12 shows the various ways the children coped with difficulties in Reading Recovery.

Table 6.12. Coping Behaviour in Reading Recovery Lessons

Brad	Jesse	Robert	Tyson
Looked at the teacher for help when he thought he had miscued and when he was writing but did not make a verbal request for help.	Occasionally looked at teacher for confirmation.	Frequently looked at teacher for clues but did not make a verbal request for assistance.	Occasionally looked at teacher for confirmation but not for help.

In Reading Recovery Brad did not verbally ask for help but looked at his teacher when he was unsure and waited for prompting or guidance. Robert also did not make any verbal requests for help but looked at the Reading Recovery teacher for signs of whether or not he was on the right track. Both Tyson and Jesse did make verbal

requests for assistance during Reading Recovery, such as, “How do you write ____?” and, “I don’t know that word. I tried to sound it out but it didn’t work.”

Summary

In the Reading Recovery setting each of the children responded to meaning, structure and visual cues in varying ways. When reading became difficult each of the children showed a reliance on one or more cues and a tendency to neglect others. Brad maintained meaning and structure but neglected visual cues. He showed difficulties when he was unable to access context cues as his ability to work out words by using letter-sound knowledge was weak. When Tyson approached difficult words he tended to rely more on meaning and structural cues. He often used the initial letter of the word and made a miscue that maintained meaning and structure. However, Tyson searched for more information when self correcting, usually using the cues he neglected at the initial error.

Jesse’s reading was similar to Tyson’s, showing a tendency to rely on meaning and structure and he neglected visual cues at difficulties. He sometimes used the initial letter and made a miscue which often maintained meaning and structure. If these were not maintained Jesse would often say, “I don’t know that word”, and sometimes he would then try to problem solve by searching for more cues. He used visual cues when he could not extract any further meaning from the illustrations or what he had read. When Robert encountered difficulties in reading he showed a reliance on visual cues but was unable to analyse the word beyond the initial letters as he appeared to have difficulty blending familiar letter patterns such as *ou* . When focusing on visual cues he sometimes made miscues that did not maintain meaning or structure.

In the one to one setting of Reading Recovery each of the children was able to display their writing ability. Brad was able to hear and record all major sounds in the

words he needed to write, but seemed to need the guidance of his teacher to suggest he stretch out the word orally first. Tyson recorded all sounds he could hear in words and used his knowledge of common letter-sound patterns. He referred to previous pages in his writing book for words he had written before. Jesse stretched out words and recorded major sounds. He tended to leave out a consonant in a blend and sometimes omitted non stressed vowels. Robert used a phonological analysis to attempt new words. He also had a growing bank of high frequency words which he was able to write accurately.

Discussion relating to this research question is dependent upon data for the second research question so all matters arising will be discussed after research question 2.

Research Question 2.

What are the similarities and differences in the ways in which these children 'do' literacy in the classroom and the Reading Recovery settings?

As was shown in the description of the classroom contexts in Chapter 4, the classroom and the Reading Recovery setting are two quite different contexts for learning. The classroom teacher had 30 children and no teaching assistant and was required to engage learners from a wide range of ability levels. Each of the literacy lessons observed in the classroom took place as whole-class lessons and the lesson structure was similar across all observation sessions. The teacher began with all children seated on the mat at the front of the room and gave an introduction to the focus of the lesson. She demonstrated how the worksheet or task was to be completed, asked for questions or for children to repeat instructions and sent children back to desks to complete the task. When time allowed, the children were brought back to the mat at the completion of tasks and invited to share their work with the group. As the children

worked on their tasks the teacher walked around the room, marking 'over the shoulder' and providing assistance where needed.

In the one-to-one Reading Recovery setting the child had the teacher's constant attention for the full 30 minute lesson. The lesson outcomes were tailored to suit the needs of the individual child. In this setting the children were not given worksheets to complete, rather, the teacher and child worked together for the entire lesson with the teacher constantly leading the child to new learning.

The children's reading and writing behaviours and their literacy related behaviours were compared across the classroom and Reading Recovery settings. Similarities and differences in the ways they used their knowledge about working out words when reading and writing are described, as are the ways they interacted with their literacy tasks and environments.

Reading and writing behaviours were determined through the ways the children attempted reading and writing: the cues used and neglected when reading, and the letter-sound knowledge used when writing. The ways they engaged in literacy instruction were determined through the behaviours demonstrated during literacy lessons, responses to questions asked by the researcher in the classroom and interactions with the teacher in Reading Recovery.

Similarities and differences in the ways the children used literacy in the classroom and Reading Recovery settings and their literacy related behaviours in these settings follow.

Brad.

Brad showed similar use of literacy skills in both the classroom and Reading Recovery setting. Table 6.13 summarises Brad's Reading and Writing Behaviours in both settings.

Table 6.13. Brad's Reading and Writing Behaviours in the Classroom and Reading Recovery

	Classroom	Reading Recovery
Reading connected text	Used cues of meaning and structure and initial letter, neglecting further visual cues. When noticing miscues, tried to draw on visual information but tended not to look beyond initial letter.	Used cues of meaning and structure but at errors, neglected visual cues. Often noticed errors and tried to self correct by searching for visual cues. Did this by using initial letter or sometimes a distinguishing letter such as <i>y</i> in <i>you</i> and <i>they</i>
Reading words in isolation	Used the sound of the initial letter and sometimes decoded the word correctly (if it was on a list of similar words, eg, <i>get</i> , <i>pet</i>). Often said, "I don't know"	Not required to do this in Reading Recovery
Writing connected text	Needed teacher attention to begin writing tasks. Said each word aloud and recorded sounds he could hear. Included major consonants and vowel sounds. When required to write a list of <i>et</i> words, added initial letters that did not produce real words, such as <i>iet</i> , <i>cet</i> , <i>fet</i> .	Could hear and record major consonant sounds and some vowel sounds. Needed prompting to say the word aloud and 'stretch out' the sounds. Could write a small core of high frequency words.

In reading Brad tended to show the same patterns of cue use and in writing he showed similar attempts at recording the sounds he could hear in the words he needed to write. In Reading Recovery where he was able to have constant teacher attention, Brad generally remained focused for the 30 minute period. However, in the classroom Brad was less focused on the task, thus completing less work and often not giving the task the attention it required. When writing cohesive text in both settings Brad showed that he could hear and record major sounds in words. However, in the classroom he did not begin any writing task without teacher assistance, nor did he attempt any words independently. In Reading Recovery he wrote some high frequency words independently and with prompting, stretched words to record sounds. Table 6.14 summarises Brad's literacy-related behaviour in both settings.

Table 6.14. Brad’s Literacy-Related Behaviour in the Classroom and Reading

Recovery

Behaviour	Classroom	Reading Recovery
Category		
Attention to task	Lengthy periods of task avoidance. Did not begin task until help was given.	Distracted by noises outside the room (ambulance sirens, etc) but on task when these noises were not present.
Coping Behaviour	When experiencing difficulties, did not ask teacher but looked at neighbour’s work or asked another child.	Looked at the teacher for help when he thought he had miscued and when he was writing but did not make a verbal request for help.
Engagement/participation in task	During mat time appeared disinterested. Appeared keen to obscure himself from teacher’s view. Participated in question-answer routines only when asked. Attended to instructions about how to do the task. Concerned with, “doing what the teacher told me to” Carried out the task but did not understand the nature of the task. Often seen nibbling out work.	Showed signs of persistence when trying to work out unfamiliar words in reading. Waited for teacher to suggest a sentence to write. Constantly checked with teacher before writing most letters in words.

In both settings Brad showed an apparent lack of confidence in his ability and in the classroom, without one-to-one support, this often manifested itself as task avoidance or copying work from his neighbour. At times Brad appeared to see himself as helpless, thus withdrawing from the task by playing quietly or attempting work only when he had teacher assistance. He was aware of the need to carry out the teacher's instructions but often appeared unsure of how to go about this, sometimes asking his neighbour for help or simply copying his neighbour's work. Brad also appeared to withdraw during mat time lesson introductions, keeping his head down and participating only when asked to.

Brad's responses to the Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire indicated a perception of reading as related to decoding and to the procedures associated with reading. In the classroom some of his behaviour patterns and responses supported this perception as he outlined procedures for task completion and filled in phonic worksheets. In Reading Recovery he demonstrated familiarity with the procedures involved within the 30 minute period and, because of his tendency to neglect visual cues he received a lot of prompting at the letter-sound and word level of decoding.

In both settings Brad appeared to see the teacher as the holder of knowledge and appeared unable to engage in tasks without teacher assistance. Although Brad demonstrated more engagement and ability in Reading Recovery than he did in the classroom he did not appear to take ownership of his learning in this setting any more than he did in the classroom.

Jesse

Table 6.15 summarises Jesse's reading and writing behaviours in both settings.

Table 6.15. Jesse's Reading and Writing Behaviours in Classroom and Reading Recovery

	Classroom	Reading Recovery
Reading Cohesive Text	Used meaning and structure. At difficulties used visual cues of initial letter and made a guess. Sometimes self corrected by searching for further visual information.	At difficulties, relied on meaning and structure and neglected visual cues. When noticing an error he checked with visual information and attempted to self correct. Use of visual information at difficulties showed difficulty with moving beyond the initial letters
Reading words in isolation	Used visual cues. Sounded the first 2 or 3 letters but did not progress beyond this level of analysis. Often said, "I don't know that word".	Not required to do this in Reading Recovery
Writing cohesive text	Wrote several high frequency words correctly. Subvocalised each word, recording the sounds he could hear. Recorded major consonants and vowel sounds for each word. The second consonant in a blend was sometimes included and sometimes omitted.	Recorded major consonants and some vowel sounds but often omitted vowels. With prompting, 'stretched words out' to hear and record. Was developing a core of high frequency words that he could write and becoming familiar with some common spelling patterns, such as <i>y</i> in <i>very</i> .

It can be seen that Jesse showed similar use of cues when reading in both settings. However, when noticing his own errors in the classroom he tended to use the initial letter and make a guess which sometimes did not maintain meaning or structure. In Reading Recovery he used the first two or three letters, but had difficulty moving beyond this level, and his attempts usually maintained meaning and structure.

Jesse also showed similar approaches to writing across the two settings, but in Reading Recovery when he was prompted to stretch words out he included vowels and all consonants in the words he needed to write. In the classroom he tended to say, "I don't know", when faced with difficulties, but in Reading Recovery where he had constant teacher attention he was more inclined to persist with reading and writing unfamiliar words. Table 6.16 summarises Jesses behaviour in both instructional settings.

Table 6.16. Jesse's Literacy-Related Behaviours in Classroom and Reading Recovery

Behaviour Category	Classroom	Reading Recovery
Attention to Task	Spent time telling others how to do the task rather than making a start. Poor organisation of materials delayed beginning activities.	Demonstrated substantial periods of focused learning. Sometimes distracted from the task by chatting about an experience associated with the content of the reading or writing. Physically unsettled at times.
Coping Behaviour	When experiencing difficulties, did not ask teacher but looked at neighbour's work or asked another child. Frequently rubbed out work when his neighbour told him his work was incorrect.	Occasionally looked at teacher for confirmation.
Engagement/ Participation in Lesson	During mat time often appeared to be attending by looking in the teacher's direction. Sometimes volunteered to participate in question-answer routines. Concerned with "Doing what the teacher told me to do". Attended to instructions as to how to do the task without understanding the nature of the task. Appeared to see the focus of the lesson as the content/topic, but not as literacy processes.	Suggested his own sentence to write and showed as much independence in writing as was possible in this setting. Persisted in trying to work out new words. Made comments such as, "That's <i>go</i> and that's <i>ing</i> , umm I'm not sure...I've had that word before. I think it's <i>going</i> "

In both settings Jesse showed signs of being easily distracted from the task. Off-task behaviour in the classroom was dealt with by the teacher calling out Jesse's name, or going to look at Jesse's work. This would result in Jesse returning to the task, but he would very soon become distracted again. As a consequence, Jesse lacked the focus and persistence on reading and writing tasks he was able to show in Reading Recovery. The Reading Recovery teacher also had to manage Jesse's off-task behaviour, but this was a lot easier to do in the one-to-one setting.

In the classroom Jesse appeared to be concerned with carrying out the teacher's instructions and completing tasks "the right way". He also spent time telling other children how to complete tasks beginning with, "Mrs West said you have to....". When being interviewed during desk work, he gave perfunctory responses to questions, usually repeating instructions for how to complete the task. When he elaborated on responses it seemed that it was because he was interested in the content of the lesson. For example, he became animated when speaking on the subject of being able to fly, in the response-to-reading session following the book, "I Wish I Could Fly". He also seemed to involve himself fully in illustrating his work and talking about his illustrations, but he did not appear to engage at this level in his literacy learning.

Jesse also appeared unwilling to attempt any task that he perceived as too difficult in the classroom. In the one-to-one setting of Reading Recovery, he sometimes made the comment, "This is hard", but persisted anyway. He appeared to engage in learning at a deeper level in Reading Recovery, making reflective comments on his literate activity and taking some control over his literacy learning.

Robert.

Table 6.17 summarises Robert's reading and writing behaviours in the classroom and Reading Recovery.

Table 6.17. Robert's Reading and Writing Behaviours in the Classroom and in Reading Recovery.

	Classroom	Reading Recovery
Reading cohesive text	Generally read to make meaning. At difficulties, used initial letter and made a guess which was sometimes structurally correct and sometimes not. Self corrected at times but often did not notice own miscues.	At difficulties, relied on visual cues but tended to use this information ineffectively. Used the first letter and made a guess which often did not maintain structure or meaning. Alternatively, sounded each letter in a word. Needed prompting to look for what he knew in a word, ie., familiar letter patterns.
Reading words in isolation	Recognised many words as wholes. At difficulties did not make a close analysis of each letter but used several letters to make a guess. Read <i>spring</i> for <i>string</i> , <i>cold</i> for <i>cloud</i> .	Not required to do this in Reading Recovery
Writing	Some high frequency words spelled correctly. Wrote some words from a sound analysis. Some began with a sound analysis and ended erroneously. Some appeared to be written from a visual rather than a phonological orientation.	Said words aloud and recorded the sounds he could hear. Needed prompting to 'stretch words out' to hear all sounds. Growing core of high frequency words that could be written in all detail

In the classroom Robert was not observed reading as much text at his instructional level as he was in Reading Recovery. It was noted that the text contained in classroom worksheets tended to be at a lower level than the texts he had to read in Reading Recovery. He showed similar use of cues when reading, across the two settings, but his writing attempts did not appear so consistent. In the classroom his writing sometimes demonstrated a phonological approach. For example, *figr* (*finger*) but at other times it seemed he had written words from a more visual orientation, for example, *prka* (*park*). In Reading Recovery where he had constant teacher guidance, he attempted words by “stretching out” the sounds, and recording each sound he could hear. Robert also frequently checked with his Reading Recovery teacher as he wrote letters in words. In the classroom he often asked his neighbour to spell words for him. He had a core of high frequency words that he wrote correctly in both settings

Table 6.18 summarises Robert’s literacy-related behaviours in the classroom and Reading Recovery.

Table 6.18. Robert's Literacy-Related Behaviours in the Classroom and in Reading

Recovery.

Category of Behaviour	Classroom	Reading Recovery
Attention to Task	Initiated a lot of off task chat.	Focused on the task.
Coping Behaviour	When experiencing difficulties, did not ask teacher but looked at neighbour's work or asked another child. Frequently rubbed out work when he saw his neighbour had done it differently.	Frequently looked at teacher for clues but did not make a verbal request for assistance.
Engagement in Task	During mat time volunteered to participate in question-answer routines. Concerned with "doing what the teacher told me to". Attended to instructions as to how to do the task without understanding the nature of the task.	Made a suggestion for a sentence to write after some teacher questioning and prompting. Often watched the teacher's running record to see if he was right, as he was reading. Passive in his response to teacher's prompts. Concerned with guessing what it was the teacher wanted him to do.

In the classroom Robert was often off-task, usually engaged in chatting with others, and had to be called back to the task by Mrs West. In Reading Recovery he appeared much more focused on the task, but this focus also seemed to be on the teacher and he watched her carefully, appearing anxious to do what was required of him.

In the classroom Robert did not seek the assistance of his teacher but of his neighbour, Cassie. In Reading Recovery Robert did not verbally seek assistance, but frequently sought confirmation by watching his teacher's reactions as he participated in reading and writing. In both settings Robert appeared to see that carrying out the teacher's instructions and completing tasks 'the right way' was of prime importance. His behaviour suggested that, in both settings, he saw the teacher as the holder of knowledge and that his role was to give the answers or complete the tasks according to what the teachers wanted. Other than expressing some pleasure in his writing ability in Reading Recovery, he did not appear to value his learning and his ability in either setting. He participated in literacy lessons and developed his literacy skills but did not demonstrate engagement and ownership in his literacy learning.

Tyson.

Table 6.19 summarises Tyson's Reading and Writing Behaviours in both settings.

Table 6.19. Tyson's Reading and Writing Behaviours in the Classroom and Reading

Recovery

Category of Behaviour	Classroom	Reading Recovery
Reading cohesive text	Orchestrated all cues. At some difficulties, neglected meaning cues and focused on visual cues. At others, tended to neglect visual beyond the first letter but re-ran and searched for more visual cues to self correct.	Orchestrated meaning, structure and visual cues on easy text but at difficulties, neglected visual information beyond initial letter. Often used initial letter to make a guess. When noticing errors, searched for more information in pictures and letter-sounds.
Reading words in isolation	Decoded using a sound analysis, <i>s-t-r-ing</i> . Where he had copied <i>swing</i> incorrectly, writing <i>sging</i> , he sounded, <i>s-g-ing</i> several times and eventually said, "I don't know."	Not required to do this in Reading Recovery.
Writing cohesive text.	Subvocalised each word, recording sounds heard. Recorded major consonants and vowels for each word. Some high frequency words spelled correctly. Used some knowledge of spelling patterns such as <i>ou</i> in <i>cloud</i> . Searched the blackboard for correct spelling of words he needed.	Said words slowly and 'stretched out' the sounds. Could hear and record all major consonant and vowel sounds in words he needed to write. Beginning to use some knowledge of common spelling patterns. Developing a core of high frequency words that he could write.

In reading and writing tasks Tyson showed similar use of cues and attempts at writing unfamiliar words. In Reading Recovery where he had constant teacher attention, he tended to persist more with reading and writing unfamiliar words, whereas in the classroom he sometimes appeared to lack focus and persistence. Table 6.20 summarises Tyson’s literacy-related behaviours in both the classroom and the Reading Recovery setting.

Table 6.20. Tyson’s Literacy Related Behaviour in the Classroom and Reading

Recovery

Category of Behaviour	Classroom	Reading Recovery Room
Attention to Task	Focused when colouring or drawing. When completing literacy components of tasks tended to chat while working.	Focused on task at hand. Aware of each stage of lesson. Pre-empted teacher with comments such as, “It’s writing time”, “What’s my new book?”
Coping Behaviour	When experiencing difficulties did not ask teacher but looked at neighbour’s work or another child. Frequently copies work from a neighbour.	Occasionally looked at teacher for confirmation but not for help.
Engagement/ Participation in task	Got started on task quickly. Spent more time on colouring work. During mat time appeared restless and disinterested. Participated in question-answer routines only when asked. Appeared concerned with “Doing what the teacher told me to.” Attended to instructions as to how to do the task but did not appear to understand the nature of the task. Appeared to see the focus of the lesson as the content/topic but not as literacy processes.	Suggested his own sentence to write and began writing as independently as he could. Active participant in learning. Made statements such as, “This word tricks me,” “I’m stuck on this word”, “That doesn’t make sense.” Said words slowly and ‘stretched out’ the sounds. Could hear and record all major consonant and vowel sounds in words he needed to write. Beginning to use some knowledge of common spelling patterns. Developing a core of high frequency words that he could write.

In the classroom Tyson engaged in chat and wandered around the room to borrow coloured pencils. During lesson introductions he appeared restless and disinterested. He appeared more focused when he was colouring or drawing on worksheets than when completing the literacy components of his tasks. In Reading Recovery he appeared focused on the task at hand and engaged actively in working through all lesson components.

During desk work in the classroom Tyson appeared focused on carrying out the teacher's instructions and completing tasks 'the right way', but he did not appear to move beyond this role and demonstrate a pattern of engagement and ownership in his literacy learning. In the one-to-one Reading Recovery setting Tyson appeared to engage in learning at a deeper level, making reflective comments on his literate activity and appearing to value his literacy learning.

Discussion

Research question 1a.

How do four children who take part in a Reading Recovery program 'do' literacy in the regular classroom?

Reading and writing behaviours.

When reading, all four children applied their developing knowledge of meaning, structure and visual information, as well as cues provided by illustrations, to reconstruct text. Variations were noted in each child's orchestration of this information. For example, Brad often used meaning and structure cues and neglected visual cues beyond the first letter, whereas Tyson, at times, tended to neglect meaning cues and focused on visual information. Each child was observed engaging in self correction behaviour when reading connected text. When reading words isolated from sentences each of the

children used their developing letter-sound knowledge. Brad tended to use only the initial letter of a word while Jesse used the first two or three letters. Tyson was able to phonologically analyse four and five letter words. Robert was not observed making a close analysis of words but used several letters to make a guess.

When writing, each of the children used their letter-sound knowledge and high frequency word knowledge to construct text. All four children used a phonological analysis, recording the sounds they could hear in words. Although Robert showed evidence of this approach he also wrote some words from a more visual than phonological orientation. All children except for Brad were observed writing some high frequency words correctly and Tyson was observed using some knowledge of common spelling patterns.

Literacy-related behaviours.

Results showed a general tendency of each child in this setting, towards 'doing the task' or 'doing literacy lessons', rather than learning about how to develop their literacy skills and how to use literacy knowledge. It appeared that all four children participated in their classroom literacy lessons with varying degrees of compliance and a sense of needing to do as the teacher had instructed. Each of the children appeared to take a passive approach to their learning in the classroom setting. Carrying out literacy tasks by following instructions and doing 'what they were told' seemed important to them and they appeared to understand that their work would be judged as right or wrong by the teacher. The children's focus on 'doing the task' may have been due to the fact that much of the student-teacher interaction in the lesson introductions was centred around the worksheet or task. Mrs West was often observed repeating and restating instructions for worksheet completion. She also gave clear and frequent instructions for the procedures surrounding these tasks, such as, "Put your hand up and ask for your good

copy paper. Ask me to check your work. Place your book, open, on my chair.” The classroom literacy lessons observed involved ‘closed’ tasks requiring children to fill in words, match text with pictures etc, and did not require children to use learning strategies or maintain concentration. The children did not appear to understand the literacy learning involved in the tasks and this may have been due to them having little ownership or control over these closed tasks. Mrs West’s focus on how to complete the worksheets or tasks seemed to be reflected in the children’s responses to interview questions while engaging in these lessons. As it appeared that the learning objectives of lessons were not made clear, the children appeared to pick up on the teacher’s focus on task completion.

Research Question 1b

How do four children who take part in a Reading Recovery program ‘do’ literacy in Reading Recovery?

Reading and writing behaviours.

As in the classroom setting, the children used their developing knowledge of meaning, structure and visual information along with the cues provided by illustrations to read connected text. Brad, Tyson and Jesse tended to rely on meaning and structure and neglect visual cues at difficulties while Robert tended to rely on visual cues at the expense of meaning and structure when experiencing difficulties. All children were observed self correcting by searching for further information in the text. This behaviour was sometimes self initiated and sometimes prompted by the teacher.

When writing, all four children used a phonological analysis, recording the sounds they could hear in words. Each child varied in his ability to hear and record the number of sounds in a word. Brad, Robert and Jesse required teacher prompting to hear all the sounds contained in a word while Tyson could hear and record all sounds in most words

he needed to write. Each child had a core of high frequency words that could be written correctly. Both Tyson and Jesse were beginning to use some knowledge of common spelling patterns.

Literacy-related behaviour.

The children's response to the Reading Recovery setting was more varied than in the classroom. Two of the children, Brad and Robert, appeared to approach their Reading Recovery lessons with a similar reliance on teacher instructions to that showed in the classroom setting. This was made apparent by their constant need for teacher direction. Both children were observed checking that they were carrying out the teacher's instructions. When asked to write something specific on their practice page they would say, "Here?", pointing to the page that was designated for practice and then ask whereabouts on the practise page they should write it. When ready to write the word into their sentence, they would again question where to write it, even though both children were familiar with the concept of left to right sentence writing.

Both of these children frequently looked at the Reading Recovery teacher for non-verbal signs of assistance, but did not overtly ask for help. Robert, in particular, seemed concerned with guessing what was in the teacher's head. For example, when reading a particular text Robert stopped at the word *enormous*, a word he had encountered in two previous texts. The Reading Recovery teacher prompted for meaning cues, explaining that the word described the pile of leaves, featured in the illustration, and that it meant "really big". Robert then read, "really big". The teacher explained that it did not say "really big" but that that was what the word "enormous" meant. She then asked him to put together "the next two letters" of the word and Robert read, "next to". It was interesting that this should occur in the Reading Recovery setting where lengthy question-answer exchanges did not take place and the teacher's questioning and

commands were focused on having Robert think about which cues would help him work out words, rather than on eliciting one correct response. It appeared in this case, that the Reading Recovery teacher's prompting was unsuccessful as Robert understood the questioning to be a test of whether he could give the 'right' answer rather than interpreting the questioning as leading him towards use of appropriate cues in text.

Brad, on the other hand, responded positively to teacher prompting. When the Reading Recovery teacher guided Brad to use what he knew about words and language he read more effectively, but he was usually passive when this was not forthcoming.

Both Tyson and Jesse took an active approach to their reading and writing tasks in this setting. They engaged in metacognitive talk when trying to work out unfamiliar words in reading and writing and showed persistence in trying to problem solve. They showed as much independence as they could in the various lesson components and asked for help when they needed it.

Research question 2.

What are the similarities and differences in the ways in which these children 'do' literacy in the classroom and Reading Recovery settings?

Reading and writing behaviours.

It was noted that the children tended to make similar use of cues when reading in both settings. The major difference was that in Reading Recovery they generally showed more persistence and searched for further cues at difficulties, as they were prompted to do so by the Reading Recovery teacher. This individual prompting was not available in the classroom setting. Also, the children were not observed reading entire books in the classroom as they were in Reading Recovery.

Similarly when writing, each of the children also showed similar use of letter-sound knowledge in both settings. Robert showed some exception to this when he wrote

words from a visual rather than a phonological perspective in the classroom, yet his writing sometimes showed evidence of a phonological approach in this setting. In the Reading Recovery setting the children were extended further in their writing as they were individually prompted to use analogy with known words and given assistance with sound boxes.

The constant interaction with the teacher in the Reading Recovery setting enabled the children to extend themselves and perform at a higher level than when working on their own or within their peer group in the classroom. The children tended to persist more and use alternative strategies, as they were prompted with questions to facilitate problem solving. Nevertheless, the children's use of cues when reading and use of phonological knowledge when writing were similar to the reading and writing behaviours demonstrated in the classroom.

Literacy-related behaviours.

Results show a number of similarities in the ways in which the four children did literacy in the classroom, while the ways in which they did literacy in the Reading Recovery setting were more varied. As described, the literacy-related behaviours of the children in the classroom, showed a tendency towards a passive approach to learning and a need for teacher direction. More variation in behaviours was shown in the Reading Recovery setting. Both Robert and Brad demonstrated similar passive behaviours in this setting as they did in the classroom while Jesse and Tyson appeared to be more actively involved in their learning during Reading Recovery lessons.

The Reading Recovery setting appeared to involve a more constructivist approach where the children were required to 'think' and problem solve. Like the classroom setting the environment was controlled by the teacher, but the children were guided to work out difficulties by using existing knowledge to move to a new level of learning.

The Reading Recovery teacher's task is to work individually from the knowledge base and strengths of each particular child, moving through a particular pathway for that child to bring him/her to the point where they will be able to become active participants in their own classroom program (Clay, 1993). Every action of teaching during a Reading Recovery lesson represents a decision that the teacher must make for that child at a particular point in time. Therefore Reading Recovery teachers are required to use skills of observation and reflective analysis that many classroom teachers do not have the time or opportunity to engage in with their 30 students. Much of the Reading Recovery teacher's talk was about the cognitive processes required for reading and writing. In the Reading Recovery setting both Tyson and Jesse used metacognitive language as they interacted with texts and made links with their own experiences and the texts they read and wrote, which may reflect the fact that the Reading Recovery teacher's discourse focused on the cognitive aspects of reading and writing.

The classroom teacher's philosophy of literacy teaching appeared to be 'eclectic'. She stated the need for children to be immersed in language and explained that she used the shared experiences of the class to generate reading and writing activities. Her teaching of phonics could be described as a 'skill and drill' approach as she taught children the letter-sound combinations and had them complete worksheets to reinforce this learning.

As stated in chapter 4 the classroom teacher's style of instruction appeared characteristic of the category of teaching style described by Anstey (1996) as, "pedagogy of literacy lessons". In the classroom setting most of the student-teacher exchanges were focused on the worksheet or task and the children received little information about the cognitive processes involved in the task. The aim of the lessons

in this setting appeared to be on doing the task rather than learning about literacy and how to use it.

The classroom teacher also engaged in lengthy question-answer exchanges with her students which appeared to be aimed at eliciting responses that modelled the logic of the teacher. Two of the children, Brad and Tyson, appeared intent on avoiding involvement in these exchanges. It may have been that the particular patterns of interaction in this classroom were not conducive to the engagement of these two children in classroom discussion.

It appeared that the classroom and the Reading Recovery settings were not consistent with one another in their approach to literacy teaching and learning. Classroom teachers do not usually have time or the opportunities for the 'close' teaching, sensitive observation and reflective analysis required in Reading Recovery, and most children are able to learn under conditions that are not so focused on individual needs. However, given that there are necessary differences between the classroom and Reading Recovery contexts there appeared a lack of continuity between the two teacher's philosophies and consequent practice in teaching literacy that could not be attributed entirely to the contextual differences. These differences seemed to be reflected in the children's literacy-related behaviours which have been described earlier.

Table 6.21 summarises the connections/disconnections between the two settings.

Table 6.21. Connections/Disconnections Between the Classroom and Reading Recovery Settings

Reading Recovery Room	Connections/Disconnections	Classroom
Focus on learning about literacy and the cognitive processes involved in reading and writing.	Instructional style	Focus on “doing literacy”, how to carry out the task and the classroom procedures surrounding this.
Guided oral reading of 3 texts in each session. Interactive approach incorporating use of meaning, visual and structure cues. Phonological approach to spelling, moving into an orthographic approach in later stages of the program.	Approach to reading and writing	Very little reading of whole texts by students observed. In worksheet activities a ‘sounding out’ approach to reading was focused upon. A phonological approach to spelling was encouraged during independent writing tasks, with use of personal dictionary.
A variety of finely graded fiction and non-fiction texts. Magnetic letters for ‘making and breaking’ of words. Individualised writing tasks	Resources	Fiction and non-fiction texts graded into broad bands. Worksheets for phonic blends and other literacy related tasks. ‘Shared book’ as stimulus for response-to-reading activities.

One to one setting. Each session involves constant teacher-child interaction. Little overt behaviour management.	Management of students	One teacher to 30 students who sit in groups of 6-8. Whole class behaviour management plan is in place and children are aware of 'consequences'.
Each 30 minute session is tailored to meet the literacy needs of the student. Teacher plans each lesson based on previous lesson's successes and failures and makes instructional decisions as the lesson progresses	Lesson format	Outcomes for lessons appear to be aimed at the whole class. Lessons commenced with all children seated on the mat and the task modelled/explained. Children are then sent to desks to complete tasks. Teacher walks around the room, supervising and providing assistance where it appears necessary.

Research Question 3.

What perceptions do these four children have about doing literacy?

The children's perceptions about doing literacy were inferred from the ways they went about their tasks in both settings. In the classroom perceptions were determined predominantly by what the children said when asked about the tasks. In the Reading Recovery setting children's perceptions of literacy instruction were determined predominantly by what they said and did while they engaged in the Reading Recovery lessons. As has been discussed in Chapter 3 it was not thought appropriate to ask the questions, "What are you doing?" and "Why are you doing that?" as this would have interrupted the flow of the constant interaction between the teacher and child in the Reading Recovery setting.

Classroom

The children's perceptions about doing literacy were categorised into two main groups of 'what they said' and 'what they did' when going about their classroom literacy tasks

What they said.

When the children were interviewed in the classroom and asked to talk about what they were doing, their responses often indicated their concern with having to follow the teacher's instructions. They repeated instructions such as, "First you put your name and date at the top of the page, then you copy that from the blackboard". Robert said, "You put your hand up and the teacher comes and gives you the piece of paper for your good copy". Tyson explained, "You draw the lines like that", when asked how he could work out which pictures matched each sentence on a worksheet.

When the children were asked to talk about why they were doing the observed literacy activity they often replied, "Because Mrs West told us to," or, "'Cos Mrs West said we have to". When Jesse was asked to talk about what he was doing he replied, "You have to do it in your environmental studies book". He was then asked what it was he had to do and pointed to the blackboard saying, "That". Jesse was unable to explain what it was he had to do, other than copy some writing from the blackboard and he appeared more concerned with locating his environmental studies book, which he was at that moment unable to find.

During classroom observation the teacher was heard several times saying to various children who were not showing the expected behaviours, "What did I tell you to do?", and, "You didn't listen to my instructions did you?" The learning environment of this classroom appeared to be teacher centred, whereby all lessons began with children sitting on the mat listening to the teacher introduce the task. All observed discussion occurred in the form of a three-part exchange which included initiation by the teacher, response by the student and feedback by the teacher (Anstey, 1996; Rivalland, 2000). Children were not encouraged to interact with each other during this time and all comments were directed to the teacher. The teacher persisted with eliciting responses until she received the answer she deemed to be most appropriate. The children appeared to be showing their ability to 'do literacy' as the teacher had told them to do.

The children's responses to questions rarely showed an understanding of the literacy learning involved in the activity. At times the children showed some understanding of the content of the activity, but not of the learning about literacy. When Jesse was asked why he thought he had to do the activity generated by the book, "I Wish I Could Fly", his answer related to how being able to fly could help him. When Tyson was asked why he thought the class had been given a particular learning activity he replied that he

thought the teacher had perhaps wanted to give them something “fun” to do. Brad’s responses to questions often indicated he did not understand either how to carry out an activity or the literacy learning involved in the task. In a lesson that required children to write questions and answers in speech bubbles, they did not extract any meaning from the pictures on which to base their questions and answers. When asked to talk about the learning activity, each replied that they were “writing in speech bubbles”. The children’s responses to the question of what they thought they were learning from this included, “To write in speech bubbles”, (Tyson) and, “How to write properly and how to colour in properly”, (Jesse). When Robert was asked why he was doing a particular activity he usually gave a vague response such as, “To get better”, or “To learn more”.

What they did.

The ways the children attended to their classroom literacy tasks has already been described. The amount of off-task behaviour engaged in by each of the children suggests that they may not have seen a need to focus on tasks as they were able to complete them as though on ‘automatic pilot’.

When these children encountered difficulties they sought help from their peers in various ways. Brad’s furtive glances at his neighbour’s work suggested that he saw seeking help as something that was inappropriate. The other three children, while occasionally making covert attempts, were generally more overt in their assistance seeking from neighbours. All four children were observed rubbing out their work as a result of looking at a neighbour’s work. The children seemed to automatically assume that if there was a difference it was their work and not their neighbour’s that was incorrect. Jesse and Robert sometimes engaged in disputes with peers over what it was they had to do or how to carry out the task. These two children were observed several times arguing with each other over what Mrs West had told them to do.

Discussion of Perceptions in the Classroom Setting

The literacy learning tasks in the classroom setting were generally closed and product- oriented, in that the tasks usually required one correct answer and the procedures for carrying out these tasks were very prescriptive. This may have had an impact on the children's perceptions of literacy in the classroom, as they appeared to be focused on meeting the expectations of the teacher and carrying out their literacy learning tasks the 'right' way.

The literacy learning involved in the observed classroom lessons was not made explicit by the teacher. In the lesson requiring children to write questions and answers in speech bubbles she began by pointing to individual children, asking them to frame a question and then appointing another child to answer. She then explained the purpose of speech bubbles and asked children to write the conversation between the characters, using the pictures to help with the context. The particular worksheet used in this lesson was from a reading scheme not used in this classroom and was designed to be used as a follow-up activity after the children had read a specific piece of text to which it related. Most of the teacher's explanation focused on the need to write a question in the first character's speech bubble and then have the second character in the worksheet answer it. She also focused on the need to "write small if you want to say a long sentence". In this and the other lessons observed it was often not clear what the teaching objectives were. The teacher made clear the instructions for how to complete the task and often reiterated her instructions. She questioned children to check their understanding of requirements for task completion. However, the ambiguous teaching focus may have made it difficult for children to identify and understand the literacy learning involved in the task. Ludwig and Herschell (1998, p.69) believe that this "blurring of foci" is

common in primary school classrooms and makes it difficult for children to identify learning content and transfer it to other contexts.

Reading Recovery Setting

What the children said and did during Reading Recovery lessons.

The children's behaviour was examined in terms of how they approached their reading and writing tasks.

Both Tyson and Jesse participated actively in their lessons. They showed initiative in suggesting their own sentence to write and both children began their writing as independently as possible. Both children would turn to previous pages in their writing book to check the spelling of a word they had written before. Tyson took an active approach to all lesson components. He did not wait to be asked to begin reading or writing but started independently. As the teacher began to prompt in the reading and writing component, Tyson sometimes said, "Don't tell me...I know that word". This did not necessarily bring about the correct word but it indicated the level of active participation and willingness to problem solve in his reading and writing. Jesse also showed persistence in trying to solve new words, making such comments as, "I've had that word before...now what was it?", before attempting to work it out. His attempts did not always produce the correct word but he did not usually wait to be prompted before trying to problem solve. When encountering difficulties Tyson and Jesse made comments such as, "I know... I had that word yesterday", "This word always tricks me", and, "That doesn't make sense". When attempting to self correct, both of these children only occasionally looked at the teacher for non verbal signs of confirmation.

Brad engaged in Reading Recovery lessons by following the teacher's lead. When handed a book he waited for the teacher to ask him to start reading. He responded to prompts positively but always waited for prompting before he took any action and he

did not engage in any discussion about problem solving strategies. Brad did not usually make any comments when encountering difficulties, but looked at the teacher for help when he thought he had miscued. He did not make any verbal requests for help but appeared to wait for teacher assistance. He waited for the teacher to suggest a sentence to write, often saying, "I don't know", when asked what he would like to write about. Before writing most letters in words Brad checked by saying the letter with a rising intonation and looking at the teacher for confirmation.

Robert often averted his eyes from the text to look at the teacher when he was reading. When taking a Running Record the teacher recorded a tick for each word as it was read correctly. Robert was aware of this, so he often watched the record being made of his reading to see if he was correct. When he encountered difficulties and the teacher gave some prompting, Robert often took a passive approach, saying what it seemed he thought he was supposed to say, rather than what would assist him to make sense of the text. Robert frequently looked at the teacher while he was reading and writing and did not ask for help but waited until the teacher prompted him. He also required prompting to come up with an idea for a sentence to write and, although he generally started quite confidently, he would quickly resort to looking at the teacher for signs as to whether he was on the right track with his spelling. Robert tended not to ask for help or verbalise any difficulties but waited for the teacher's prompts.

Tyson's and Jesse's perceptions about doing literacy in this setting appeared to be that they felt they had some control over their learning. That is, they engaged in some strategies without prompting when they approached difficulties. They generally tried to solve difficulties by using what they knew. Brad and Robert, on the other hand, appeared to see the teacher as the holder of knowledge as they waited for prompting and

to be told what to do next. Their first recourse when approaching difficulties was to look to the teacher for help or wait for the teacher to offer it.

In the Reading Recovery setting most of the teacher talk was about the cognitive processes involved in reading and writing, with the addition of some management talk. It appeared that both Tyson and Jesse responded to this type of instruction by engaging in metacognitive talk and taking an active approach to their reading and writing, using the cognitive processes they were being taught. However, Robert and Brad did not respond in this way and their perceptions of literacy instruction in Reading Recovery appeared similar to their perceptions of instruction in the classroom. Robert, particularly, appeared to be preoccupied with guessing what was in the teacher's head. He seemed to see the Reading Recovery teacher as well as the classroom teacher as the holder of knowledge and that any responses on his part were to guess the correct answer that the teacher was trying to elicit. Brad waited for teacher direction and compliantly did as he was asked. With the constant teacher direction that Reading Recovery allowed, Brad was able to exercise his literacy skills more than he did in the classroom but his approach in this setting was generally passive.

Discussion of Perceptions in the Reading Recovery Setting

Brad and Robert took a passive learning stance to their Reading Recovery lessons and appeared to perceive instruction in this setting as teacher-centred. Although these two children were at different stages of their Reading Recovery program, Brad was in the early stages and reading around text level 5 and Robert had nearly reached the stage of discontinuing at reading level 16, they showed similar reliance on teacher direction and were hesitant to make any moves unless they received some sign of affirmation. In Brad's case it may have been that in his early stage of reading development, he found the Reading Recovery work too taxing and that this undermined his confidence.

Robert, who had commenced Reading Recovery at a higher level of reading than Brad, may have already been entrenched in his perceptions that instruction is controlled by the teacher.

Tyson and Jesse both appeared to take more control over their own learning in Reading Recovery and responded in ways intended by the teacher such as participating positively, engaging in metacognitive talk and seeking to solve difficulties.

Summary

For Tyson and Jesse, perceptions about doing literacy appeared to be related to the context of the instructional setting. In the classroom these two children seemed concerned with ‘doing the task’ and it was the literacy task more than the literacy learning that was emphasised in the teaching in this setting. On the other hand, in Reading Recovery the focus tended to be on learning about literacy and Tyson and Jesse engaged in metacognitive talk about literacy and actively sought to solve difficulties. They engaged in “literate behaviours” (Dahl & Freppon, 1998), linking their experiences to the texts they read and reflecting on their own literate activity.

Robert’s and Brad’s perceptions about doing literacy appeared similar in both settings. They seemed to see both instructional settings as teacher-centred. In the classroom and Reading Recovery setting Robert tried to second guess the teacher and do and say what he thought was expected of him. He participated in the literacy learning activities of both settings, but he did not give the impression that he saw himself as having any control over his literacy learning. Brad was not quite as passive in Reading Recovery as he was in the classroom, but this was most likely because he was given constant guidance and there was little choice but to interact with the teacher. In the classroom Brad appeared to have difficulty with most literacy tasks he was required to

engage in and he seemed to perceive literacy as something that had to be done according to certain procedures, but that he was unable to do independently.

CHAPTER 7

Discussion

This chapter presents a general discussion of the findings and some issues arising from this study.

General Discussion

This study sought to capture how children with reading difficulties ‘did’ literacy in both their regular classroom and the Reading Recovery room settings, as well as the children’s perceptions of literacy instruction. The purpose was to make visible the connections and disconnections across the two settings in the children’s ‘ways of doing’ and perceptions of literacy and to shed light on how these two settings might work together to address the literacy needs of these students.

Summary of Findings

- The results of this study show similarities in the children’s reading and writing behaviours across the two settings, with some differences in their literacy-related behaviours from one setting to the other.
- The children in this study generally applied their literacy skills across both settings, demonstrating similar reading and writing behaviours in each context, although the one-to-one nature of Reading Recovery appeared to result in higher levels of skill use for each of them.
- Each of the four children appeared to demonstrate similar perceptions of the purpose of literacy instruction in the classroom in that they participated in their classroom literacy lessons with varying degrees of compliance and with a verbalised sense of needing to do as the teacher had instructed. This was interpreted as a passive learning stance.

- It is possible that the children's perceptions of literacy instruction in the Reading Recovery setting differed, as it appeared that while Robert and Brad continued their passive learning stance in Reading Recovery, Jesse and Tyson took a more active approach. These two children responded to their instruction by becoming involved in their learning. However, it is not possible to explore this issue further as the children were not interviewed in the Reading Recovery setting.
- It appeared to be the careful scaffolding of Reading Recovery which brought about the differences in Jesse's and Tyson's behaviours in this setting.

Issues

In the classroom all four children showed a perceived need to rigidly adhere to procedural instructions and it is possible that the classroom teacher's instructional style of 'doing the worksheet or task' reinforced this. In Chapter 2 reference was made to research in the area of metacognition and literacy teaching (Brown & Campione, 1980; Lawson, 1984; Heap, 1991), which identifies three types of knowledge as necessary for effective literacy learning, of which procedural knowledge is only one. While it is important that children know the procedures of how to complete literacy tasks, they also need to know the literacy skills and strategies that they can use to complete the tasks (propositional knowledge) and they need to know the contexts in which the use of these skills and strategies is most appropriate (conditional knowledge).

The classroom teacher's focus on how to complete tasks appeared to be reflected in the children's concern with carrying out instructions correctly but not understanding the literacy processes required for the task. In some lessons her learning objectives seemed to be "randomly focused" (Ludwig & Herschell, 1998) in that her attempts to integrate learning were loosely related to her stated learning objectives and this may have resulted in the children being unable to identify the literacy learning content of their

lessons. Ludwig and Herschell believe that classroom literacy lessons need to provide explicit knowledge about language and literacy as well as providing information about 'how to do' literacy. Anstey (1998) has drawn together the research in the area of literacy pedagogy and states that effective literacy instruction must be explicit and develop and enhance the concept of literacy, not just the skills of literacy. Anstey also suggests that literacy lessons:

- Be functional and goal-directed
- Be seen by the children to be relevant to a variety of real life contexts
- Contain explanations and demonstrations by the teacher which give propositional, procedural and conditional knowledge
- Incorporate practice, adaptation and transfer of strategies through activities which encourage self monitoring
- Acknowledge children's social contexts outside the classroom in the selection of content and materials.

Whilst it is possible that many of these factors were included in some of the classroom teacher's lessons they were not apparent in the lessons observed for this study. The Reading Recovery setting which brought about a more active learning stance in Tyson and Jesse, appeared to incorporate a number of the above factors. Instruction in this setting appeared to be goal directed as the teacher made decisions 'on the run' to meet the learning needs of each of the children. Instruction in this setting involved propositional knowledge and conditional knowledge as the children were taught specific literacy skills and their uses in other learning situations were made explicit. Self monitoring was also fostered in the Reading Recovery setting as a strategy inherent to the program. Children were taught to check for loss of meaning and search for further cues to self correct and maintain meaning when reading.

While assumptions have been made about the effect of the style of instruction on the children's literacy related behaviours, the question remains as to why two of the children took a more active learning stance in Reading Recovery than was shown by the other two. The aim of Reading Recovery is to foster engaged and active participation in literacy development and Tyson and Jesse responded in intended ways and demonstrated an active disposition toward literacy learning. On the other hand, Robert and Brad maintained their passive and compliant learning stance and appeared to see the teacher as having total control over their learning. It is possible that the classroom teacher's instructional style during question-answer-exchanges reinforced Brad's and Robert's perceptions of literacy learning as being teacher centred. As described in Chapter 2, Baker and Freebody's (1989) study of the social contexts of reading lessons in Year One classrooms showed that much of the teacher's elicitations counted as correct only those responses that modelled the teacher's logic. The implicit message that this gave to students was that the teacher was the holder of knowledge. Brad, who appeared to find classroom literacy tasks difficult, may have taken this perception of the difficulty of literacy tasks with him to the Reading Recovery setting and it may also have been reinforced by the question-answer routines in Reading Recovery.

These findings support the need for teachers in both the classroom and Reading Recovery to be aware of the learner's perspective and individual differences in reading and writing development, in order for them to match instruction to the needs of each child (Dahl & Freppon, 1998). The instruction in Reading Recovery seemed to meet the needs of Jesse and Tyson, but not those of Robert and Brad. These two children may have learnt reading and writing skills and strategies in Reading Recovery, but they did not appear to take on an active and persistent learning stance in either classroom context. In the classroom setting, all four children appeared to understand that their

instructional work was important to a greater or lesser extent and they completed tasks according to instructions. It was apparent that they had learned various skills and strategies for reading and writing in this setting, but the style of instruction did not appear to develop in them an active and engaged approach. For Brad and Robert, it may have been that the classroom instructional style which focused on the 'right' way to carry out activities, made these two children resistant to instruction designed to foster active participation (Hicks & Villaume, 2001).

Another possibility is that these two children may have come from backgrounds where their socialisation contributed to their approach to learning seen in this study. These children's interactions in literacy events prior to school may have differed greatly to the ways in which they were required to interact at school (Barratt-Pugh, 2000; Rivalland, 2000). Rivalland discusses the need for teachers to link the ways of 'doing' literacy in the home to those of the school in order to support children in ways of 'doing' literacy in different contexts. She states that enabling children to adapt ways of doing literacy across different contexts is likely to "enable them to exert more power and control over their own lives." (p. 36). This would be beneficial for Robert and Brad who appeared to see themselves as having little control over their own learning.

A third possibility is that had the Reading Recovery teacher employed more effective strategies, Robert and Brad may have taken a more active role in their literacy learning.

Hicks & Villaume (2001) studied two children who differed in their responses to their Reading Recovery program, in order to identify the difficulties some children face while they are involved in such an intervention program. They state that recognising and attending to the children's literacy progress and engagement rather than to how literacy is 'done' in both settings could lead to developing a more active learning stance. For example, it appeared that in Reading Recovery, Brad's knowledge of reading was

being pushed ahead of his willingness and ability to apply this knowledge independently. The predictable texts used in Brad's early Reading Recovery lessons may not have afforded enough opportunities to attend to his phonological needs. It may have been more appropriate for his Reading Recovery teacher to incorporate more oral phonological awareness, rather than adhering to the prescribed components of a Reading Recovery lesson. Iverson and Tunmer (1993) questioned whether the Reading Recovery instructional framework optimised reading development for all children. They incorporated an additional component of phonological awareness activities into the lesson structure and found that most children reached discontinuation reading level with fewer Reading Recovery lessons.

The passive learning stance of both Robert and Brad would not appear to place them in good stead for becoming active and responsible participants in their future literacy learning. This study raises the issue of how to motivate children to become more active in their literacy learning and whether a passive learning stance can perhaps become embedded when it is ignored and instruction continued regardless (Hicks & Villaume, 2001).

One of the aims of this study was to shed light on how both the classroom and Reading Recovery teachers can work together to ensure the literacy development of their students. Difficulties with the competing demands of withdrawal and classroom programs identified by Allington (1993) have been described in Chapter 2. It would be beneficial for the teachers in both settings to share similar philosophies and practices in order to minimise discontinuity of instruction for children. Although the classroom teacher described her approach in terms that could be categorised as 'whole language' and thus, student centred and responsive, the closed nature of some of the observed tasks seemed to contradict this. Further, the classroom teacher and Reading Recovery

teacher in this study did not collaborate in their planning for children's literacy development. The only discussion that took place between them was to determine which children would be selected for the Reading Recovery program. In many schools the Reading Recovery teacher is also the teacher of the class to which the Reading Recovery students belong. This situation should alleviate difficulties with competing instructional styles and allow Reading Recovery students to experience a similar approach to literacy learning in both their withdrawal and classroom programs.

There is wide ranging opinion as to whether children's needs are best met in the classroom, in the withdrawal room or in a combination of both. Research by Marston (1996) showed significantly greater student progress when children received specialised instruction in both their withdrawal setting and the classroom setting. Dudley-Marling and Murphy (1997) suggest that withdrawing children for Reading Recovery may discourage classroom instructional change as it reduces the responsibility of the classroom teacher. In order to overcome possible difficulty they suggest that teachers from both settings work together to incorporate into the classroom program what research into Reading Recovery has shown to be effective.

It is not suggested that classroom teachers try to replicate Reading Recovery in the classroom where there are 30 children. Indeed, Clay (1993) states that approximately 80% of students in Year One classes will not need such close teaching as those in Reading Recovery. It is, however, suggested that both settings provide learning tasks which enable students to develop and use learning strategies, to construct meaning in text and to see the meaningfulness of literacy activities. It is important that both settings employ instruction that supports the construction of meaning so that students see the usefulness of their literacy tasks. Just as children in Reading Recovery are taught to use meaning, structure and visual information when reading, the classroom

teacher can also do this in the context of Shared Book and Guided Reading activities. Metacognition can be fostered by teachers in both settings as they encourage students to think aloud and reflect on strategy use.

Whilst the above issues focus on the development of children's reading and writing skills they do not address the issue of children developing the "literate behaviours", described by Dahl and Freppon (1998) as, "taking on the tasks of reading and writing, valuing their own experiences and personal language and connecting them with written language, and communicating about written language experiences". As has been described, Robert and Brad participated in the reading and writing activities of both their instructional settings and appeared to be learning literacy skills, yet neither child appeared to move beyond the role of compliant participant. Dahl and Freppon (1998) concluded from their study that acquiring a disposition for learning may be the most critical factor in the early grades. They state that early learner perceptions of literacy instruction "may establish patterns with far reaching consequences" and that children in Year One who have disengaged from literacy instruction may have already begun the pattern of "turning away from school" (p. 313).

While the present study appeared to show that Reading Recovery addressed the needs of developing 'literate behaviours' in Tyson and Jesse, it did not do the same for Robert and Brad, and in view of Dahl and Freppon's findings, it is possible that these two children may need additional support in subsequent years. Shanahan and Barr (1995) showed that some children who participated in Reading Recovery in Year One did not maintain their gains into the middle primary years. They concluded that these children may need further support in later years and so questioned the cost effectiveness of Reading Recovery and whether the considerable expense of such an individualised program is justified.

In the school setting of this study all financial resources for children with reading difficulties were directed to the Reading Recovery program and there appeared to be no other ongoing support for children who needed further specialised assistance. It was the role of the Reading Recovery teacher to monitor children who had left the program by taking running records several times in the ensuing terms of Year One and then once each term in Years Two and Three. This procedure showed whether children were progressing in their reading ability, but did not address further difficulties.

As mentioned in Chapter 2, Rohl and Milton (2002) found that some children who had participated in early intervention programs were still having reading difficulties in their middle and upper primary years. The authors state that schools need to recognise that no matter how good their teaching, there will always be some children who need ongoing support in the middle and upper primary years. Although the school site for this study provided a 'second wave' intervention program in Reading Recovery, there was no 'third wave' of support for such children.

Rohl and Milton suggest that a whole school commitment is required to ensure the support of children with learning difficulties and that this involves whole staff commitment to specific policies for children with learning difficulties. The Victorian Education Department's Early Years Literacy Project (EYLP) and the Victorian Catholic Education Office's Children's Literacy Success Strategy (CLASS) are both based on the belief that improvements in literacy are achievable through a whole school approach.

Fundamental to such an approach is a professional development program for all teachers in the school, not just those who are directly involved in intervention strategies with children who have learning difficulties. The CLASS overview (Crevola & Hill, 1998) emphasises the importance of all teachers in participating schools to develop a deep understanding of the rationale behind its teaching strategies in order to gain

maximum value from training in such strategies as guided reading and writing. These instructional strategies are used in the regular classroom, but are consistent with the theoretical underpinnings of strategies used in Reading Recovery. These strategies can help children take responsibility for gaining and maintaining meaning from texts as they “talk, read and think their way purposefully through a text” (Crevola & Hill, 1998, p. 16).

As has already been discussed, the Reading Recovery program was in its first year of operation in the study school and the Reading Recovery teacher was in her year of training. The Reading Recovery teacher’s inexperience in the program may have had an impact on the findings of this study as she may not have been as effective as more experienced Reading Recovery teachers. Nevertheless, as there was no apparent collaboration between the teachers, it is reasonable to suggest that professional development which allowed the classroom teacher and the Reading Recovery teacher to reflect together on their beliefs and understandings about literacy learning and to understand the theories behind their various teaching programs and strategies could have helped them to better address the learning needs of these children.

The results of this study show that there is, however, some question as to whether Reading Recovery optimises literacy learning for all children who participate in the program. One view put forward by Hicks and Villaume (2001, p. 411) is that the “preservation of existing beliefs and preferred programs limits our potential for providing effective instruction”. They support Shanahan and Barr’s (1995) argument that apparently successful programs such as Reading Recovery should consider variations that could enhance learning or efficiency. Hicks and Villaume also suggest that teachers take part in “ongoing, bipartisan inquiry into the types of texts and tasks

that at-risk readers need as they develop necessary literacy knowledge, strategies and learning stances” (p. 411).

Conclusion

It was found in this study that each of the four children who were involved in the Reading Recovery program operated in similar ways in the regular classroom setting. While they appeared to understand that their instructional work was important and that it must be completed accurately, they also appeared to attend to their tasks with little thought and involvement. They appeared to perceive this learning environment as teacher centred and accordingly exercised little control over their own learning. In the Reading Recovery setting a different pattern emerged in that two of the children demonstrated a more active and engaged learning stance while the other two continued the passive and compliant approach demonstrated in the classroom.

The study also shed light on some connections and disconnections between how literacy was ‘done’ in both settings, giving rise to the need for a more congruent approach to instruction across the settings in order to optimise the evolving skills and understandings of the children involved.

The study also showed that while the Reading Recovery withdrawal reading program may assist children to develop their reading and writing skills, it may not necessarily develop in children an active learning stance and a positive disposition for literacy learning. This study points towards the need for both classroom and withdrawal teachers to carefully monitor the individual reading and writing behaviours, literacy learning behaviours and learning stances of at-risk Year One children and to engage in self reflection and problem solving when these children appear confused or passive. It appears that effective practice in literacy instruction would involve both the

development of children's literacy knowledge and an active and constructive learning stance.

The results of this study complement and extend the quantitative studies of Shanahan and Barr (1995) and Center, Wheldall and Freeman (1995), which found that relatively large numbers of children who take part in Reading Recovery continue to need additional help in literacy during their schooling. In this study observations of Reading Recovery children were made and some inferences were drawn as to why Reading Recovery may not be effective for some children.

Implications for Educational Practice

The findings of this study point towards some possibilities for improving educational practice in literacy teaching and learning.

- A whole school approach to literacy learning that includes professional development for all teachers and the appointment of a high profile literacy co-ordinator. The co-ordinator's role would be to assist classroom teachers to develop and implement the aspects of literacy teaching that are learnt in professional development programs and to ensure that the quality and consistency of teaching and learning in all classrooms is maximised.
- Flexibility for the Reading Recovery teacher to incorporate additional strategies in the Reading Recovery lesson where indicated by children's needs. Fixed notions of program elements may impede rather than accelerate literacy development for children who have, for example, greater phonological needs than others.
- Close liaison between the withdrawal room and the classroom teachers in cases where the Reading Recovery teacher is not the classroom teacher. This should prevent discontinuities in instruction and consequent confusion for young learners.

- Provision of effective strategies for developing an active learning stance in children.

Teachers need to be constantly exploring ways to build an intrinsic desire for literacy learning by adapting instruction to the needs, interests and skills of the children.

Directions for Future Research

In this study the researcher was also the Reading Recovery teacher. Although steps were taken to maximise the researcher's objectivity and reliability, it would have been preferable to have had an independent researcher observe children as they worked in both the classroom and Reading Recovery settings. Therefore, further research with an independent researcher is recommended. The issue of collaboration between the classroom teacher and the Reading Recovery teacher should also be further investigated to explore the effects on children of varying degrees of congruence between the two instructional contexts. There also appears to be a need for a large scale study in which quantitative data that explores the effects of early intervention is complemented by qualitative data that includes observation of children in classroom and withdrawal settings as well as interviews with children about their literacy experiences in both settings.

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Table 6.20. Tyson's Literacy-Related Behaviour in the Classroom and Reading Recovery.	p. 163
Table 6.21. Connections/Disconnections Between the Classroom and Reading Recovery Settings.	p. 172

APPENDICES

All appendices have been numbered to correspond with the chapters in which they are referenced.

Appendix 3a

Appendix 3a contains the Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement (Clay, 1993) as well as the Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire for each of the four children.

Brad

Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement.

The Observation Survey was administered to Brad at the commencement of his Reading Recovery program, approximately 8 weeks prior to the time of observations. Table 1 summarises information obtained about Brad's literacy knowledge. Brad commenced the program at a text reading level of 1 and it was anticipated that he would be discontinued from the program when reaching level 17.

Table 1. Summary of Literacy Knowledge from the Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement

Task	Demonstrated Knowledge
Letter	Recognised letters with a combination of letter name and letter sound.
Identification	Unknown letters: <i>G, W, n, g</i> . Confusions: <i>M/W, N/J, I/T, fff/j, q/p</i> .
Concepts About Print	Demonstrated control over directionality of print, e.g., return sweep, left to right. Understood that print contains a message. Could identify first and last words on a page, inversion of picture and inversion of print. Did not have control over one to one correspondence of words. Did not recognise alteration in line, word or letter order. Knew the meaning of a full stop and question mark. Could not match upper and

	lower case letters, Unable to locate one letter, two letters, one word, two words. Asked “What’s a word?”. Could not identify a capital letter.
Word Recognition	Recognised one word: <i>to</i> and read <i>box</i> for <i>big</i> . Responded “I don’t know”, to all others.
Writing Vocabulary	Required prompting during the 5 minute period (usually a 10 minute task). Very reluctant to attempt any writing. Could write own name but reversed the <i>d</i> . Spelt <i>Dad</i> and <i>to</i> correctly. Attempted <i>mum</i> by writing <i>mam</i> .
Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words	Repeated each word several times and asked teacher to do the same. Used initial consonant and following vowel but tended to omit medial or final consonants. Included all sounds in <i>have</i> (<i>hav</i>).
Running Records	Used pictures to make meaning but did not respond to print details.
Instructional Text Level	An instructional level of text was not able to be obtained for Brad. He was able to read one previously seen level 1 text with 97% accuracy. Level 2 texts were read below 90% accuracy.

Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire

Brad’s responses to the Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire were analysed and then placed into the relevant response-category for each question. His predominant conception of reading appeared to be associated with getting words right and the procedures of reading. For example, “You just turn at the pages and look at the pictures...”. When asked what reading is for, Brad’s answer, “Practising words and being a good reader”, was categorised as an intrinsic response, a type of response that is common among younger students (Bruinsma, 1990). Results are summarised in Table 2.

Table 2. Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire Response Categories

Question	Response	Response Category
What is Reading?	Like, you pick up a book, you open up the first page or you read the front like, "A Lucky Day For Little Dinosaur", and then you like open up the book and there's the same thing except the dinosaur doesn't have all the front cover on it just while and then the writing and then the dinosaur and then there" words in the book that you can read and when you finished that page you turn it to the other page and you start reading that and you just keep on turning and turning the page once you've read it When you get to the end of the book you put it away in a safe spot.	Procedures
What is reading for?	Practising... words, and being a good reader.	Intrinsic. (doesn't see a connection with the utility of reading).
What makes a person a good reader?	Reading lots of books...and...you can just turn the pages and look at the pictures so you know what's in the book...and...there's different kind of books like dinosaur books, riding books, rabbit books.	Procedures
What could you do that would make you a better reader?	Reading lots of books and...reading books over and over again	Procedures/practise

When you're reading and you come to a word that you don't know what do you do?	Sound it out.	Decoding
When you're reading and you come to a word that you do know but don't know the meaning of, what do you do?	You try and figure it out	Decoding
Like, say different kind of words and see if it How do you figure it out? starts with them and ends with them.		
Do you ever read something over again? Why or why not?	Yes. So I get a better reader...and I learn more words.	The second half of this answer related to word recognition: reading is getting the words right.

Jesse

The Observation Survey was administered to Jesse at the commencement of his Reading Recovery program, approximately 6 weeks prior to the time of observations. Table 1 summarises the information obtained about Jesse's literacy knowledge. Jesse commenced the program with a text reading level of 1 and it was anticipated that he would be discontinued from the program when reaching level 17.

Table 1. Summary of Literacy Knowledge from the Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement

Task	Demonstrated Knowledge
Letter Identification	Recognised all letters. Confused b/d
Concepts About Print	Showed control over directionality of print and one to one correspondence. Could recognise inversion of picture and text, alteration in line order, meaning of full stop and quotation marks. Could match upper and lower case letters. Could distinguish between letters and words and locate a capital letter. Could not recognise change in word order or change in letter order. On reversible words task could distinguish <i>no</i> from <i>on</i> but confused <i>was</i> with <i>saw</i> .
Word Recognition	Had a small core of high frequency words: <i>to, is, up, he, my, at, no</i> . Could attempt a sound analysis of some regular words e.g., c-v-c words such as <i>get, hat</i> .
Writing Vocabulary	Attempted writing new words with a major consonant framework. Used some consonant names to incorporate the ensuing vowel, e.g., awy (w=wa). Had a core of words that could be written in correct detail.
Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words	Attempted all words by using major consonants and vowels, e.g., hav (have), tac (take)

Running Records	Did not respond to details in print. Responded mainly to meaning and structure cues at difficulties. Used partial visual cues (usually initial letter) at difficulties but did not to analyse beyond this. Spent inordinate time searching for picture cues.
Instructional Text Level	Jesse was able to read texts at level 1, with 93% accuracy.

Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire

Jesse's responses were analysed and then placed into the relevant response-category for each quest was going on in a story. His response, "thinking hard", on question 4 may also be due to his teacher's instructions to "think" when trying unfamiliar words. Jesse's answer to the last question appeared to be related to his approach to task completion in the classroom. His conception of reading appeared to be associated with both meaning and decoding. He also appeared to have made a connection with reading and thinking. His response to question 3, "What makes a person a good reader?", may be categorised as Meaning but it was difficult to tell as this response did not seem to fit clearly into Bruinsma's categories for this question. On this question, Bruinsma's Meaning category included responses that related to understanding what was going on in a story. His response, "thinking hard", on question 4 may also be due to his teacher's instructions to "think" when trying unfamiliar words. Jesse's answer to the last question appeared to be related to his approach to task completion in the classroom.

Table 2. Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire Response Categories.

Question	Responses	Response Category
What is reading?	Umm, learning, you get to learn about things. You know what the story's talking about. You know what happens....and that's all I want to say.	Meaning
What is reading for?	Mmm, to learn?	Intrinsic/Learning
What makes a person a good reader?	Our brains...thinking?	Meaning (?)
What could you do that would make you a better reader?	Umm, thinking hard. Looking at the words and sounding them out.	Cognitive Act/Decoding
When you're reading and you come to a word that you don't know what do you do?	Umm, have a close look and try to umm do that, umm that (gestures how to mask parts of a word with fingers) if it was that word and I didn't know I'd just do that (gestures again) and sound 'em out.	Decoding
When you're reading and you come to a word that you recognize but don't know the meaning of, what do you do?	Try to sound it out.	Decoding
Do you ever read something over again? Why or why not?	No. Cos you might start the whole book again. You might turn to the front page by mistake. You might talk to someone else and you might be still on the first page and you won't get to get up to the second page.	Vague

Robert

Table 1. Summary of Literacy Knowledge from the Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement

Task	Demonstrated Knowledge
Letter Identification	Recognised all letters, predominantly by letter name. Confusion with c/k
Concepts About Print	Had control over book handling skills of directionality, first and last, and inversion of print and picture. Could give the meaning of question mark, full stops. Could match upper and lower case letters. Unable to recognise letter, word or line alteration.
Word Recognition	Recognised 10 words. Did not attempt others.
Writing Vocabulary	Wrote 27 words in 10 mins but required constant prompting. Wrote some classmate's names as well as high frequency words and some simple 'consonant-vowel-consonant' words. Attempted some words from a visual orientation, omitting or reversing position of letters, e.g, <i>becase/because</i> , <i>prak/park</i> .
Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words	Attempted all words by using dominant consonants and vowels. Reversed <i>are</i> . Recorded <i>dat</i> for <i>that</i> .
Running Records	Poor use of meaning cues. Sometimes neglected structure cues. Relied on visual cues but did not use these efficiently. Did not show ability to analyse a word beyond the initial letter.
Instructional Text Level	Robert was able to read level 8 texts with 94% accuracy.

Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire

Robert's responses were analysed and then placed into the relevant response-category for each question. Robert's predominant conception of reading appeared to be associated with getting words right and using letter-sound knowledge to work out new words. When asked what reading is for, Robert's answer, "To be good at it", was categorised as an intrinsic response, a type of response that is common among younger students, (Bruinsma, 1990). Robert's response to question 3, may be indicative of his use of strategies when reading or may be due to his Reading Recovery teacher's frequent comment that "good readers" go back and fix their mistakes. Robert's response to the final question is categorised as "vague" because it is unclear what Robert means by "getting better and better". Robert answered most of these questions with a rising intonation and quickly looked at the interviewer's face, appearing to look for signs of whether he had given the "right" answer.

Table 2. Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire Response Categories

	Response	Response Category
What is Reading	Like, you pick up a book, you open up the first page or you read the front like (begins to read the title of a book on the table) A Lucky Day for Little Dinosaur, and then you like open up the book and there's the same thing except the dinosaur doesn't have all the front cover on it just white and then the writing and then the dinosaur and then there's words in the book that you can read and when you finished that page you turn in to the other page and you start reading that and you just keep on turning and turning the page once you've read it. When you get to the end of the book you put it away in a safe spot.	Procedures
What is reading for?	Practising...words, and being a good reader.	Intrinsic (doesn't see a connection with the utility of reading)
What makes a person a good reader?	Reading lots of books....and.... you can just turn the pages and look at the pictures so you know what's in that book ...and...there's different kind of books like dinosaur books, riding books, rabbit books.	Procedures

When you're reading	You, try and figure it out.	Decoding
and you come to a	How do you figure it out?	
word that you do	Like, say different kind of words and see if it starts	
know but don't	with them and ends with them.	
know the meaning		
of, what do you do?		

Do you ever read	Yes.	The second half of this
something over		answer relates to word
again? Why or why	So I get a better reader... and I learn more words.	recognition: reading is
not?		getting the words right.

What could you do	Reading lots of books andreading books over	Procedures/practise
that would make you	and over again.	
a better reader?		

Tyson

Table 1. Summary of Literacy knowledge from Observation of Early Literacy

Achievement

Task	Demonstrated Knowledge
Letter	Recognised letters by a combination of letter sound and letter name.
Identification	Confused b/p, b/d, b/q
Concepts About Print	Showed control over directionality and some word by word matching although this was not yet consolidated. Could recognise inversion of text and picture. Could distinguish between words and letters on location task and could find the first and last letter of a word. Knew the meaning of a full stop and could match upper and lower case letters.
Word Recognition	Recognised only one word: 'A'. Attempted several words using initial consonant. Attempted some words by using a combination of letter name and letter sound.
Writing Vocabulary	Wrote a small core of high frequency words. Used the letter <i>b</i> frequently in misspelt words.
Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words	Could discriminate words as single units. Used a consonant framework when writing and did not include vowels. Recorded the final sound in only a few words.
Running Records	Did not attend to print detail when reading. Constructed story from pictures and sense of story language.
Instructional Text Level	Tyson was able to read level 2 texts at 93% accuracy.

Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire

Tyson's responses were analysed and then placed into the relevant response-category for each question (see table 2). Tyson's predominant conception of reading appeared to be associated with getting words right and using letter-sound knowledge to work out new words. When asked what reading is for, Tyson's answer "To get good at reading" was categorised as an *intrinsic* response, a type of response that is common among younger students (Bruinsma, 1990). Tyson's response that he "stops and thinks" about words he doesn't know the meaning of, may indicate that he was aware of the need to link new learning with old, but this may also be his response to teacher's instructions to "think about it" when he comes to words he does not the meaning of. Tyson's response to the last question indicated his awareness that he needs to understand what he is reading.

Table 2. Bruinsma Reading Questionnaire (1990), Categories of Responses

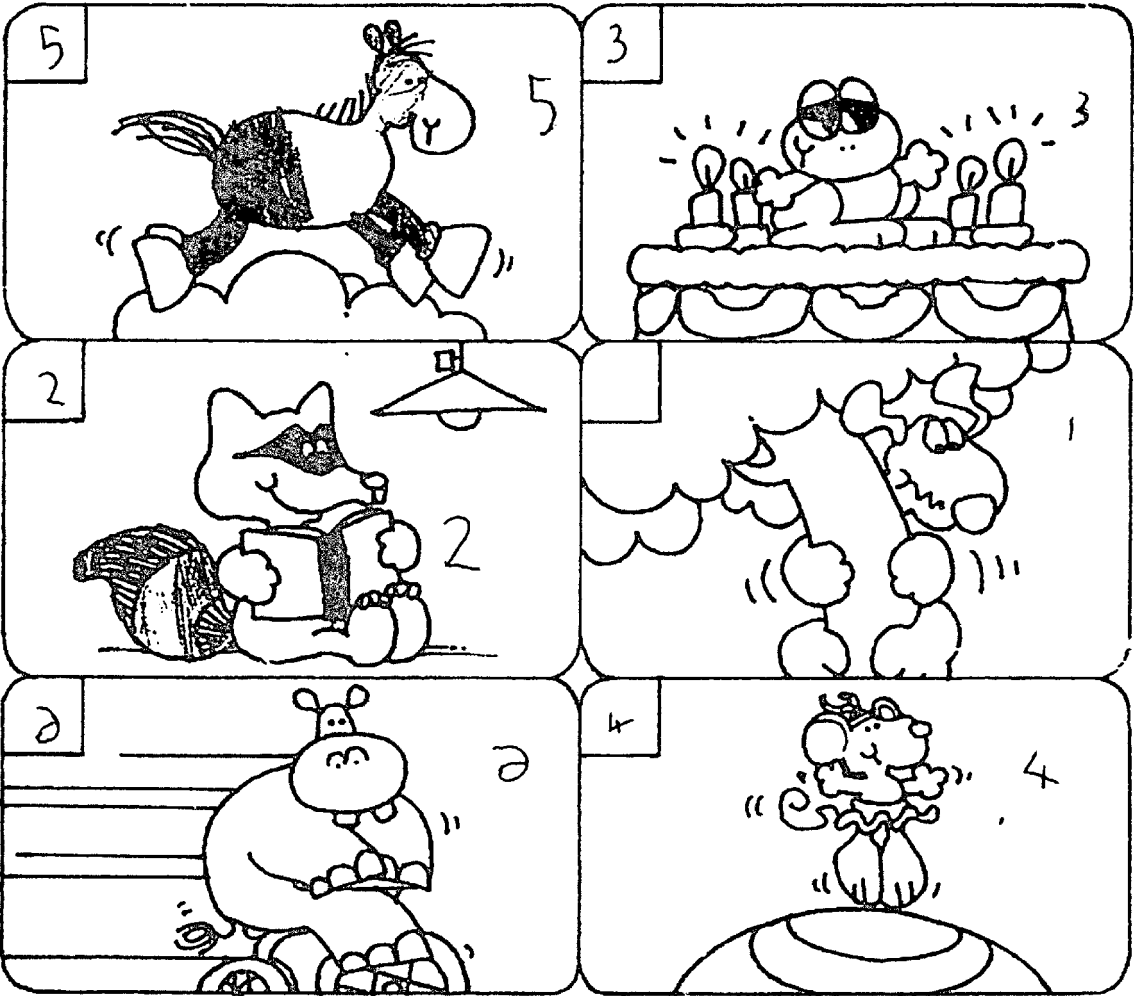
Question	Response	Response Category
What is reading?	Umm, something that you can learn words with? You read books and, and the letters are there to help you.	Word Recognition /Decoding
What is reading for?	Reading's for umm, learning how to read books at home.	Intrinsic
What makes a person a good reader?	Umm, 'cos it's not hard, very hard to read. What do you have to do to be a good reader?	Practise/Experience
So, what do you have to do to be a good reader?	Umm, be good at reading books.	
What could you do that would make you a better reader?	Umm, umm, sounding out words so I know 'em? Looking at the words, at the end of 'em.	Cognitive Act/Decoding
When you're reading and you come to a word that you don't know what do you do?	Umm, sound it out.	Decoding
When you're reading and you come to a word that you recognise but don't know the meaning of, what do you do?	Stop and think about it.	Context/Cognition
Do you ever read something over again? Why or why not?	Yeah, if I get stuck. Um, to get the meaning back.	To understand better

New Word: hippo (hippopotamus)

Silly Sentences

Read the sentences. Find the picture that goes with each sentence. Write the number in the box.

- 1. The big dog is climbing the tree.
- 2. The baby raccoon is reading a book.
- 3. The small frog is sitting on a cake.
- 4. The tiny mouse is dancing on the ball.
- 5. The horse is running on a cloud.
- 6. The huge hippo is riding a bike.



Skill: understanding sentences

Which one?

◆ Draw a circle around the right answer.

1. Which one can you eat?



2. Which one lives at the zoo?



3. Which one is hot?



4. Which one can jump?



5. Which one is soft?



6. Which one can run fast?



7. Which one can fly?



8. Which one lives in a pond?



9. Which one can you ride?



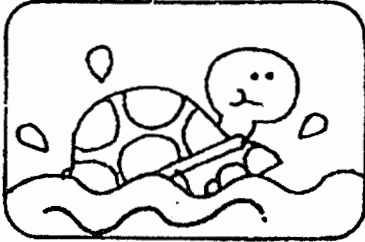
10. Which one is cold?



Skills: classifying information; understanding questions

New Word: dinosaur

◆ Read the sentences. Look at the pictures. Draw a line from each sentence to the right picture.



A.

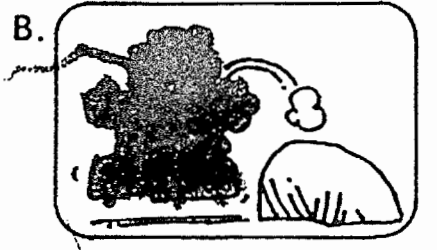


B.

1. The turtle rides in a truck.
2. The turtle swims in the pond.

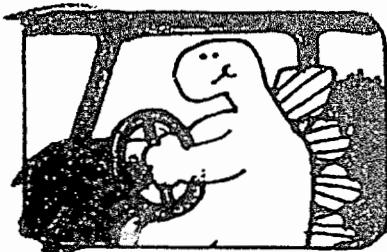


A.



B.

3. The bear hides in a tree.
4. The bear jumps off the rock.



A.



B.

5. The dinosaur stands in the pond.
6. The dinosaur drives the car.

Skill: understanding sentences

'at' as in cat



Put 'at' in the space and draw a picture.

c _ b _ t _ +

b _ a _ t _ +

f _ a _ t _ +

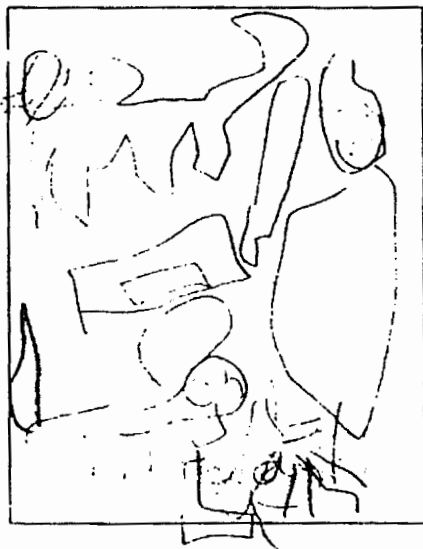
h _ a _ t _ +

m _ a _ t _ +

p _ a _ t _ +

r _ a _ t _ +

s _ a _ t _ +



Read and draw.

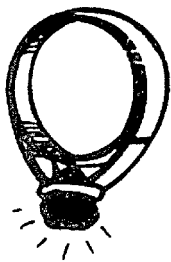
I see a fat cat.




I see a hat.



ing



ing


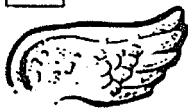


Draw a boy on a swing
in spring.

Copy these words.

swing	Swing
sting	Sting
singing	Singing
spring	Spring
fling	fling
wing	wing
string	string

Unjumble the 'ing' words.

trings	 string
wign	wing
gfnli	 fling

Analysis of Errors and Self-correction
(see Observation Survey pages 30-32)

Page		E	SC	Information used	
				E MSV	SC MSV
	✓✓✓✓ $\frac{A}{I} \mid \frac{ball}{can} \mid_{sc} \frac{is}{see} \mid_{sc}$ ✓✓✓✓ ✓✓	1	1	MSV MSV MSV	MSV MSV
	✓✓✓✓ $\frac{Tom}{me} \mid_{sc}$ ✓✓✓✓ ✓✓		1	MSV	MSV
	✓✓✓✓ ✓✓ ✓✓ ✓✓				

Appendix 3c

RUNNING RECORD SHEET

Name Robert Date 18.10.99 D of B Age yrs m
 School Recorder

Text Titles	Running words Error	Error rate	Accuracy	Self-correcti rate
1. Easy		1		
2. Instructional <u>Bury Beavers</u> (17)	<u>24/6</u>	<u>2.2</u>	<u>95</u>	<u>4</u>
3. Hard		1		
Directional movement				

Analysis of Errors and Self-corrections

Information used or neglected (Meaning (M) Structure or Syntax (S) Visual (V))

Easy

Instructional used (M) and partial (V) cues at some errors neglected (M)
at some errors. Self corrected by checking (V) cues

Hard

Cross-checking on information (Note that this behaviour changes over time)

Analysis of Errors and Self-correction
 (see Observation Survey pages 30-3)

Page	<u>24/6</u> <u>4/3</u> <u>17/3</u> <u>The Bury Beavers</u> (17)	E	SC	Information used	
				E MSV	SC MSV
	<div> <div>✓✓✓✓✓</div> <div>✓✓✓✓✓</div> <div>✓✓✓✓✓</div> <div>✓✓✓✓✓</div> <div>secret</div> <div>island</div> <div>✓✓✓✓</div> <div>✓✓✓✓✓</div> <div>✓✓✓✓✓</div> <div>✓✓✓✓✓</div> <div>✓✓✓✓✓</div> <div>✓✓✓✓✓</div> <div>✓✓✓✓✓</div> <div>✓✓✓✓✓</div> <div>✓✓✓✓✓</div> </div>	1		MSV	

Analysis of Errors and Self-corrections:
(see Observation Survey pages 30-32)

Page		E	SC	Information used	
				E MSV	SC MSV
	<p>✓✓✓✓✓</p> <p>✓✓✓</p> <p>✓✓✓</p> <p>✓✓✓✓✓</p> <p>✓✓✓✓✓</p>				
	<p>the ✓</p> <p>one</p> <p>✓✓✓ <u>woked</u> ✓</p> <p> wake</p> <p>✓✓✓✓✓</p> <p>✓✓✓✓✓</p> <p>✓✓✓✓✓</p> <p>✓✓✓✓✓</p> <p>He <u>slept</u> /sc ✓✓✓✓</p> <p>and <u>slipped</u></p> <p>✓✓✓✓✓</p> <p>✓✓✓✓✓</p>	✓		MSV	
				MSV	
				MSV	
				MSV	
				MSV	MSV
				MSV	MSV
	<p>✓✓✓✓✓</p> <p>✓✓✓✓✓</p> <p>✓✓✓ <u>pushing</u> ✓✓ the ✓✓</p> <p> pouring a</p> <p>✓✓✓ <u>and</u> /sc ✓✓</p> <p> we</p> <p>✓</p> <p>✓✓ <u>beavers</u> ✓ <u>woked</u> ✓</p> <p> beaver wake</p> <p>✓✓✓✓✓</p>	✓		MSV	
				MSV	
				MSV	
	<p>✓ <u>had</u> ✓</p> <p> hurried</p> <p>✓✓✓✓✓</p> <p>✓✓✓✓✓</p> <p>✓✓✓✓✓</p> <p>✓✓✓ <u>every</u> /sc</p> <p> very</p> <p>✓✓✓✓✓</p> <p>✓✓ <u>was-had</u> ✓</p> <p> washed</p> <p>✓✓✓✓✓</p>	✓		MSV	
				MSV	
				MSV	MSV
				MSV	

RUNNING RECORD SHEET

Name: Tyson Date: 15.10.99 D.of B.: _____ Age: _____ yrs
School: _____ Recorder: _____

Text Titles	Running words Error	Error rate	Accuracy	Self-correc- rate
1. Easy <u>Little Bulldozer Helps</u>	<u>150/3</u>	1: <u>50</u>	<u>98</u> %	1: <u>1</u>
2. Instructional _____ <u>again</u> (9)	_____	1: _____	_____ %	1: _____
3. Hard _____	_____	1: _____	_____ %	1: _____

Directional movement _____

Analysis of Errors and Self-corrections

Information used or neglected [Meaning (M) Structure or Syntax (S) Visual (V)]

Easy Used (M) & (V) at 2 errors. Used (S) & (V) at 1 error. Used (M) at 1 error.
Instructional to self correct.

Hard _____

Cross-checking on information (Note that this behaviour changes over time)

Analysis of Errors and Self-correc
(see Observation Survey pages 3)

Page	<u>150/3 + 6/6</u> ^{9/6} <u>Little Bulldozer Helps Again</u> (9)	E	SC	Information u	
				E MSV	S M
	<u>Help</u> /r ✓✓ <u>Hello</u> ✓✓✓ ✓✓✓ ✓✓✓ ✓✓✓ ✓✓✓ ✓✓ <u>now</u> /sc ✓✓ <u>today</u>	1		<u>MSV</u>	
	✓ <u>Half-t</u> /a-f-i/sc ✓✓✓ <u>after</u> ✓✓✓ ✓✓✓ ✓✓✓ ✓✓✓		1	<u>MSV</u>	<u>6</u>

Analysis of Errors and Self-correction
(see Observation Survey pages 30-32)

Page		E	SC	Information used	
				E MSV	SC MSV
	On / SC ✓✓✓ <u>scold</u> cne <u>shouted</u> ✓✓✓ ✓✓ <u>stayed</u> ✓✓✓ R / SC <u>stuck</u> ✓✓✓ <u>road</u> / r-i-v / SC <u>river</u> ✓✓✓	1	1	MSV	MSV
	✓✓✓ ✓✓✓ ✓✓✓ ✓✓✓ ✓✓✓ ✓✓✓ <u>hand</u> <u>heavy</u> / r ✓✓✓ ✓✓✓			MSV	MSV
	✓✓✓ ✓✓✓ ✓✓✓ ✓✓✓ ✓✓✓ <u>r-o-p-e</u> / r-o-p R / SC <u>rope</u> ✓✓✓ ✓✓			MSV	MSV

RUNNING RECORD SHEET

Name: Tessa Date: 15.10.84 D.of B. Age: yrs mths
School: Recorder:

Text Titles	Running words Error	Error rate	Accuracy	Self-correction rate
1 Easy <u>Goodnight Little Brother</u> (8)	$\frac{68}{3}$	1 23	96 %	1 3.
2 Instructional		1	%	1
3 Hard		1	%	1

Directional movement

Analysis of Errors and Self-corrections

Information used or neglected [Meaning (M) Structure or Syntax (S) Visual (V)]

Easy used (S) Neglected (S) at difficulties but searched for (V) cues
Instructional. at self corrections.

Hard

Cross-checking on information (Note that this behaviour changes over time)

Analysis of Errors and Self-corrections
(see Observation Survey pages 30-32)

Page	$\frac{68}{3} + \frac{2}{2} = \frac{5}{2}$ <u>Goodnight Little Brother</u> (8)	E	SC	Information used	
				E MSV	SC MSV
	✓✓✓✓✓✓✓				
	✓✓✓				
	✓✓✓✓				
	✓✓✓✓✓				
	✓✓✓✓✓✓				
	✓✓✓				
	✓ just / little brother / sc ✓✓			MSV	MSV
	sard			(MSV)	MSV
	✓ put / sc in ✓✓			(MSV)	MSV
	get under			(MSV)	MSV

Analysis of Errors and Self-corrections
(see *Observation Survey* pages 30-32)

Page		E	SC	Information used	
				E MSV	SC MSV
	✓✓✓✓✓✓✓ ✓✓✓ ✓✓✓✓ <div>✓ get n ✓ shut eyes class ✓✓✓ n</div>	1 1		MSV MSV ✓	
	✓✓✓				

Data Collection: Classroom Level (classroom environment, activities, and student/s)

Classroom Environment	Time	Activity Literacy/Numeracy	Interactions	Texts/Resources/ Technology	Notes

Adapted from Cairney & Ruge (1998) P. 239

STUDENT CONSENT FORM
FOR PARTICIPATION IN
MASTER OF EDUCATION
RESEARCH

Parents are to read the information contained herein and tick boxes where necessary to indicate informed consent

I/We give consent for _____ to participate in the proposed research project undertaken by Ms Fiona Callaghan as part of the requirements for the Master of Education Degree at Edith Cowan University.

I/We understand: _____ Tick to show understanding

- 1. That the purpose of the research is to observe the Children as they engage in literacy tasks in the classroom and Reading Recovery room. ☐
- 2. That the method of research involves the video-taping of lessons and audio-taping of individual children as they engage in literacy activities in the classroom and Reading Recovery room. ☐
- 3. That confidentiality and anonymity will be assured by changing the names of the children and the school in future publication about this research. ☐
- 4. That there will be little intrusion to the overall classroom and to the Reading Recovery program and that there are no academic disadvantages associated with the involvement in this research project. ☐
- 5. That participation in the research project is voluntary and that participants are free to withdraw from the project at any time. ☐
- 6. That the results and report associated with the research project are available to the participants if they should wish to see them. ☐

SIGNATURE OF PARENT..... DATE

TEACHER CONSENT FORM
FOR PARTICIPATION IN
MASTER OF EDUCATION
RESEARCH

Please read the following information and tick boxes where necessary to indicate informed consent.

I agree to participate in the proposed research project undertaken by Ms Fiona Callaghan as part of the requirements for the Master of Education Degree at Edith Cowan University, having been informed of and fully understanding the following:

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. That the purpose of the research is to observe the children as they engage in literacy tasks in order to determine their perceptions of literacy. | Tick to show understanding
<input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. That the method of research involves the video and audio taping of children as they engage in literacy lessons in the classroom and observation of the classroom literacy learning environment. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. That confidentiality and anonymity will be assured by changing the names of the children, teachers and the school in future publications about this research. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. That there will be little intrusion to the overall classroom program and that there are no academic disadvantages to the child associated with involvement in this research project. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. That participation in the research project is voluntary and that participants are free to withdraw from the project at any time. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. That the results and report associated with the research project are available to the participants if they should wish to see them. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

SIGNATURE OF TEACHER.....	DATE
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Appendix 3g

21st June, 1999

Dear Greg,

I am writing with the purpose of inviting some of your staff and students to participate in a program of research which I will be conducting as a requirement for admission to the Master of Education Degree at Edith Cowan University. The title of the proposed research is "Year 1 children's perceptions of literacy learning in the classroom and in Reading Recovery".

Research into young children's perceptions of literacy is significant as it informs teachers about the matching of appropriate instruction to children's literacy needs. A study into the perceptions of children in both the classroom and Reading Recovery settings, will shed light on whether children transfer learning from one instructional setting to the other, as well as how classroom and Reading Recovery teachers can work together for optimum literacy development of the children involved.

The research will involve the children who are participating in Reading Recovery during the period of August – September. The method of research will require observation (video and audio taping) of these children as they engage in literacy activities in the classroom and Reading Recovery room. The research will also require observation of the literacy learning contexts of the classroom in which these children are situated. This will mean some interviewing of the year one teachers to establish their orientations toward literacy teaching and to gain their insights into the literacy development of the children under study. The children will also be interviewed using a semi-structured interview format to gain some understandings into their perceptions of reading and its uses.

Involvement in the research program is voluntary and participants are free to withdraw if they should wish to do so. The research does not intend to create extra work for teachers or students as most data collection is through non-participant observation in the classroom during normal 'literacy block' times.

My requirements for the research are:

1. Four children participating in the school's Reading Recovery program.
2. Written consent from the parents of these children and also from the classroom teachers of these children (see attached forms).
3. Permission from yourself as well as access to observe and record the children as they engage in literacy tasks for two 'literacy block' sessions.

Case studies will be developed for each child based on the available data and a cross-case analysis will enable the emergence of patterns that will help to identify these children's perceptions of literacy learning in each both instructional settings.

I hope that you, your staff and students may be open to participating in this research project in the knowledge that it may have significant impact on our current understanding of tailoring literacy instruction to children's needs.

I look forward to your response to this proposal.

Yours sincerely,

Fiona Callaghan
B.Ed. Dip.Tch(Primary)

Appendix 4a

“Stone Soup”

Ann McGovern (Scholastic Book Services, 1975, New York)

A young man was walking.
He walked and walked.
He walked all night.
And he walked all day.

He was tired and he was hungry.
At last he came to a big house.
“What a fine house,” he said.
“There will be plenty of food for me here.”

He knocked on the door.
A little old lady opened it.
“Good lady,” said the young man, “I am very hungry.
Can you give me something to eat?”

“I have nothing to give you,” said the little old lady.
“I have nothing in the house.
I have nothing in the garden.”
And she began to close the door.

“Stop,” said the young man.
“If you will not give me something to eat,
will you give me a stone?”

“A stone?” said the little old lady.
“What will you do with a stone?
You cannot eat a stone!”

“Ah,” said the young man. “I can make soup from a stone.”

Now the little old lady had never heard of that.
Make soup from a stone?
Fancy that.

“There are stones in the road,”
said the little old lady.

The young man picked up a round, gray stone.
“This stone will make wonderful soup,” he said.
“Now get me a pot.”

The little old lady got a pot.

"Fill the pot with water and put it on the fire,"
the young man said.

The little old lady did as she was told.
And soon the water was bubbling in the pot.

The young man put the round, gray stone into the pot.
"Now we will wait for the stone to cook into soup,"
he said.

The pot bubbled and bubbled.

After a while, the little old lady said,
"This soup is cooking fast."

"It is cooking fast now," said the hungry young man.
"But it would cook faster with some onions."

So the little old lady went to the garden
to get some yellow onions.

Into the pot went
the yellow onions
with the round, gray stone.

"Soup from a stone," said the little old lady.
"Fancy that."

The pot bubbled and bubbled.

After a while, the little old lady said,
"This soup smells good."

"It smells good now," said the hungry young man.
"But it would smell better with some carrots."

So the little old lady went out to the garden
And pulled up all the carrots she could carry.

Into the pot went the long, thin carrots
with the yellow onions and the round,
grey stone.

"Soup from a stone," said the little old lady.
"Fancy that."

The pot bubbled and bubbled.

After a while, the little old lady said,
"This soup looks good."

"It looks good now," said the hungry young man.
"But it would look better
if you threw in a chicken or two."

So the little old lady went to the chicken house
to get two fat chickens.

Into the pot went
the two fat chickens
with the long, thin carrots
and the yellow onions
and the round, gray stone.

"Soup from a stone," said the little old lady.
"Fancy that."
The pot bubbled and bubbled.

After a while, the little old lady said,
"This soup tastes good."

"It tastes good now," said the hungry young man.
"But it would taste better with beef bones."

So the little old lady went to get some juicy beef bones.

Into the pot went the juicy beef bones
with the two fat chickens
and the long, thin carrots
and the yellow onions
and the round, gray stone.

"Soup from a stone," said the little old lady.
"Fancy that."

The pot bubbled and bubbled.

After a while, the little old lady said,
"This soup is fit for a prince."

"It is fit for a prince now," said the hungry young man.
"But it would be fit for a king
with a bit of pepper and a handful of salt."

So the little old lady got the pepper and the salt.

Into the pot went
the bit of pepper and the handful of salt
with the juicy beef bones
and the two fat chickens

and the long, thin carrots
and the yellow onions
and the round, gray stone.

"Soup from a stone," said the little old lady.
"Fancy that."

The pot bubbled and bubbled.

After a while, the little old lady said,
"This soup is too thin."

"It is too thin now," said the hungry young man.
"But it would be nice and thick
with some butter and barley."

So the little old lady went to get the butter and barley.

Into the pot went
the butter and barley
with the bit of pepper and the handful of salt
and the juicy beef bones
and the two fat chickens
and the long, thin carrots
and the yellow onions
and the round, gray stone.

"Stop!" said the little old lady.
"This soup is indeed fit for a king.
Now I will set a table fit for a king."
So she took out her best tablecloth
And her best dishes.

Then the little old lady
And the hungry young man ate all the soup –
the soup made with
the butter and barley
and the bit of pepper and the handful of salt
and the juicy beef bones
and the two fat chickens
and the long, thin carrots
and the yellow onions
and the round, gray stone.

"Soup from a stone,"
said the little old lady.
Fancy that."

"Now I must be on my way," said the young man.
He took the stone out of the pot

And put it into his pocket.

“Why are you taking the stone?” said the little old lady.

“Well,” said the young man,

“The stone is not cooked enough.

I will have to cook it some more tomorrow.”

And the young man said good-bye.

He walked on down the road,

He walked and he walked.

“What a fine supper I will have tomorrow,”
he said to himself.

“Soup from a stone.

Fancy that.”

Name: _____ Activity 24

Tell the Story



"Stone Soup" is written as a play.
Re-write it as a story. You may need
to use another sheet of paper.



ONE DAY A MAN WENT TO THE
HILL AND THEY WENT TO MAKE SOUP.
FIRST THEY PUT IN THE
STONE IN THE SOUP. THEN THEY
PUT IN THE ONION. THEN THEY
PUT IN THE CARROT. THEN THEY
PUT IN THE CHICKEN. THEN THEY
PUT IN THE SALT. THEN THEY
PUT IN THE BONES. THEN
THEY PUT IN THE BUTTER. THEN
THEY PUT IN THE BREAD IN THE

Theme: Food
Focus: Change of writing medium
Material: Stone Soup
(Basic Reader 7)

Suggestions for further use: Children can dramatise each other's plays.