

IT LOOKED LIKE ICE DANCING:
ORCHESTRATING INTERACTIONS THAT SCAFFOLD THE WRITING OF
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

by

LISA FORCE LANG

Under the Direction of Linda Labbo

ABSTRACT

Elementary teachers meet with challenges organizing instruction to differentiate for diverse learners writing in a new complex language. Building on sociocultural theories of learning, this qualitative multiple case study describes effective characteristics of instructional scaffolds between teachers and first-grade English language learners (ELL) within the context of Reading Recovery lessons, a well-researched early intervention program with documented effectiveness. Observations took place during conversation to compose and message writing components of lessons. Participants included three Reading Recovery teachers and six ELL. Digital video recordings, field notes, interviews, lesson records, and student artifacts collected for eighteen weeks comprised the data. Video and conversation analysis was used to elaborate the interactional details.

A collection of interconnected yet stand-alone manuscripts details the findings. The first, “Vygotsky’s reflection “behind the glass”: Blending theory and practice in one-on-one writing instruction, discusses how Vygotsky’s sociocultural theories frame teaching and learning at the growing edges of students’ competencies. The second,

“Interactions scaffolding hearing and recording sounds in words: A case study of an early intervention literacy teacher and an English language learner,” depicts how one teacher’s instructional scaffolding fostered a student’s self-regulation of a useful strategy to write new words. The third, “Expanding a meager knowledge of words for strategic actions in writing,” describes how a teacher scaffolded her student’s word learning journey. The fourth, “Using conversational analysis to examine writing instruction,” details the characteristics of effective conversations for composing to write. The fifth, “It looked like ice dancing: Orchestrating interactions that scaffold the writing of ELL,” identifies types of instructional assistance used to bridge actual development to potential development in students’ writing. Just as in paired ice skating, coordination of lifts and leaps requires intentions and collaboration of both partners. Teachers orchestrated instructional talk to foster independent strategic actions for emergent writers. While scaffolds do support learning, the characteristics of those scaffolds are critical for students to become self-regulated writers. Like ice dancing partners skate in tandem to support one another, the teachers’ scaffolding proved to be stronger when built contingent on individual student’s strengths.

INDEX WORDS: English language learners, Writing, Scaffolding, Conversation, Composing, Early literacy intervention, Differentiated instruction, Reading Recovery, Sociocultural theory, Vygotsky, Conversation analysis, Qualitative research, Case study

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DEDICATION

In Honor of my Parents

My dad, Dr. Everett Force who lived a life of joy, faith, strength, and courage

and

My mother, Sis Force, better known as Marmee, who inspires and encourages me daily

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No one can whistle a symphony. It takes an orchestra to play it.
H.E. Luccock

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INTRODUCTION

Overview

Elementary teachers meet with challenges when organizing literacy instruction to differentiate lessons effectively for increasing populations of diverse learners. The nature and pattern of language interactions between teachers and English language learners play an instrumental role in students' literacy understandings. Just as in paired skating on the ice, coordination of a lift and leap requires the intentions and collaboration of both partners. I use the analogy of ice dancing in two ways: 1) to describe the teacher's fluid moves in to provide support for lifting and shifting the writing process of the child and graceful moves out to foster independent and self-regulated strategic behaviors, and 2) to describe how this study's investigations and findings support, partner, and extend previous research. This study adds a new dimension to the existing research in order to understand and describe how instructional language supports the development of English language learners' early writing processes. Significant moments and findings from this investigation reveal how teachers scaffolded lifts and leaps in students' writing achievement during one-on-one early intervention writing lessons.

Building on sociocultural theories of language use and development, this qualitative study examined the characteristics of the language scaffolding writing instruction between teachers and first-grade English language learners within the context of the writing component of Reading Recovery lessons, a well-researched early literacy intervention tutoring program with documented effectiveness. I examined the interactions in the conversation, composing, and message writing during lessons in order to describe characteristics of effective instructional

scaffolding for writing instruction. Participants included three Reading Recovery teachers and six of their English language learning students. The teachers in this study orchestrated their instructional talk to create supportive learning contexts and foster independent strategic literacy for emergent speakers, readers, and writers. While scaffolds do support student learning, the characteristics of those scaffolds are critical if the student is to become an independent and self-regulated writer. The findings demonstrate that effective tutoring is dependent on the nature of the teacher and student's interactions.

Specific Focus of Each Chapter

The first chapter introduces the study and includes the background, problem statement, purpose of the study, the research questions, theoretical framework, and definitions. In the second chapter, the review of literature focuses on weaving four major areas: a Vygotskian perspective of the sociocultural theory of learning, scaffolding through instructional language, studies examining scaffolding in literacy instruction with English speakers and English language learners, and theory and practice from Reading Recovery. The third chapter provides the methodology of this qualitative multiple case study design and includes the explanation of why the study is suited for a qualitative approach, description of the study design, timeline of the study, research site, sample, sample criteria, process for sample selection, methods of data collection and analysis, validity and reliability, limitations of the study, researcher role, subjectivity statement, and the risks and benefits.

The fourth chapter's format is structured as a collection of interconnected, yet stand-alone, manuscripts. Preparing separate articles allowed me to use multiple approaches in analyzing massive amounts of data and to examine closely and describe several different facets

of the interactions during the conversation, message composing, and writing. Using the format of individual pieces of writing, I crafted each article with an audience in mind for future journal manuscript submission. Each article in chapter four gleans resources from the first three chapters.

In the first article of chapter four, entitled “Vygotsky’s reflection ‘behind the glass’: Blending theory and practice in one-on-one writing instruction,” I discuss how Vygotsky’s sociocultural theories provide foundational perspectives of the support system provided by teachers to young learners at the growing edge of their competencies. Within a Vygotskian theoretical framework, Reading Recovery teachers have an opportunity to reflect upon new discoveries about teaching and learning. When teachers observe and discuss a lesson taught from “behind the glass,” they are co-constructing new understandings about literacy processes and teaching decisions. They reflect, discuss, and have opportunities to apply new discoveries in their own teaching in other contexts. It seems that this is the same with their students. Teachers provide the scaffolding framework from which the students can make new discoveries about language, reading and writing. This manuscript targets an audience interested in theoretical perspectives and how theory influences practices in writing instruction.

The second article of chapter four, entitled “Interactions scaffolding hearing and recording sounds in words: A case study of an early intervention literacy teacher and an English language learner,” depicts how one teacher’s instructional scaffolding fostered a student’s self-regulation of a useful strategy to write new words. In analyzing selected sequences of solving words using sound to letter strategies, categorizing and conversation analysis were used to elaborate the interactional details. The focus of this case zoomed in on one aspect of solving words in writing which was hearing and recording sounds in words. The teacher began

with teaching the child to say words slowly and smoothly to hear the sounds in words. Next, she drew sound boxes to provide a visual framework for the child to record the sounds he heard. By adjusting her levels of support, both verbal and nonverbal, to match the growing competencies of the child, she fostered his independence in ultimately saying a word slowly as he recorded the word in his writing. I noted the teacher in the beginning demonstrated for the student, lavished affirmation, and shared the task. Clear demonstrations preceded the child's task production, and questioning for understanding accompanied many of them. When the child erred, the teacher mended or repaired by demonstrating again or prompting the child to try again without unhelpful rebuke. She often validated what the child did correctly in his attempts. She adjusted her level of support in response to the child's growing competency over time. Later in the child's program, the teacher shifted to more non-verbal affirmation, directing or transfer of initiative. Like ice dancing partners skate in tandem to support one another, the teacher came in and out with needed support for the child's success, but she allowed the child to do for himself what he could without interrupting. This article targets an audience interested in qualitative case study research methods, sociocultural theoretical influences on instruction, and aspects of early literacy development.

The third article, entitled "Expanding a meager knowledge of words for strategic actions in writing," describes how an early literacy intervention teacher scaffolded her first-grade ELL's word learning journey. Persistent, consistent, and insistent characterize the teacher's instructional language throughout the child's series of one-on-one writing lessons. Through sensitive observation, she captured, validated, and built on the child's footholds in print which could have been item knowledge of letters and words or strategic actions. The teacher demonstrated, shared, and guided tasks visually, verbally, nonverbally, and with movement to anchor the strategic

process of learning how to learn a word within the child's control. With many opportunities to use known and new words in written text, the child stayed anchored in meaning. The teacher's language set the expectation that learning a new word served a purpose and sent a message of accountability to the child. The teacher planned opportunities for the child to produce known words fluently, use known words to get to new words through analogy, learn more about orthography, and construct new words by analyzing sounds and thinking about what would look right. This manuscript targets an audience of practitioners interested in aspects of early literacy development especially those on the front lines working with English language learners.

The fourth article in chapter four, entitled "Using conversational analysis to examine writing instruction," describes characteristics of effective conversations for composing in writing instruction with English language learners. This article presents case findings from one Reading Recovery teacher and her English language learner. In analyzing selected dialogic sequences for this focus case, conversation analysis was used to elaborate the interactional details. Findings are presented within a procedural framework for conversation analysis. Analyses of the data showed personalization, reformulation, validation of partially correct responses, and wait time acted as effective scaffolds in conversations with an English language learner in appropriating new language in speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Other interesting aspects from the findings included how the teacher fostered oral language development, how the teacher's language and the use of questions guided the child in learning how to create a story, and how the teacher adjusted her language when the child did not understand. The teacher constructed scaffolds to support and extend learning which proved to be stronger when built contingent on the student's language and actions. This article targets an audience of teachers interested in the role of conversation in composing and writing and early literacy development of English language

learners. Another target audience includes educators interested in how conversation analysis identifies specific aspects of instructional conversations.

In the fifth and final article in the fourth chapter, entitled “It looked like ice dancing: Orchestrating interactions that scaffold the writing of English language learners,” I weave together previous research results and exemplars from my study of three teachers’ instructional scaffolding for talking, composing, and writing with English language learners within the context of one-on-one tutoring lessons. First, I present a prelude illustrating one dyad’s teaching and learning dance in constructing a strategic writing process followed by a brief overview of the study methods and introduction of the participants. Next, I discuss how the teachers customized their conversations in the writing component of their lessons to coordinate with their students’ prior experiences and competencies and to scaffold new language and skills in composing and writing. I offer examples of how the teachers adjusted their level of support to foster independent strategic actions and show one exemplar of how a teacher capitalized on the child’s intentions, welcomed the use of his home language, and responded to his lead in composing his story for writing. In addition, I provide examples and discuss how the teachers’ careful listening communicated respect and supported meaningful conversations and compositions. Furthermore, from my findings, I share nine types of instructional assistance the teachers applied to bridge actual development to potential development in their students’ writing processes. Finally, I discuss how the teachers created opportunities for their students’ to expand their English language competencies through their conversations, compositions, and writings.

Chapter five contains a synthesis of what I learned from the teachers and students who graciously welcomed me into their writing lessons for eighteen weeks, from previous research, and from reflective conversations with other literacy educators about my research observations

and analysis. In chapter five, I also discuss the implications from my study and offer suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

According to figures released by the U.S. Census Bureau, the foreign-born population of the United States was 31.1 million in 2000 representing 11.1% of the population and a 57% rise from the 1990 count. From 1994 to 2004, the English language learning population grew 65% with over five million in U.S. schools (NCELA, 2004). The largest growth has been in the Latino population (Kochhar, Suro, & Tafoya, 2005). As the immigrant population escalates, English language learners (ELL) offer rich diversity to enhance classrooms; however, this diversity challenges many teachers (Compton-Lilly, 2008; Drucker, 2003). National data from the 2003 National Assessment of Education Progress indicated a wide discrepancy between ELL and Anglo students in terms of success at the basic level of reading and writing (Lutkus & Weiner, 2003). The gap in the literacy achievement between English speakers and ELL continues to be a grave concern for parents, educators, and legislators.

Immigrant children are often marginalized in classrooms where teachers wait until these children acquire enough English for literacy instruction (Borba, 2004). Learning English provides new challenges in taking on not only new language but also new sociocultural literacy practices as well. Research presents strong evidence that retention and long-term programs do not enable low-progress students to catch up with their peers in order to benefit from classroom instruction (Juel, 1988; Slavin, Karweit & Wasik, 1992). In fact, school failure leads to lack of

self-esteem, diminished confidence, school dropout, years of remediation, low-test scores, difficult promotion decisions, and slow progress in other learning areas (Ashdown & Simic, 2000). Minorities are more likely to experience these negative outcomes.

The literacy achievement gap for ELL grows wider as time passes without an early intervention to prevent the downward spiral of failure (Askew, Kaye, Frasier, Mobasher, Anderson, & Rodriguez, 2003). With growing numbers of second language students in need of literacy support, it is imperative that teachers are equipped so no child is left behind. The task of closing the achievement gap for ELL requires early effective literacy intervention to prevent failure.

Most teachers are not sufficiently prepared to teach a linguistically diverse student group (American Federation of Teachers, 2004). As the number of ELL increases, the use of effective practices to teach and support the success of these students grows more critical (Freeman & Freeman, 2000). State and federal policies demand success for all subgroups of students. Therefore, it is of utmost importance the strength of intervention be effective with all groups of children (Gomez-Bellenge, 2005).

Research shows ELL can be just as successful as native speakers in one-on-one early literacy intervention programs such as Reading Recovery (Clay, 2005) where teachers customize instruction to a student's individual strengths and needs (Ashdown & Simic, 2000; Borba, 2004; Diaz, 2001; Hiebert, 1994; Hobsbaum, 1995). Reading Recovery is a short term early literacy intervention of one-on-one tutoring for first graders struggling to learn how to read and write. Individual students receive a half-hour reading and writing lesson each school day for twelve to twenty weeks with a specially trained Reading Recovery teacher. Reading Recovery is a complex constructivist model of literacy learning based on studies of successful learners (Clay,

2001). A recent national study found Reading Recovery to be a highly effective intervention for first-grade ELLs (Kelly, Gomez-Bellenge, Chen, & Schulz, 2008).

Statement of the Problem

Research documents teachers meet with challenges every day to organize literacy instruction to differentiate effectively that instruction for the diverse learners they face (Cazden, 1992; Compton-Lilly, 2008). Growing concern centers on the most effective instructional approaches for children who are learning to speak English as a second language and the continuing inequalities in the academic achievement of the growing population of language-minority learners. Early literacy intervention can reduce the numbers falling behind (Clay, 1981; 2005; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998; Slavin, Karweit, & Wasik, (1992). Strong evidence proves the positive impact on literacy achievement when the initial instruction is in the child's native language (Freeman & Freeman, 2000; Ramirez, Yuen, Ramey, & Pasta, 1991). In spite of these findings, schools face few instructional choices other than immersion in English classes with the absence of native language literacy instruction (Ashdown & Simic, 2000). Therefore, where native language literacy instruction is not available, identifying the best instructional practices that support literacy achievement for English language learners becomes even more critical.

Learning how to write in a new language is a complex process and often the most difficult skill to master. Furthermore, teaching writing is a complex process. Students need scaffolding to help them learn both oral and written English language. Therefore, it is valuable to examine the instructional craft to clarify and deepen understandings and improve instruction (Maczuk & Straw, 2005). Instructional scaffolding facilitates collaborative efforts between teacher and student in the literacy learning process.

Although one-on-one tutoring proves to be a powerful instructional method, it is not sufficient alone in closing the achievement gap. The pattern of language interaction and the particular scaffolding of performance between tutor and child that lead to accelerated learning seem to make the greater difference in degrees of effectiveness and success (Pinnell, Lyons, DeFord, Bryk, & Seltzer, 1994; Rodgers, 1999, 2004). Research is needed to help teachers understand the characteristics and nature of effective scaffolding and language interactions that increase the literacy achievement for ELL. No study was found that attempts to describe in-depth how the effective teacher scaffolds writing instruction with ELL in a tutoring context. One objective of this study is to fill that gap in the literature. Therefore, this qualitative case study research is timely and significant because it addresses the early prevention of literacy failure among increasing numbers of ELL in schools by identifying characteristics of effective instructional scaffolding for writing instruction. The focus of this study is to identify the effective teaching interactions with ELLs in the writing component of the Reading Recovery lesson because research shows teachers with high progress students focus more time on writing in early literacy instruction (DeFord, 1994; Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord, 1993). This study contributes insights into issues of diverse children's successful literacy experiences and advance understandings of that interest to support the literacy success of "at-promise" English language learners. My goal is that the findings of these multiple case studies will inform teachers' use of effective scaffolding in writing instruction with English language learners, as well as update literacy teachers of all groups.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the types and characteristics of one-on-one teaching interactions that effectively scaffold writing instruction to support English language learners. For that reason, I used an exploratory and descriptive qualitative multiple case study approach (Yin, 2006) to investigate the characteristics of the teacher-student interactions between three expert Reading Recovery teachers and two of their first grade ELL (six students in all) in three Pseudonym County Public Schools. The study was bounded in a 12 to 20 week period, specifically within the context of the writing component of individual Reading Recovery lessons (Clay, 2005). Previously, I noted the importance of research on linguistically diverse students' academic achievement due to increasing political pressure for school performance and accountability. Therefore, the study's rationales to provide insight into issues of diverse children's successful literacy experiences and to advance understandings of that interest strongly point to defining the case as instrumental (Bassey, 1999; Stake, 2005). Such a study has the potential to inform in a detailed manner the nature of effective one-on-one tutoring and provide deeper understandings of how early intervention teachers scaffold instructional language to accelerate the writing proficiency of ELL.

Research Questions

Context influences what we believe we see and know (Franzak, 2006). Istavan Banyai's picture book *Zoom* (1995) begins with a large view and progressively zooms in thirty pages later to a small dot. By zooming in and out, the reader comes to understand phenomena are framed by deeper and wider social, cultural, and historical contexts. Using *Zoom* as an analogy, my questions focus in on the characteristics of the writing instruction of three effective Reading

Recovery teachers working with ELL set within the larger picture of scaffolding language in literacy teaching and learning. Two research questions guided my explorations and descriptions within the context of the writing component of Reading Recovery lessons with ELL:

1. How do effective early intervention literacy teachers scaffold writing instruction in a one-on-one tutoring context with English language learners?
2. What are the characteristics of the teacher-student interactions in a one-on-one tutoring context with English language learners?

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical perspective shaping this study is a sociocultural theory within a worldview of constructivism drawing from the work of Vygotsky (1978, 1987), Vygotsky and Kozulin (1986), Clay (1998), Tharp and Gallimore (1988, 1991), and Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976). Through a sociocultural lens, my view is children construct knowledge and language with more capable others, at first requiring assistance, but gradually becoming more independent (Rodgers, 1999, 2004; Vygotsky, 1978, 1987). An important feature of this perspective is higher order functions develop out of social interaction. The major theme of Vygotsky's theoretical framework is social interaction plays a fundamental role in the development of cognition.

The strategy one uses to assist a student's learning has been termed scaffolding. Scaffolding represents the helpful social interactions between adult and child that enable the child to do something beyond his independent efforts (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). A scaffold is a framework put up for support and gradually taken away as needed for the child's success with a task. Cazden (1983) defined a scaffold as "a temporary framework for construction in progress" (p. 6). The construction of a scaffold occurs in the zone where the child may not be

able to articulate or explore his learning alone. However, with the assistance of a knowledgeable other, the child reaches beyond what he could accomplish alone. Social constructivists refer to the bridge between assisted performance and independence as the zone of proximal development (Vygotsky & Kozulin, 1986).

Another aspect of Vygotsky's theory is the idea that the potential for cognitive development depends upon the zone of proximal development (ZPD). Vygotsky believed through participation in activities that require cognitive and communicative functions, children are drawn into the use of these functions in ways that scaffold their success. The range of skill that develops with adult guidance exceeds what can be attained alone. In the mid-1970s, Vygotsky's theory of learning and the zone of proximal development began to flourish as some researchers analyzed how language and literacy are constructed socially (Bodrova & Leong, 1996; Vygotsky, 1978). Teaching decisions emerge from the operating question: "What can the child accomplish with assistance?"

Quality interactions acting as supportive scaffolds are critical as the teacher adjusts instructional language to accommodate the student's competencies (Clay & Cazden, 1990). Rodgers (1999) analyzed the patterns of teacher-student interactions in the context of the one-on-one tutoring of two students. The study results documented the importance of the teacher in the tutoring process. Effective tutoring is dependent on the nature of the interactions between the teacher and student. The student takes an active role as meaning is constructed by teacher and student together (Bakhtin, 1999). The teacher's scaffolding within instructional conversations assists the student in using prior knowledge and integrating new learning. The tool of language, used to scaffold new learning, enables more abstract and flexible thinking (Bodrova & Leong, 1996; Luria, 1983; Luria, Cole, & Cole, 1979). Additionally, the role of language is central to the

task of learning literate behaviors (Clay, 1998, 2001). Standing on the shoulders of Cazden (1981) and Clay (2005), I believe the conversations between the teacher and student scaffold and fuel the learning. Anderson (1999) argued we deliberately create opportunities through our discourse patterns using language as a tool. Through the discourse patterns, the teacher helps a child construct new understandings related to oral and printed language systems.

Other researchers have further developed this theory of learning (Bandura, 1978; Brown, 1989; Collins, 1987). They emphasized social learning ideas of situated cognition and apprenticeships that support learning by enabling students to acquire and use cognitive tools in authentic activities. Learning advances through social interaction and the social construction of knowledge. Children grow to participate in the intellectual life around them (Johnston, 2004; Vygotsky, 1987). The role of social context and the characteristics of human interaction offer rich resources for the study of teaching and learning. Rooted in the sociocultural nature of learning to write, Reading Recovery teachers scaffold instruction to develop competency through collaboration. In various contexts the more knowledgeable others could include peers, teachers, and published authors. Additionally, a Vygotskian approach to writing instruction builds on the students' strengths and interests making it possible for all children to succeed. Therefore, since students' proficiencies and potentials form the core of the writing instruction, the possibilities for success include students whose home experiences with print differ from traditional school literacies (Heath, 1983; Samway, 2006).

Furthermore, my case study research is based on Clay's (1981, 1982, 1991, 2001) complex theory of literacy learning. Several theoretical foundations are embedded here: reading and writing are problem-solving, reciprocal, and interrelated processes and constructivist

activities; children come to literacy with varying knowledge and by different paths; and learning to write involves writing continuous text developing a process that changes over time.

Additionally, four theory based instructional assumptions (Cox & Hopkins, 2006; Schmitt, Askew, Fountas, Lyons, & Pinnell, 2005) guided this study: reading and writing are learned behaviors; systematic observation informs teaching; building on a child's strengths makes learning easier; and accelerative learning is critical to success for those who are falling behind.

Definitions

The following definitions are important in understanding the focus and purpose of the study.

1. Cognitive Development: Change within an individual characterized by a transformation of lower mental function to higher mental functions (selective attention, applied memory) with the aid of tools such as language and other sign systems (Vygotsky, 1987); occurs within a sociocultural context.
2. Inner Speech: Tool which allows an individual to plan, monitor, evaluate behavior; transformed from social speech (external speech or talk shared between people) by means of private speech (Vygotsky, 1987).
3. One-on-One Tutoring: teaching context in which a teacher works individually with a student.
4. Private Speech: bridge between social speech and inner speech; self-directed speech; overt language to guide one's behavior, not intended to be shared with others.

5. Reading Recovery: a short term (12 to 20 weeks) early literacy intervention for first graders struggling with reading and writing; delivered thirty minutes daily in a one-on-one tutoring context; developed by Dame Marie Clay (1979). This early intervention aligns with two of Vygotsky's primary theories: the role of assisted performance in learning, and the function language plays in the process (Vygotsky, 1978).
6. Scaffold: the support given by a more knowledgeable other to a learner during the cycles of instructional interactions; could be language (verbal and non-verbal) and/or physical objects; Cazden (1983) defined a scaffold as "a temporary framework for construction in progress" (p. 6).
7. Scaffolding: the process that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task, or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976); Bruner (1975) explained when scaffolding, the adult's role is to "support the child in achieving an intended outcome" (p. 12); scaffolding responds to and honors the child's control, initiation, and intention (Graves, 1983; Searle, 1984). Scaffolding should not lead one to believe the child's language is deficient and in need of restructuring to fit the adult's idea of correctness. In contrast, the metaphor of scaffolding should imply the child is the builder and the teacher supports the use of the child's language resources to accomplish new purposes. Dyson (1990) rejected the term scaffolding and argued a weaving metaphor captures the challenge of responding to students in literacy learning. Weaving imagery suggests how children's literacy progress in one setting can be supported by experiences from their other cultural and linguistic activities.
8. Self-extending System: system of literacy expertise (strategic activities networked effectively and efficiently) that improves the more it is used (Clay, 1991).

9. Social Speech: shared speech between individuals; used as a tool to further a child's learning.
10. Zone of Proximal Development: the difference between a child's actual development and potential level of development with assistance (Vygotsky, 1987); series of phases that the child moves through on the way to independent knowing and responding (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the types and characteristics of one-on-one teaching interactions that effectively scaffold writing instruction to support English language learners as they come to be English writers.

Two research questions guided my explorations and descriptions in the context of the writing component of Reading Recovery lessons with English language learners:

1. How do effective early intervention literacy teachers scaffold writing instruction in a one-on-one tutoring context with English language learners?
2. What are the characteristics of the teacher-student interactions in a one-on-one tutoring context with English language learners?

Based on the purpose and research questions driving this study, the review of literature focuses on weaving four major areas: a Vygotskian perspective of the sociocultural theory of learning, scaffolding through instructional language, studies examining scaffolding in literacy instruction with English speakers and English language learners, and theory and practice from Reading Recovery.

A Vygotskian Perspective: Sociocultural Theory of Learning

Vygotsky (1978) stated, “children grow into the intellectual life around them” (p. 88) and underlined that social interaction is critical to learning. He proposed intellectual life is social, relational, and emotional and talk holds first place as a symbolic tool. In contrast to Piaget’s theory, which focuses on the child’s learning in terms of individual stages of development, Vygotskian theory places learning within a sociohistorical context (Cole, 1996; Wertsch, 1985).

Piaget’s theory focuses on the child’s interactions with objects in the development of mature thinking. While Vygotsky agreed objects are vital to an individual’s development because they can then be used as tools, he went further by emphasizing the importance of the child’s interactions with people in the development of higher level thinking. Piaget posited universal stages for human development whereas Vygotsky said development is dependent upon the cultural historical context. For Vygotsky, the cultural context determines the very type of cognitive processes that emerge (Bodrova & Leong, 1996).

The core themes of Vygotsky’s theoretical approach center around (1) a reliance on a developmental method; (2) the belief that an individual’s higher mental processes originate in social processes and relationships and are transferred from the interpersonal to the intrapersonal psychological planes by means of self talk; and (3) the claim that mental processes can be understood only if we understand the sociocultural tools, signs, and practices that mediate them (Vygotsky, 1987; Wertsch, 1985). Additionally, Smagorinsky (2007) noted three points about Vygotsky’s theories upon which most scholars agree: cultural practices shape thinking resulting in people from diverse cultures thinking, speaking, and behaving differently; cultural tools like speech negotiate thinking; and new ideas develop through playful explorations.

Two of Vygotsky's compelling ideas are the role of assisted performance (teaching) in the development of mind (learning) and the central role language plays in the process (Lyons, 2003). He emphasized not just the child's development of thinking, but the development of thinking and speech in the social context, the internalization of others' discourses, and the organization of instruction. The words we appropriate as our own – “those we swallow, so to speak - always taste of the situational and relational contexts in which they were learned” (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 293, cited in Dyson, 2000, p. 156). According to Vygotsky, social interactions and mental processes rely on types of social mediation like nonlinguistic and linguistic signs and tools. Aspects of children's cognitive functioning seem to be intimately related to the social relationships in which they are embedded (Tizard & Hughes, 2002). Vygotsky's theories provide an analytical way of thinking about learning and facilitate understanding the importance of the teacher's role in the teaching and learning process.

Blending Vygotskian Theory and Writing Instruction Practice

Vygotsky (1978) expressed that written language develops similarly to speaking in authentic useful contexts: “The best method [for teaching reading and writing] is one...in which both these skills are found in play situations. In the same way as children learn to speak, they should be able to learn to read and write” (p. 118). Complex literacy processes develop in genuine social collaborative contexts as teacher and child work and play together in meaningful activities. A skillful literacy tutor or teacher sets up learning opportunities within purposeful settings with real life talking and writing tasks. The complex process of writing turns speaking into an object of reflection that leads to new discoveries for the child and tutor as they create from those meaningful and collaborative activities. In a Vygotskian framework, the complex nature of teacher-student interactions takes into account what the individual child knows, the

necessary problem-solving processes, and an understanding of what needs to be learned.

Similarly, Clay and Cazden (1990) stated, “as children engage in reading and writing, they are working with theories of the world and theories about written language, testing and changing them” (p. 207).

According to Vygotsky, the means for new discoveries and cognitive development are products of human history and culture. In parallel thought, Clay (2001) expressed, “New learning at any one time must depend on the nature of the landscape formed by the past experiences of the learner up until this moment in time” (p. 293). The activities of early writing glean from and contribute to the historical and cultural network of information that forms around a particular word so that writing information as well as reading and oral language information become attached to the “knowing of it (the word meaning)” (Clay, 1991, p. 97). Writing contributes to the building of almost every kind of inner control of literacy learning. However, no sequence of shifts in control can be predicted because each child engages in writing with unique historical and cultural background experiences.

Vygotsky’s Theory of Cognitive Development

Vygotsky (1987) viewed cognitive development as a transformation of biologically determined generic processes into increasingly complex mental functions such as problem solving. From birth, children’s basic processes develop into more complex processes as they begin to regulate their own behaviors. The ability to regulate behavior is a social process mediated by both verbal and nonverbal language. Bruner (1985) recognized mediation as a critical function of scaffolding a learning task when he emphasized the transactional nature of learning rather than a transmission from teacher to student. Arising from Vygotsky’s work, Bruner denoted three key components of mediation work: the props, the processes, and the

procedures. Mediators become mental tools existing first in shared activity used by the teacher and student to cultivate learning. Mediators can be verbal, visual, and/or physical. Speech and written words are verbal mediators. Diagrams provide visual mediation, and rituals serve as physical procedural ones. For example, in a writing lesson, the teacher may use a paper strip as a nonverbal, visual, physical prop to help the child space between words or verbalize the word *space* to remind the child. The external mediator gives way as the child gains more experience.

Furthermore, Vygotsky distinguished higher cognitive functions using four criteria: their social nature, sign mediation use, voluntary rather than environmental control, and the nonlinear development of conscious realization of mental processes (Wertsch, 1985). The teacher may call for conscious realization by questioning how the child solved a particular problem in writing text. Through this dialogue, the child comes to learn how something is known and boosts control of mental processes (Clay & Cazden, 1990). Conscious operation of signs to mediate higher cognitive functions should ebb into an automatic process when the writer attends to text meaning. In fact, Wertsch (1985) stated Vygotsky described transition points in development in terms of changes in the form of mediation used. The external stimulus acts as a means for transition to an internal influence. A teacher may verbally prompt a child to go back and reread the written message in order to predict what comes next thereby gathering meaning. Next, the teacher may only point nonverbally to the beginning of the sentence indicating a reread would be helpful in knowing the next word to write. The teacher aims for the child to self-regulate this strategic behavior requiring less support and attention to rereading while holding the meaning in the head while writing.

Young writers initially develop attention to print at an explicit interpsychological level. Visual perception of letters and words, links between sounds and letters, directional rules, spatial

rules, letter formation, and sequential sign-processing operations require conscious attention when first being learned (Clay, 1975, 1991, 2005). However, these operations transform into automatic subroutines without conscious attention in order to give way to writing meaningful text. For example, the child may verbalize “around, up, and down” when slowly forming the letter *d* during early learning. However, when the child controls the movement independently, forming the letters requires less attention when writing the word *dad*. Clay and Cazden (1990) explained the process in these terms: “We do not drive in low gear when we do not need to” (p. 220).

According to Vygotsky, turning points in cognitive development connect with the appearance of new forms of mediation (Wertsch, 1985). Reading Recovery focuses on turning points through the integration of the semiotic codes of oral language, English orthography, and world knowledge and transforms into the complex operations of reading and writing (Clay & Cazden, 1990). For example, the self-composed sentences a child wants to write create new forms of mediation. A shift occurs from using a finger to space between words as an external psychological tool (Wertsch, 1985) to later, an internal mediated process when the child can use just the eyes to space between words in writing a story.

Bruner (1987) described Vygotsky’s theory of cognitive development as a theory of instruction because the essential aspect of the educational process is the unique type of cooperation between child and adult on the cutting edge of learning. His theory of instruction helps to describe how a child progresses in Reading Recovery. The partnership between the teacher and the student, supported by language around a particular learning activity, sets the stage for the child to “construct some inner generating system, which will initiate and manage learning of this kind independently on future occasions” (Clay, 1991, p. 42). Children are active participants in

solving the mystery of how language works and take control of language acquisition. Acquiring language is both social and cognitive.

Literacy Researchers Standing on Vygotsky's Shoulders

Many literacy researchers and practitioners incorporated Vygotsky's work into educational theory emphasizing the importance of tutors in writing (Bruner, 1985; Clay & Cazden, 1990; Cole, 1996; Rogoff, 1990; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988, 1991; Smagorinsky, 2007; Tizard & Hughes, 1986; Wertsch, 1985; Wood, 1988). Rogoff (1990) called attention to the role of adult or peer collaboration in closing the distance between the child's independent actions and the level of potential development with guidance in shared actions. The teacher acts as a catalyst to advance the child's developing concepts and supports the child's construction of a literacy working system. Rogoff (1997) described the tutor's role as jointly participating, focusing the learner's attention, and motivating the learner. Through guided participation and a collaborative process, the teacher involves the child in meaningful activities essential to "apprenticeship in thinking" while bridging present understandings to new competencies (Rogoff, 1990, p. 8).

Ferreiro (2003) stated literacy is best acquired when students are provided with diverse sorts of interactive experiences with written language and communicative purposes linked to writing. Congruent with Vygotsky's theory, Ferreiro stated, "to read and to write are social constructs. Every epoch and every historical circumstance give new meaning to these verbs" (p. 13). She goes on to argue that children who are immersed in stories and nurtured with positive writing experiences – to write little books with enthusiastic choice - are already promising writers. However, students who do not have a stimulating classroom experience (focused on letters, syllables, and words rather than story) tend to be robbed of motivating writing opportunities. It is important to listen to children from the very first written drawings. Behind

those little eyes, ears, and hands “lies a person who thinks and attempts to incorporate into her own knowledge this marvelous medium of representing and recreating language, which is writing” (p. 34).

The Theory of Learning and Teaching in the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)

According to Vygotsky (1978), “Every function in the child’s cultural development appears twice: ...first between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological)” (p. 57). This process is demonstrated by another key theoretical principle in Vygotsky’s theory of learning and instruction, the zone of proximal development (ZPD). Although abundant references are made to it, the ZPD comprises only a very small part of Vygotsky’s work and is often misapplied (Smagorinsky, 2007). Conceptually, the ZPD is the “distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). In other words, the potential distance between what a child can do independently and the capability to perform with teacher support spans the ZPD. Children learn through shared participation in activities with more knowledgeable others who gradually transfer responsibility for the task to the child (Cole, 1985, 1996; E. M. Rodgers, 2004). The teacher uses language, both verbal and nonverbal, as a tool to scaffold or lift a student’s performance so with assistance the student successfully carries out the task (Luria, 1979, 1983; Vygotsky & Kozulin, 1986). Talk is central to learning how to write; it is not an activity that can be learned simply by watching someone else do it. Halliday (1993) stated, “Language is the essential condition of knowing, the process by which experiences becomes knowledge” (p. 94).

Skills and strategic behaviors on the edge of emergence can be enhanced by varying degrees of assistance located within the ZPD (Bodrova & Leong, 1998). Development springs out of forward leading instructional assistance that keeps the task “proximal” (slightly above independent functioning). Vygotsky (1987) advocated, “The teacher must orient his work not on yesterday’s development in the child but on tomorrow’s. Only then will he be able to use instruction to bring out those processes of development that lie in the zone of proximal development” (p. 211). The progress within the ZPD advances not only when there is social interaction, but also when special instructional techniques are utilized (Bodrova & Leong, 1998; Clay, 2005; Wood, 2003). The ZPD has several overlapping phases illustrating development: assistance provided by more capable others; transition from other assistance to self-assistance; and assistance provided by self (Lyons, 2003). Within the zone of proximal development, cognitive processes come to life when the individual interacts with others. First appearing on the social level, between people (interpsychological), higher mental functions become internalized (intrapsychological) and become part of the learner’s development. Self-regulation of one’s behavior is a language process developing from social interaction (Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord, 1993). Therefore, in social activities and conversations with others, the child develops problem-solving strategic behaviors.

Vygotsky emphasized the interactive relationships between the role of the teacher, the social organization of instruction, and learning. Independent processing replaces the collaborative problem solving in a continual cycle. Vygotsky (1987) proposed the best kind of instruction marches in front of development and leads it; it must be targeted not so much at the ripe as at the ripening function. Instruction awakens a system of learning still in development acting as a source for development of the child’s mind and contributes to emotional growth and

well-being (Lyons, 2003; Vygotsky, 1987). If instruction only considered what was already mature, then it would be unnecessary. Vygotsky's stance certainly supports early intervention and refutes reading readiness or waiting until the child is ripe and developmentally ready for instructional activities. Within this context, the concept of emerging literacy not only defies the notion of readiness but asserts readiness to write is nurtured by the opportunities provided to the child as a participant engaged in the writing tasks (Calkins, 1994; Clay, 1991; DeFord, 1994; Graves, 1983; Teale & Sulzby, 1986). Early intervention, key to altering the course of development for children most at risk of literacy failure, can be delivered in a powerful way in the form of one-on-one tutoring context because the tutor can customize instruction to a child's unique needs (Clay, 1991, 2005; E. M. Rodgers, 2004).

From a Vygotskian perspective, appropriate scaffolding allows the child to write more advanced forms and affects the quality of the child's message relating to length and increased meaning (Bodrova & Leong, 1998). Therefore, since social interaction with more capable others and specialized instructional models such as Reading Recovery influence mental processes, early literacy interventions can be especially fruitful when used with marginalized populations; students who are yet to acquire a second language or academic discourse that is linguistically and functionally distinct from the children's home discourse (Delpit, 1988; Gee, 1989). According to Vygotsky, cultural forces fuse with biological ones to transform development (Wertsch, 1985). Reading Recovery teachers support emerging literacy in low achieving first graders rather than waiting, thereby, transforming mental processes in learning to read and write. A caution must be mentioned here with the term 'low achieving' which is a cultural construct. As a literacy tutor, the teacher works toward advancing the child in the direction of a culturally specific *telos* or goal of being able to read and write in a certain way. Just because the child does not meet the goal

does not mean that she is unintelligent or unable to achieve. Cole (1996) discusses questionable research findings that reported an African village people were illiterate, unintelligent, or “low achieving”; however, the problem was with the cultural conceptual differences of people and not with deficiencies, actual intelligence, and achievements.

Progression Through and Beyond the ZPD

Tharp and Gallimore (1988) depicted the development process of the learner’s ability to regulate performance on a continuum of phases within and beyond the zone of proximal development: (1) assistance by more proficient others; (2) a transition from other-assistance to self-assistance; (3) assistance provided by the self; (4) internalization, automatization, fossilization; and (5) deautomatization and recursiveness through previous phases. Recursive looping in these phases occurs many times in an individual’s lifetime as new cognitive capacities develop. Moreover, the performance of the learner will reflect a combination of other-regulation, self-regulation, and automatized process (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). Similarly, at any time, an individual could be operating within this framework: (1) I (teacher) do, you (student) watch. (2) I do, you help. (3) You do, I help. (4) You do, I watch (Clay, 2005). Tharp and Gallimore proposed three procedures as a means of assisting learners through the ZPD in a tutorial system: modeling, contingency management, and cognitive structuring. The teacher demonstrates what is needed in response to the child’s behavior and structures the level of support and information to match the child’s current level of competency. The interactive framework, a process of scaffolding learning, occurs within a context of oral talk linking interactions and development (Hobsbaum, Peters, & Sylva, 1996).

In early phases when the child has limited understanding, a more capable other assists the performance of the child through modeling or directions. Initially, the teacher monitors and

structures the learning within the task. Through careful observation and analysis of a child's strengths and needs, an expert teacher provides appropriate levels of support to involve the child actively in fruitful writing experiences. The teacher's demonstrations and prompts allow the child to participate successfully in a writing activity not possible alone. The dialogue between the teacher and the child (intercognitive/interpsychological) provides an influential tool for both thinking and communicating around verbal and nonverbal behaviors. The teacher's assistance provides fertile ground for the child to develop strategic behaviors and extend the zone of proximal development. For example, when a child is first learning to compose and transcribe her message in the writing component of a Reading Recovery lesson, the teacher may reread the child's sentence as the child writes in order to help the child know the next word to write. Gradually the strategic behavior of rereading would be turned over to the child so the child could predict for herself the next word to write for her story to make sense.

Transitioning from other-assistance to self-assistance, the child takes on more responsibility often self-prompting using the language of the teacher in self-directed speech (Hobsbaum, Peters, & Sylva, 1996). In this transition phase, an observant teacher recognizes the importance of partially correct monitoring behaviors and tries to support the child in developing strategic actions for problem-solving. Believing the child can solve the problem with assistance, the teacher says, "Good, you noticed something was not right. What can you do to help yourself? Try that again." The child identifies her need, for example, in hearing and recording sounds in words by asking, "Is there a B there?" rather than needing to be prompted to say it slowly and asked, "What do you hear?" The teacher questions the child to discover what she knows at points throughout word production where the child may have stored information but requires a prompt

to retrieve and make connections. The teacher illustrates how a new word is like another word the child knows thereby linking the unfamiliar to something already known.

The teacher supports the child in making connections by “digging ditches to connect the pools of knowledge” and finding the “something different” that helps an individual child learn in her own way (Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord, 1993). For example, the child wants to write *stay* in her story.

The teacher prompts the child to think of a word that she knows that sounds like *stay*. The child makes the link to her known word *play* and then changes the first letters and writes *stay*. A shift in control occurs; the child knows the goal but may not know exactly how to get there. As the child learns new concepts, then new pieces of information are added to the set reorganizing it in a kind of “kaleidoscopic reshuffle” (Clay, 1998, p. 141).

Tharp and Gallimore’s (1988) latter phase within the zone of proximal development requires less teacher assistance (interpsychological) leading to the development of self-regulation (intrapsychological). The child internalizes teacher prompts and social exchanges and exercises increasing control over cognitive processes through the use of regulatory language. The teacher’s interactions have moved from close intervention to reactive support as the child directs his own writing to a greater extent. Here, the teacher’s decisions operate at the outer boundaries of the child’s zone of proximal development (Hobsbaum, Peters, & Sylva, 1996). Self-questioning and self-affirming give signs of cognitive processing developing inside the learner (intrapsychological). Self-corrections provide a window into observational transitions in a child’s thinking and ability to solve problems (Clay, 1991). Monitoring, searching, generating, checking, and choosing processes are reinforced because one is contingent on the other. In a sense, the child self-tutors using the new bits of information previously unnoticed. A student may independently rewrite a word because it does not look right the first try. For example, Jocelin

wrote *foru* in her sentence about four puppies. She noticed something did not look right and self-corrected by writing *four*. In another writing lesson, Da'ja wrote on a practice page *wint*, *went*, *wnet* to test herself on which way looked right to her to write *went* in her story about when she went to dance class. She then chose *went* correctly. The teacher located *went* in a familiar book giving opportunity for Da'ja to monitor and confirm her choice for writing again.

When children internalize and automatize strategic control, they “resourcefully cast around all their experience to find cues, strategies, and solutions. The appropriate questions are: What do I know that might help? How do I know this? What can link up with this? Is the message still clear?” (Clay, 1991, p. 341). Vygotsky referred to this internal self-monitoring and searching as the fruit of development (Hobsbaum, Peters, & Sylva, 1996). At this point, assistance from others disrupts the smooth integration of the working systems to complete a particular writing task. Vygotsky used a metaphor, “fossilized,” to describe the fixity of the performance capacity (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988, p. 257). However, this fixity is not permanent. For example, when a child is unsuccessful at applying established strategic actions to solve more complex writing tasks, deautomatization and recursion back through the zone of proximal development occur (Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord, 1993). The goal then is to recycle through assisted performance to self-regulation to exit the zone of proximal development into automatization (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). Vygotsky believed that learning is always recursive.

Scaffolding Through Instructional Language

Prior to the 1970s, Western researchers regarded teaching and learning as different processes. However, in Russia, a single word, *obuchenie*, represented the intertwining concept of teaching and learning. In the 1970s and 1980s, studies of interactions between parents and

children emerged and researchers observed a process where teaching and learning were intertwined (Cazden, 1981; Rodgers & Rodgers, 2004). Scaffolding represents the helpful interactions during the teaching and learning process and between adult and child that enable the child to do something beyond her independent efforts. The construction of a scaffold occurs in the zone where the child may not be able to articulate or explore his learning alone, but with the assistance of a “knowledgeable other,” the child reaches beyond what he could accomplish alone. Scaffolded interventions provide a bridge between the learner’s existing skill level and the new task. Cognitive and affective benefits result from the social context of collaboration between teacher and student. In the partnership of literacy teaching and learning, careful observation informs the scaffolding and teaching decisions respond to what the child is trying to do (Rodgers & Rodgers, 2004; Rodgers, 2000). Teaching decisions emerge from the operating question: “What can the child accomplish with assistance?”

Wood, Bruner, and Ross’ (1976) idea of scaffolding paralleled Vygotsky’s theories. Scaffolding is inherent in the definition of the ZPD, as well as the notion of developing strategic behaviors. Though the term was never used by Vygotsky, interactional support and the process by which adults mediate a child’s attempts to take on new learning has come to be termed “scaffolding.” A scaffold is a temporary framework that is put up for support and access to meaning and taken away as needed when the child secures control of success with a task. A worker constructs a scaffold to allow him to work on an area of a building, for example, that is out of reach. Cazden (1983) defined a scaffold as “a temporary framework for construction in progress” (p. 6). For example, parents seem to know intuitively how to scaffold their children’s attempts at negotiating meaning through oral language. The construction of a scaffold occurs at a time where the child may not be able to articulate or explore learning independently. While a

scaffold provided by the tutor may not change the nature of the task, it often adjusts the difficulty and supports the student's successful completion of the task. The adult scaffolds support in response to and to honor the child's control, initiation, and intention (Graves, 1983; Searle, 1984). Ideally, the tutor builds from the child's intentions.

Dyson (1990) questioned the term scaffolding and offered a weaving metaphor to portray teachers as weavers supporting children in intertwining literacy from the wealth of diverse resources they bring to school with them. She advocated providing rich experiences for children to explore their own agendas and capturing moments to help them make connections from their known to the new. Hogan and Pressley (1997) agreed teachers using a weaving approach create meaningful dialogues by incorporating students' contributions. For example, to truly scaffold a student's writing, the teacher could draw from the child's personal repertoire of knowledge so that the child could use what she knows in one context to help her in another; thereby, weaving in the child's own cultural and linguistic capital from other learning spaces (Clay, 1991, 2005; Dyson, 1990; Moll, 2004). Connecting to what is meaningful and relevant to the child strengthens the effectiveness of instruction and learning. The weaving metaphor parallels sociocultural perspectives encouraging teachers to build on the diverse resources of children especially the intellectual, literacy, and sociohistorical resources of students often marginalized in school. To scaffold or assist students in weaving writing competencies into their literacy tapestries, the tutor might fine tune her own listening and observing skills before offering support in order to follow the child's path of learning and capitalize on the child's individual strengths and intentions. Cazden (2005) wrote the key to a child's intellectual functioning seems to be the familiarity and responsiveness between the child and the tutor. The tutor as weaver implies familiarity with and responsiveness to the whole child. The tutor and child must share

intersubjectivity. In other words, they must understand what each other is trying to do (Rogoff, 1990).

The writing tutor engages the learner's attention, calibrates the task, motivates the student, identifies relevant task feature, controls for frustration, and demonstrates as needed (E. M. Rodgers, 2004). Through joint activities, the teacher scaffolds conversation to maximize the development of a child's intrapsychological functioning. In this process, the adult controls the elements of the task that are beyond the child's ability all the while increasing the expectations of what the child is able to do. The effective tutor must attend to two theoretical models: "One is the theory of the task or problem and how it may be completed, and the second is a theory of the performance characteristics of his tutee" (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976, p. 97).

In writing instruction, typical support is presented in verbal form (discourse). Speech, a critical tool to scaffold thinking and responding, plays a crucial role in the development of higher psychological processes (Luria, 1979) because it enables thinking to be more abstract, flexible, and independent (Bodrova & Leong, 1996). From a Vygotskian perspective, talk and action work together with the sociocultural fabric of the writing event to shape a child's construction of awareness and performance (Dorn, 1996). Dialogue may range from casual talk to deliberate explanations about features of written language. The talk embedded in the actions of the literacy event shapes the child's learning as the tutor regulates her language to conform to the child's degrees of understanding. Although teacher/child talk was richly described under the newly discovered constructs from her case studies, she admits the process of literacy development is not so easily depicted and advocates further research on the role of talk as an instrument for promoting literacy development of struggling readers and writers.

Clay (2005) showed what may seem like casual conversational exchanges between tutor and student actually offer many opportunities for fostering cognitive development, language learning, story composition for writing, and reading comprehension. Conversations facilitate generative, constructive, experimental, and developmental speech and writing in the development of new ideas (Smagorinsky, 2007).

Children use oral language as a vehicle for discovering and negotiating emergent written language and understandings for getting meaning on paper (Cox, 1994; Dyson, 1983, 1991). Writing and speech as tools can lead to discovery of new thinking. The teacher offers levels of verbal and non-verbal demonstrations and directions as the child observes, mimics, or shares the writing task. With increased understanding and control, the child needs less assistance. The teacher's level and type of support change over time from directive, to suggestion, to encouragement, to observation. Optimum scaffolds adapt to the child's tempo moving from other-regulation to self-regulation. The child eventually provides self-scaffolding through internal thought (Wertsch, 1985). Within these scaffolding events, teaching and learning, inseparable components, emphasize both the child's personal construction of literacy and the adult's contributions to the child's developing understandings of print. The child contributes what she can and the adult contributes so as to sustain the task (Teale & Sulzby, 1986).

A. Rodgers (2004) identified the key features of effective scaffolding:

- A knowledgeable teacher with specialized knowledge who knows what and how to teach and knows when to give help in response to a student's changing competencies (Rodgers, 2000)
- Opportunities for error giving more help when the student flounders and less help when the student is successful (Wood, 2003)

- Making decisions about what to teach – “domain contingency” (Wood & Wood, 1996)
- Varying the level and specificity of support – “instructional contingency” (Wood & Wood, 1996)

The teacher moves up and down on interaction continuums of instructional support based on a student’s need (A. Rodgers, 2004). Student response, the key factor in scaffolding, necessitates complex teacher decision making about explicit language and demonstrations that influence the student’s literacy process and progress. Building on what the student can do makes adjusting the level of support an effective instructional strategy when working with students learning a new language and coming to literacy by different paths.

Meyer (1993) stressed the importance of an appropriate match between the level of the scaffolded assistance, the task complexity, and the learner’s competency. She indicated that through dialogue a teacher shifts responsibility to the child, thus, underscoring nonevaluative collaborative roles of teacher and student in negotiating control of the task. Meyer (1993) encouraged research investigating how responsibility for the development of strategies may be transferred from teacher to student.

In Reading Recovery, task difficulty constantly increases. The child is called upon to utilize different strategies and change problem solving tactics in composing and transcribing messages. Knowing what the child can do alone and with assistance, the teacher adjusts the level of support to match the competency and control of the child’s strategic writing behaviors. Shifting support in response to the child, contingent teaching, fosters acceleration and independence. As the teacher increases the gradient of challenge and adjusts the level of support, the zone of proximal development continually changes. Cognitive processes undergo continuous change over time (Clay, 1991). Through the assistance of others, the child is able to continue to

push the boundaries while learning to write and writing to learn. Because each child comes to learning by different courses and cycles, the interaction and instructional language uniquely changes for each child as new concepts unfold. If teachers present all children with the same task, then the zone of proximal development for more competent or less competent children goes unchallenged. Clay (2004) expressed, “Children will be spread out like runners in a marathon as they gain control over language” (p. 14). They all come with diverse experiences and oral language by different paths which are strong resources on which to expand literacy skills and strategies. Necessarily, the expert teacher tailors instruction to the individual child calling attention to certain cues in print as needed for that student based on the child’s current competencies. Successful literacy tutoring finds the “frontier of learning for any one pupil on a particular task” (Clay, 1991, p. 65). Individual differences in children must be respected as each child’s experiences put them at different points of entry with varied courses of progress, which would raise doubt to the value of any sequenced scripted curriculum program (Clay, 1975). Early learning is both approximate and specific and new insights change the child’s perception of the entire system so what is introduced and how much is introduced must be weighed carefully. The tutor provides a bridge between the active learner’s existing writing skills and the novel writing tasks thereby supporting the learner’s own problem solving by passing responsibility from tutor to learner (Wood & Wood, 1996).

Types of Interactional Assistance

Standing on the shoulders of Vygotsky, literacy researchers explored forms of interactional assistance between teacher and student in the social process of literacy learning. As mentioned previously, the teacher plays an important role in supporting the child as she builds a self-extending literacy system through joint activities. A self-

extending system incorporates strategic actions, knowledge of goals, skill functions and expressions, and self-regulation (Boocock, McNaughton, & Parr, 1998). The child and teacher assume collaborative roles similar to the scaffolded interactions between parent and child in early literacy learning. Rogoff (1986) described interactions as demonstrations, direct feedback, and shared participation. E. M. Rodgers (2004) characterized teacher talk in a tutoring situation as having functions of help: telling, demonstrating, directing, or questioning. Similarly, Many (2002) illustrated levels of scaffolding that teachers employed by modeling, supplying information, clarifying, assisting, questioning, prompting, and focusing attention. Acting as a participant observer in a seven-month naturalistic study, Many (2002) examined conversations of teachers, students, and peers to illustrate the nature of instructional scaffolding that occurs as students construct meaning from fiction and nonfiction texts. She noted the importance of providing varying degrees of support for students at different levels of learning which points to individualized responsive teaching.

Working one-on-one with a child is not enough to ensure success; rather, aspects of the tutoring interactions appear to make a difference (Pinnell, Lyons, DeFord, Bryk, & Seltzer, 1994; E. M. Rodgers, 2004). The effective writing tutor goes beyond providing stimulating experiences by working alongside the child and letting the young writer accomplish what is possible independently but sharing the task when the child reaches competency boundary. Knowing help will be offered, the child likely attempts the challenging writing task. The teacher and child write together like an ice dancing partnership. The teacher moves in and out when needed to support in response to gradual shifts in imperfect performances of the novice writer. A Reading Recovery tutor encourages emerging writing skills by validating partially correct responses, thereby,

economizing the child's learning and building the apprentice writer's self confidence (Clay & Cazden, 1990). Promoting emerging skills allows the child to work with the familiar while constructing new learning. An expert teacher varies the level of support to match the behaviors of the child so that the child builds on the known while extending performance capacity. The teacher can provide many forms of assistance in the constructive process.

Tharp and Gallimore (1988) described six types of assistance: modeling, contingency management, feeding back, instructing, questioning, and cognitive structuring. These types of assistance bridge students' actual development to their potential development.

Modeling

Effective writing teachers scaffold emerging writing skills through modeling and demonstrations and then foster individual control of writing by gradually removing social supports. Via modeling, the teacher illustrates a strategic activity such as writing a word fluently or solving a word through analogy to a known word. The child is asked to perform the same behavior. Young learners benefit more from behavioral demonstrations than verbal modeling. For example, the child wants to write an unknown word *before*. The teacher demonstrates by clapping the word to hear the parts and writing the corresponding sound unit. In this example, she claps twice for the two-syllable word *before* and writes the first part *be* and writes the last part *fore*. Next, when the child wants to write the unknown word *into*, the teacher prompts the child to clap the word and write the parts as she had demonstrated earlier with the word *before*.

Contingency Management

Contingency management such as praise and encouragements act as props to strengthen the process throughout the zone of proximal development. Praise does not teach a new behavior, but rather propels the learning process forward (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). Consider the positive

encouragement when the teacher specifically reinforces the child's searching and self-correcting behaviors by saying, "Yes, that was good work. You found two ways to check on that tricky new word when you noticed it did not look right or sound right without adding the *s* to *mom* to make the word *mom's*."

Feeding Back

In instructional conversations in Reading Recovery, the teacher occasionally compares what a writer does with a published text. When the teacher wants the student to monitor for herself adequate spacing between words in writing her story, the teacher verbally cues the child, "Think before you start where you will write the next word." Then the teacher shows the printed text in one of the student's familiar reading books asking the child to notice her spacing compared to the spacing in the book. This feedback enables the child to monitor her spacing in her own writing by comparing to the book standard.

Instructing and Questioning

Instructing and questioning call for the initiation of new actions. Their integrated use intends to transform new information into independent action. "The instructing voice of the teacher becomes the self-instruction voice of the learner in the transition from apprentice to self-regulated performer...a gradually internalized voice, that then becomes the pupil's self-regulating 'still, small' instructor" (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988, p. 57). The external teacher speech becomes internal student speech providing cues for literacy acts. The internalization of teacher speech is a transformation of mediated forms that connect with turning points in development (Vygotsky, 1987).

Cognitive structuring

Cognitive structuring refers to a structure for thinking and acting (Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord, 1993). The goal focuses on gradual transfer of responsibility from an expert to a novice with the help of two specific tactics, materialization and private speech. Materialization refers to the use of tangible objects and physical actions to represent a concept or strategy as the mental action is being learned. As self-directed language instruction, private speech assists the child in using the materialized objects or actions effectively and plays an important role in the transition from assisted to individual functioning (Bodrova & Leong, 1998). An example from a Reading Recovery writing lesson illustrates the cognitive structuring activity of learning how to say a word slowly in order to represent the sound within it through the use of El'konin boxes (Clay, 2005; adapted from El'konin, 1973). The El'konin sound boxes provide an explanation and materialization for what the child is asked to do. The structure of these sound boxes helps the child organize actions and theories about how to represent the speech and visual symbols for her messages even before knowing all the letters and sounds. The Reading Recovery tutor draws boxes for the sound frame of a given word, such as *cat*. In this example, three boxes are drawn, and with fluid motion, the teacher demonstrates by pushing a penny for each phoneme into a box as she says the word slowly. The child then performs the same task. Then she records the letter or letters representing each phoneme in the corresponding box. Eventually, the boxes are used less as the child develops cognitive structures for solving words with similar onsets and rimes to generate new categories of words from known words. El'konin sound boxes are designed to provide assistance at the beginning and to be removed as the student's skills develop. Consider the shift from the use of sound boxes as an external interpsychological tool (Wertsch, 1985); the

child is asked to use to hear and record sounds in words, then internalize the process so the child can write the word successfully while saying it slowly.

Another example of a cognitive structuring technique influenced by Vygotsky's theory of learning and development is called Scaffolded Writing (Bodrova & Leong, 1998; Boyle & Peregoy, 1990). The use of materialization and private speech increases the quality of the message and the use of more developmentally advanced writing forms. First, the tutor and child share a conversation from which the child composes a story to write. The tutor draws a highlighted line for each word in the message while repeating the child's words to help the student visualize the planned text. The child can better distinguish the words within the flow of the message. The highlighted line acts as a tool for memory. The teacher first models private speech and then prompts the child, "Say the word as you write it on the line. If you can't remember the word, go back to the beginning of the sentence and think what word would make sense next."

During this period of development, private speech transitions to inner speech (Lyons, 2003). Eventually, inner speech will transform into inner verbal thought. The child orchestrates the integration of the semiotic codes of English orthography and oral language, prior knowledge and experiences, and the complex working system of writing. Through this process, the child extends her knowledge which supports Dewey's (1935) premise that "the old and the new have forever to be integrated with each other so that the values of the old experiences may become the servants and instruments of new desires and aims" (p. 62). In the social context of learning, the tutor provides opportunities for the child to build on her prior history to extend and construct new learning (Vygotsky, 1987).

Research concludes that contingent teaching requires multilayered multi-tasking with critical timing as a challenge (Elliot, 1996). Providing assistance at the right time is an acceleration factor. How teachers use the instructional time to scaffold instruction during writing to support the literacy progress of ELLs raises questions for further investigations.

Levels of Interactional Assistance

Through conversation, teachers promote independent problem solving by carefully adjusting the level of support in their prompts. Specifically, Wood's (2003) theory of contingent tutoring describes aspects of the tutor-student relationship. In order to be contingent, the tutor and child work in tandem, and the teacher makes teaching moves based on the learner's actions. When studying teachers who effectively foster change in students' writing, Matczuk & Straw (2005) examined teaching interactions through the framework of Wood's (2003) theory of contingent teaching. They report that effective Reading Recovery teachers engage in scaffolding their students' word writing strategies during the writing component of Reading Recovery lessons knowing what to teach, how to adjust the level of support, and when to intervene. Using Wood's (2003) framework defined by three dimensions of tutoring (domain contingency, instructional contingency, temporal contingency), they discovered:

- The domain contingency (what to teach) involves the teacher carefully selecting powerful teaching points for generative value and not confusing the learner with an array of new things. Vygotsky's influence can be seen as writing tutors foster change over time in deciding what to teach. In early writing lessons, transcribing the child's speech or message and the word-solving process require more support until the child is steady on her feet with the challenges. Teacher and student establish a core of writing vocabulary and strategic behaviors for recording unknown words early in a Reading Recovery

program. As the child becomes more secure in her thinking, less support is needed. The teacher guided process changes to an independent applied process on more and more complex examples of word writing strategies. The act of writing crystallizes thinking and the process of writing as the teacher and child co-construct together building on the child's strengths and emerging competencies. A change in language results in a change of thinking; the change in thinking results in a change of language.

- The instructional contingency (how to adjust the amount of support offered) involves “judicious use of highly effective scaffolding in response to the child's competencies, not only on the basis of the child's unaided task performance, but also on the basis of how the child responded to the tutor's previous attempts to help” (Wood, 2003, p. 14). Wood identified five levels of support with Level One offering the least amount of support and Level Five the greatest. General verbal intervention like praise or confirmation characterizes Level One signaling the fact that the teacher is monitoring what is happening. An example from a Reading Recovery tutor sounds like, “What a clever way to reread so you could think of the next word in your sentence!” Level Two support, specific verbal intervention, is characterized by prompting and drawing the child's attention to the fact that something needs to be made right. The teacher may suggest, “Would rereading help you think of what would make sense there?” or “It sounds like another word you know.” Level Three support is specific verbal intervention plus non-verbal indicators providing the child with specific clues that help the child to search. A teacher's Level Three support may include non-verbal cues like drawing a box for each sound in a word and verbally prompting the child to say the word slowly and write the letters for the sounds heard in each box. Inviting the child to choose between two

possibilities or telling the child a known word that is like the word she wants to write provide examples of Level Four, preparation for the next action. The highest level of support, Level Five, demonstrates or models the action the child needs to take. The teacher tells the student exactly how to solve the problem. For example, in the writing activity, the teacher may write the letter *b* for the child at the end of *climb*. The Reading Recovery teacher assists the child in focusing on the composing and writing while carefully bearing in mind what the child knows and how she knows it in order to judge when to demonstrate, guide, and fade support. Tutors adjust the level of support so that the child can contribute to the recording of her message with new challenges to progress her learning (Lose, 2007). When students are given writing tasks within their level of competence with just right assistance, less-competent writers regulate and manage their learning just as capable as high performing writers (Wood, 2003). Wood's findings about levels of support in tutoring contexts parallel Vygotsky's theory about teaching within the child's zone of proximal development. The Reading Recovery tutor responds to an emerging writer depending on what the child controls, the child's perspectives, the child's capabilities with assistance, and what the child can do independently. The tutor modulates the quality and quantity of teacher talk to foster efficient and effective student learning. Similar to the cognitive apprenticeship model, the tutor models, coaches, and then fades support (Palincsar & Brown, 1984).

- The temporal contingency (if and when to intervene) involves the effective use of wait time in order for the child to make the first move to solve a word, thereby, promoting independent action and problem solving. Matczuk and Straw (2005) found that the teacher's decision to wait three or more seconds to intervene provided more

opportunities for the students to initiate action, and the students who had more opportunities to initiate problem solving in writing made accelerative progress.

Increasing opportunities echoes the Matthew Effect concept that the rich get richer; the more opportunities, the greater the progress (Stanovich, 1986). Acceleration takes place when the child takes control of the writing process, discovering new things for herself inside and outside the writing lesson (Clay, 1993). Discovery leads to Vygotsky's process of internalization as the child masters writing skills through apprenticeship. The child may then appropriate by taking the tool of writing and using it in a way unique to her. The tutor says less and the child does more. Tutors promote independent problem solving by providing wait time and adjusting levels of support in response to a child (Matczuk & Straw, 2005; Rogoff, 1990, Wood, 2003). In this way, teachers fulfill the ideal that "Every interaction in the daily writing segment is a teaching move...delivered with a target that involves learning how to do something, do it better, do it faster, link it up to something, and prepare it for future independent use" (Clay, 2001, pp. 31-32). Through the teacher's verbal and non-verbal language, the child becomes a strategic thinker, not only one who learns how to use literacy strategies (Johnston, 2004).

Vygotsky's theories provide foundational perspectives of the support system provided by another for a learner at the growing edge of her competence (Vygotsky, 1987; Wertsch, 1985). Shared activities between tutor and student fit easily to concepts of teaching; however, they do not reflect the depth of Vygotsky's theory, which claims that shared and supported activity allows the child to construct some inner generating system. The self-extending system allows the child to initiate and manage learning independently in subsequent situations (Clay, 1998).

Studies showed learning in the language and cognitive areas goes beyond scaffolding as the appropriate types and levels of scaffolds leave children not only with the ability to produce desired performance but with the inner structure and functions capable of generating that performance (Au & Kawakami, 1984; Palincsar & Brown, 1984; E. M. Rodgers, 2000, 2004).

As speaking and thinking transition from social speech between tutor and child to private speech, when the child uses the language of the tutor to direct her behaviors, to inner speech to inner thought, a child regulates her actions beginning from birth throughout life. Purposeful, contextualized conversations with a child impact her emotional and cognitive development (Johnston, 2004; Lyons, 2003). Every child is capable of learning given opportunities for the right context and assistance. As Clay (2005) stated, “if the child is a struggling reader or writer the conclusion must be that we have not yet discovered the way to help him learn” (p. 158). In the end, Vygotsky and Clay would see eye to eye; it is the individual adaptation made by the expert writing tutor to the individual child’s distinctive competencies and history of past sociocultural experiences that accelerate her to effective literacy practices.

Studies Examining Scaffolding in Literacy Instruction

Many researchers have studied the dimensions of skillful tutoring, teacher-child interactions, the effects of scaffolding instruction, contingent teaching and its relationship to teaching writing strategies in building a strong literacy process (Askew & Frasier, 2003; Cazden, 1992; Clay, 2005; A. Rodgers, 2004; E. M. Rodgers, 1999, 2000, 2004; Wood, 2003). Research has consistently pointed to certain features of successful effective instruction for English learners that include engaging students in challenging authentic literacy tasks and building on the students’ first language and culture. Furthermore, several studies examined patterns of

interactions in literacy learning settings and found that the type of assistance is critical and that effective teachers use a variety of instructional language scaffolds to build the students' English proficiency (DeFord, 1994; Dorn, 1996; Elliot, 1996; Freeman & Freeman, 2002; Rodgers, 1999; Wood & Middleton, 1975).

The role of scaffolded dialogue in instruction has been studied in the areas of reading and writing (Clay, 1979), comprehension (Pearson & Gallagher, 1983), reciprocal teaching (Brown & Palincsar, 1985), and instructional dialogue examining scaffolds, models, and direct instruction (Cazden, 1983).

Clay's (1979) theory of effective tutoring sprang from the systematic observation of the reading and writing processes of young children. Teachers use their observations to provide the appropriate feedback to shape the next teaching decisions. She advocated close observations of the child's strengths and needs in order to structure new tasks in simple steps to avoid accumulation of confusions and to foster acceleration and independence in developing a self-extending literacy system.

Pearson and Gallagher (1983) believed reading comprehension must include the teaching of explicit routines and monitoring strategies. The instructional model that they advocated includes modeling, guided practice, and independent practice. In the guided practice, the teacher provides suggestive feedback, praise for strategic activity, and application of alternative problem-solving methods. Their model emphasizes extending transfer of responsibility of learning to the student.

An example of an instructional design in which the teacher and child share responsibility for task completion is reciprocal teaching (Brown & Palincsar, 1985). The teacher and student take turns leading the conversation involving content summarization, posing questions,

clarifying, and predicting. The teacher models and explains and relinquishes control as the student gains competency. Palincsar and Brown (1984) investigated methods of reciprocal teaching used with junior high students and with academically struggling first graders. They reported that the scaffolded instructional method of reciprocal teaching in a supportive social environment supports students in gaining and maintaining competence in comprehension strategic behaviors.

Cazden (1988) compared instructional scaffolds examining adult assistance in language instruction. Cazden reported that scaffolds, models, and direct instruction vary from culture to culture but exist when children have opportunities to be around more competent members of their community. In her book, *Classroom Discourse: The Language of Teaching and Learning*, Cazden (1988) discussed the ethnographic work of Heath (1983) who investigated the influential role of sociocultural factors on teaching and learning. In her interesting study, Heath (1983) examined the combination of models and scaffolds with teachers in Trackton, a small southern community. Participation in and preparation for school appeared challenging for Trackton children. Heath supplied teachers with information about the community in order that they could provide the children with appropriate models and scaffolds. Teachers started integrating meaningful activities that centered on the children's lives. They used natural language settings and situations to build and extend language structures and patterns from practical to generative contexts. Children gain dignity and identity when they become the expert in some activity of purpose and meaning to their lives. Heath's investigation accentuated the value in knowing and understanding social and cultural context within which learning occurs. Likewise, Moll (2004) emphasized tapping into the cultural funds of knowledge of students, families, and communities.

Using a Vygotskian theoretical framework, Wertsch and Stone (1984) examined scaffolded instruction in a one-on-one remedial clinic setting with a learning disabled child. The researchers show how adult language directs the child to strategically monitor actions. Analysis of communicative patterns show a transition and progression in the source of strategic responsibility from teacher or other-regulated to child or self-regulated behaviors. In Vygotsky's words, "what the child is able to do in collaboration today he will be able to do independently tomorrow" (Vygotsky, 1987, p. 211).

Wood and Middleton (1975) noted that mothers whose children were most successful in building a block pyramid pitched their help at just the right level of assistance. The child whose mother intervened ten times was more successful than the child whose mother intervened seventy-eight times. Telling the child how to do it and only modeling the task proved to be least helpful. Those children lost interest in the activity. It is not just the intervention that makes a difference to learning, but the quality of that interaction. Studies such as Wood and Middleton's (1975) inform about the nature of scaffolding. Educators need to know how to scaffold a child through a ZPD. For children who are taking on a new language when they come to school need interactive literacy experiences with experts that can guide their learning. Reading Recovery provides an excellent example of such interactive experiences.

Hobsbaum, Peters, and Sylva (1996) examined seven Reading Recovery teachers and seventeen students during writing instruction and described the nature of the discourse as interactive talk cycles. They concluded, "There is no relaxation of the challenges posed and the teacher is constantly moving to what can be considered as the outer limits of the zone of proximal development" (p.31). They found that responsive teaching in the "zone" accelerates the learning. An interesting question was raised by Hobsbaum, Peters, and Sylva: Can scaffolding as

easily be applied in writing as it is in learning to read? Decisions about the support needed in reading and writing instruction spring from what the teacher knows the child can do and the anticipated complexity of the task. It is important to note that scaffolded interaction for text reading allows comparison over time with the same level of text encountered on successive occasions. In a set task, the teacher's expectations rise rather than the task difficulty. However, in writing, there are no leveled texts. The teacher not only raises expectations in tandem with the students' developing knowledge and skill, but the writing task is unpredictable involving new, unplanned content which continually varies in complexity. Researchers' ongoing questions like this one add depth and new perspective during the data collection, analysis, and reporting processes.

Rodgers (1999) analyzed the patterns of teacher-student interactions in the context of the one-on-one tutoring of two students. She conducted observations, reviewed digital recording, and analyzed lesson transcripts of the teacher-student interactions. The participation of the two students in problem solving at the point of difficulty changed over time. One student engaged in more independent problem solving resulting in higher literacy performance. The teacher did not offer the other student the same kind of support and that student's process resulted in little change. The scaffolding the teacher offered the lower achieving student may not have been as helpful. The study results documented the importance of the teacher in the tutoring process. Effective tutoring is dependent on the nature of the teacher and student's interactions. A teacher can mold her talk to create a rich learning context for an emergent speaker, reader, and writer.

Gibson and Levin (1975) agreed that while the learner must be actively searching and discovering for transfer to occur, that specific assistance from the teacher is crucial. They found that when teachers provided multiple opportunities for students to search and find successfully,

then performance accelerated. This perceptual learning generated future learning far more than memorization could.

In another study, E. M. Rodgers (2004) observed two effective literacy teachers in order to describe the nature of effective scaffolding. The teachers worked with individual first-graders who were experiencing difficulty learning to read and write. Rogers described the complexity of scaffolding in terms of the instructional decisions that teachers must make about the type, amount, and level of help to provide. Teaching in response to the student again was essential to acceleration.

Lyons, Pinnell, and DeFord (1993) conducted a statewide study of Reading Recovery in Ohio. From one of the aspects of the study, they describe characteristics of Reading Recovery teachers with higher outcome students as working for active learning, strategic operations, and creating a supportive social context. They found that the more effective teachers spend more time on writing for early learning gains. The analysis of the teacher-student interactions reveal that 50.3% of effective teacher statements were prompts to action, 12.7% were reinforcements, 27.0% were general directions, and 10.3% were tolds. The teachers' goal was to support the child's use of productive strategies.

Askew and Frasier (2003) found within the task of writing continuous texts with teacher assistance, students had opportunities to learn conventions of print, phonology and orthography of the English language, a writing vocabulary, and how to use known words to generate new learning through analogy. The teachers used many opportunities to direct the child to use what he knew in writing when he was reading and vice versa. They also found that students took uniquely different paths in literacy learning confirming the importance of individually scaffold instruction. Another implication from their study relates to the role of teacher assistance. They

did not analyze the type and amount; however, they found that students' opportunities increased with supportive teacher interactions. Further research could examine the type and amount of teacher interactions that support the success of English language learners.

In an interesting study of teachers' interactions with students, researchers found five categories to classify instructional scaffolding behavior: telling, modeling, prompting, coaching, and discussing (Wong, Groth, & O'Flahavan, 1994). They concluded that teachers gave fewer directives acting as coaches in familiar tasks; however, they increased modeling, prompting, and discussing comments in novel tasks.

Bruster (1991) identified eight categories in her study of instructional scaffolding: (1) supporting statement, (2) modeling, (3) task specific, (4) monitoring, (5) task general, (6) confirming knowledge, (7) praise, (8) incidental expression. She analyzed and presented her results by applying Applebee and Langer's (1983) five constructs with examples to support each. Findings from her study indicated that clear intentions included production of a story using the child's natural language and the strategic behaviors needed in early reading were practiced in writing. The criterion of appropriateness was found in the categories of supporting statements and modeling. The categories of monitoring and task general prompts aligned with Halliday's (1975) condition of structure. The confirming knowledge and praise categories met the fourth criterion of collaboration. Examples of the teacher shifting support in response to the child's efforts provided evidence of appropriateness, structure, and collaboration. As the child demonstrated internalization of processes, the teacher was able to withdraw support and provide prompts in the praise category.

Beed (1990) studied instructional language and the relationship between the level of success of the learner and the application of cognitive strategies. For six weeks, the researcher

collected data by audio tape recording teacher-student dialogue during sessions at a reading and writing clinic. Prior to the study, Beed set five levels of instructional scaffolding on a continuum from concrete to abstract teacher prompts. The conceptualization of the scaffolding levels was developed in part by examining many transcripts of teacher-student dialogue in a pilot study. The five levels of scaffolding ranged from greatest dependence to full student responsibility: (1) teacher modeling, (2) inviting student performance, (3) cueing specific elements, (4) cueing a specific strategy, and (5) providing a general cue. One acknowledged limitation of this study was the lack of reflection time on the predetermined categories for analyzing instructional language in the actual study.

Conversational scaffolding leads students to use language in new ways. Cazden (1992, 2005) suggested that the teacher's conversation with the child influences the independent action and problem-solving essential in developing a literacy process. She put forward three types of instructional interactions on a continuum of social assistance between teachers and students: discovery without a teacher's help; revealing by using the teacher's language to involve the student in taking the action; and telling. She suggested that revealing can be more powerful than telling because information from telling is usually not generative and tends to oversimplify the complexity of how written language works.

Van Bramer (2003) examined conversations of tutors with individual students to describe how meaning was being constructed. She investigated the interactions within a one-on-one tutoring setting to determine if the principles of conversation were being applied. Van Bramer searched for instances of participants checking for understanding, showing signs of cooperation, and building on previous interactions. An emphasis was placed on the active role of the listener with a co-construction of meaning by the speaker

and listener (Bakhtin, 1999). Van Bramer cited Clay (1998) in her view that it is through building upon the existing understandings of children that they are able to make meaningful connections to incorporate new knowledge. She cited Cazden's (1988) research on classroom discourse that revealed the traditional interactions of teacher initiation, followed by child response and teacher evaluation (IRE). Cazden suggested another instructional approach that shifts to speaking rights where the student selects the turn-taking, while the teacher's role shifts from asking questions to reflections, statements, and invitations for the student to elaborate. One transcript was examined for the traditional (IRE) initiate, respond, and evaluate instructional genre (Cazden, 1988). Using Cazden's model of speaker's rights, teacher's role, and teacher's speech style in discourse features to analyze this sample, the researcher found strong evidence of an instructional shift to more everyday conversation with a weaving in and out of the traditional IRE. Van Bramer's (2003) study showed that the discourse genre used by the teachers influenced the types and amounts of oral responses from the children.

Van Dyke (2006) conducted an inquiry of teacher behaviors that support the oral language development of Reading Recovery students during the writing component of individual literacy lessons. She found that personalization and reformulation of the child's utterances were two discourse behaviors that support children in appropriating new language (Cazden, 1988, 2005; Clay, 1998; Fullerton & DeFord, 2001). She found patterns in the thirty examples of how reformulation was used to rephrase, to summarize, and to keep the conversation focused. She drew three conclusions as she analyzed the teachers' reflections on personalizing conversations with students. Excerpts from interviews were organized under these conclusions that conversations are personalized when the teacher:

- talks about the child's own experience with a topic;
- accepts the child's idea about a topic;
- provides opportunity for the child to talk about personal interests.

Fullerton and DeFord (2001) captured how the nature of the conversations differed between pairs of tutors and tutees during the conversation before writing in Reading Recovery lessons. The nature of the discourse between one dyad resembled tug of war when the teacher and child seemed to be wrestling for topic control. In the other case, the teacher and student constructed more negotiated conversations. Fullerton and DeFord stated the need for many types of studies focusing on instructional conversations in one-on-one settings.

The type of teacher-child interactions and the way in which an instructional setting is organized promotes or constrains the development of a strong literacy process for ELLs. Researchers suggest several types of effective teaching interactions and instructional settings used to support beginning writers such as massive opportunities for conversation, prompting constructive activity, accepting partially correct responses, lifting the difficulty level while supporting performance, praising strategic behavior not just accuracy, and revisiting the familiar (Clay, 1998; Kelly, 2001).

Drucker (2003) discussed the effectiveness of the Language Experience Approach (LEA) (Rigg, 1981) and interactive writing (McCarrier, Fountas, & Pinnell, 2000) with ELLs. These approaches allow for a culturally relevant teaching approach where the students' first language and culture are viewed as assets rather than deficits. The rationale for using these approaches can be summed up in these lines: "What I can think about I can talk about. What I can say I can write. What I can write I can read. I can read what I write and what other people write for me to read" (Van Allen & Halvoren, as cited in, Drucker, 2003, p. 26). LEA involves the student

telling a story and the teacher acts as scribe. The student can then practice reading it along with the teacher. In interactive writing, the teacher and the student negotiate the text meaning and share the pen to write it together. These approaches have been most successful in grades one through three. Neal (2009) discussed three practices in Reading Recovery that are especially supportive of ELLs: guided reading, interactive writing, and reading aloud.

A small study to explore how discourse strategies may scaffold an English language learner's self reflection on her own work showed how critical it is for a teacher to listen carefully to the student in order to discover what the child knows and to scaffold explorations to make talk and instructions meaningful (McVee & Pearson, 2003). This study also found that teachers do a disservice to students who are becoming proficient in multiple languages if they underestimate the ability of the child to achieve. McVee and Pearson (2003) provided insights into how teachers' instructional language could provide opportunities to expand and extend students' thinking. The discourse strategies they identified as scaffolds included questioning, revoicing, and statements.

- Questioning to *prompt, clarify, expand, summarize;*
- Revoicing to *clarify, expand, summarize;*
- Statements to *direct to an artifact, expand.*

Diaz (2001) emphasized the importance of constantly observing and analyzing the ELL's increasing control over oral and written English language in order to scaffold instruction to support appropriately the current strengths and needs working in the child's zone of proximal development. In this way, teachers fulfill Vygotsky's ideal that the teacher must focus her teaching not on yesterday's development in the child but on today's and tomorrow's (Vygotsky, 1987).

Clay (1991) agreed about the importance of the teacher being a careful listener with suitable expectations by this statement, “If the child’s language development seems to be lagging it is misplaced sympathy to do his talking for him. Instead, put your ear closer, concentrate more sharply, smile more rewardingly and spend more time in genuine conversation, difficult though it is” (p. 69). This teacher interaction with genuine conversation shows respect for the ability of ELLs to express themselves orally and fosters verbal expressiveness and story composition. Clay (1991) emphasized the need to criticize not the first language of the ELL, since “it is an intimate possession, understood by loved ones. It reflects their membership of a particular speech group and identifies them with that group” (p.71). Careful and respectful listening with realistic expectations by the teacher created positive learning experiences for ELLs in these studies. When teachers have faith in ELLs and the students believe they can learn, these high expectations lead to academic success (Collier, 1995; Goodman, 1991).

For the past fifteen years in particular, several studies focused on the importance of holistic language principles for multilingual learners (D. Freeman & Y. Freeman, 1994; Y. Freeman & D. Freeman, 1992, 1998). They found that effective teachers embedded language in meaningful contexts and drew upon ELLs’ background knowledge and interests. Engagement in authentic reading and writing tasks not only promoted literacy but cognitive, academic and language development as well. Hudelson (1989) agreed second language learners’ writing abilities are best developed through whole texts that are purposeful, consistent, and provide diverse opportunities. Clay (2001) advocated engagement with authentic continuous texts in reading and writing so every teaching and learning interaction in the daily writing segment of a Reading Recovery lesson targets learning to do something better and faster, link it up to something known, and prepare it for future independent use.

Many school systems, responding to the need of English language learners, implement Reading Recovery as an early intervention to prevent literacy failure (Ashdown & Simic, 2000). Specially trained Reading Recovery teachers provide daily, thirty-minute literacy lessons to children identified as the lowest performing readers and writers in a first grade cohort. The goal of Reading Recovery is to bring these children up to the average or above of their peers as quickly as possible, usually in 12 to 20 weeks. Reading Recovery teachers engage in intensive, intentional, responsive teaching within a child's zone of proximal development (Ashdown & Simic, 2000; Bodrova & Leong, 1996; Vygotsky, 1978). The effectiveness of the Reading Recovery program is well documented (Allington, McGill-Franzen, Clay, & Lyons, 1990; DeFord, Lyons, & Pinnell, 1991; Denner, 1993; Gaffney & Askew, 1999; Gomez-Bellenge, 2005; Rowe, 1995; Schmitt, Askew, Fountas, Lyons, & Pinnell, 2005; Schwartz, 2005; Shanahan & Barr, 1995). Disaggregated research data show that English language learners to be highly successful making comparable progress to their native English speaking peers in about the same amount of instructional time (Ashdown & Simic, 2000; Hobsbaum, 1995; Kelly, Gomez-Bellenge, Chen, & Schulz, 2005; Neal & Kelly, 1999). In Hobsbaum's (1995) four case studies, in particular, three phases of scaffolding documented progressive change over time with an increase in student control and a decrease in the need for teacher support in the one-on-one instructional situation.

Theory and Practice in Reading Recovery

Dame Marie Clay, founder of an early intervention called Reading Recovery, asserted the consistency of the Reading Recovery program with principles of Vygotsky's theory on the acquisition of cultural tools (Clay & Cazden, 1990). Reading Recovery is an early one-on-one

literacy intervention for children having difficulty reading and writing after one year at school. It consists of daily half-hour lessons taught by a teacher trained to diagnose and support children's problem-solving approaches to literacy. From a Vygotskian perspective, the tutor's interactions with the child during a lesson represent an instructional framework that foster cognitive growth and a self-extending literacy working system. In Reading Recovery lessons, the interactive framework is a process of scaffolding instruction and teacher-student collaboration to facilitate the student's learning (Clay & Cazden, 1990). Within the thirty minute lesson, the tutor and student focus a portion of time on conversation, composing, and writing a story. In each lesson, following a genuine conversation, the child composes a story about a personal experience or a book recently read. The child writes all that he can independently with the teacher providing assistance on tasks that will lead to new learning. The writing of the story is a co-constructed process. The child rereads his story several times. Power over learning tasks exists when children can bring interpretations to text and when texts are close to the child's oral language (Clay, 1991; Dyson, 1983, 1991; Perez & Torres-Guzman, 2002). It is important for limited English students to read English within their own control of language structure. Teachers gain insight when they study the sentence structures that ELLs generate or compose in writing. The writing exhibits the child's processing of the similarities and differences between the two languages and the child's expanding acquisition of English structures and rules (Nathenson-Mejia, 1987). Other researchers discuss that teachers of limited English students should observe the child carefully while composing and writing, analyze his responses, and respond to the actions of the child in order to help him learn how to process while reading and writing for meaning to increase proficiency in the second language (Geisler & Rodriguez, 1998). Specially trained tutors scaffold the literacy tasks within a lesson to capitalize on the strengths of the learner. They structure the

writing opportunities so that the student can take on actions that are more complex (Askew & Frasier, 2003; Clay, 2005). The teaching that occurs during Reading Recovery reflects principles embedded in Cummins' (1986) reciprocal model for effective instruction of second language learners: "Talking and writing are means to learning...genuine dialogue between student and teacher...guidance and facilitation rather than control of student learning...emphasizes the development of higher level cognitive skills...meaningful language use by students rather than the correction of surface forms" (p. 28).

In essence, writing floats on a sea of talk (Britton, 1970). However, Dyson (2000) proposed that talk does not float on a sea of talk but rather mediates a sea of voices formulated by diverse events and networks of social organizations (home, church, popular media, peer cultures, and school). A child's writing voice is connected to the collective oral voices all around her as she learns from and with other voices but also appropriates those voices for self-expression.

One of the most important subjects in a child's early schooling is writing because it elicits the development of functions not yet matured (Vygotsky, 1987). Therefore, evidence of productive scaffolding in writing is critical. The teacher's exploratory and instructional conversations with the child exemplify the finely tuned scaffolding of learning based on assessment of each child's current strategic behaviors in reading and writing. The dialogues are designed to foster the child's independence and acceleration within an ever advancing zone of proximal development (Bruner, 1981; Clay & Cazden, 1990). Rather than facilitative learning encounters, accelerated learning becomes a priority, so these children catch up with their peers. From a Vygotskian perspective, Reading Recovery aims to help children construct a self-

improving system of knowledge and a network of strategic behaviors rather than transmitting a set of literacy rules.

Clay and Cazden (1990) explained:

The teacher creates a lesson format, a scaffold, within which she promotes emerging skill, allows for the child to work with the familiar, introduces the unfamiliar in a measured way, and deals constructively with slips and errors. The teacher calls for the comprehension of texts and for the detection and repair of mismatches when they occur. She passes more and more control to the child and pushes the child, gently but consistently, into independent constructive activity. (p. 212)

Reading Recovery, an intervention built on scaffolded assistance, is characterized by the teacher providing appropriate levels of support. Too much may reduce the child's initiative. Too little may inhibit the child from orchestrating new skills into future performances. In shared literacy activities, the teacher is interacting with unseen processes – strategic activities in-the-head used by the child to produce reading and writing responses. Deliberate teaching decisions increase accessibility to the task while supporting the child's performance and maintaining accelerated learning (Clay & Cazden, 1990). The tutor judges the complexity of the task considering the child's level of participatory competence, moves in and out to assist, participates with the child at points of difficulty, and steps back as the child negotiates control. Clay and Cazden (1990) suggested in Reading Recovery the nature of the scaffolds changes contingent on the child's competencies and the task. Research concluded that contingent teaching requires multi-tasking with critical timing as a challenge (Elliot, 1996). Providing the appropriate assistance at the right time is an acceleration factor. It is worth investigating Exploring how

teachers supply appropriate assistance at the right time to scaffold instruction during writing to support the literacy progress of English language learner motivates further research.

Reading Recovery teachers aim to structure conversations during lessons to maximize acceleration and independence in their students' literacy processing. Reading Recovery has been found to be a highly effective early literacy intervention in raising the achievement level of struggling and diverse readers to the average or above of their classrooms in a short period of time (Ashdown & Simic, 2000; Institute of Education Sciences, 2007; Pinnell, DeFord, & Lyons, 1988). In fact, Vygotsky's theoretical principles of cognitive development and the zone of proximal development both assist Reading Recovery teachers and other literacy tutors in structuring instructional language to maximize the growth of student's intra-psychological functioning.

Findings from evaluations in different countries which have followed up with children served demonstrated the effectiveness of Reading Recovery (Pinnell, DeFord, Bryk, & Seltzer, 1994; Sylva & Hurry, 1995). The intervention leads to accelerated and sustained gains in literacy learning. Therefore, it may be instructive to examine the types, characteristics, and levels of instructional scaffolds within these tutorial interactions.

On the foundation of this literature research review, I took a closer look at instructional language during writing instruction to reveal how expert teachers scaffold an ELL's learning for accelerated achievement in writing. My research supports the findings of the studies I reviewed and adds a new dimension to existing research in order to understand the role instructional language plays in the development of an ELL's writing process.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter includes the purpose of the study, research questions, explanation of why the study is suited for a qualitative approach, description of the study design, timeline of the study, research site, sample, sample criteria, process for sample selection, methods of data collection and analysis, validity and reliability, limitations of the study, researcher role and subjectivity statement, risks and benefits.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the types and characteristics of one-on-one teaching interactions that effectively scaffold writing instruction to support English language learners (ELL) as they come to be English writers.

Research Questions

Two research questions guided my explorations and descriptions within the context of the writing component of Reading Recovery lessons with ELL:

1. How do effective early intervention literacy teachers scaffold writing instruction in a one-on-one tutoring context with English language learners?
2. What are the characteristics of the teacher-student interactions in a one-on-one tutoring context with English language learners?

Why the Study was Suited for a Qualitative Approach

I used an exploratory and descriptive qualitative multiple case study approach (Yin, 2006) to investigate the characteristics of the teacher-student interactions between three expert teachers and two of their first grade ELL (six students in all). In order to describe a teacher's scaffolding and interactions, I described the talk during the writing component of the lesson in rich detail. The study was bounded in an 18 week period, specifically within the context of the writing component of individual Reading Recovery lessons (Clay, 2005). The study's rationales to provide insight into issues of diverse children's successful literacy experiences and to advance understandings of that interest strongly pointed to defining the case as instrumental (Bassey, 1999; Stake, 2005). The instrumental study of this "quintain," or the phenomenon studied, (Stake, 2006, p. 6) provided deeper understandings of how early intervention teachers scaffold instructional language to accelerate the writing proficiency of ELL. In this study, the "quintain" was defined by the three expert instructors teaching writing to ELL. In multiple case study research, units of analysis are likely to be the case and can be events and processes like teachers' instructional scaffolds (Preissle, 2007). The three Reading Recovery teachers' interactions that scaffolded writing instruction with two first grade English language learning students each are the units of analysis or main categories of the study.

Design of the Study

I chose to use a case study approach to explore how successful Reading Recovery teachers scaffold their writing instruction and to describe the characteristics of the teacher's instructional language and decision making with ELL. Qualitative case study research is more appropriate to explore the complexities of teacher-student interactions than quantitative

assessments because studies investigate to illuminate and seek to answer focused questions through descriptions and interpretations (Hays, 2004). Every detail is considered as the study is formulated to investigate the topic in all its complexity in context. The rich description of the teachers, setting, and conversations are not easily handled by statistical procedures (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). The purpose of the case study was to gather comprehensive, systematic, and in-depth information (Patton & Patrizi, 2005). This approach proved to be useful as the study aimed to understand some special situation in great depth. One of the strengths of my study was its purpose and the purpose of a case study structure ideally coincided to describe richly a phenomenon of interest.

Qualitative researchers are concerned with process rather than simply outcomes (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). The research questions involve describing salient behaviors and processes occurring in the phenomenon, and the intention is to gather, explore, and describe systematic and in-depth information about relational human activity in each case (Marshall & Rossman, 1995; Orum, Feagin, & Sjoberg, 1991; Patton & Patrizi, 2005). I used a constructed case study approach because it was organized around research questions directed at a complex and situated issue (Stake, 2005); bound in a particular time, place, people, and sociocultural context (Dyson & Genishi, 2005; Stake, 2005; Yin, 2006); appropriate to address my research questions of “what” and “how” (Yin, 2006); embraceable, contextualized, and both a process and a product of inquiry (Stake, 2005). The amount of detail in the descriptions and the triangulation of data from different sources added to the strength of my multiple case study design.

Why Situate the Study in the Context of Writing Instruction?

The focus of this study was to identify the effective teaching interactions with ELLs in the writing component of the Reading Recovery lesson because research shows teachers with

high progress students focus more time on writing in early literacy instruction (DeFord, 1994; Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord, 1993). Writing plays a significant part in the early reading process and vice versa. Within the process of writing, the oral analysis of language and the visual analysis of print slow down so all the pieces can be interwoven. When ELLs write their own messages, the intent of the print is meaning driven, and the familiar structure reflects the children's own oral language (Fried, 1998). With this approach to writing, the teacher honors the child's language and the familiar provides a foundation for learning something new. Drucker's (2003) description of a culturally relevant teaching approach bears similarity. The student's first language and culture contribute to unlocking the second language. Experimentation of language through writing impacts reading development, as they are reciprocal processes (Clay, 1982, 1998, 2005; DeFord, Lyons, & Pinnell, 1991; Dyson, 1991; Hiebert, 1994). Additionally, writing events support an English language learner's oral language development (Freeman & Freeman, 1992) and an awareness of how to construct messages (Clay, 2001). Literate capacity and processing are evidenced by the use of written language as an instrument for thinking and engagement in writing (Heath, 1991; Vygotsky, 1987).

Timeline of the Study (see Appendix A for timeline graph)

Locke, Spirduso, and Silverman (2000) recommended setting boundaries before a study begins. The timeline bounding this study was one year plus three months beginning in January 2008 with an ongoing in-depth review of the relevant literature to situate my research. I applied for an IRB in the spring of 2008 (see Appendix B for IRB approval).

In May 2008, I analyzed the Pseudonym County Reading Recovery teacher and student data from 2005 to 2008 provided by the National Data Evaluation Center (<http://www.ndec.us/>) to select the pool of teacher participants who had the highest success rates with English language

learners in literacy achievement. From that pool, I asked for three volunteers. Selection is discussed in detail in another section. The National Data Evaluation Center (NDEC) is an ongoing research project of the School of Teaching and Learning in the College of Education and Human Ecology at The Ohio State University.

In the summer of 2008, I continued to review literature, organized tools for collecting data, and collected consent forms from district and local school administrators (see Appendices C and D for district level approval letters; see Appendix E for local school administrator consent form). I collected consent forms from the teacher participants as well (see Appendix F for the teacher consent form). I met with the teacher volunteers to discuss expectations for the study set up and conducted the initial interviews (see Appendix G for the interview guide).

During August 2008, I conferred with teachers about the selection of the students, provided information about the study to the parents and collected consent forms. I scheduled weekly sets of observations, digital recordings, weekly reflective informal interviews and discussions with the teachers. During this period, I began to analyze, categorize, and interpret the data remaining flexible and willing to be surprised. Throughout the 18 week period, I scheduled interviews with teachers to get their reflections and feedback to preliminary data on their instructional scaffolding in writing. From January 2009 to April 2009, I continued to analyze and interpret data while I wrote my findings. I continued to meet with teachers soliciting their reflections on the results. I strived to remain flexible and open to change within the evolving study.

Research Sites

The larger context for this study was a suburban school system adjacent to a large metro southern city. The district serves approximately 159,000 students in kindergarten through grade

12. The observations took place in elementary schools with diverse populations. I observed in first-grade Reading Recovery teaching areas during the 10 to 15 minute writing component of the Reading Recovery lessons.

Gaining Access

I am employed by Pseudonym County Public Schools and have a positive collegial working relationship with the school district's research and evaluation director, site coordinator for the district's Reading Recovery program, administrators in the schools with Reading Recovery implementation, and the Reading Recovery teachers. I provided explanation of my study and requested permission to gain access from each of those representatives using the consent letters previously mentioned.

I am a Pseudonym County Reading Recovery teacher leader and therefore have coded access and clearance to teacher and student data via the Reading Recovery National Data Evaluation Center which informed my participant selection process.

Sample, Sample Criteria, and Process for Sample Selection

I used purposeful sampling in selecting the three teachers. Purposeful sampling is used when there is a clear rationale for selecting the participants for the sample group (Hays, 2004) and when you choose particular subjects to include because they are believed to facilitate the expansion of the developing theory (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Maykut & Morehouse, 1994).

I wanted to explore how Reading Recovery teachers with prior successful tutoring experiences with ELL scaffold writing instruction. I selected from a range of Pseudonym County Reading Recovery teachers based on an analysis of teacher and student data results reported by the National Data Evaluation Center (NDEC) for Reading Recovery (<http://www.ndec.us/>). Those particular teachers with the highest progress student results over a three year period were

considered effective and became the pool from which I solicited three teacher volunteers. To reduce the rival explanations or factors such as classroom instruction and English support classes for the teachers' success with English language learner students, I solicited from the volunteer pool three teachers whose students came from different classrooms and different ESOL teachers.

The three teachers, Shelley, Dana, and Vivian, who graciously accepted the invitation to participate volunteered from the purposefully selected pool of early literacy intervention teachers who had the highest success rates with English language learners in a one-on-one tutoring program in a large metro school district. Table 3.1 displays the teacher data of the participant volunteers. (All participants' names are recorded under pseudonyms.)

Table 3.1

Teacher Participant Data

Teacher participant:	Shelley	Dana	Vivian
Highest Level of Education	M.Ed.	M.Ed.	Ph.D.
Years in Tutoring Role	4	4	7
Other Teaching Roles	1 st /4 th Grade Reading Coach	K-1 Literacy Coach	Title I 3 rd Grade Reading T.
Other Languages	English	English	English
Cultural Background	Jamaican American Caribbean Black	European American U.S.Northeast Caucasian	European American U.S.Southeast Caucasian

Table 3.2 shows the discontinuing percentages of the participant teachers. Discontinuing is the term used in the Reading Recovery program when students reach grade level expectations

in reading and writing within 12 to 20 weeks. The national discontinuing percentage in 2007-08 was 73% and the county in which the study was being conducted achieved an average 88% discontinuing rate.

Table 3.2

Last Three Years for Full-program Discontinuing Percentages of ELL Participants

Participants	2008	2007	2006
Teacher A/Shelley	100%	75%	100%
Teacher B/Dana	100%	100%	67%*training year
Teacher C/Vivian	75%	86%	100%

I explained the study to the teacher volunteers and obtained their consent to participate in the study (see Appendix F for the teacher consent form). The informed consent form for all participants was thoroughly discussed prior to any interviews or observations.

The selection of the two corresponding students for each teacher was determined by a variation of English proficiency on the NDEC English Proficiency rubric and scores on the Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement (Clay, 2002) and teacher selection. The Observation Survey assessment is individually administered by a Reading Recovery teacher to all first graders in the bottom third of a first grade cohort in order to determine who qualifies for Reading Recovery services. The bottom one-third is determined by the teacher completing an alternate ranking list of her students from highest reader and writer to lowest in her classroom (see Appendix H for alternate ranking form). The classroom teacher determines the ranking placements from writing samples and reading performance documented by taking a running record of a county standard leveled text. The Reading Recovery teacher administers The

Observation Survey which consists of six literacy tasks that measure a child's understandings of print concepts, letters, words in reading and writing, ability to hear and record sounds, and an instructional reading level. The students with the lowest performance on the Observation Survey tasks are selected for Reading Recovery services. From the teachers' four students, the teacher selected the two students with the lowest scores on both the NDEC English Proficiency rubric and the Observation Survey. All six students who participated in the study listed Spanish as their home language. Shelley worked with May and Huron; Dana with Lilli and Jon; and Vivian taught Brandon and Eddie (see Appendix I for the minor consent form; see Appendix J for the students' fall entry and exit literacy assessment scores). (All names are pseudonyms.)

I explained the study to the parents and obtained parental permission for the student to be a participant in the study and permission to record digitally the lessons as well (see Appendix K for parental consent letter). If parents did not speak English, a Spanish interpreter conveyed to them my explanations. I remained conscious of the rights of the teachers and children throughout the study. Names and places were changed in my research report to protect the identity of the participants and their families. Appendices L, M, and N illustrate the permission forms in English and Spanish used by the local school.

Methods of Data Collection

Good case studies benefit from many evidential sources so findings are strengthened by converging or triangulated lines of data (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982; Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; Yin, 2006). The data provided a systematic check on the artifact, observation, and interview findings, kept individual differences in view, and helped in the search for disconfirming evidence (Freppon, 1999). Data was gathered from researcher's notes (jot notes

and reflective questions outside of the recordings) and digitally recorded transcriptions, teacher interview transcriptions, teachers' reflective lesson records (Dyson & Genishi, 2005), and student writing samples. During concurrent data collection and analysis, I incorporated observational and document evidence within a meaningful context, documentation of the different perspectives of teachers, open ended and structured interview data, and a broad mixture of quotes, citations and discussion of research data (Yin, 2004). My three data gathering techniques dominate in qualitative research: participant observation, interviewing, and document collection (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992).

Participant Observation and Digital Video Recording

The focused outcome of participant observation is understanding the research setting, its participants, and their behavior (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992). In participant observation, the researcher enters the world she plans to study, gets to know the subjects, and earns trust while keeping a detailed written record of what she hears and observes (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). Participant observation occurs along a continuum, from full participant to full observer (Patton & Patrizi, 2005). My role fell more as observer than as participant because I did not take part in the teaching. However, the participants were aware of my presence and purpose, and I did have conversations with the teachers and students before and after some lessons throughout the study.

Reading Recovery lessons are organized within three distinct phases. The framework consists of phase one: ten minutes for reading two to three familiar books, letter or word study with magnetic letters, and independent reading of the last lesson's new book; phase two: ten minutes for a brief conversation to compose, write the composed story, and reassemble the cut

up story; phase three: read a new book with teacher support. I observed and recorded in phase two during the conversation, composing, and writing.

I conducted observations using digital recordings twice a week over a period of 12 to 18 weeks (depending on the length of the child's program) from August to December 2008 during the writing component of the lessons alternating students weekly. Week 1: Teacher A with Student A1, Teacher B with Student B1, Teacher C with Student C1. Week 2: Teacher A with Student A2, Teacher B with Student B2, Teacher C with Student C2. Week 3: Repeat the teacher-student pairing pattern. By alternating weeks, I documented shifts in the level of teacher support as the students grew more proficient. Following this method, I collected eighty-eight recorded observations along with all lessons' records.

I recorded field notes or researcher's notes about the context of the lesson, other observations, and questions to go along with the digital recordings. The description of the instructional environment was carefully observed, described, noted, and analyzed. In my notes, I diagrammed the room representing chairs, desks, tables, whiteboard, magnetic letters, student books, teacher records, and placement of digital camcorder.

Digital Video Recording

I collected a total of eighty-eight teacher observations and digital video recordings (DVR). I designated a DVR disk for each teacher/child dyad to record the writing component of the lesson series and labeled my recorded disks accordingly.

Interviewing

Marshall and Rossman (1995) suggested that the participant observer conduct semi-structured and unstructured interviews within the role of participant observer. My interview design drew upon Freppon's (1999) and Rodgers' (1999, 2004) interview procedures using

specific and open questions. Open ended interviews tend to be more “conversational” without a structured questionnaire instrument and required my prior knowledge of decision making in writing instruction (Yin, 2004, p.179).

I originally designed a list of seventeen interview questions and asked five Reading Recovery teachers and two Reading Recovery Teacher Leaders to read my research questions and those interview questions. After they read them, I asked them to select ten questions from the seventeen that most closely matched my research questions. The interview guide reflects the ten questions that received a majority of votes. After meeting with my dissertation committee, some of the questions were revised to be more general in nature (see Appendix G for interview guide).

At the beginning of the study in July/August 2008, I used the interview guide to gain understanding about the teachers’ theories and practices about writing instruction and working with English language learners. The initial interview was semi-structured since I used an interview guide. However, I remained flexible and open to follow a teacher’s lead during the interview. I later transcribed the tape-recorded interview. My transcription had numbered lines, denoted who was speaking with initials and color coding, and contained margins for notes.

Causal relationships between teaching and learning are mediated by contextual factors. Therefore, the background knowledge and beliefs of the teachers gave me deeper insight into their theories and practice. According to Bogdan and Biklen (2007), “The interview is used to gather descriptive data in the subjects’ own words so that the research can develop insights on how subjects interpret some piece of the world” (p.103).

Throughout the study, my plan was to hear the teachers’ perspectives and reflections on their instruction and on the study’s data and findings. I shared my observations with the teachers and provided opportunities throughout the study for their voices to be heard by asking for their

retrospective analysis and reflections on aspects from the writing lessons and their instructional decisions. I took notes during these informal interview conversations. Additionally, I emailed electronic attachments of transcriptions with my analysis. They replied via email with their reflective comments on the data.

Document Collection

Photocopies of lesson records for all children, containing the teachers' notes about the students' writing behaviors and the teachers' instructional responses were collected. The lesson record contains two forms: the first one contains the teacher's notes as the lesson occurs; the second is a running record which is a written notation of the student's oral reading behaviors when reading a book independently. I used the first form that had the record of the following: the story generated by the student; word analysis, fluency, words taken to sound boxes (El'konin, 1973); spatial concepts relating to space between words and spacing of words on the writing page; sequencing of the words in the cut-up story; and general teacher comments (see Appendix O for the lesson record form). The child's writing process and teaching supports and prompts were recorded. I recorded my own observations of the interactions during the writing component on a blank lesson record and then compared with the teacher's records on which she recorded her reflections about the instruction and the child's process. The teachers gave me their lesson records at the end of each child's program.

Methods of Data Analysis

Data analysis is a reflexive and recursive process (Stake, 2006; Dyson & Genishi, 2005; J. Preissle, personal communication, November 1, 2007). Yin (2004) suggested a common way to analyze evidence is to arrange it in chronological order as it unfolds over time. Evidence

arranged in event sequence provides insight into how “earlier events possibly lead to later events” (Yin, 2004, p. 205). Working within an interactional framework to analyze video data, I examined and described how an early intervention literacy tutor scaffolded writing instruction for an English language learner and how they co-constructed meaning through language and actions showing the change over time. One cannot be accurately understood independently of the other. I analyzed interactional sequences of hearing and recording sounds in words using the scaffolding prop of El’konin (1973) sound boxes. Within the interactional framework, my goals included:

- Understanding and describing what people do – behavior;
- Understanding and describing people’s demonstrations of knowledge;
- Understanding and describing what people make and use – artifacts;
- Looking for patterns of interactions constructed over time.

I used an inductive method first by examining the transcribed data sequences, open coding, and categorizing (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Charmaz, 2006). I combined categorizing and contingency connecting analysis strategies (Maxwell & Miller, 2008). It was important to analyze how one part was influenced by what preceded and influenced what follows. A conversation analysis approach was applied to analyze some of the transcripts for contingency connections and semantic relationships such as what the teacher did in response to the child’s behavior.

The digital video recordings allowed me to document both verbal and nonverbal interactions including contextualization cues to social interactions such as:

- Proximal (physical orientation)
- Kinesthetic (gestures, body motions)

- Nonverbal (eye gaze, use of objects or props)
- Verbal (intonation, pause)

Interview and DVR Transcription Analysis

Beginning with conversation to composing to writing, sections of the DVRs were transcribed verbatim. The initial teacher interviews were transcribed as well. I examined interview transcriptions and observation/DVR transcriptions for categories, themes, and sub-themes. I investigated for parallel themes and significant moments to convey meaning from the data.

I gleaned from Rodgers' (1999, 2004) research procedures in which she structured her data analysis using an inductive method first by examining the data, open coding, and thematizing (J. Preissle, personal communication, November 1, 2007). Through this inductive method of looking at data and seeing what developed, Rodgers classified the instructional interactions into categories: questioning, directing, praising, telling, demonstrating, and confirming. The categories identified in my data shared some similarities. I endeavored to remain flexible and open for the bubbling up of new discoveries of categories, themes, and ways to code the types of assistance.

Document Analysis

Lesson records for all six children, containing the teachers' notes about the students' writing behaviors and the teachers' instructional responses, were analyzed to compare and contrast as well as triangulate findings with researcher's notes, transcriptions of recorded observations, teachers' reflective comments after reading transcriptions, and children's writings.

Validity and Reliability

When participants reviewed the data, it served as a member check to clarify, confirm, and rectify misunderstandings (Hays, 2004). I reviewed the descriptive results and interview notes with the teachers to allow for further understandings and clarifications of these investigations. My purpose was to hear the teachers' perspectives and review the reflections of their understandings of their own decision making about what to teach, which levels of support to provide, and when to intervene. Asking teachers to reflect and provide feedback in the review of this study's data reduced biases that could possibly cast a shadow resulting in skewed interpretations.

Yin (2004) stressed the importance of including explicit discussions and interpretations of the data findings to develop the major conclusions as well as examination of competing rationalizations. I cited other comparable studies and included the member checks to strengthen validity and trustworthiness (Bassey, 1999; Locke et al., 2000).

Limitations of the Study

1. A limitation of the study design was the small purposeful sampling of three teachers and six students which brings caution to generalizations. Because of the details sought, many qualitative studies have small samples (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). The purposeful sampling was limited to a pre-selected pool of teachers and students involved in an early literacy intervention program called Reading Recovery. The limitation of purposive sampling is what one learns is limited because of the critical attributes of the targeted group (Champion, 2002). What may be perceived as a limitation may also be a strength in that Reading Recovery teachers are by nature highly accountable and specially trained.

However, the teachers knew I was looking for quality instructional language which may have increased the intensity in their daily planning, performance, and reflection which in the end benefitted the students.

2. Findings in this study are limited to a similar population of teachers and students involved in Reading Recovery and cannot be generalized to all social interactions between teachers and students in literacy lessons.
3. With no reservation, I know my experience base in the Reading Recovery program shapes the lens through which I look. With that lens in mind, I acknowledge my interpretations of the events of this study formed just one perspective based on my present analysis of the data.
4. The short time frame of twelve to eighteen weeks within which the data was collected could limit the research findings. However, consistent engagement and observations allowed me to be immersed in case issues, build trust with the teachers and students, and attempt to avoid misleading conclusions (Bassey, 1999). Reading Recovery is a short term program of twelve to twenty weeks. I continued observations to the eighteenth week when the last child's program discontinued successfully.
5. The presence of a digital camcorder could place restrictions on the quality of the interactions between the teacher and individual children. However, I have no evidence that the camera interfered with the teaching and learning.

I endeavored to balance confidence and commitment to the work with the knowledge of limitations which helped me remain skeptical (J. Priessle, personal communication, October 11, 2007). I discuss my subjectivity as a limitation in the following section.

Researcher Role, Reflexivity, and Subjectivity Statements

This section deals with the tough question, “Why should I believe you?” (Locke et al., 2000). My subjectivity statement is a summary of who I am as a researcher and my professional experiences in relation to what and whom I am studying (Preissle, 2008). My subjectivity is who I am in light of how it may affect the study both in limits and benefits. In the context of this study, I am an insider. My personal beliefs and professional training combine in the advocacy for Reading Recovery as an effective early intervention to prevent literacy failure. Stake (2006) discussed that often researchers study a part of their own organization hoping to see evidence of success. He stated this type of internal study is not a conflict of interest but rather a “confluence of interest” (Stake, 2006, p. 86).

I was trained as a Reading Recovery teacher in 1996 and then as a Reading Recovery Teacher Leader in 2001 at Georgia State University, so I have a shared knowledge and instructional language base as well as a prior relationship with the teachers. As a Reading Recovery Teacher Leader, I am responsible for maintaining the quality of the program implementation as well as the professional development of the teachers. As a Reading Recovery Teacher Leader for Pseudonym County Public Schools, I serve as an instructional coach to Reading Recovery teachers. Therefore, there exists the issue of power relationships between instructor and student. To reduce a supervisory relationship issue, I did not serve as the assigned teacher leader to my study participants for the year before and during the study. Two other teacher leaders in my district coached and mentored those teachers during the time period before, during, and after the study.

In my role as teacher leader, I must act as a change agent concerning effective teaching strategies employed by teachers. As a teacher leader, I cultivate relationships with teachers who

are trained to reflect upon their teaching in order to make shifts. One of my responsibilities as a teacher leader is to observe and share data with teachers and facilitate their construction of theory and practice rather than telling them what I think. In this way, I am not in the role of an evaluator. This study was not to evaluate a program or a teacher, but rather to investigate and describe effective interactions and instructional scaffolds for ELL. Reading Recovery teachers have participated in past and current research studies in Pseudonym County. No history of negative consequences from those studies exists.

As both a Reading Recovery Teacher Leader and a participant observer, I was clear about my assumptions at the outset and guarded against imposing expectations during the research process (Adler & Adler, 1994). My subjectivity may have biased and limited endeavors, but it may also have illuminated my inquiry (Preissle, 2008). The challenge for me was stepping out of my teacher and teacher leader roles into the researcher role alone.

Chapter Summary

Continuing to review relevant research literature, I conducted a qualitative multiple case study investigation into the teacher-ELL interactions during writing instruction to reveal how the teacher scaffolds a student's learning for writing achievement. Multiple data collection tools utilized included observations, interviews, digital recordings, and documents. An inductive approach to data analysis with open coding along with adaptations of a conversation analysis approach allowed for new insights. Although my predictions and assertions were informed through connections to relevant literature and research (Yin, 2004), I strived to be open to new discoveries and keep assumptions tentative. My hope is the findings of this multiple case study

provide a rich description of and deeper insights into effective scaffolding of writing instruction for teachers of ELL, as well as inform literacy teachers of all groups.

CHAPTER IV

A COLLECTION OF ARTICLES

Overview of Articles

Vygotsky's Reflection "Behind the Glass": Blending Theory and Practice in One-on-One Writing Instruction

This manuscript provides a discussion of how Vygotsky's sociocultural theories provide foundational perspectives of the support system provided by a teacher for a learner at the growing edge of her competence. This manuscript targets an audience interested in theoretical perspectives and how theory influences practices in writing instruction.

Interactions Scaffolding Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words: A Case Study of An Early Intervention Literacy Teacher and An English Language Learner

This case study of an early intervention literacy teacher and an English language learner depicts how one teacher's instructional scaffolding fostered a student's self-regulation of a useful strategy to write new words. In analyzing selected sequences of solving words using sound to letter strategies, categorizing and conversation analysis were used to elaborate the interactional details. This case focused on one aspect of solving words in writing which was hearing and recording sounds in words. Like ice dancing partners skate in tandem to support one another, the teacher came in and out with needed support for the child's success, but she allowed the child to do for himself what he could without interrupting. This article targets an audience interested in

qualitative case study research methods, sociocultural theoretical influences on instruction, and aspects of early literacy development.

Expanding a Meager Knowledge of Words for Strategic Actions in Writing

This article describes how an early literacy intervention teacher scaffolded her first-grade ELL's word learning journey. Through sensitive observation, she captured, validated, and built on the child's footholds in print which could have been item knowledge of letters and words or strategic actions. The teacher demonstrated, shared, and guided tasks visually, verbally, nonverbally, and with movement to anchor the strategic process of learning how to learn a word within the child's control. With many opportunities to use known and new words in written text, the child stayed anchored in meaning. The teacher planned opportunities for the child to produce known words fluently, use known words to get to new words through analogy, learn more about orthography, and construct new words by analyzing sounds and thinking about what would look right. This manuscript targets an audience of practitioners interested in aspects of early literacy development especially those on the front lines working with English language learners.

Scaffolding Progress in One Student's English Language Learning and Writing Development

This article presents case findings from one Reading Recovery teacher and her English language learner engaged in conversations for composing a written message. In analyzing selected dialogic sequences, conversation analysis was used to elaborate the interactional details. Findings are presented within a procedural framework for conversation analysis. Analyses of the data showed personalization, reformulation, validation of partially correct responses, and wait time acted as effective scaffolds in conversations with an English language learner in appropriating new language in speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Other interesting aspects from the findings included how the teacher fostered oral language development, how the

teacher's language and the use of questions guided the child in learning how to create a story, and how the teacher adjusted her language when the child did not understand. The teacher constructed scaffolds which proved to be stronger when built contingent on the student's language and actions. This article targets an audience of teachers interested in the role of conversation in composing and writing with English language learners. Another target audience includes educators interested in how conversation analysis identifies specific aspects of instructional conversations.

It Looked Like Ice Dancing: Orchestrating Interactions that Scaffold the Writing of English Language Learners

This article weaves together previous research results and exemplars from my study of three teachers' instructional scaffolding for talking, composing, and writing with English language learners within the context of one-on-one tutoring lessons. Examples show how the teachers customized their conversations in the writing to coordinate with their students' prior experiences and competencies and to scaffold new language and skills in composing and writing. Examples show how the teachers adjusted their level of support to foster independent strategic actions. One exemplar illustrates how a teacher capitalized on the child's intentions, welcomed the use of his home language, and responded to his lead in composing his story for writing. The study showed how the teachers' careful listening communicated respect and supported meaningful conversations and compositions. The teachers applied nine types of instructional assistance to bridge actual development to potential development in their students' writing processes. Finally, I discuss how the teachers created opportunities for their students to expand their language structural networks and competencies through their conversations, compositions, and writings.

Article 1: Vygotsky's Reflection "Behind the Glass": Blending Theory and Practice in One-on-One Writing Instruction

The purpose of this article is to provide a discussion of how Vygotsky's sociocultural theories provide foundational perspectives of the support system provided by Reading Recovery teachers for young learners at the growing edge of their competencies. Reading Recovery is an early literacy intervention of one-on-one tutoring for first-graders finding reading and writing extremely difficult.

Within a Vygotskian theoretical framework, Reading Recovery teachers have an opportunity to reflect upon new discoveries about teaching and learning. When teachers observe and discuss a lesson taught from "behind the glass," they are co-constructing new understandings about literacy processes and teaching decisions. They reflect, discuss, and have opportunities to apply new discoveries in their own teaching in other contexts. It seems that this is the same with their students. Teachers provide the scaffolding framework from which the students can make new discoveries about language, reading and writing.

First in this article, I introduce Vygotsky, his core beliefs, and how his theories influence writing instruction in a one-on-one tutoring context. Within further discussions of theory from a Vygotskian perspective, I weave examples from teacher-student interactions during the writing component of Reading Recovery lessons. I focus on Vygotsky's theory of learning and teaching in the zone of proximal development (ZPD). I discuss the idea of scaffolding as well as Tharp and Gallimore's (1988) model of progression through and beyond the ZPD including types of instructional assistance. I end with a concluding discussion wrapped around the idea that an expert tutor scaffolds instruction based on the individual child's sociocultural experiences and interests as well as current and potential competencies.

Background: Who's Who and What Did They Think and Say?

Russian psychologist, educator, and researcher Lev S. Vygotsky lived from 1896 to 1934. Even though his life was brief, his much researched theory of learning continues to influence education. He proposed that intellectual life is social, relational, and emotional and talk holds first place as a symbolic tool. Vygotsky (1978) stated, "Children grow into the intellectual life around them" (p. 88) and underlined that social interaction is critical to learning. In contrast to Piaget's theory, which focused on the child's learning in terms of individual stages of development, Vygotskian theory placed learning within a sociohistorical context (Cole, 1996; Wertsch, 1985).

Piaget's theory focused on the child's interactions with objects in the development of mature thinking. While Vygotsky agreed objects are vital to an individual's development because they can then be used as tools, he went further by emphasizing the importance of the child's interactions with people in the development of higher level thinking. Piaget posited universal stages for human development; whereas, Vygotsky stated development is dependent upon the cultural context. For Vygotsky, the cultural context determines the very type of cognitive processes that emerge (Bodrova & Leong, 1996).

The core themes of Vygotsky's theoretical approach center around (1) a reliance on a developmental method; (2) the belief that an individual's higher mental processes originate in social processes and relationships and are transferred from the interpersonal to the intrapersonal psychological planes by means of self talk; and (3) the claim that mental processes can be understood only if we understand the sociocultural tools, signs, and practices that mediate them (Vygotsky, 1987; Wertsch, 1985). Additionally, Smagorinsky (2007) noted three points about Vygotsky's theories upon which most scholars agree: cultural practices shape thinking resulting

in people from diverse cultures thinking, speaking, and behaving differently; cultural tools such as speech mediate thinking; and new ideas develop through playful explorations.

Two of Vygotsky's compelling ideas are the role of assisted performance (teaching) in the development of mind (learning) and the central role speech plays in the process (Lyons, 2003). He emphasized, not just the child's development of thinking, but the development of thinking and speech in the social context, the internalization of others' discourses, and the organization of instruction. The words we appropriate as our own – “those we swallow, so to speak - always taste of the situational and relational contexts in which they were learned” (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 293, cited in Dyson, 2000, p. 156). According to Vygotsky, mental processes rely on types of social mediation such as nonlinguistic and linguistic signs and tools. Vygotsky's theories provide an analytical way of thinking about learning and facilitate understanding the important role of teachers and social interactions in the teaching and learning process.

Blending Vygotskian Theory and Writing Instruction Practice

Vygotsky (1978) expressed that written language develops similarly to speaking in authentic useful contexts: “The best method [for teaching reading and writing] is one...in which both these skills are found in play situations. In the same way as children learn to speak, they should be able to learn to read and write” (p. 118). Complex literacy processes develop in genuine social collaborative contexts as teacher and child work and play together in meaningful activities. A skillful literacy tutor sets up learning opportunities within purposeful settings with real life talking and writing tasks. The complex process of writing turns speaking into an object of reflection that leads to new discoveries for the child and tutor as they create written text from those meaningful and collaborative activities. For example, Vivian, a Reading Recovery teacher, set up purposeful writing opportunities for her student, Brandon, after she learned through

conversation he had an old bike covered in spider webs. Vivian suggested Brandon write a note to his dad requesting him to get the spider webs off his old bike so he could ride it. The following transcript depicts a segment of their conversation that lead to a purposeful learning experience in writing.

T: Do you ride a bike at home? (.) Do you have a bike?

C: Yes, but it has spider, a lot of spider webs.

T: Heh heh. It has a lot of spider webs on it ((*repeating*)). Why does it have a lot of spider webs on it?

C: Because I (didn't) ride a long time ago my bike.

T: So why don't you (.) brush off ((*making a brushing motion with her hands*)) the spider webs and ride your bike some more?

C: Ok, (I might tell) that to my dad.

T: Heh heh. You might tell that to your dad ((*repeating*)). Ok, so how will you say that to your dad when you say that?

C: Dad, can you, can you (0.5)

T: Can you what?

C: (2.5) take out the spider webs

T: Mmm hmm, take out the spider webs!

C: In my bike.

T: Yes! What do you think he'll do?

C: He will get water and and get out the spider webs.

T: (He'll) get some water and get the spider webs out ((*confirming*)). Do you think your dad will do that?

T: Yes ((*confirming*)). Okay, well, let's write a note to your dad. How about we do that; write a note to your dad?

In a Vygotskian framework, the complex nature of teacher-student interactions takes into account what the individual child knows, the necessary problem-solving processes, and an understanding of what needs to be learned. Similarly, Clay and Cazden (1990) found as children engage in talking, reading, and writing, they are working with theories of the world and theories about language, testing and changing them. The following talk sequence between Vivian and Brandon illustrates how a Reading Recovery child through engagement in conversation with his teacher began to parse English language structures testing and changing the language of his composition to write.

C: I like to read to my mom.

T: ((*nods head*)) That sounds like a great story to write. (2.0) Can you tell me one more time what it is you're writing?

C: I like to read the books of my mom.

T: I like to read the books to my mom. ((*reformulating gently*))

C: Yes, I like to read the books to my mom ((*with enthusiasm*)).

T: Ok, let's write that. That's a great story.

According to Vygotsky, the means for new discoveries and cognitive development are products of human history and culture. In parallel thought, Clay (2001) stated, "New learning at any one time must depend on the nature of the landscape formed by the past experiences of the learner up until this moment in time" (p. 293). The activities of early writing glean from and contribute to the historical and cultural network of information that forms around a particular word so writing information as well as reading and oral language information become attached to the "knowing of it (the word meaning)" (Clay, 1991, p. 97).

Writing contributes to the progressive construction of spoken and written language. However, no sequence of shifts in control can be predicted because each child engages in writing with unique historical and cultural background experiences. In the following example, Shelley, a Reading Recovery teacher, engaged her Latino student, May, in conversation to compose a story for writing about how her grandmother took care of her when she was sick. In the conversation, Shelley thought that May being a Latino student would use the term *abuela* for her grandmother, but she discovered that May used the term *mom*. This example shows how each child's family cultural landscape is unique and generalizations cannot be applied to all of a similar cultural group.

C: (2.0) I went to my grandma's house.

T: You did?

C: ((*nods head*)) When I was sick. And the other day we didn't go to school.

T: How does she take care of you when you are sick?

C: She=She gives me something to eat ((*rubbing her eyes*))

T: ((*repeats*)) She gives you something to eat. I bet grandma's cooking is good huh?

C: ((*nods head smiling*))

T: Oh yeah! What else did she do (.) to make you feel better?

C: She gives me some juice.

T: And juice too?

C: ((*nods head*))

C: She does let me watch T.V.

T: And you get to watch T.V.?

C: ((*nods head*))

T: Oh, lucky=lucky. Well what should we say about when you're sick and go to grandmother's house=Grandma's house? What do you call your grandmother?
((The teacher shared with me later she thought the child would say abuela, the Spanish word for grandmother.))

C: I call her mom.

T: You call her mom?

C: *((nods head affirming))*

T: Okay! Alright, what do you want to say about going to mom's house?

Ferreiro (2003) conveyed literacy is best acquired when students are provided with diverse sorts of interactive experiences with written language and communicative purposes linked to writing. Congruent with Vygotsky's theory, Ferreiro (2003) stated, "to read and to write are social constructs. Every epoch and every historical circumstance give new meaning to these verbs" (p. 13). She argued children who are immersed in stories and nurtured with positive writing experiences – to write little books with enthusiastic choice - are already promising writers. However, students who do not have a stimulating classroom experience (those focused on letters, syllables, and words rather than story) tend to be robbed of motivating writing opportunities. Listening to children from the very first written drawings is critical. Behind those little eyes, ears, and hands "lies a person who thinks and attempts to incorporate into her own knowledge this marvelous medium of representing and recreating language, which is writing" (p. 34).

Many literacy researchers and practitioners incorporate Vygotsky's work into educational theory emphasizing the importance of tutors in writing (Bruner, 1985; Clay & Cazden, 1990; Cole, 1996; Rogoff, 1990; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Smagorinsky, 2007; Tizard & Hughes,

1986; Wertsch, 1985; Wood, 1988). Rogoff (1990) and Meyer (1993) called attention to the role of adult or peer nonevaluative collaboration in closing the distance between the child's independent actions and the level of potential development with guidance in shared actions. The teacher acts as a catalyst to advance the child's developing concepts and supports the child's construction of a literacy working system. Rogoff (1997) described the tutor's role as jointly participating, focusing the learner's attention, and motivating the learner. Through guided participation and a collaborative process, the teacher involves the child in meaningful activities essential to "apprenticeship in thinking" while bridging present understandings to new competencies (Rogoff, 1990, p. 8). In the following example, Shelley guided her Reading Recovery apprentice, May, to use a known word to connect to the solving of a new word in her writing.

T: And HELP::ED is going to end just like LOOKED. Do you remember what two letters=

C: =((*writes ed to the end of the word help*)) E=D

T: Mmm hmm. E! D! Right! Alright. ((*rereads portion of sentence written*)) I helped=

During writing, the expert teacher negotiates development by asking the child to reflect, expand, and select much like in a writing conference (Graves, 1983). Other literacy researchers, Lyons, Pinnell, and DeFord (1993), showed effective tutors offer more opportunities for students to construct meaning in writing events through natural conversation with the teacher. Cazden (1992) suggested the teacher's conversation with the child influences the independent action and problem-solving essential in developing a literacy process. Personalization of conversations by the teacher brings the child's own experiences to bear on the writing topic. Cazden (2005) stated, "Nothing is too trivial for a valuable conversation if the child's attention and interest is engaged" (p. 4). The following example illustrates how through natural conversation, Vivian invited her

first grade Reading Recovery student, Eddie, to make a personal connection to a familiar story about a boy who proves he was not too little to play soccer with the big boys. Eddie talked about how he was big enough to play football with his dad and even “win the score.” From that conversation, Eddie composed a story to write.

T: You know in the book Soccer at the Park, the big boys thought Tim was too little to play that game. Has there ever been a time that someone thought you were too little?

C: No

T: What have you been big enough to do?

C: big enough to play football

T: You know how to play football?

C: Yea, with my Dad. I catch it...I ...in the park

T: You play football with your Dad in the park?

C: ((*nods yes*)) And we play football.

T: You play with your Dad at the park and you play football. I think that would make a great story. Don't you?

C: ((*nods yes*))

T: How do you want to start that story?

C: I play football with my dad and I win the score.

Furthermore, Clay (1991) advocated conversation with an adult provides one of the best tutorial situations in which to give rise to the child's functioning at a higher level. Anderson (1999) argued we deliberately create opportunities through our discourse patterns using language as a tool. Through the discourse patterns, the teacher helps a child construct new understandings related to oral and printed language systems. Early literacy development finds roots in childhood

experiences, and conversations with others play a critical role in enabling children to read and write (Cazden, 1988, 2005; Clay, 2005).

Scaffolding in Writing Instruction

Wood, Bruner, and Ross' (1976) idea of scaffolding also parallels Vygotsky's work. Though the term was never used by Vygotsky, interactional support and the process by which adults mediate a child's attempts to take on new learning has come to be termed "scaffolding." Scaffolding represents the helpful interactions between adult and child that enable the child to do something beyond his or her independent efforts. A scaffold is a temporary framework put up for support and access to meaning and taken away as needed when the child secures control of success with a task. The adult scaffolds support in response to and to honor the child's control, initiation, and purpose (Graves, 1983; Searle, 1984). Ideally, the tutor builds from the child's intentions and interest. A student's engagement many times depends on prior successful experiences (Meyer, 1993) and motivation to participate in learning and work toward a goal (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976).

Dyson (1990) questioned the term scaffolding and offered a weaving metaphor to portray teachers as weavers supporting children in intertwining literacy from the wealth of diverse resources they bring to school. She advocated providing rich experiences for children to explore their own agendas and capturing moments to help them make connections from their known to the new. Palincsar (1998) stressed scaffolding may be supplied not only by other people but also by contexts and activities supporting learning. For example, to truly scaffold a student's writing, the teacher would draw from the child's personal repertoire of knowledge so the child could use what she knows in one context to help her in another, thereby, weaving in the child's own cultural and linguistic capital from other learning spaces (Clay, 1991, 2005; Dyson, 1990; Moll,

2004). Working in classroom science inquiries, Hogan and Pressley (1997) also stressed a weaving approach to scaffolding encouraging teachers to draw on students' contributions. Connecting to what is meaningful and relevant to the child strengthens the effectiveness of instruction and learning.

The weaving metaphor parallels sociocultural perspectives encouraging teachers to build on the diverse resources of children especially the intellectual, literacy, and sociohistorical resources of students often marginalized in school. To scaffold or assist students in weaving writing competencies into their literacy tapestries, the tutor might fine tune her own listening and observing skills before offering support in order to follow the child's path of learning and capitalize on the child's individual strengths and intentions. Cazden (2005) stated the key to a child's intellectual functioning seems to be the familiarity and responsiveness between the child and the tutor. The tutor as weaver implies familiarity with and responsiveness to the whole child. The tutor and child must share intersubjectivity. In other words, they must understand what each other is trying to do (Rogoff, 1990). The following example illustrates how a Reading Recovery teacher-student dyad, Shelley and Huron, negotiated meaning through conversation as Shelley tuned her listening skills to share intersubjectivity with Huron. Out of the negotiated conversation, Huron composed a story to write. Shelley initiated the conversation by connecting to a one of Huron's favorite books about a little puppy who got into a lot of trouble.

T: Alright, when the Little Puppy was getting into too much trouble ((*turns the book around*)) What should we say about Little Puppy? ((*touches him gently on the arm to get his attention*)) What was he doing? What was, what were some of the things he was doing?

C: Ripping ((*looking up at the teacher*))

T: Ripping up the books! What else did he do?

C: He went in the park and went in the pool.

T: He fell in the pool! (*(smiling and nodding head)*)

C: Yeah!

T: He was also on Rosie's pink bear too! Right?

C: (*(nods head)*)

T: She didn't like that! So what can we say about that PUPPY causing trouble?

C: I don't know! Can you say it? I thought you were going to help me with the story.

T: Mmm hmm (*(nods head)*). You're going to help me because it's your story, okay?

It's not (*(shakes head)*) my story=So, the Little Puppy=now YOU help me think of something. The Little Puppy=

C: (3.0) Got

T: Got...(*(motions with her hand out flat pointing to him communicating nonverbally what else?)*)

C: (2.0) In

T: (1.0) The Little Puppy got in=you want to say in the POOL?

C: Into trouble. He ripped books, and he wanted Rosie's pink bear and he fell in the pool last.

T: (*(looking at child, smiling, and nodding head as he created his sentence)*) He fell IN the pool last.

C: (*(nods head)*)

T: Alright! So the Little Puppy=let me make sure I got it=The Little Puppy

C: (2.0) [**GOT (.) INTO TROUBLE**] he ripped books and he wanted Rosie's b::b, pink bear=

T: =Mmm hmm= (*(actively listening while writing his story in her notes)*)

C: =and last he fell, and at last he fell (1.0)

T: (*(looks at child and smiles)*) In the=

C: =the [**POOL**]!

T: Alright! Go ahead and get started!

In writing instruction, effective instructional support is presented in verbal form (discourse). The writing tutor engages the learner's attention, calibrates the task, motivates the student, identifies relevant task features, controls for frustration, and demonstrates as needed (Rodgers, 2004). Through joint activities, the teacher scaffolds conversation to maximize the development of a child's intrapsychological functioning. In this process, the adult controls the elements of the task that are beyond the child's ability all the while increasing the expectations of what the child is able to do. However, Searle (1984) cautioned teachers to stand guard so the child's experience is not taken from her to be molded to the teacher's view of relevancy and interest. Scaffolding should not lead one to believe the child's language is deficient and in need of restructuring to fit the adult's idea of correctness. In contrast, the metaphor of scaffolding should imply the child is the builder and the teacher supports the use of the child's language resources to accomplish new purposes. Rich responsive scaffolding emphasizes the role of the learner over the role of the teacher (Dyson, 1990; Many, 2002).

Speech, a critical tool to scaffold thinking and responding, plays a crucial role in the development of higher psychological processes (Luria, 1979) because it enables thinking to be more abstract, flexible, unique, and independent (Bodrova & Leong, 1996). From a Vygotskian perspective, verbal and nonverbal actions work together with the sociocultural fabric of writing events to shape a child's construction of awareness and performance (Dorn, 1996). Dialogue may range from casual talk to deliberate explanations about features of written language. The talk embedded in the actions of the literacy event shapes the child's learning as the tutor matches her language to the child's levels of understanding. Clay (2005) showed what may seem like casual conversation between tutor and child actually offers opportunities for fostering cognitive development, language learning, story composition for writing, and reading comprehension.

Conversations facilitate generative and constructive speech, writing, and new ideas (Smagorinsky, 2007).

Children use oral language as a vehicle for negotiating emergent written language and understandings (Cox, 1994; Dyson, 1983, 1991). Writing and speech as tools can lead to discovery of new thinking. The teacher offers levels of verbal and non-verbal demonstrations and directions as the child observes, mimics, or shares the writing task. With increased understanding and control, the child needs less assistance. The teacher's level and type of support change over time from directive, to suggestion, to encouragement, to observation. Optimum scaffolds adapt to a child's tempo moving from other-regulation to self-regulation. The child eventually provides self-scaffolding through internal thought (Wertsch, 1985). Within these scaffolding events, teaching and learning, inseparable components, emphasize both the child's personal construction of literacy and the adult's contributions to the child's developing understandings of print. The child contributes what she can and the adult contributes so as to sustain the task (Teale & Sulzby, 1986). In Vygotsky's words, "what the child is able to do in collaboration today he will be able to do independently tomorrow" (Vygotsky, 1987, p. 211).

A Vygotskian Perspective of Reading Recovery

Dame Marie Clay, founder of Reading Recovery, asserted the consistency of Reading Recovery with principles of Vygotsky's theory (Clay & Cazden, 1990). Reading Recovery aligns with two of Vygotsky's primary theories: the role of assisted performance in learning and the function language plays in the process (Vygotsky, 1978). From a Vygotskian perspective, the tutor's interactions with the child during a lesson represent an instructional framework that fosters cognitive growth and a self-extending literacy working system. Within the thirty minute lesson, the tutor and student focus a portion of time on co-constructing conversations,

compositions, and written stories. In essence, the writing floats on a sea of talk (Britton, 1970). Dyson (2000) proposed writing mediates a sea of voices formulated by diverse events and networks of social organizations (home, church, popular media, peer cultures, and school). A Reading Recovery child's writing voice is connected to the collective oral voices all around her as she learns from and with other voices but also appropriates those voices to express herself.

One of the most important subjects in a child's early schooling is writing because it elicits the development of functions not yet matured (Vygotsky, 1987). The teacher's exploratory and instructional conversations with the child exemplify the finely tuned scaffolding of learning based on assessment of each child's current strategic behaviors in reading and writing. Dialogues are designed to foster the child's independence within an ever advancing zone of proximal development (Bruner, 1981; Clay & Cazden, 1990). Rather than facilitative learning encounters, accelerated learning becomes a priority so these children catch up with their peers. From a Vygotskian perspective, Reading Recovery aims to help children construct a self-improving system of knowledge and a network of strategic behaviors rather than transmitting a set of literacy rules.

Reading Recovery, built on scaffolded assistance, is characterized by the teacher providing appropriate levels of support. Too much may reduce the child's initiative. Too little may inhibit the child from orchestrating new skills into future performances. In shared literacy activities, the teacher interacts with unseen processes – strategic activities in-the-head used by the child to produce writing responses. Deliberate teaching decisions increase accessibility to the task while supporting the child's performance and maintaining accelerated learning (Clay & Cazden, 1990). The tutor judges the complexity of the task considering the child's level of participatory competence, moves in and out to assist, participates with the child at points of

difficulty, and steps back as the child negotiates control. Clay and Cazden (1990) suggested in Reading Recovery the nature of the scaffolds change contingent on the child's competencies and the task. Vygotsky's theoretical principles of cognitive development and the zone of proximal development assist teachers in structuring instructional language to maximize the growth of student's intra-psychological functioning.

Vygotsky's Theory of Cognitive Development

Vygotsky (1987) viewed cognitive development as a transformation of biologically determined generic processes into increasingly complex mental functions such as problem solving. From birth, children's basic processes develop into more complex processes as they begin to regulate their own behaviors. The ability to regulate behavior is a social process mediated by both verbal and nonverbal language. Bruner (1985) recognized mediation as a critical function of scaffolding a task when he emphasized the transactional nature of learning rather than a transmission from teacher to student. Arising from Vygotsky's work, Bruner noted three components of mediation: props, processes, and procedures. Mediators become mental tools existing first in shared activities to cultivate learning. Mediators can be verbal, visual, or physical. Speech and written words are verbal mediators. Diagrams could be visual mediators and a ritual could be a procedural one. For example, in a writing lesson, the teacher may use a paper strip as a prop to help the child space between words or say the word "*space*" to remind the child. The external mediators give way as the child gains more experience.

The external stimulus acts as a means for transition to an internal influence. A Reading Recovery teacher may verbally prompt a child to go back and reread the written message in order to predict what comes next, thereby gathering meaning. Next, a teacher may only point nonverbally to the beginning of the sentence indicating a helpful reread. The goal is for the child

to control the strategic behavior requiring less support and attention to rereading while holding the meaning in the head while writing.

Young writers initially develop attention to print at an explicit interpsychological level. Visual perception of letters and words, links between sounds and letters, directional rules, spatial rules, letter formation, and sequential sign-processing operations require conscious attention when first being learned. However, these operations transform into automatic subroutines without conscious attention in order to give way to writing meaningful text. For example, the child may verbalize “around, up, and down” when slowly forming the letter *d* during early learning. However, when the child controls the movement independently, forming letters requires less attention when writing the word *dad*. Clay and Cazden (1990) explained the process in these terms: “We do not drive in low gear when we do not need to” (p. 220).

According to Vygotsky, turning points in cognitive development connect with the appearance of new mediation forms (Wertsch, 1985). Reading Recovery focuses on turning points through integration of semiotic codes of oral language, English orthography, and world knowledge which transform into complex operations of reading and writing (Clay & Cazden, 1990). For example, self-composed sentences a child wants to write create new forms of mediation. A shift occurs from using a finger to space between words as an external psychological tool (Wertsch, 1985) to later, an internal mediated process when the child can use just the eyes to space between words in writing.

The Theory of Learning and Teaching in the Zone of Proximal Development

According to Vygotsky (1978), “Every function in the child’s cultural development appears twice: ...first between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological)” (p. 57). This process is demonstrated by another key theoretical principle in

Vygotsky's theory of learning and instruction, the zone of proximal development (ZPD). Although abundant references are made to it, the ZPD comprises only a very small part of Vygotsky's work and is often misapplied (Smagorinsky, 2007). Conceptually, the ZPD is the "distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). In other words, the potential distance between what a child can do independently and the capability to perform with teacher support spans the ZPD. Moll and Greenberg (1990) applied the term "zones of possibilities" (p. 327) to contexts where the child's cultural knowledge and experiences transact with school and where teachers provide assistance that builds on the child's competencies thus extending the ZPD.

Rogoff (1990) described the zone as a dynamic area of sensitivity to learning. Children learn through shared participation in activities with more knowledgeable others who gradually transfer responsibility for the task to the child (Cole, 1985, 1996; Rodgers, 2004). The teacher uses language both verbal and nonverbal as a tool to scaffold or lift a student's performance so with assistance the student successfully carries out the task (Luria, 1979, 1983; Vygotsky, 1987). Halliday (1993) stated, "Language is the essential condition of knowing, the process by which experiences becomes knowledge" (p. 94). Talk is central to learning how to write; it is not an activity that can be learned simply by watching someone else do it.

Scaffolding is inherent in the definition of the ZPD, as well as the notion of developing strategic behaviors. Skills and strategic behaviors on the edge of emergence can be enhanced by varying degrees of assistance located within the ZPD (Bodrova & Leong, 1998). Development springs out of forward leading instructional assistance that keeps the task "proximal" (slightly

above independent functioning). Vygotsky (1987) advocated, “The teacher must orient his work not on yesterday’s development in the child but on tomorrow’s. Only then will he be able to use instruction to bring out those processes of development that lie in the zone of proximal development” (p. 211). The progress within the ZPD advances not only when there is social interaction, but also when special instructional techniques are implemented (Bodrova & Leong, 1998; Clay, 2005; Wood, 2003). For example, accelerated progress occurs when the teacher provides the appropriate level of support and scaffold by means of demonstration, prompt, or props to match the current competency of the child. Ongoing assessment of the learner’s abilities and understanding drives the instructional conversations focusing on what the student can accomplish with assistance (Many, 2002).

The ZPD has several overlapping phases illustrating development: assistance provided by more capable others, transition from other assistance to self-assistance, and assistance provided by self (Lyons, 2003). Within the zone of proximal development, cognitive processes come to life when the individual interacts with others. First appearing on the social level, between people (interpsychological), higher mental functions become internalized (intrapsychological) and become part of the learner’s development. In line with Vygotsky’s thinking, self-regulation of one’s behavior is a language process developing from social interaction (Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord, 1993).

Vygotsky emphasized the interactive relationships between the role of the teacher, the social organization of instruction, and learning. Independent processing replaces the collaborative problem solving in a continual cycle. Vygotsky (1987) proposed the best kind of instruction is that which marches in front of development and leads it; it must be targeted not so much at the ripe as at the ripening function. Instruction awakens a system of learning still in

development acting as a source for development of the child's mind and contributes to emotional growth and well-being (Lyons, 2003; Vygotsky, 1987). If instruction only considered what was already mature, then it would be unnecessary (Vygotsky, 1987). Vygotsky's stance certainly supports early intervention and refutes reading readiness or waiting until the child was ripe and developmentally ready for instructional activities. Within this context, the concept of emerging literacy not only defies the notion of readiness but asserts readiness to write is nurtured by the opportunities provided to the child as a participant engaged in the writing tasks (Calkins, 1980; Clay, 1991; DeFord, 1994; Graves, 1983; Teale & Sulzby, 1986). Early intervention, key to altering the course of development for children most at risk of literacy failure, can be delivered in a powerful way in the form of one-on-one tutoring context because the tutor can customize instruction to a child's unique needs (Clay, 1991, 2005; Rodgers, 2004).

From a Vygotskian perspective, appropriate scaffolding allows the child to write more advanced forms and affects the quality of the child's message relating to length and increased meaning (Bodrova & Leong, 1998). Therefore, since social interaction with more capable others and specialized instructional models such as Reading Recovery influence mental processes, early literacy interventions can be especially fruitful when used with marginalized populations: students who are yet to acquire a second language or academic discourse that is linguistically and functionally distinct from the children's home discourse (Delpit, 1988; Gee, 1989). According to Vygotsky, cultural forces fuse with biological ones to transform development (Wertsch, 1985). Reading Recovery teachers support emerging literacy in "low achieving" first graders rather than waiting, thereby, transforming mental processes in learning to read and write. A caution must be mentioned here with the term "low achieving" which is a cultural construct. As a literacy tutor, the teacher works toward advancing the child in the direction of a culturally specific *telos* or goal

of being able to read and write in a certain way. Just because the child does not meet the goal does not mean she is unintelligent or unable to achieve. Cole (1996) discussed questionable research findings that reported an African village was illiterate, unintelligent, or “low achieving”; however, the problem was with the cultural conceptual differences of people and not with deficiencies, actual intelligence, and achievements.

Model of Progression Through and Beyond the Zone of Proximal Development

Influenced by Vygotsky, Tharp and Gallimore (1988), depicted the development process of the learner’s ability to regulate performance on a continuum of phases within and beyond the zone of proximal development: (1) assistance by more proficient others; (2) a transition from other-assistance to self-assistance; (3) assistance provided by the self; (4) internalization, automatization, fossilization; and (5) deautomatization and recursiveness through previous phases. Recursive looping in these phases occurs many times in an individual’s lifetime as new cognitive capacities develop. Moreover, the performance of the learner will reflect a combination of other-regulation, self-regulation, and automatized process (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). Similarly, at any time, an individual could be operating within this framework: (1) I (teacher) do, you (student) watch. (2) I do, you help. (3) You do, I help. (4) You do, I watch (Clay, 2005). Gradually, a learner increases her responsibility for the task as she moves through the zone (Cole, 1985).

Tharp and Gallimore (1988) proposed three procedures as a means of assisting a learner through the ZPD in a tutorial system: modeling, contingency management, and cognitive structuring. The teacher demonstrates what is needed in response to the child’s behavior and structures the level of support and information to match the child’s current level of competency.

The interactive framework, a process of scaffolding learning, occurs within a context of oral talk linking interactions and development (Hobsbaum, Peters, & Sylva, 1996).

In early phases when the child has limited understanding, a more capable other assists the performance of the child through modeling or directions. Initially, the teacher monitors and structures the learning within the task. Through observation and analysis of a child's strengths and needs, an expert teacher provides appropriate levels of support to involve the child actively in writing experiences. The teacher's demonstrations and prompts allow the child to participate successfully in a writing activity not possible alone. The dialogue between the teacher and the child (intercognitive/interpsychological) provides an influential tool for both thinking and communicating around verbal and nonverbal behaviors. The teacher's assistance provides fertile ground for the child to develop strategic behaviors and extend the zone of proximal development. For example, when a child is first learning to compose and transcribe her message in the writing component of a Reading Recovery lesson, the teacher may reread the child's sentence as the child writes in order to help the child know the next word to write. Gradually the strategic behavior of rereading would be turned over to the child so the child could predict for herself the next word to write that would make her story make sense. In Figure 4.1, a Reading Recovery student stopped writing when she wrote the word *will*. She said to herself, "Rereading will help me." Then she reread to predict the next word *stop* and wrote it. When she finished writing *to*, she quickly reread without prompting herself out loud and then wrote the next words to finish her story.

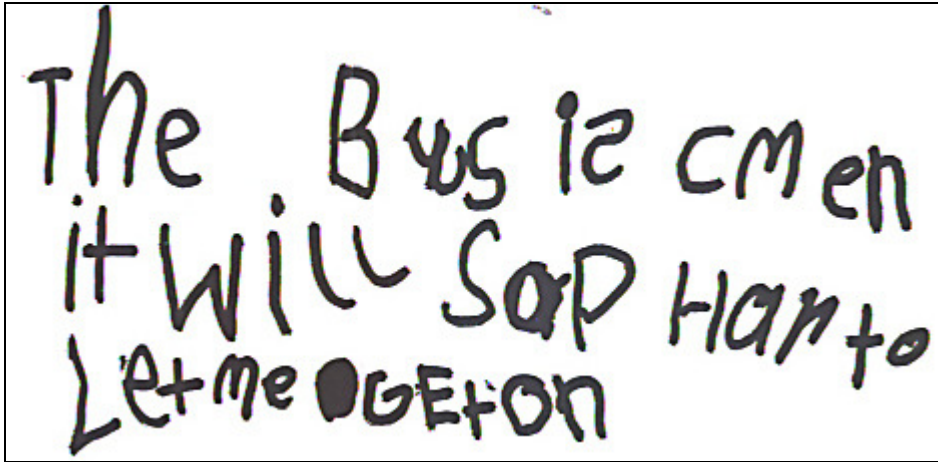


Figure 4.1. The bus is coming. It will stop here to let me get on.

Transitioning from other-assistance to self-assistance, the child takes on more responsibility, often self-prompting using the language of the teacher in self-directed speech (Hobsbaum, Peters, & Sylva, 1996). In this transition phase, an observant teacher recognizes the importance of partially correct monitoring behaviors and tries to support the child in developing strategic actions for problem-solving. Believing the child can solve the problem with assistance, the teacher says, “Good, you noticed something was not right. What can you do to help yourself? Try that again.” The child identifies her need, for example in hearing and recording sounds in words by asking, “Is there a B there?” rather than needing to be prompted to say it slowly and asked, “What do you hear?” The teacher questions the child to discover what he knows at points throughout word production where the child may have stored information but requires a prompt to retrieve and make connections. The teacher illustrates how a new word is like another word the child knows thereby linking the unfamiliar to something already known.

The Reading Recovery teacher helps the child make connections by “digging ditches to connect the pools of knowledge” and finding the “something different” for an individual child to

learn in her own way (Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord, 1993). For example, the child wants to write *stay* in her story. The teacher prompts the child to think of a word she knows that sounds like *stay*. The child makes the link to her known word *play* and changes the first letters of *play* to write *stay*. As the child learns new concepts, then new pieces of information are added to the set reorganizing it in a kind of “kaleidoscopic reshuffle” (Clay, 1998, p. 141).

Tharp and Gallimore’s (1988) latter phase within the zone of proximal development requires less teacher assistance (interpsychological) leading to the development of self-regulation (intrapsychological). The child internalizes teacher prompts and social exchanges and exercises increasing control over cognitive processes through the use of regulatory language. The teacher’s interactions have moved from close intervention to reactive support as the child directs her own writing to a greater extent. Here, the teacher’s decisions operate at the outer boundaries of the child’s zone of proximal development (Hobsbaum, Peters, & Sylva, 1996). Self-questioning and self-affirming give signs of cognitive processing developing inside the learner (intrapsychological). Self-corrections provide a window into observational transitions in a child’s thinking and ability to solve problems (Clay, 1991). Monitoring, searching, generating, checking, and choosing processes are reinforced because one is contingent on the other. In a sense, the child is self-tutoring using the new bits of information previously unnoticed. A student may independently rewrite a word because it does not look right the first try. For example, Jocelin wrote *foru* in her sentence about four puppies. She noticed something did not look right and self-corrected by writing *four*. In another writing lesson, Da’ja wrote on a practice page *wint*, *went*, *wnet* to test herself on which way looked right to her to write *went* in her story about when she went to dance class. She then chose *went* correctly. The teacher located *went* in a familiar book giving opportunity for Da’ja to monitor and confirm her choice for writing again.

When children internalize strategic control, they “resourcefully cast around all their experience to find cues, strategies, and solutions. The appropriate questions are: What do I know that might help? How do I know this? What can link up with this? Is the message still clear?” (Clay, 1991, p. 341). Focus is not on the role of the teacher but rather on the engagement of the student. Vygotsky referred to internalization and automatization of strategic control as the fruit of development (Hobsbaum, Peters, & Sylva, 1996). The fundamental principle of scaffolding indicates the temporary support provided to a learner is withdrawn as the learner becomes capable of performing the tasks independently (Bruner, 1985; Meyer, 1993). At this point, assistance from others disrupts the smooth integration of the working systems to complete a particular writing task. When a child is disrupted at applying established strategic actions to solve more complex writing tasks, deautomatization and recursion back through the zone of proximal development occur (Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord, 1993). The goal then is to recycle through assisted performance to self-regulation to exit the zone of proximal development into automatization (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). Vygotsky suggested learning is always recursive.

In Reading Recovery, the child is called upon to apply different strategies and change problem solving tactics in composing and transcribing messages as the task difficulty increases. Knowing what the child can do alone and with assistance, the teacher adjusts the level of support to match the competency and control of the child’s strategic writing behaviors. Shifting support in response to the child, contingent teaching, fosters acceleration and independence. As the teacher increases the gradient of challenge and adjusts the level of support, the zone of proximal development continually changes. Cognitive processes undergo continuous change over time (Clay, 1991). Through the assistance of others, the child is able to continue to push the boundaries while learning to write and writing to learn.

Because each child comes to learning by different courses and cycles, the interaction and instructional language uniquely changes for each child as new concepts unfold. If teachers present all children with the same task, then the zone of proximal development for more competent or less competent children goes unchallenged. Clay stated, “Children will be spread out like runners in a marathon as they gain control over language” (p. 14). They all come with diverse experiences and oral language by different paths which are strong resources on which to expand literacy skills and strategies. Necessarily, the expert teacher tailors instruction calling attention to certain cues in print as needed for an individual child based on the child’s current competencies. Successful literacy tutoring finds the “frontier of learning for any one pupil on a particular task” (Clay, 1991, p. 65).

Individual differences in children must be respected as personal experiences put them at different entry points with varied courses of progress (Clay, 1975). New insights constantly change a child’s perception of the entire system so what is introduced and how much is introduced must be weighed carefully. The tutor provides a bridge for the learner’s existing writing skills and novel writing tasks thereby supporting the learner’s problem solving by passing responsibility from tutor to learner (Wood & Wood, 1996).

Types of Interactional Assistance

Standing on Vygotsky’s shoulders, literacy researchers explore many forms of interactional assistance between teacher and student in the social process of literacy learning. As mentioned previously, the teacher plays an important role helping a child build a self-extending literacy system through joint activities. The child and teacher assume collaborative roles similar to the scaffolded interactions between parent and child in early literacy learning. Rogoff (1986) described these interactions as

demonstrations, direct feedback, and shared participation. Rodgers (2004) characterized teacher talk in a one-on-one tutoring situation as having several functions of help: telling, demonstrating, directing, or questioning. Similarly, Many (2002) illustrated levels of scaffolding that teachers employed by modeling, supplying information, clarifying, assisting, questioning, prompting, and focusing attention.

Working one-on-one with a child is not enough to ensure success; rather, aspects of the tutoring interactions play a crucial role (Pinnell, Lyons, DeFord, Bryk, & Seltzer, 1994; Rodgers, 2004). Working alongside the child, the effective writing tutor goes beyond providing stimulating experiences by letting the young writer accomplish what is possible independently but sharing the task when the child reaches competency boundaries. Knowing help will be offered, the child likely attempts the challenging writing task. The teacher and child write together as if they are an ice dancing partnership. The teacher moves in and out when needed to support in response to gradual shifts in imperfect performances of the novice writer. A Reading Recovery tutor encourages emerging writing skills by validating partially correct responses, thereby economizing the child's learning and building the apprentice writer's self confidence (Clay & Cazden, 1990). Promoting emerging skills allows the child to work with the familiar while constructing new learning. An expert teacher varies the level of support to match the behaviors of the child so the child builds on the known while extending performance capacity. The teacher can provide many forms of assistance in the constructive process. Tharp and Gallimore (1988) described six types of assistance: modeling, contingency management, feeding back, instructing, questioning, and cognitive structuring.

Modeling

Effective writing teachers scaffold emerging writing skills through modeling and demonstrations and then foster individual control of writing by gradually removing social supports. Via modeling, the teacher illustrates a strategic activity such as writing a word fluently or solving a word through analogy to a known word. The child is asked to perform the same behavior. Young learners benefit more from behavioral demonstrations than verbal modeling. For example, the child wants to write an unknown word *before*. The teacher demonstrates by clapping the word to hear the parts and writing the corresponding sound unit. In this example, she claps twice for the two-syllable word *before* and writes the first part *be* and writes the last part *fore*. Next, when the child wants to write the unknown word *into*, the teacher prompts the child to clap the word and write the parts as she had demonstrated earlier with the word *before*.

Contingency Management

Contingency management such as praise and encouragements acts as props to strengthen the process throughout the zone of proximal development. Praise does not teach a new behavior but rather propels the learning process forward (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). Consider the positive encouragement when the teacher specifically reinforces the child's searching and self-correcting behaviors by saying "Yes, that was good work. You found two ways to check on that tricky new word when you noticed it did not look right or sound right without adding the *s* to *mom* to make the word *mom's*."

Feeding Back

In instructional conversations in Reading Recovery, the teacher occasionally compares what a writer does with a text standard such as a published book. When the teacher wants the student to monitor for herself adequate spacing between words in writing her story, the teacher

verbally cues the child, “Think before you start where you will write the next word.” Then the teacher shows the printed text in one of the student’s familiar reading books, asking the child to notice her spacing compared to the spacing in the book. This feedback enables the child to monitor her spacing in her own writing by comparing to the book standard.

Instructing, Questioning, and Cognitive Structuring

Instructing and questioning call for the initiation of new actions. Their integrated use intends to transform new information into independent action. Tharp and Gallimore (1988) explained, “The instructing voice of the teacher becomes the self-instruction voice of the learner in the transition from apprentice to self-regulated performer...a gradually internalized voice, that then becomes the pupil’s self-regulating ‘still, small’ instructor” (p. 57). The external teacher speech becomes internal student speech, providing cues for literacy acts. The internalization of teacher speech is a transformation of mediated forms that connect with turning points in development (Vygotsky, 1987).

Cognitive structuring

Cognitive structuring refers to a structure for thinking and acting (Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord, 1993). The goal focuses on gradual transfer of responsibility from an expert to a novice with the help of two specific tactics, materialization and private speech. Materialization refers to the use of tangible objects and physical actions to represent a concept or strategy as the mental action is being learned. As self-directed language instruction, private speech assists the child in using the materialized objects or actions effectively and plays an important role in the transition from assisted to individual functioning (Bodrova & Leong, 1998).

An example from a Reading Recovery writing lesson illustrates the cognitive structuring activity of learning how to say a word slowly in order to represent the sound within it through the

use of El'konin boxes (Clay, 2005; adapted from El'konin, 1975). The El'konin boxes provide an explanation and materialization for what the child is asked to do. The structure of these sound boxes helps the child organize actions and theories about how to represent the speech and visual symbols for her messages even before knowing all the letters and sounds. The Reading Recovery tutor draws boxes for the sound frame of a given word, such as *cat*. In this example, three boxes are drawn, and with fluid motion, the teacher demonstrates by pushing a penny for each phoneme into a box as she says the word slowly. The child then performs the same task. Then she records the letter or letters representing each phoneme in the corresponding box. Eventually, the boxes are used less as the child develops cognitive structures for solving words with similar onsets and rimes to generate new categories of words from known words. El'konin sound boxes are designed to provide assistance at the beginning and to be removed as the student's skills develop. Consider the shift from the use of sound boxes as an external interpsychological tool (Wertsch, 1985); the child is asked to use, to hear, and record sounds in words, then internalize the process so the child can write the word successfully while saying it slowly. During this period of development, private speech transitions to inner speech (Lyons, 2003). Eventually inner speech will transform into inner verbal thought. The child orchestrates the integration of the semiotic codes of English orthography and oral language, prior knowledge and experiences, and the complex working system of writing. Through this process, the child extends her knowledge which supports Dewey's (1935) premise that "the old and the new have forever to be integrated with each other so the values of the old experiences may become the servants and instruments of new desires and aims" (p. 62). In the social context of learning, the tutor provides opportunities for the child to build on her prior history to extend and construct new learning (Vygotsky, 1987).

Another example of a cognitive structuring technique influenced by Vygotsky's theory of learning and development is called Scaffolded Writing (Bodrova & Leong, 1998; Boyle & Peregoy, 1990). The use of materialization and private speech increases the quality of the message and the use of more developmentally advanced writing forms. First, the tutor and child share a conversation from which the child composes a story to write. The tutor draws a highlighted line for each word in the message while repeating the child's words to help the student visualize the planned text. The child can better distinguish the words within the flow of the message. The highlighted line acts as a tool for memory. The teacher first models private speech and then prompts the child, "Say the word as you write it on the line. If you can't remember the word, go back to the beginning of the sentence and think what word would make sense next."

A Reading Recovery teacher applied cognitive structuring using scaffolded writing when she noticed two first grade English language learning students ignored spacing between words in their writing and had difficulty remembering their composed message. They stopped and waited for teacher assistance. She tried Scaffolded Writing and saw positive and interesting results. The students actually internalized the idea of planning their own writing using this support. The teacher drew the highlighted lines, explained their purpose, and modeled using materialization and private speech on the first day. The second day she drew the lines only. The third day she told the students to draw their own plan with highlighted lines for their words. The fourth day they independently wrote their stories without lines and reread if they forgot the next word.

The first student:

The teacher noticed the first student wrote words very close together and had trouble knowing what to write next. He was dependent on the teacher rereading what he had written and

prompting for what would come next. He had trouble remembering what he had said. Figure 4.2 displays what he wrote in a 30 minute writing session.

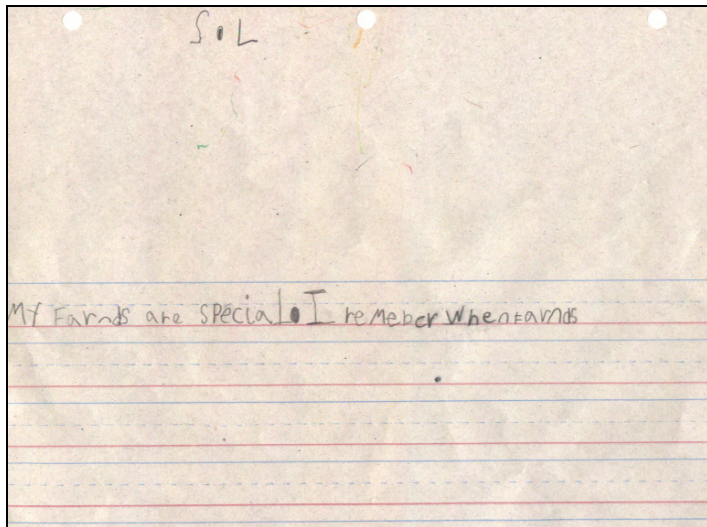


Figure 4.2. First child's writing before scaffolded assistance.

In the next day's writing as shown in Figure 4.3, the shift began in his process with the highlighted lines scaffolding his words in his plan for his story. She explained to him why she drew the lines to help him see the plan for the story he composed.

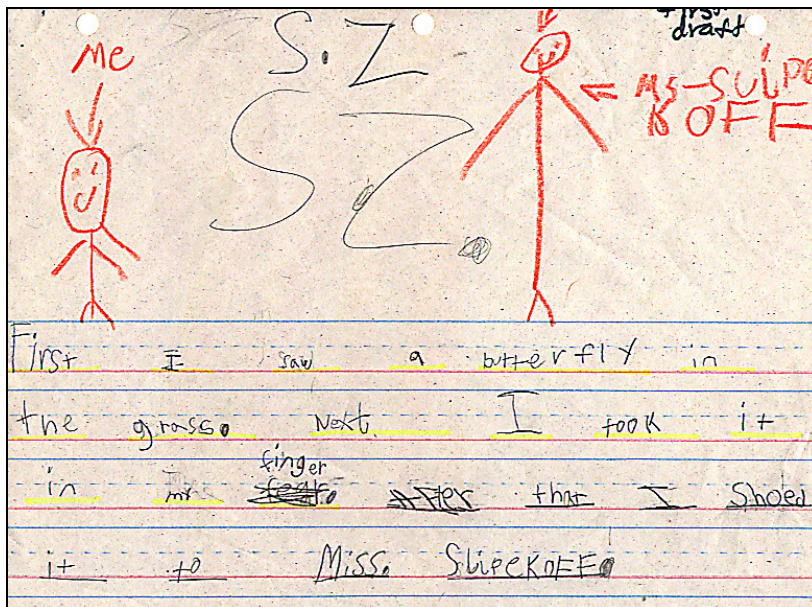


Figure 4.3. First child's writing with scaffolded assistance.

The third day's writing documented in Figure 4.4 shows evidence of increasing fluency and independence with a decreasing need for highlighted lines.

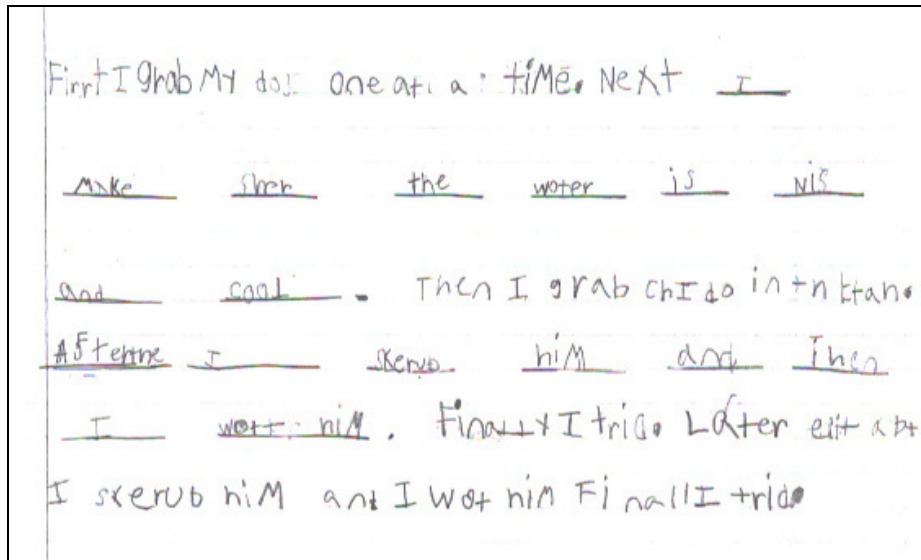


Figure 4.4. Change in first student's independence and teacher's level of support.

The second student:

The second child's challenge was fluency and independence in getting her ideas down on paper. She often was slow to start her story and appealed for help as she sought to express herself. The teacher explained how the lines could help her see her story plan. She was able to write most of this story independently and stick with it after the teacher drew the lines to match the words she composed. Figure 4.5 shows how the teacher adapted the level of support needed with Scaffolded Writing to match the child's current competencies and needs within her zone of proximal development.

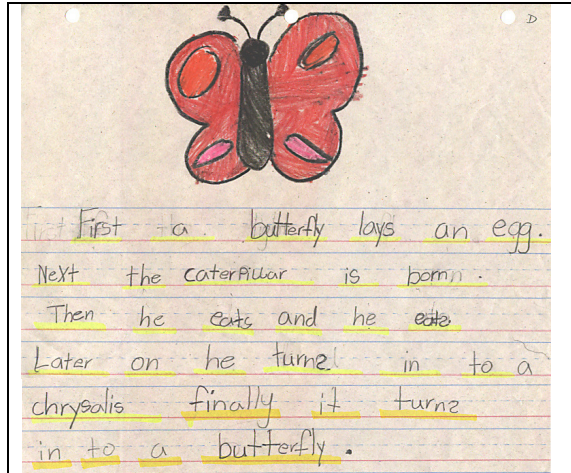


Figure 4.5. Adapted support to match second student's competency and purpose.

The fact that the children did not decrease their level of writing after the teacher's assistance was removed suggests materialization and private speech became the children's own tools. Scaffolded Writing holds possibilities for classroom teachers to provide appropriate individual support while at the same time work with a group of children. It adds to the repertoire of types of scaffolds in the area of emergent literacy that lead children through the zone of proximal development.

Scaffolding of the writing task for the child is only effective if the strategies can be applied to novel problems the child will encounter and not just supply solutions to specific questions (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). Therefore, the tutor facilitates the student's transition from assisted to independent performance. Change over time is the expectation from assistance to appropriation to internalization.

Concluding Thoughts

Vygotsky's theories provide foundational perspectives of the support system provided by another for a learner at the growing edge of her competence (Vygotsky, 1987; Wertsch, 1985). Shared activities between tutor and student fit easily to concepts of teaching; however, they do

not reflect the depth of Vygotsky's theory, which claims shared and supported activity allows the child to construct some inner generating system. The self-extending system allows the child to initiate and manage learning independently in subsequent situations (Clay, 1998). Studies show learning in the language and cognitive areas goes beyond scaffolding as the appropriate types and levels of scaffolds leave children not only with the ability to produce desired performance but with the inner structure and functions capable of generating that performance (Au & Kawakami, 1984; Palincsar & Brown, 1984; Rodgers, 2000, 2004).

As speaking and thinking transition from social speech between tutor and child to private speech, when the child uses the language of the tutor to direct her behaviors, to inner speech to inner thought, a child regulates her actions beginning from birth throughout life. Purposeful, contextualized conversations with a child impact her emotional and cognitive development (Johnston, 2004; Lyons, 2003). Every child is capable of learning given opportunities for the right context and assistance. As Clay (2005) stated, "if the child is a struggling reader or writer the conclusion must be that we have not yet discovered the way to help him learn" (p. 158). In the end, Vygotsky and Clay would see eye to eye; it is the individual adaptation made by the expert writing tutor to the individual child's distinctive competencies and history of past sociocultural experiences that accelerate her to effective literacy practices.

Rooted in the sociocultural nature of learning to write, Reading Recovery teachers scaffold instruction to develop competency through collaboration. In various contexts the more knowledgeable others could include peers, teachers, and published authors. Additionally, a Vygotskian approach to writing instruction builds on the students' strengths and interests making it possible for all children to succeed. Therefore, since students' proficiencies and potentials

form the core of the writing instruction, the possibilities for success include students whose home experiences with print differ from traditional school literacies (Samway, 2006).

The social and emotional dimensions of learning lie at the heart of Vygotsky's theory of learning. As discussed earlier, his interests focused on how social interactions in small groups or dyads lead to higher mental functioning in an individual and how external mediators and signs or tools like oral language and writing provide assistance in teaching and learning. The very nature of social interactions involves emotional connections as illustrated in the following story. In her book *Teaching Struggling Readers*, Carol Lyons (2003) discussed an experience she shared with Shirley Brice Heath, a well-respected anthropologist and linguist who studied the social, emotional, and learning contexts of specific groups in the South (Heath, 1983). Shirley asked Carol who was a professor and Reading Recovery trainer at The Ohio State University if she could observe a Reading Recovery lesson. They observed and discussed a Reading Recovery lesson together in a Columbus Public School. Before the lesson, Shirley asked the teacher, "What do you know about this child?" The teacher's first response focused on the child as a person although she did also talk about the child's knowledge of print. After the lesson observation, Shirley questioned the teacher about her interactions with the child. Thoughtfully, the teacher explained the decisions she made in response to the child's behaviors. On their drive back to Ohio State, Shirley commented about the nonverbal interactions and conversations between the teacher and child. In particular, she discussed her observations of the teacher's tone of voice, wait time, eye contact, and non-verbal subtleties like the gentle touching of the child's arm to encourage her when she appeared to be frustrated. Shirley noticed not only what the teacher said and did but also how the teacher said and did it; the teacher's moves responded to the child's moves and changed to meet the demands of the tasks. Shirley and Carol discussed

how the teacher's moves conveyed support and partnership in the learning process with the student. They noted the positive rapport shared in the teacher and student conversations throughout the lesson. Carol reflected later how Shirley showed her the importance of the other side of teaching - the teacher's behaviors that develop collaborative social relationships with students conveying support and ownership in the learning process. I believe Vygotsky would have enjoyed observing that Reading Recovery lesson and participating in the conversations that day as he epitomized thinkers whose theories constantly develop and evolve while focusing on human potentials and possibilities!

**Article 2: Interactions Scaffolding Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words:
A Case Study of An Early Intervention Literacy Teacher
and An English Language Learner**

Introduction

Teachers meet with challenges every day to organize literacy instruction to differentiate instruction for the diverse learners they face (Cazden, 1992). Concern grows about the most effective instructional practices for children who are learning to speak English and the continuing gap in the academic achievement of the growing population of English language learners (ELL). Strong evidence proves the positive impact on literacy achievement when the initial instruction is in the child's native language (Freeman & Freeman, 2000; Ramirez, Yuen, Ramey, & Pasta, 1991). In spite of these findings, schools face few instructional choices other than immersion in English classes with the absence of native language and bilingual literacy instruction (Ashdown & Simic, 2000). Therefore, where native language literacy instruction is not available, identifying the best instructional practices that support literacy achievement for English language learners becomes even more critical. Helman (2009) admonished teachers to increase their understandings and preparations to build on the diverse linguistic knowledge of increasing numbers of second language learners entering their classrooms. The processes of first and second language acquisition are very similar (Clay, 1991; Hudelson, 1989). Cultural background plays a major factor in second language learning. Children creatively construct written language in their homes, communities and school so all aspects must be considered and valued. ELLs interact with print to produce meaning long before formal schooling begins (Clay, 1975; Hudelson, 1989). Effective teachers tap into an ELL's funds of knowledge and build on prior knowledge and experiences (Clay, 1998, 2004; Moll, 2004).

Learning how to write in a new language is a complex process and often the most difficult skill to master. Furthermore, teaching writing is a complex process in itself. Students need scaffolding responsive to their competencies to help them learn oral and written language. Therefore, examining the instructional craft to clarify and deepen understandings should lead to improved instruction (Matczuk & Straw, 2005).

Writing plays a significant part in the early reading process and vice versa. Within the process of writing, the oral analysis of language and the visual analysis of print slow down so that all the pieces can be interwoven. When ELLs write their own messages, the intent of the print is meaning driven, and the familiar structure reflects the children's own oral language (Fried, 1998). With this approach to writing, the teacher honors the child's language and the familiar provides a foundation for learning something new. Drucker's (2003) description of a culturally relevant teaching approach bears similarity. The student's first language and culture contribute to unlocking the second language. Heath's (1983, 1991) work suggested that teachers must be sensitive to cultural and community differences in the functions, forms and structures of writing in order to avoid misunderstandings and negative beliefs about children's writing.

Experimentation of language through writing impacts reading development, as they are reciprocal processes (Clay, 1982, 1998, 2005; DeFord, Lyons, & Pinnell, 1991; Dyson, 1991; Hiebert, 1994). Additionally, writing events support ELLs' oral language development (Freeman & Freeman, 1992). Literate capacity and processing are evidenced by the use of written language as an instrument for thinking and engagement in writing (Heath, 1991; Vygotsky, 1987).

Although one-on-one tutoring proves to be a powerful instructional method, it is not sufficient alone. The pattern of language interaction and the particular scaffolding of performance between tutor and child lead to accelerated learning (Rodgers, 1998). Research is

needed to help teachers understand the characteristics of effective scaffolding and language interactions that increase the literacy achievement for ELL.

The purpose of the larger study from which this case study came was to investigate the characteristics of one-on-one teaching interactions that effectively scaffold writing instruction in a one-on-one tutoring context with ELLs. Within the context of the larger study, many aspects of writing instruction including engaging students in genuine conversations to compose for writing and to extend language development, supporting English language learners in learning how to compose stories in English giving voice to thoughts, and fostering the development of strategic actions for recording the words of the message were examined. To foster a flexible writing process, an effective teacher guides a student to solve words by applying many useful strategic actions. However, the micro focus of this particular case study targeted only one aspect of solving words in writing which was hearing and recording sounds in words. I acknowledge phonemic information, although extremely valuable, is a fragment of more complex activities involved in a writing process.

Review of Relevant Literature

Many researchers have studied the dimensions of teacher-child interactions, the effects of scaffolding instruction, contingent teaching and its relationship to teaching writing strategies in building a strong writing process (Askew & Frasier, 2003; Cazden, 1992; Clay, 2005; Rodgers, 1998, 2000; Wood, 2003). Research consistently points to certain features of successful effective instruction that include engaging students in challenging authentic literacy tasks and building on students' first language and culture. Furthermore, several studies examined patterns of interactions in literacy learning settings and found the type of assistance is critical; and effective teachers use a variety of instructional language scaffolds to build students' literacy competencies

(DeFord, 1994; Dorn, 1996; Elliot, 1996; Freeman & Freeman, 2002; Rodgers, 1999; Wood & Middleton, 1975).

The teacher scaffolds support in response to and to honor the child's control, initiation, and intention (Graves, 1983; Searle, 1984). Dyson (1990) offered a weaving metaphor to portray teachers as weavers supporting children in intertwining literacy from the wealth of diverse resources they bring to school. She advocated providing rich experiences for children to explore their own agendas and capturing moments to help them make connections from known to new. Cazden (1983) defined a scaffold as "a temporary framework for construction in progress" (p. 6). While a scaffold provided by the tutor may not change the nature of the task, it often adjusts the difficulty and supports the student's successful completion of the task. Meyer (1993) stressed the importance of an appropriate match between the level of the scaffolded assistance, the task complexity, and the learner's competency. She indicated that through dialogue a teacher shifts responsibility to the child, thus, underscoring nonevaluative collaborative roles of teacher and student in negotiating control of the task. Meyer (1993) encouraged further research investigating how responsibility for the development of strategies may be transferred from teacher to student.

Talk embedded in the actions of the literacy event shape the child's learning as the tutor regulates her language to conform to the child's degrees of understanding. Dorn (1996) studied how talk and action work together with the sociocultural fabric of the writing event to shape a child's construction of awareness and performance. She found the instructional dialogue ranged from casual talk to deliberate explanations about features of written language. Although teacher/child talk was richly described under the newly discovered constructs from the case studies, she admitted the process of literacy development is not so easily depicted and advocated

further research on the role of talk as an instrument for promoting literacy development of struggling readers and writers.

Rodgers (2004) observed two effective literacy teachers in order to describe the nature of effective scaffolding. Rodgers described the complexity of scaffolding in terms of the instructional decisions teachers made about the type, amount, and level of help. She found teaching in response to students' strengths and actions promoted acceleration.

The responsive teacher does not accelerate the learner but rather provides opportunities for the child to construct learning. Askew and Frasier (2003) found, within the task of writing continuous texts with teacher assistance, students had opportunities to learn about the conventions of print; phonology and orthography of the English language; acquire a writing vocabulary; and use known words to generate new learning through analogy. An implication from their study related to the critical role of teacher assistance. In their study, they did not analyze the type of assistance but called for further research to examine the type and amount of teacher interactions.

Bruster (1991) identified examples of the teacher shifting support in response to the child's efforts provided evidence of appropriateness, structure, and collaboration. As the child demonstrated internalization of processes, the teacher was able to withdraw support and provide prompts in the praise category.

In the analysis process of their study, Matczuk and Straw (2005) found Wood's (2003) theory of contingent teaching to be a useful framework in categorizing specific teaching moves and in portraying how teaching changed over time. They identified ways in which teachers' instructional language and decisions scaffolded their students' word writing strategies. Wood (2003) defined three dimensions of contingent tutoring: *domain contingency* (what to teach),

instructional contingency (how to support activity), and *temporal contingency* (if and when to intervene). The first category or dimension of tutoring in Wood's (2003) model of contingent teaching, *domain contingency*, refers to what to focus on next in teaching. In their observational data, Matczuk and Straw discovered patterns of subcategories within this dimension as teachers worked with students on solving words in writing. Figure 4.6 illustrates the identified patterns. The most common method applied was hearing and recording sounds in words, with or without El'konin sound boxes (Clay, 1993; El'konin, 1973). Using the framework of sound boxes provides a child with "a correct orientation to the role of the sounds in language and acquaint him with the correct sound form and structure of words" (El'konin, 1973, p. 556). Sound boxes provide a visual framework to support children in learning how words are made up of individual phonemes or sounds. For example, the teacher draws three connecting boxes to represent each phoneme in the word *bug*. The boxes represent each phoneme, not necessarily each letter of the word.

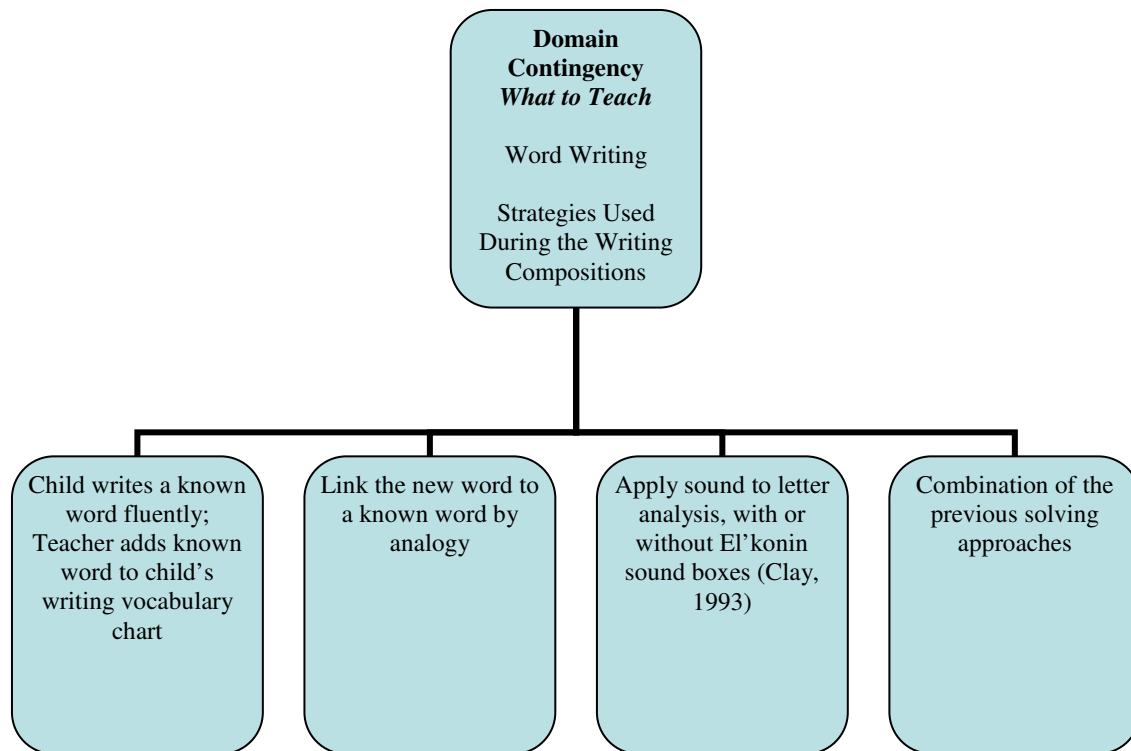


Figure 4.6. Subcategories within the domain contingency category.

The second dimension, *instructional contingency*, refers to how the tutor adjusts the level of support provided to the child. The researchers used Wood's (2003) five levels of support within this category to analyze instructional language. Level One offers the least amount of support from the teacher and Level Five provides the greatest amount of teacher support. Figure 4.7 displays the five levels. By observing and analyzing the scaffolding levels of the instructional language, Matczuk and Straw found teachers provided Level One and Level Two supports most frequently.

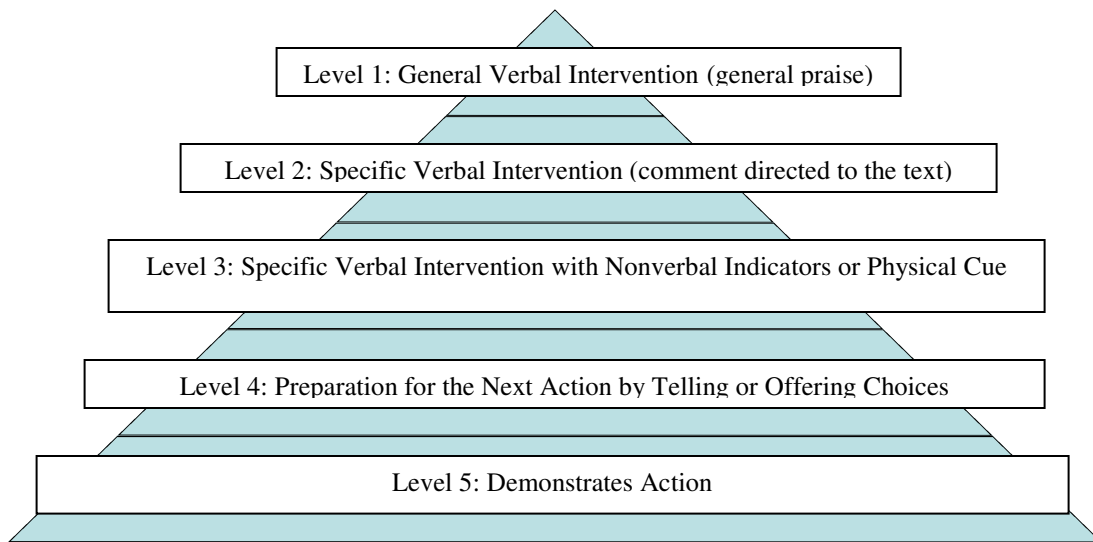


Figure 4.7. Wood's (2003) five levels of support used to analyze instructional language.

By analyzing the observations of the study participants in reference to Wood's (2003) third category of tutoring, *temporal contingency* or *when* to teach, Matczuk and Straw identified patterns of how teachers used wait time effectively. They found all teachers stepped in to help after two seconds or less when the teachers recognized the word difficulty was too high for their students. The frequency of interventions when the teacher waited three seconds or more before assisting differed between children who made accelerated progress and children making slower progress. In consideration of their new understandings and discoveries, the researchers surmised Wood's (2003) theory of the three dimensions of contingent tutoring served as a useful method of analysis.

On the foundation of previous research, I prepared for a closer look at one teacher's language during one specific aspect of writing to reveal how an early literacy intervention teacher scaffolded an individual's learning for accelerated writing achievement. My study

supports the existing research and uses a micro lens to add the new dimension of how a teacher specifically scaffolds learning in order to understand the role instructional scaffolding plays in an English language learner's learning how to hear, analyze, and record sounds in words in a message he wants to write.

Research Design and Methods

Qualitative case study methods provide a more appropriate approach to explore the complexities of teacher-student interactions than quantitative assessments. This study examined one teacher-student dyad's interactions in an effort to illuminate and answer focused questions through descriptions and interpretations (Dyson & Genishi, 2005; Stake, 2005; Yin, 2006). One of the strengths of this study is its purpose and the purpose of a qualitative case study structure ideally coincide to richly describe a phenomenon of interest.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical perspective shaping this study is a sociocultural theory within a worldview of constructionism drawing from the work of Vygotsky (1978, 1987), Vygotsky and Kozulin (1986), Clay (1998), Tharp and Gallimore (1988, 1991) and Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976). Social interaction plays a significant role in the construction of knowledge (Smagorinsky, 2007). Interpersonal speech with others transitions to intrapersonal speech which provides the foundation to the development of thought and language both verbal and non verbal (Vygotsky, 1987). Writing and speech as tools can lead to discovery of new thinking. The teacher offers levels of verbal and non-verbal demonstrations and directions as the child observes, mimics, or shares the writing task. With increased understanding and control, the child needs less assistance. The teacher's level and type of support change over time from directive, to suggestion, to encouragement, to observation. Optimum scaffolds adapt to a child's tempo

moving from other-regulation to self-regulation. The child eventually provides self-scaffolding through internal thought (Wertsch, 1985). Within these scaffolding events, teaching and learning become inseparable components which emphasize both the child's personal construction of literacy and the adult's contributions to the child's developing understandings of print. The child contributes what she can and the adult contributes so as to sustain the task (Teale & Sulzby, 1986). In Vygotsky's words, "what the child is able to do in collaboration today he will be able to do independently tomorrow" (Vygotsky, 1987, p. 211).

The School Context for the Study

Context influences what we believe we see and know (Franzak, 2006). Istavan Banyai's picture book *Zoom* (1995) begins with a large view and progressively zooms in thirty pages later to a small dot. By zooming in and out, the reader comes to understand phenomena are framed by deeper and wider social, cultural, and historical contexts.

Using *Zoom* as an analogy, I begin with the larger context of the school background in order to stay true to the principle of context. The social setting for this study is a suburban school system adjacent to a large metro southern city. The district serves approximately 159,000 students in kindergarten through grade 12. In the 2008-2009 school year, the elementary school within this district in which the teacher and student participants in this study teach and learn currently serves 1,295 students in kindergarten through grade 5. The demographic data for the student population of the target school indicates the following: 42% Hispanic, 33% African American, 10% Caucasian, 9% Asian, and 5% multiracial. Approximately 71% of students receive free or reduced-priced lunches, making the school a school-wide Title-One school. The English as a Second Language (ESOL) program serves 15% of the student population.

Participants

Purposeful sampling is used when there is a clear rationale for selecting the participants for a sample group (Hays, 2004) and when subjects are chosen to include because they are believed to facilitate expansion of a developing theory (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). The teacher participant, Shelley, volunteered from a purposefully selected pool of teachers who had records of high success rates with ELLs in an early literacy intervention. Table 4.1 displays teacher data for Shelley.

Table 4.1

Teacher Participant Data

Teacher Participant Data	Teacher: Shelley
Years in Education	8
Years in Early Literacy Intervention	4
Highest Level of Education	Masters
Other Teaching Roles	1st/4th grades Reading Coach/Teacher
Other Languages Spoken	English Only
Cultural Background/Race	Jamaican American Caribbean Black

At the beginning of the study, Shelley shared her ideas about her writing instruction. From an interview with her, I identified her core beliefs that teachers need to:

- Have a clear focus for instruction;
- Scaffold with appropriate levels of support;
- Foster independence and transfer;

- Have a conversation to compose before writing; (Conversation was mentioned twenty-four times in three teachers' interviews in a larger study from which this case was taken.)
- Emphasize echoes/connections/links/repetitions across a lesson;
- Model language – tuning the ear for English structure.
- Link oral language development, writing, and reading
- Build a core of known words in writing

Shelley described her teaching approach as learner-centered and focused on supporting strategic writers. She used systematic observations, analysis of her teaching and her student's process, documentation of books read, lesson records, and reflective discussions with peers to plan for instruction.

The selection of the corresponding student participant for Shelley was determined by a variation of English proficiency on the National Data Evaluation Center's English Proficiency rubric, scores on the Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement (Clay, 2002), and teacher selection of her student with the least English language experience. The National Data Evaluation Center (NDEC) is an ongoing research project of the School of Teaching and Learning in the College of Education and Human Ecology at The Ohio State University. The parents of Huron, the student participant, listed Spanish as their home language. After one year of school, Huron, a bright-eyed enthusiastic Latino first grade learner, continued to meet many challenges in English literacy acquisition even though he had daily writing opportunities in the classroom and in ESOL classes. In order to prevent failure, Shelley invited Huron to participate in daily individualized Reading Recovery lessons that included reading and writing instruction.

Table 4.2 displays literacy assessment scores for Huron before his lessons began and at the end of his program.

Table 4.2

Fall Entry and Exit Scores for the Student Participant

	Fall Entry	Exit
NDEC English Proficiency Rubric Range: 0-5	2	4
Observation Survey Tasks		
Letter Identification: Range: 0-54	52	54
Word Reading: Range 0-20	1	15
Concepts about Print: Range: 0-24	6	20
Writing Vocabulary: 10 min. timed task	3	47
*HRSIW: Range: 0-37 *Hearing & Recording Sounds in Words	9	36
Text Reading Level: Range: 0-16	0	16

Huron's fall entry scores fell well below the average of his peers and qualified him as a candidate in need of early literacy intervention. The descriptive criteria for his score on the NDEC English Proficiency Rubric aligned with level 2: *Isolated phrases and fragmented/very simple sentences; may make errors in the use of verbs, articles, and pronouns*. He identified 52 letters by name out of 54; 1 sight word out of 20, demonstrated knowledge of 6 concepts of print out of 24; analyzed and recorded 9 sounds out of 37; wrote 3 words in ten minutes; and was unable to read a simple text level 1 like *Mom is cooking, Mom is...* with rich picture support and teacher introduction.

After thirteen weeks of daily sessions with Shelley, Huron showed accelerated growth in literacy skills and strategic behaviors. His English proficiency progressed to match level 4 indicators on the NDEC English Proficiency rubric: *Coherent sentences with native-like fluency; occasional errors in syntax or vocabulary*. Demonstrating growth in his writing skills, he wrote 47 words in ten minutes and accurately recorded 36 out of 37 phonemes in words.

Shelley shared her insights about Huron:

Huron is an extremely happy child and comes from a family of three. He is enthusiastic and interested in learning new things. At home he speaks primarily Spanish. When he entered the program, he had such a sense of determination and he quickly began taking risks. I saw his confidence about being a reader and a writer soar. Huron comes from a Mexican culture, and his two parents are very supportive of him and his education.

Although his mother speaks very little English, she showed great interest in his progress by writing me letters in Spanish from time to time to inquire about his progress and ask me questions about how she can help him at home. Huron's father is a truck driver and is gone several days out of the week, but he still made an effort to read with Huron every night he was at home. At the end of Huron's Reading Recovery program, his classroom teacher stated he does very well and is meeting and sometimes surpassing grade level expectations.

Methods of Data Collection

Observations took place during the writing component of a thirty minute one-on-one literacy lesson. Additionally, researcher's notes (reflective comments and questions), digital

video recordings and transcriptions, teacher interview, teacher's reflective lesson records (Dyson & Genishi, 2005), and student writing samples comprised the data set.

In participant observation, the researcher enters the world she plans to study, gets to know the subjects, and earns trust while keeping a detailed written record of what she hears and observes (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). My role fell more as observer than as participant because I did not take part in the teaching. However, the participants were aware of my presence and purpose, and I did have conversations with Shelley and Huron before and after the lessons.

I conducted observations using digital video recordings of this teacher-student dyad two days a week bi-weekly over a period of thirteen weeks August to November. I documented shifts in the level of Shelley's instructional support as Huron grew more proficient. I recorded field notes or researcher's notes about the context of the lessons, other observations, and questions to go along with the digital video recordings. I collected Shelley's lesson records and Huron's writing pages to correspond with observed lessons.

Methods of Data Analysis

Working within an interactional framework to analyze video data, I examined how an early intervention tutor scaffolded writing instruction for an ELL and how they co-constructed meaning through language and actions over time. I analyzed interactional sequences of hearing and recording sounds in words using the scaffolding prop of El'konin (1973) sound boxes.

Within the interactional framework, my goals included:

- Understanding and describing what people do – behavior;
- Understanding and describing people's demonstrations of knowledge;

- Understanding and describing what people make and use – artifacts;
- Looking for patterns of interactions constructed over time.

The digital video recordings allowed me to document both verbal and nonverbal interactions including contextualization cues to social interactions such as:

- Proximal (physical orientation)
- Kinesthetic (gestures, body motions)
- Nonverbal (eye gaze, use of objects or props)
- Verbal (intonation, pause)

I used an inductive method first by examining the transcribed data sequences, open coding, and categorizing (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Charmaz, 2006). I combined categorizing and contiguity strategies to preserve the context, follow sequential links, and integrate results (Maxwell & Miller, 2008). Contiguity is a series of things in continuous connection or a grouping of parts. Contiguity-based strategies in qualitative data analysis focus on how one part influences another in actual context. Pomerantz and Fehr (1997) noted a consensus of conversation analysts in applying both categorization and contiguity-based strategies. A conversation analysis approach was applied to analyze the transcripts for contiguity connections and semantic relationships such as how Shelley responded to Huron. Analysis focusing on instruction includes examination of Huron's interpretations because Huron's language and experiences serve as anchors on which instructional language can be effectively built (Clay, 1998; Clay & Cazden, 1990; Pontecorvo, 1997).

Data Analysis Methodology

Analytic inductive studies investigating instructional language often integrate types of discourse analysis emphasizing how talk and conversation are used to make meaning (Cole,

1995; Fullerton & DeFord, 2001; ten Have, 2007). Through the use of discourse analysis, literacy researchers may consider principles of conversation within an educational framework and examine the micro patterns in specific verbal-visual interactions (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2005). Discourse analysis approaches increase understanding of how people construct knowledge and reinforce social structures within interactions.

One discourse analysis approach applied in studies of instructional language is conversation analysis (CA). Sacks (1992) played an instrumental role in the development of CA by identifying two themes: categorization and sequential organization. He worked from the idea that the meaning of any utterance or action depends on its sequential position and subjectivity. Additionally, he pointed out in applying CA, researchers bring to mind what is already there but often taken for granted.

Conversation analysts consider talk in the notion of context when one conversational turn is shaped by the prior utterance and contributes to the shaping of the next (Erickson, 2004). The researcher analyzes turn by turn as the participants in their talk braid together their contextually situated utterances and nonverbal behavior. Jaworski and Coupland (1999) identified one of the key features in the sequential organization of conversational analysis as adjacency pairs or paired actions in which the first utterance leads to a specific type of response utterance such as greeting-greeting, summons-answer, or question (Q)-answer (A). Heritage (1984) described adjacency pairs as “an architecture of intersubjectivity” (p. 254) in this turn-taking system. When misunderstanding arises or a failure in the sequence occurs, a “repair” attempts to restore meaning or order. Simply put, yet with great analytical complexity, one utterance creates the context for the next with relative order.

Researchers in two traditions practice CA – “pure” CA and “applied” CA (Roulston, 2004; ten Have, 2007). “Pure” CA, which began with Sacks, studies the sequential organization of talk-in-action to define patterns, purposes, and outcomes of specific types of utterances (Roulston, 2004). In other words, “pure” conversational analysts study how interaction works in everyday life. In the other tradition which I used, “applied” CA examines conversational interaction for specific purposes (e.g., to examine how a literacy teacher accomplishes writing instruction with an ELL) in institutional settings. Researchers applying CA in educational settings investigate the structure and organization of talk to accomplish something (Heap, 1997).

Using conversation analysis in their study of teacher talk, McVee and Pearson (2003) identified several effective discourse strategies including questioning, revoicing, and directing statements. They found teachers facilitated students’ use of language in these various discourse moves.

Quality Review

When participants review the data, it serves as a member check to clarify, confirm, and rectify misunderstandings (Hays, 2004). I reviewed the descriptive results and interview notes with Shelley to allow for further understandings and clarifications of these investigations. My purpose was to hear Shelley’s perspective and review the reflections of her understandings of her own decision making about what to teach, which levels of support to provide, and when to intervene. Inviting Shelley to reflect and provide feedback in the review of this study’s data reduced biases that could potentially cast a shadow resulting in skewed interpretations. Consultations with my university professors, doctoral student peers, and dissertation committee members added other objective perspectives to the analysis and findings process. Including these

member checks, as well as confirming threads throughout the documents collected, served to strengthen fidelity (Bassey, 1999).

Subjectivity Statement

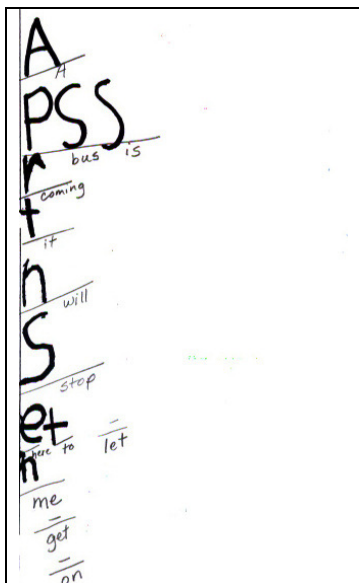
This section deals with the tough question, “Why should I believe you?” (Locke, Spirduso, & Silverman, 2000). My subjectivity statement is a summary of who I am as a researcher and my professional experiences in relation to what and whom I am studying (Preissle, 2008). This subjectivity is who I am in light of how it may affect the study both in limits and benefits. In the context of this study, I am an insider. My personal beliefs and professional training combine in the advocacy for effective early intervention to prevent literacy failure. Stake (2006) discussed that often researchers study a part of their own organization hoping to see evidence of success. Researching internally is not a conflict of interest but rather a “confluence of interest” (Stake, 2006, p. 86). I was trained as an early intervention literacy coach teacher so I have a shared knowledge and instructional language base as well as a prior relationship with Shelley.

In my role as a literacy coach, I act as a change agent concerning effective teaching strategies employed by teachers. I cultivate relationships with teachers who are trained to reflect upon their teaching in order to make shifts. My responsibilities include observing and sharing data with teachers and facilitating their construction of theory and practice rather than telling them what I think or telling them what to do. In this way, I am not in the role of an evaluator. This study is not to evaluate a program or a teacher, but rather to investigate and describe effective interactions and instructional scaffolds for ELL. My subjectivity may bias and limit endeavors, but it may also illuminate my inquiry (Preissle, 2008).

Findings: Data Presentation

In order to characterize interactions between teacher and student during writing, I used a conversation analytic approach to examine sequences of talk during episodes of hearing and recording sounds in words. I investigated these sequences which were enacted over time to trace the journey from teacher regulated to student control of the task. By conducting this analysis, I was able to draw conclusions about the nature of the conversation.

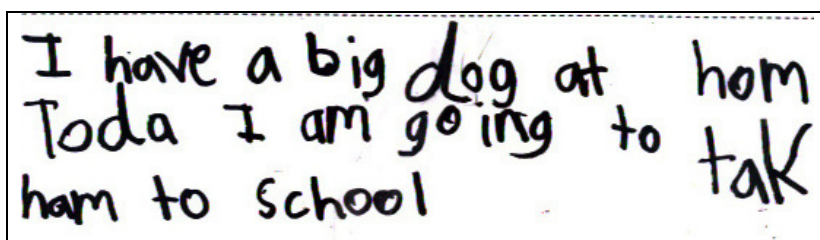
It was apparent from the Observation Survey (OS) scores after 13 weeks of tutoring, Huron made significant gains. He could hear and record 36 phonemes, an increase of 27 from thirteen weeks earlier. Figure 4.8 illustrates his dictation results at the beginning of lessons when Shelley read aloud the sentence: *The bus is coming. It will stop here to let me get on.*



*Figure 4.8. Hearing and recording sounds in words/initial dictation task assessment:
A bus is coming. It will stop here to let me get on.*

Figure 4.9 shows the dictation assessment results at the end of his series of lessons when Shelley read aloud the sentence: *I have a big dog at home. Today I will take him to school.* Both

sentences contain 37 phonemes. In addition, he wrote 47 words in ten minutes on the Writing Vocabulary task of the OS, compared to 3 when he entered the program. *What characteristics of the instructional scaffolding fostered this progress in writing?*



*Figure 4.9. Hearing and recording sounds in words/ending dictation task assessment:
I have a big dog at home. Today I am going to take him to school.*

Establishing the Task of Saying Words Slowly to Hear Sounds in Sequence

Young students who are second language learners often find it extremely difficult to separate out the sounds of the language they are hearing or speaking. Writing requires a child to pay closer attention to sounds in words and write some letters representing those sounds. Phonemic awareness strengthens the foundation for reading and writing acquisition (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000). The activity of writing is well suited for developing phonemic awareness which is essential in becoming proficient at word recognition. Writing provides opportunities for children to develop their understandings about how language sounds are mapped onto written letters. Writing supports phonological awareness and exploration with orthography. Sounds of a word are altered by surrounding sounds and have different sounds from those spoken in isolation. Children should begin early to use the strategy of saying a word slowly to hear and record the letters for the sounds in sequence. With practice, children learn to cope with English irregularities. With experience, children begin to learn that

the spelling of a phoneme may depend on the phoneme's context. El'konin (1973) and Clay (1993) suggest scaffolding procedures (sound boxes) for hearing and recording sounds in words to help children master this operation.

When writing new words, saying words slowly is a useful strategy. Hearing the sounds in sequence and analyzing the sounds help a child to learn the principle of constructing the sound form of words. In the first sequence selected, Shelley introduced the task of saying words slowly to help Huron hear and think about the order of sounds in spoken words. Appendix A provides the full transcription, interpretations, and categorizations of the first sequence interactions. The following sequence of interactions illustrates how Shelley first established the task of saying words slowly to hear the sounds in words.

T: Alright, so let's look at this picture. *((holding up a picture card of a bed))* (1.5) What is that?

C: bed

T: bed. Now watch my mouth *((points to mouth))* and watch the way I say that word.

C: *((looks up at teacher))*

T: (0.5) Ready? b::e::d (0.5) See how I did that?

C: *((nods head yes))*

T: I want you to try it.

C: b::e::th

T: One more time *((teacher pointing to her mouth))* watch=

C: =b::e::d=

T: YEAH! Say it one more time.

C: b::e::d *((more enthusiastically))*

T: GOOD! When you say it slowly you can think about the sounds that are in that word, ok?

Let's try another one. *((flips the cards to a new picture))* (1.0).

C: c::a::t

T: VERY GOOD! ((*smiling; flips to another card; mouth forms b sound*))

C: b::o::x

T: NICE! ((*smiling*)) I heard every sound of that word when you said it. ((*flips the card to a new picture*))

C: c::a::ke

T: Good job Huron! ((*nods head yes, smiling, and flips the card*))

C: h::a::t

T: ((*nods head yes; smiling*)) That's very good. ((*smiling; puts the cards down: still looking at child*)) So when you get to a word and you're not sure what it is I want you to say it slowly just like you did it, so we can hear ((*motions to her ear*)) those sounds, okay?

C: ((*nods head yes*))

The task is first to use the ears to hear the sounds in words before using letters. Shelley introduced the task by explaining the rationale and maintained a body position of leaning in and looking at Huron's face. She stated, "I'm going to show you how you can help yourself," fostering his independence from the start. Shelley selected single syllable words with clear easy to hear sounds to demonstrate the analysis of hearing the order of sounds in words. For each new word, Shelley used a picture of what the word represented as a prop. For example, the visual picture of a bed served to hold in memory the word *bed* as Huron said *bed* slowly. Calling for Huron to attend closely, she articulated a word slowly and deliberately but naturally to let him hear the sounds. Often ELLs find challenge in pronouncing the precise articulation of English words. After demonstrating slow articulation of a word, Shelley directed and transferred the initiative for the task to Huron to articulate the same word slowly, smoothly stretching out the sounds without distorting the pronunciation of the word. General verbal and non-verbal

affirmation remained a recurring scaffold for all words with one specific verbal affirmation on the third word. When she gave specific praise, she validated exactly what Huron did correctly. Shelley's questioning served three purposes: to signal a preferred response, capture attention, and check for understanding. When Huron erred, Shelley without negative rebuke, initiated a repair with a nonverbal and verbal cue for Huron to try again sometimes demonstrating the task for a second time. Huron's self-correction served as the repair outcome. Shelley verbally summarized the task at the end with one non-verbal clarifier when she pointed to her ear, set expectations for using this strategic behavior, and reviewed the rationale. The positive affect of Shelley created an encouraging context for learning, making it safe for Huron to take risks in this new task. Her warm encouraging smile, the physical proximity of her sitting side-by-side, and the kindness in her voice communicated partnership. Shelley built a trusting relationship with Huron which in turn supported the emotional aspect of his learning.

Teacher support diminished from the first word to the last word practiced in this task as Huron gained greater control. Evidence shows moves from other-regulated to self-regulated in saying a word slowly to hear the sounds in a word. Shelley demonstrated the task of saying a word slowly on the first word, but on the following four words she decreased her level of support. She verbally transferred the initiative to Huron six times with two non-verbal prompts during the first word fading to one verbal directive on the second word and one non-verbal prompt on the third word.

Shelley and Huron took thirteen turns in accomplishing the first word task. Just as a builder removes a scaffold when no longer needed, Shelley reduced her level of support on subsequent tasks turning control over to Huron. Three turns resulted in saying the second word slowly and two turns for the remaining words as Shelley set Huron up for success with her

economy of words, non-verbal cues, and clear demonstration in the beginning. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) called these moments of interacting “exchanges” (p. 49). The pairing of these exchanges usually consisted of teacher initiation, student response, and teacher feedback. Hobsbaum, Peters, and Sylva (1996) termed these interactions “talk cycles” because they found cycles of teacher and student talk around the construction of individual words (p. 24). Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) identified the individual turns taken or contributions made by a teacher and child during a talk cycle as “moves” (p. 44).

In the remainder of this section, I discuss the subsequent patterns of the interactive talk cycles and the moves made by Shelley that fostered independence in Huron’s process of hearing, analyzing, and recording sounds in words. I characterized the interactions to describe the type of instructional scaffold Shelley provided.

Establishing the Task of Sound Boxes

In the next day’s lesson, Shelley focused her instruction on establishing the task of pushing sounds into a diagram of boxes (See Appendix B). Because Huron now controlled saying words slowly, Shelley demonstrated pushing sounds in a word into a framework of “boxes for sounds” she had drawn (Clay, 2005, p. 32). She drew one box for each phoneme. For example, the word *cake* would have only three boxes since the ‘e’ is silent.

Building on Huron’s new competencies of saying words slowly, Shelley focused on integrating hearing the sounds and representing them now with letters. Shelley worked toward the goal of Huron linking a visual form with a phoneme in order to learn sound-letter relationships thus building a two-way pathway in the brain linking what is heard with what is seen. The hearing of sounds and seeing the letters involves two different parts of the brain learning to work together (Clay, 2005).

Through my analysis, I found evidence of the traditional instructional pattern, Initiation, Response, and Evaluation or Feedback (Cazden, 1988; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). However, with closer analysis, I identified the specific nature of teacher contributions in the talk cycle sequences. The nature of Shelley's supportive actions included:

- Demonstrating Verbally and Non-Verbally (Shelley takes Huron's role to demonstrate the action);
- Transferring Initiative (Directing) Verbally and Non-Verbally (Shelley directs Huron to take a specific action);
- Affirming Verbally and Non-Verbally (specific or general praise and validation);
- Sharing the Task Verbally and Non-Verbally (Shelley says the word with Huron and/or gently takes his finger to push the sounds in the boxes);
- Questioning (to prompt for sequence, capture attention, check for understanding, clarify the focus, and call for self-evaluation);
- Explaining (Shelley telling something);
- Using a Prop (picture cards, framework drawing of boxes);
- Repeating (Shelley echoing Huron's response); and
- Waiting (Shelley giving Huron think time).

Using the Framework of Sound Boxes to Write Unknown Words

Following the establishment of the task of pushing sounds into boxes and recording the letters representing those sounds, Shelley and Huron shared a conversation, and he composed a sentence to write. *The books were too easy for Huron last night.* Huron wanted to write the word *last* in his story but did not know how to spell it. Shelley provided a scaffold to support Huron's problem solving by drawing a framework of four boxes on Huron's practice page and reminded

him of their previous work about saying a word slowly to hear the sounds and pushing those sounds in boxes to think about the letters needed to represent the sounds in that word. Huron recorded the *l*, *a*, and *t*. Shelley linked the /s/ sound to a word starting with /s/ when she noted a trouble source for Huron in recording the /s/. However, she had to initiate a second repair with a non-verbal demonstration as she wrote the *s* for Huron. Shelley reduced her level of support when Huron demonstrated control and independence pushing in the sounds as he said the words slowly again and recorded the last letter, *t*.

See Appendix C for transcription of this talk interaction and interpretations of the first episode a word was taken to sound boxes following the establishment of the task. Shelley shared with me after the lesson why she chose to take the word *last* to boxes to support Huron's problem solving strategy. "I chose *last* because when you say it slowly it has clear distinguishable sounds. Since none of the sounds in that word are distorted, it made this new task which was new to him easier to control." The types of instructional language identified in this talk cycle include:

- Demonstrating Verbally and Non-Verbally;
- Sharing the Task Verbally and Non-Verbally;
- Transferring Initiative Verbally; and
- Questioning.

Using Sound Boxes Two Weeks Later

Two weeks later, in another sequence of using sound boxes to solve the word *blue*, Shelley adjusted her level of support when Huron showed trouble with controlling the manipulation of the task. She demonstrated verbally and shared the task of saying it slowly while coordinating pushing the sounds in boxes. This increase in support was in response to Huron

having trouble with the beginning blend and having an unusual spelling pattern for the phoneme /ool/. Huron recorded the *b* and the *l* independently with Shelley's verbal affirmation, but Shelley recorded the *u* and *e* deeming it too difficult for Huron. In the same sequence, Shelley drew boxes to help Huron solve the word *red*. She verbally directed him to record the sounds in sequence and affirmed verbally when he was correct. She repaired a vowel confusion by linking the /e/ sound to a word he knew that started with that sound. In the course of solving both *blue* and *red*, Shelley shifted her focus to letter formation on the *l* in *blue* and *d* and *red*; however, Huron demonstrated flexibility in changing tasks. Appendix D displays the transcription and analysis of these two talk cycles.

Continuing to Share the Task of Boxes the Next Day

On the following day, Huron composed a second sentence to go with the previous day's writing. Shelley decided to use sound boxes to help Huron solve the word *play*. Again, Huron did not control coordinating the sounds and movement across the boxes. Shelley, without rebuke, shared the task with him verbally and nonverbally. She then prompted Huron to record in sequence with general verbal praise when he recorded the letter for the sound correctly. A shift in control was evident when Huron initiated coordinating sound and movement and recorded in sequence the following two letters. Again for the silent letter sounds, Shelley recorded for Huron. When I asked Shelley later about this repeated decision, she replied, "When doing boxes, I insert a letter like silent 'e' or 'y' that Huron can't get to by sound analysis. I just write it in and say, 'This makes it look right' or this letter Y sometimes says 'E,' or 'we can't hear this letter.' That is one way of scaffolding my instruction. I do it quickly so it won't interrupt their processing."

Figure 4.10 and Figure 4.11 display Huron's writing page and practice page consisting of compositions and work over two days' lessons.

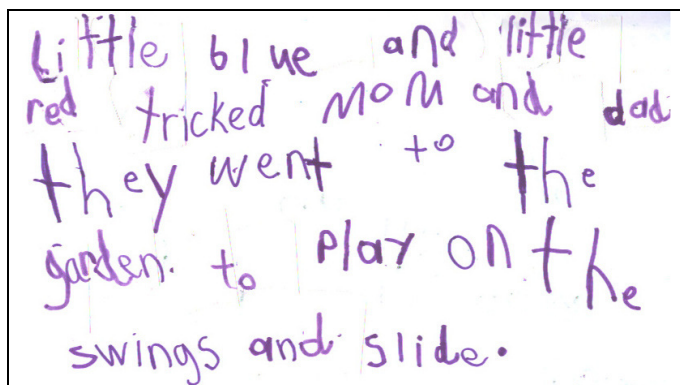


Figure 4.10. Child's writing composition.

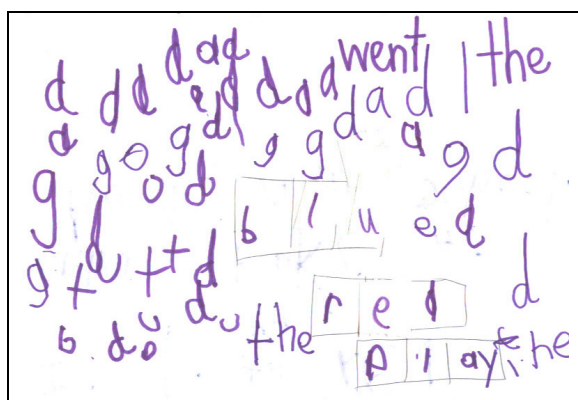


Figure 4.11. Child's practice page with three diagrams of sound boxes [blue, red, play].

Two Weeks Later Working Out a Confusion

Two weeks later, to support Huron's problem solving of the word *green*, Shelley drew four sound boxes. Figure 4.12 shows Huron's work in the boxes. Figure 4.13 shows Huron's writing composition.



Figure 4.12. Sound boxes for green.

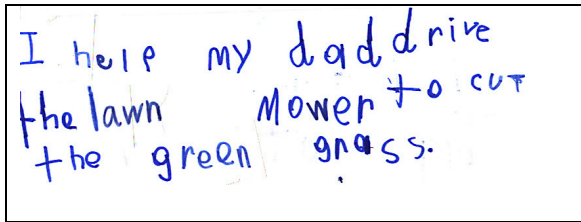


Figure 4.13. I help my dad drive the lawnmower to cut the green grass.

Huron controlled the sounds and movement on the first attempt of saying the word *green* slowly and pushing the sounds into the boxes. Shelley affirmed verbally with general praise, “Good!” and then prompted for the first letter to be recorded which Huron did correctly. He then said “gruh” and wrote a *u* in the next box. Because he segmented the sound from the rest of the word which is common when second language learners attempt to articulate English words, he distorted the sequence and did actually hear a /u/ sound, so the trouble is not that he did not know the next sound in the word *green* but rather that he was not correctly articulating the word slowly and smoothly to hear the sounds in sequence without distortion. (The goal is to say the word without breaking the sequence of phonemes. For example, the teacher would interrupt a child saying the word *cat* in segments like *cuh-cuh-aaa-tuh-tuh* because this method distorts the sounds.) Shelley responded by taping over the error without rebuke and directing him verbally in how to repair by saying it slowly, smoothly, and without segmenting which she then

demonstrated verbally. This scaffold effectively supported Huron in hearing the /ee/. Shelley validated there was an *e* and then demonstrated the missing *r* verbally and non-verbally by writing and saying, “grr,” for him. She directed his attention to the /r/ sound by asking him, “Did you hear the /r/ in here?” Huron nodded affirmatively and then took the initiative back and recorded the *e*, said the word slowly, and slid his finger under the boxes left to right. Then he recorded the *n* in the last box. Again, Shelley adjusted her support based on the behavior of Huron. She offered the opportunity for independent problem solving but stepped in with support when Huron needed help.

After reading the transcript of this sequence, Shelley reflected:

I didn't realize (Huron) was distorting the sounds in green, which prompted him to write the 'u' because that is what he said and heard. That is something that I need to keep in mind when modeling saying sounds slowly. I immediately thought that he missed the sound /r/ that he knew, but that wasn't the issue at all. By his segmenting the sounds, he was actually distorting them which works against his hearing the individual sounds as they would be heard when the word is pronounced slowly.

Shifts in Teaching in Subsequent Sessions

The next day, Shelley shifted her teaching by listening more carefully to how Huron said words slowly and demonstrating to smoothly stretch the sounds in words without segmenting in a way that distorted the sounds in the word. She focused on the process of hearing and recording sounds in words rather than just assisting him in getting the word written correctly.

The following day another shift occurred in Shelley's regulation of the task and Huron's control of hearing and recording sounds in sequence. Figure 4.14 shows Huron's written composition. To foster independence, Shelley observed as Huron initiated solving *Bear*.

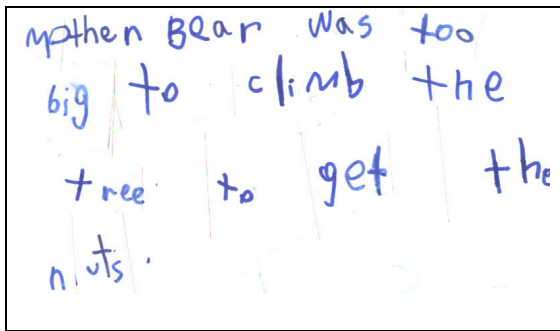


Figure 4.14. Mother Bear was too big to climb the tree to get the nuts.

He recorded the *b* and appealed to Shelley non-verbally for confirmation. Shelley transferred the initiative back to him non-verbally by raising her eyebrows with a “you know what to do” eye and facial expression. A pattern of paired actions began between Shelley and Huron: child initiated saying the word slowly and/or naming the letter, child appealed for confirmation, teacher transferred initiative back to child non-verbally, child recorded the letter. Twice in that series when Shelley transferred the initiative back to Huron, she confirmed indirectly he was correct by signaling him to write it in his story. She did, however, write in the silent letter unknown to Huron. At the end, Huron demonstrated independence in checking for the visual and auditory match of what he wrote by saying it slowly as he slid his finger under his written word. This sequence documents Shelley's support faded to non-verbal cues fostering independence and non-verbal affirmation on a strategic behavior almost self-regulated by Huron. Shelley laughed when reading the transcript and viewing the video of this sequence; “I had no idea I had a ‘you know what to do’ look to put the initiative back to Huron, but I am glad that it worked!”

In the same writing episode, Shelley drew sound boxes to support Huron in solving the word *climb*. In this series of turns, Shelley demonstrated a recurring pattern of response seen in previous sequences. When Huron errs, Shelley makes one of two moves. She either validates the correct part of Huron's attempt or demonstrates verbally and/or non-verbally. In this sequence, when Huron responds correctly, Shelley affirmed with general verbal praise, "Yeah" or "Okay." Huron recorded all the letters in *climb* with the exception of the silent *b*.

The invisible understandings are made visible by the paired actions of the dyad in this same sequence when solving the word *get*. Shelley's action of putting white correction tape over Huron's incorrect response signaled the need for a repair. Huron understood this non-verbal action as the need for repair as demonstrated by his response in repeating the word slowly. When Shelley realized Huron did not know the correct letter, she provided a known link to Huron to prompt the correct response. Huron demonstrated understanding by repairing with the correct letter, initiated the next letter, and then appealed for confirmation. Interestingly, this time Shelley's response to his appeal put the initiative back on Huron prompting him to evaluate for himself. She prompted him to say it slowly and to check if what he heard matched with what he wrote. Rather than affirming for him with verbal praise, Shelley shifted her behavior to foster independent work from Huron.

Evidence Huron Controls the Task Two Weeks Later

Two weeks later, Huron wanted to write *sleep* in his story as seen in Figure 4.15.

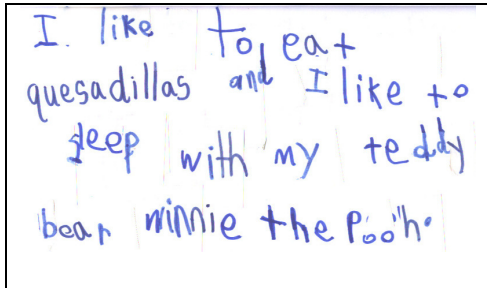


Figure 4.15. I like to eat quesadillas and I like to sleep with my teddy bear Winnie the Pooh.

Shelley transferred the decision making to Huron by questioning, “How can you help yourself with that word?” Huron made the decision to use sound boxes to solve the word. Shelley drew the boxes prompting him to put his finger in and say the word slowly. She then sat back and observed his independence. The following transcript documents Huron’s self-regulated moves to solve a word in sound boxes. Figure 4.16 shows Huron’s work in the sound boxes.

C: s::l::e::p ((pointing each sound into a box)), s::s ((writes an s into the first box))

l::l ((writes an l into the second box)) e::e ((writes an e into the third box)) p::p
((writes a p into the last box))

T: Alright, and this actually has two E’s ((writes another e into the word)) so when you put it into your story put two E’s.

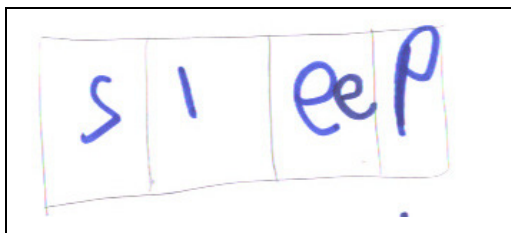


Figure 4.16. Child's work recorded in sound boxes.

Shelley provided the unknown information to Huron by recording the second *e* in the spelling pattern after Huron completed the task, again demonstrating a patterned characteristic of Shelley's instructional actions. Shelley repeatedly adjusted support in response to what Huron did or did not control at certain points in his process. She chose the clearest, most memorable teaching points to build on Huron's knowledge and competencies.

Pulling It All Together

In the previous sections, I have shown how Shelley's instructional scaffolding and teaching in response to Huron's actions transferred control of a strategic action for word-solving to Huron. I concluded the type of talk interaction within the instructional scaffolding was critical to Huron's learning. The use of verbal and nonverbal scaffolds was essential to shift Huron's writing behaviors from being teacher-controlled or other-regulated to child-controlled or self-regulated. Table 4.3 shows how Shelley faded her support and Huron took control of the task. Shelley's demonstration represented a high level of support and how that support decreased to foster Huron's independent use of a strategic behavior. Table 4.4 illustrates the types of instructional responses to Huron's actions with the appropriate level of support. Both tables are simplistic outlines of complex interactions that are not always linear but rather are recursive actions depending on Huron's control of the process. Tables 4.3 and 4.4 only provide a way to

think about the change over time in the teacher's role. A teacher must be a keen observer and responder to offer the appropriate amount and type of support to foster control and independence in Huron.

Table 4.3

Process of Transitioning from Teacher Controlled to Child Controlled

Teacher Actions High → Low	Child's Actions Low → High
Demonstrating	Observing
Assisting/Sharing the task	Performing Task with Assistance
Transferring Initiative Verbal/Nonverbal Prompting Affirming Verbal and Nonverbal Praise	Performing Task with Partial Assistance Performing Task with Partial Assistance
Observing	Independently Performing Task

Table 4.4

Determining an Appropriate Level of Teacher Support Contingent on Child's Behavior

Child Actions	Teacher Actions
Unknown or Confusion	Demonstrate
Approximation	Share the task
Partial Control	Transfer Initiative High Support Prompts
Control with Lapses	Specific praise Low Support Prompts
Control and Independent	Observe

Discussion and Conclusions

The purpose of my larger study out of which this case study came was to investigate the types and characteristics of one-on-one teaching interactions effectively scaffolding writing instruction to support ELL. However, in this case study, I zoomed in on only one aspect of the complexity of writing instruction and focused a micro lens on teaching a child strategic actions for hearing and recording sounds in words. In order to characterize the nature of instructional scaffolding, I used a case study approach (Patton, 2002) and examined the verbal and non-verbal language by applying elements of coding and categorizing from a grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) and elements of contingency from a conversational analysis approach (Sacks, 1992; Roulston, 2004). I examined one teacher's moves closely in relationship to her student's actions.

My study adds to Rodgers' (1998) description of teacher-student talk by identifying distinct types of scaffolding and interactions and extends her line of inquiry by including non-verbal language. I also provided evidence of the changes in language use along the way to self-regulation. I identified verbal and non-verbal scaffolding action:

- Demonstrating (explicit modeling of an action);
- Directing or Transferring Initiative (prompting an action);
- Affirming (confirming with specific or general praise);
- Sharing the Task (doing the action with Huron; providing a known link);
- Providing a Prop (diagram of sound boxes);
- Questioning (to prompt sequence or action, to focus attention, for preferred response, to check for understanding).

I found Shelley in the beginning demonstrated for Huron, lavished affirmation, and shared the task. Clear demonstrations preceded Huron's task production, and questioning for understanding accompanied many of them. She combined demonstrating with questioning. Perhaps linking demonstrations and questions, she increased understanding of the task and invited him to take control. When Huron erred, Shelley mended or repaired by demonstrating again or prompting Huron to try again without unhelpful rebuke. She often validated what Huron did correctly in his attempts. She adjusted her level of support in response to Huron's growing competency over time. Later in Huron's program, Shelley shifted to more non-verbal affirmation, directing or transfer of initiative. Like ice dancing partners skate in tandem to support one another, Shelley came in and out with needed support for Huron's success but allowed him to do for himself what he could. The interaction patterns I have described exemplify what Tharp and Gallimore (1988, p. 35) described as a "...steadily declining plane of adult responsibility for task performance and a reciprocal increase in the learner's proportion of responsibility." Even her body language shifted over time, from leaning in close to the child guiding the child's hand to slide across the boxes to eventually sitting back in her chair and recording notes in her lesson records as the child wrote independently.

An implication of the study directs focus on the ways in which a teacher provides support for student success and self-regulation of strategic problem solving behaviors. *Is the teacher clearly demonstrating helpful moves to problem solve? How does the teacher affirm and validate the child's responses? Does she transfer initiative to the child to take action? Does the teacher continue to demonstrate when the task becomes more complex or is out of the control of the child without support? Is the teacher questioning in such a way as to prompt the child to a productive*

move? These questions give a teacher tremendous responsibility and influence toward a child's learning.

The focus of this study targeted only one aspect of solving words in writing which was hearing and recording sounds in words. Phonemic information is extremely valuable but only a fragment of more complex activities. To foster a flexible writing process, an effective teacher engages a student in genuine conversations out of which she extends an invitation to compose meaningful messages and guides a student to solve words by applying many other useful strategic actions. For example, those actions may include building a large core of known writing vocabulary and analyzing new words through analogy. Future research and analysis might examine the nature of instructional talk in other strategic actions in the writing process. My findings are limited within this context and cannot be generalized; however, they give support to and extend previous research regarding the nature of instructional language and how it scaffolds literacy learning.

While new questions will motivate further research, this study has the potential to provide powerful theories and practices for teaching and learning. The celebration of my research and rewarding moments rests in the successes and progress of Huron. Huron produced evidence of self-regulated behaviors by an increase in the number of phonemes he recorded on a final assessment but much more importantly, by the recording of sounds in sequence of unknown words in his authentic writing and the increase in the complexity of his written stories. Appendix E displays the change over time in the complexity of his writing opportunities. As displayed in Figure 4.17 and Figure 4.18, Huron made tremendous writing progress in thirteen weeks from his first composition in August when Shelley acted as scribe to one of his compositions in November when he wrote the entire story.

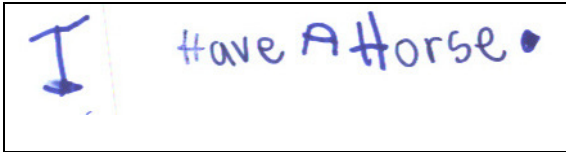


Figure 4.17. Child's first composition in his first early intervention session.

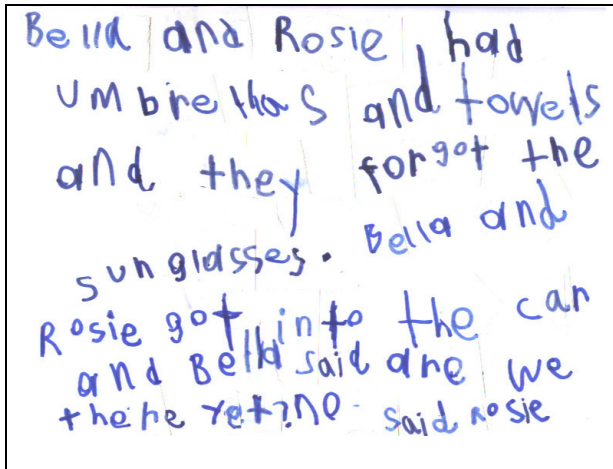


Figure 4.18. Child's composition twelve weeks later.

This study concludes effective instruction is dependent on the nature of the teacher-student language interactions. The dynamic relationship created when the teacher, student, and task come together bears similarity to this student's message displayed in Figure 4.19.

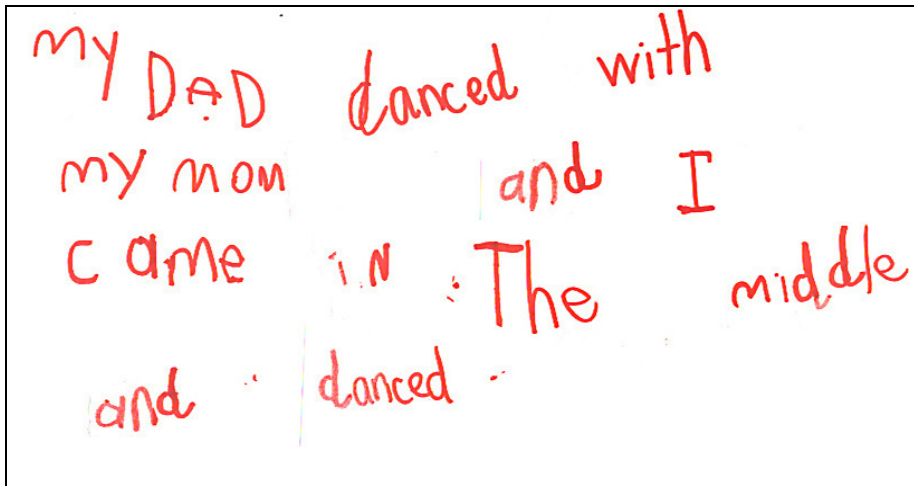


Figure 4.19. Child's composition later in the intervention.

Like this child dancing in the middle of his parents, effective teachers scaffold learning by engaging students right in the middle of the dance. *I hope all teachers dance with their students!*

Article 3: Expanding a Meager Knowledge of Words for Strategic Actions in Writing

“Forest,” Lilli mused as she stared at the word she had written. “It has *for* in it. And it has a part like *yes*. I used what I knew to figure out a new word.”

Children who control a large core of known words while engaged in reading and writing of continuous text develop a system for strategically solving unknown words by linking to their knowledge about how words work. A child’s personal writing vocabulary consists of the words she knows in every detail and produces easily and independently plus any new word she can construct correctly using existing strategic actions and knowledge (Clay, 2001). One goal of building a rich resource of writing vocabulary is to be able to solve new words by linking to the known. Yet, many children, especially English language learners (ELL) struggling to take on a reading and writing vocabulary, develop frustration. ELL face a daunting task of learning to write in a language they may only just be learning to speak and understand. When a child knows few words in speaking, reading, and writing, her islands of certainty seem lost in a sea of confusion.

Just as reading is more than saying words quickly, writing is more than writing words fluently. However, a large core of easily identified known words supports a fluent and flexible meaning driven reading and writing process (Pinnell & Fountas, 1998). Writing, like reading, encompasses communicating and understanding a meaningful message. Quickly recognizing many words helps to propel reading and writing forward so problem solving is not necessary when reading or writing every word in text. Comprehension often suffers when the child slows down to construct or decode too many words in written text. Additionally, the child’s personal

writing vocabulary allows the possibilities of extending knowledge about orthographic regularities and irregularities of the English language, word parts that can be used, and the morphemic units occurring across words.

Acquiring a writing vocabulary gives a child a resource from which she can analyze new words through analogy (Askew & Frasier, 1999). Building up a pool of known words for writing supports a child in generating resourceful networks from which she can solve unknown ones. The focus is not just memorizing words but rather learning a process for how to learn words and how to make connections from the known to the new. When children build a strong core of known words they can use those known patterns to figure out new words in reading and writing. This strategy is more efficient than phonologically recording words (sounding out letter by letter). It is about hearing and seeing bigger parts that are similar patterns.

When a child learns something new every time she writes, she expands her writing system (Clay, 2005). A self-extending system develops through growing competencies in the components of writing such as word and letter knowledge (Boocock, McNaughton, & Parr, 1998). As these components become more automatic, more attention becomes available for attending to other writing challenges, using print to express ideas and developing strategic actions. Fostering opportunities for children to talk, compose, and write continuous texts with purpose and joy sets the stage each time to learn more about how words work. Hudelson (1989) agreed second language learners' writing abilities are best developed through reading and writing whole texts that are purposeful, consistent, and provide diverse opportunities.

Askew & Frasier (2003) found, within the task of writing continuous texts with teacher assistance, students had opportunities to learn about the conventions of print; phonology and orthography of the English language; acquire a writing vocabulary; and use known words to

generate new learning. An implication from their study related to the critical role of teacher assistance. They did not analyze the type of assistance but called for further research to examine the type and amount of teacher interactions. My investigation describes how one early-intervention teacher in a one-on-one tutoring context fostered growth in her first-grade English language learner's writing vocabulary, strategic use of known words to problem solve, and self-extending writing system.

Contextualizing this Case Study

This case came from a larger study investigating effective instructional scaffolding during writing instruction with English language learners within the context of one-on-one Reading Recovery lessons. Reading Recovery lessons include thirty minutes daily of individually designed literacy lessons with the child immersed in authentic reading and writing of continuous and meaningful texts. The writing portion of a Reading Recovery lesson begins daily with genuine conversation between tutor and student. The conversations often spring from the child's personal connections linked to books read within the lesson, retellings of the stories read, shared experiences between the teacher and the child, and the child's personal life experiences. After the brief and lively conversation, the teacher invites the child to compose a message. The composition may be a negotiation between teacher and English language learning student to increase the child's opportunities to accelerate her English writing competencies and expand her English language using a variety of structures. The teacher and child co-construct the written message together. Goals of the writing instruction for the emergent writer focus on learning a variety of flexible strategic actions to record ideas and messages, developing a sense of story, expressing voice, and integrating oral language, reading and writing to orchestrate an independent and generative literacy process. While some of the methods may seem drill-like in

working toward fluency and spelling development, they are only small aspects of a larger balanced process purposefully leading to accelerated progress. Zooming in on only one aspect of a strategic writing process, I used a micro lens to describe how one effective Reading Recovery teacher supported her young student in developing a core of fluently known writing vocabulary words.

Lilli's Word Learning Journey

At the end of eighteen weeks of Reading Recovery sessions, Lilli, a first-grade English language learner, demonstrated a gain of 52 writing vocabulary words she could write fluently. Figure 4.20 shows the seven words she wrote correctly in the fall, and Figure 4.21 displays evidence of the 59 words she wrote when she exited the one-on-one tutoring program. How did Lilli's teacher, Dana, scaffold her word learning journey?

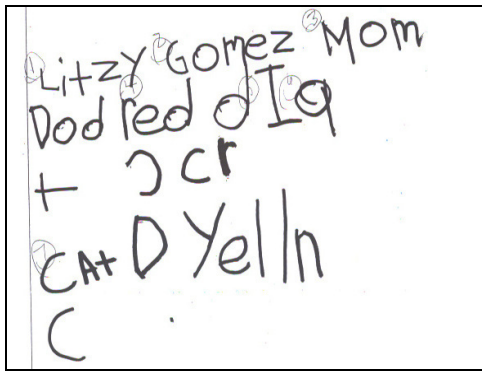


Figure 4.20. Writing vocabulary in the fall prior to tutoring sessions.

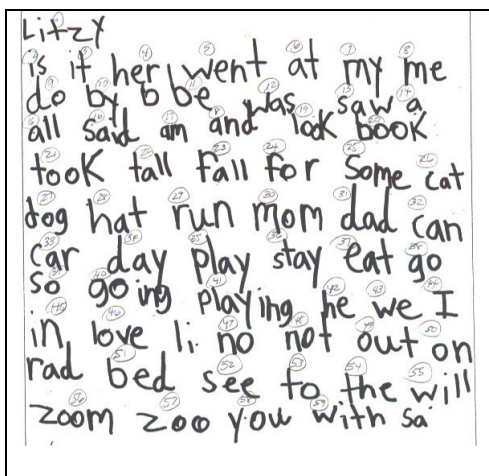


Figure 4.21. Writing vocabulary at exit of the tutoring program eighteen weeks later.

Dana and Lilli

With four years experience as a Reading Recovery teacher, Dana also serves as a primary grades literacy coach in her elementary school. Dana's average success rate with teaching English language learners in Reading Recovery in the last three years exceeded the national, state, and district averages. As a reflective teacher, she analyzes her lesson records daily to make shifts in her teaching to foster accelerated progress in her students' literacy learning. Her positive rapport with her students exemplifies thoughtful respect and genuine interest in them as individual learners. One of her core beliefs is that every child can learn if she can find the best way to teach them.

Dana shared how she tailors her instruction uniquely for an English language learner:

I try to individualize each child's lesson by pulling from his/her background experiences.

Although this is a goal for all my students, the nature and the content of my conversations are different with my ELL students. The child's proficiency of the English language and his/her literacy experiences in his/her native language greatly influence the degree to

which I integrate the child's first language. The majority of students with whom I work are Latino and from Spanish speaking homes. What little I know about the Spanish language is useful. It is challenging for teachers if they do not speak the home language of their students. If the child is considered Non-English Proficient, I incorporate more Spanish into the lesson to help him learn and understand English vocabulary. I also may give my directions in Spanish giving them a better idea of what is expected. When a student has a difficult time expressing his/her thoughts in English, I sometimes allow the child to explain to me in Spanish. After I have an understanding of what the child means, we can collaborate to create a sentence in English. At this beginning stage in a child's English language acquisition, I expose the child to the English language through books. Listening to me read books gives them an opportunity to hear and experience 'book language.' My support in a child's native language decreases with a higher degree of proficiency. Instead, I would spend more time exposing these students to vocabulary and English language structures through conversations and books. I invest more time in analyzing limited English proficient students' oral language. Introducing new vocabulary with concrete examples is also helpful.

Dana's instructional design for ELL bears similarity to points Neal (2009) and Harper and de Jong (2009) outlined to meet the challenge of working effectively with second language learners: build background for unknown concepts, vocabulary, and abstract ideas; create familiarity with English sentence structures; and obtain understanding of language, cultural differences, and second language acquisition.

Dana described Lilli, her beautiful brown-eyed six-year old Latino student, as joyfully verbal from the beginning of lessons. Lilli's English language was not always structurally correct and her English vocabulary was limited, but she never hesitated to share her ideas and thoughts. It was common practice for her to describe an item until Dana stumbled over by guessing the English word Lilli needed. At the beginning of lessons, Lilli felt more confident in composing her stories for writing using the same language structures from the books she had read. As she progressed through reading levels, her confidence grew. Consequently, she became more willing to take risks in trying out new English language structures and phrases in her speech and writing. Dana shared, "It became clear that book language had become engrained in Lilli when it started to rain one day on our way from her classroom in the building to our lesson in the trailer outside, and she said, 'Oh dear! Oh dear!' which was a phrase used by one of the characters in her favorite book in problem situations." She used a familiar book structure in her writing when she wrote *My pink car is going up and up and up and down and down and down*.

Lilli's limited English language and low item knowledge in reading and writing did not appear connected to her motivation or determination but rather just a lack of opportunities to learn how the oral and written English language worked. At the beginning of Lilli's Reading Recovery program, she used modeled and rehearsed repetitive patterns to read simple texts left to right across one line of print. She gathered meaning from pictures. She could correctly write seven words: *mom, red, I, a, cat*, and her first and last names. Lilli sometimes could hear, analyze, and record the dominant initial consonant sound when writing words.

In addition to Reading Recovery instructional support, Lilli participated in ESOL (English Speakers of Other Languages) classes. Her ESOL teacher typically taught writing by having her students respond to literature after she read the story and the class discussed the story

events. She described Lilli as a student who used the pictures to make meaning even if she did not always understand all the words of the story. The ESOL teacher stated that Lilli understood most writing assignments but needed reminders to use punctuation. She encouraged Lilli to draw pictures along with her writing.

Lilli's parents were dedicated to her success. Dana reported. "There was not a night that she did not read her books at home." Although Lilli had a new baby brother at home, her parents' invested their time in making her education a top priority. Her mother attended her school conferences and asked questions about how to better help Lilli at home. With Lilli's teacher-parent team support and her daily opportunities to share in genuine conversations and meaningful experiences reading and writing texts, she quickly progressed.

Learning How to Learn a Word

Dana made deliberate teaching decisions that increased Lilli's writing vocabulary which in turn increased her accessibility to the task of writing. Knowledge of a word emerges through multiple contacts in a variety of settings and purposes. Constructing a particular word on several occasions creates familiarity, and ultimately leads to knowing it in every detail (Clay, 1993). A glimmer of recognition may be the beginning as Lilli demonstrated in an early session when she wrote an *s* to represent the word *is*. Contact with the word *is* echoed in many contexts throughout early lessons. Lilli located *is* in her familiar reading texts, constructed *is* with magnetic letters, wrote *is* in writing, and found *is* again in new reading texts. With Dana purposefully providing encounters with known and partially known high frequency words like *is*, Lilli found what she knew in different settings and came to notice more of the visual features of those words. Dana made it clear which words she wanted Lilli to attend to in reading and writing and helped her learn a program to produce those writing vocabulary words with all the parts in the right order.

Dana selected words with high utility occurring most often in language, words needed often in writing, and words Lilli almost knew that a little more practice would bring to over-learning. The words came from Lilli's knowledge base, the books she read, and her writing compositions. The words did not come from a prescribed set of words the teacher thought the student should learn.

Children learning the English language need experiences with words in whole texts and words in isolation; words in continuous texts favors learning about word probabilities, while words in isolation favors learning about letter sequence (Clay, 2001, p. 171). The journey of learning new words for writing is more than just building up an item bank of words. Dana's goal was to teach Lilli a strategic way to learn how to learn new words. She encouraged Lilli to search for links and relationships between the new words and words she already knew. Dana directed Lilli to her reading knowledge to help her in writing and vice versa. For example, in familiar reading, Dana asked Lilli to locate *is* in several books and in several different locations within sentences and various contexts. Reciprocity does not occur spontaneously. The teacher helps the child to make connections between reading and writing and to use what she knows in reading when writing and vice versa. Therefore, reading and writing could be expressed as the commutative process in math combining to produce the result of literacy (Swick, 1996). If the processes of reading and writing are repeatedly linked or multiplied, then the probability of literacy being the product is certain.

Using magnetic letters on a whiteboard, Dana demonstrated the construction of the word *is* moving the letters into the child's visual plane left to right. Then she asked Lilli to make *is* with magnetic letters. She emphasized what letter was first and what letter was last. Moving her finger slowly under the word left to right, the teacher said the word slowly and then directed the child to do the same each time she made the word with magnetic letters. Dana told Lilli to watch

as she wrote *is* on the whiteboard with a bright blue marker. Then she asked Lilli to trace over her word. Sharing the task, Dana held Lilli's hand as they wrote *is* in large movements in the air together. Last, Dana directed Lilli to write *is* with a copy and then without a copy several times on the whiteboard. As Lilli gained control in writing *is*, Dana prompted for greater fluency saying, "Write it faster." She instructed her to remember that word because she would see it often in her reading books and it would help her in writing, too.

In Lilli's early writing and English language learning, she relied on familiar book structures to compose. Therefore, many of the high frequency words she needed in writing she had read in books. The following shows the interactions between Dana and Lilli in early writing sequences. Dana began organizing a program for learning more about how to learn words starting with a word Lilli almost controlled in reading and writing texts. In particular, examples show how Lilli firmed her control of writing *is* by Dana adjusting her level of support to match the changing competency of Lilli. Figure 4.22 displays the part in the lesson when the child hesitated writing *is* in her story and shows the teacher/student interactions on the left side and a description of the teacher's support on the right side. Dana directed Lilli to write the word *is* five times in this sequence on the practice page to take *is* to fluency. The instructional sequence repeats: child writes, teacher questions, child reads, teacher gives verbal and nonverbal general praise, and teacher directs child to write the word again which loops and restarts the journey toward fluently controlling the partially known word.

her visual memory. Dana created and anticipated opportunities for Lilli to increase in flexibility and fluency as she firmed up control of words she knew.

Date	Story Sentence Composition	Topic Source	Structure Source
8-28-08 Second writing sequence in session	Danny <u>is</u> eating all the treats.	Abstract of familiar book Teacher initiated	Text, teacher, child negotiated and child appropriated
Transcript Sequence C/T Together: Danny – T: ((<i>slight pause</i>)) C: is T: Think about what comes first. ((<i>Child writes is slowly</i>)) T: What word is that? C: is T: Write it again. ((<i>Teacher points to practice page</i>)) What word is that? <i>is</i> Write it again. What word is that? <i>is</i> Write it again. What word is that? Write it again. What word is that? Write it again. What word is that? Write it again. ((<i>Child reads it after writing each time.</i>)) T: Good, go back and read it with your finger= under the word.		My Analysis Sharing Task Transferring initiative; giving opportunity for child to take the lead Activating Prior Experience Prompting student to visualize the first letter in the word <u>is</u> Evidence fluency is not there yet Questioning to check understanding and to prompt child to read what she wrote Directing Verbally and Nonverbally Questioning to prompt child to read what she wrote Repeating sequence of practice General Verbal Praising Prompting for previously demonstrated and practiced actions / Verbally Signaling Closure of Practice Task	

Figure 4.23. Second writing event within the same day's tutoring session.

Figure 4.24 documents how Dana directed Lilli to practice writing *is* five times before writing the word in her story. Lilli demonstrated increased fluency in writing a known word. Many times ELL need positive and successful opportunities for recall, repetition, and practice while learning new language to develop an automatic response.

Date / Week TRL: Text Reading Level	Story Sentence Composition	Topic Source	Structure Source
8-29-08 1 st week of lessons TRL: 2	T: Where is Lilli? said Mom. C: Lilli <u>is</u> hiding in the table.	Familiar text; personalized	Text, teacher, child negotiated and child appropriated; shared composition
<u>Transcript Sequence</u> C/T: Together: Lilli – C: is T: Go=go=go (<i>Teacher pointed to practice page indicating for child to write it there first</i>) You know that word. (<i>Child wrote is fast</i>). T: Whoa! That was the fastest ever. (<i>smiling</i>) Go again. What word is that? Good, write it again. What word is that? Good, write it again. What word is that? Good, one more time. What word is that? Put it in your story. (<i>faster pace than yesterday; child and teacher smiling-almost laughing</i>) (<i>Child wrote and read is fast and laughed each time the teacher asked her, "What word is that?"</i>) T: Leave a nice big space. (<i>Teacher moved child's hand over a little to show her where to start the word.</i>) Good girl. Go back and read.		<u>My Analysis</u> Sharing and Transferring initiative Prompting for Fast Response Verbally and Nonverbally Directing Activating Prior Knowledge Specific Verbal Praising (Nonverbal Affirming) Verbally Directing Questioning General Verbal Praising (Repeating practice sequence) Sharing affirmation of task success nonverbally Warm positive affect with shared humor Verbally Signaling Closure of Practice Task General Verbal Praising	

Figure 4.24. An excerpt from the next day's writing lesson.

Figure 4.25 shows how Dana called for fast responding now that Lilli almost controls is without lapse. In this sequence, she directs her to practice writing *is* fast three times before writing it in her story.

Date TRL: Text Reading Level	Story Sentence Composition	Topic Source	Structure Source
8-29-08 Second sequence of writing	Here <u>is</u> the princess said Lilli.	Familiar book and connected personal experience	Text and teacher
<u>Transcript Sequence</u> C: Here is T: Write it quick ((Teacher points to practice page)) quick go What word is that? Write it again. Quick. What word is that? Write it again. Quick. Good. T: Put it in your story. That's looks like a good space. All right go back and read.		<u>My Analysis</u> <i>Child rereading independently</i> Verbally Directing for Fluency Nonverbally Directing Questioning to check understanding and to prompt child to read what she wrote Repeating practice sequence General and Specific Verbal Praising Transferring initiative for next action Specific Verbal Directing and Praising Verbally signaling closure of practice task	

Figure 4.25. Second event of writing during the same day's session.

Dana shifted her focus and language scaffold in response to Lilli's competencies. One week later when Lilli wrote a known word slowly, Dana directed child to write the word fast four times in this sequence. Her insistence for fluency on the known remained consistent as seen in Figure 4.26.

Date / Week /Lesson TRL: Text Reading Level	Story Sentence Composition	Topic Source	Structure Source
9-08-08 4/15 TRL: 3	<u>Look</u> at Lilli. The big hole <u>is</u> there.	Personalization from familiar text Teacher initiated	Text, teacher, child
<u>Transcript Sequence</u> T: Look. Remember how to do it? Practice fast. <i>((teacher points to practice page; child writes it slowly))</i> T: What word? C: Look T: Was that fast or slow? C: slow T: Oh, I bet you can go faster. Go <i>((Child writes it a little faster.))</i> T: What word? C: look T: Was that fast or slow? <i>((child shakes her head))</i> It was fast. Go again. look T: What word? <i>((child writes a little faster))</i> C: look T: Go again <i>((child wrote fluently))</i> C: look <i>((child read without prompt))</i>		<u>My Analysis</u> Questioning to activate prior knowledge Verbally directing for fluency Questioning to prompt child to read what she wrote Questioning to call child to self-evaluate Verbally setting expectation Questioning to prompt child to read what she wrote Questioning to call child to self-evaluate Affirming Verbally Verbally Directing Questioning to prompt child to read what she wrote Verbally Directing Evidence of independent action	

Figure 4.26. One week later: teacher scaffolding fluent control of *look*.

Figure 4.27 documents how Dana's consistent and persistent instructional language lead to Lilli's fluent control of writing the word *is*.

<u>Transcript Sequence</u>	<u>My Analysis</u>
C: Here is	Verbally Directing and Calling for Fluency Nonverbally Directing
T: oh write it fast here oh go g <i>((points to practice page for child to practice writing is which is a word she has practiced before and trying to get fluent))</i>	
Child writes is.	
T: What word is that?	Questioning to prompt child to read what she wrote
C: is	Verbally Directing and Calling for Fluency
T: Write it again fast.	
T: What word is that?	
C: is	Questioning to prompt child to read what she wrote
T: Write it again fast.	Verbally Directing and Calling for Fluency
T: What word is that?	Questioning to prompt child to read what she wrote
C: is	
T: One more time. <i>((child's writing is fluent and quick))</i>	
T: What word is that?	Questioning to prompt child to read what she wrote
C: is	General Verbal Praising
T: Good	
<i>((Teacher directed child to write the word fast four times.))</i>	

Figure 4.27. Teacher scaffolding fluent control of the word *is*.

Dana observed a lack of fluency with writing *look* and adjusted her level of support as documented in Figure 4.28. She validated what was specifically going well and supported what was not yet fluent. She stayed tenacious in supporting automaticity and fluency with known

Later in the same lesson sequence, the child wrote *is* fluently and automatically which showed evidence of control without any teacher support. The teacher fostered independence by remaining neutral and not interrupting the child's process.

C: Look mom said Lilli. Oh no said mom. ((*child rereading while pointing to words; teacher observing neutrally*)) Here is ((*writes word is on her paper quickly and rereads gathering meaning for next word*)). Here is a

When Dana believed Lilli was flexible with forming the letters in sequence for the word *look* and could read it in several contexts, then she started calling for fluency in reading and writing. Dana demonstrated what fast looked like when writing the word *look*. Each time Dana asked Lilli to write *look*, she asked her to evaluate if she was slow or fast sending Lilli the message that what she knew she had to do quickly.

In four familiar readings the next day, Dana asked the child many times to locate the word *look* in text and after reading asked her to write it with increasing fluency. "What word is that? You have to know it every single time." And "Find the word *look*. What word is that? Read it fast." Clay (2005) stated, "Children have to know that reading and writing contribute to each other" (p. 54). The expert teacher helps the child dig the ditches connecting both pools of knowledge. Dana planned to have the high frequency words Lilli almost knew echo throughout her reading and writing both in and out of context. Clay (2005) discussed the importance of learning being revised in several activities to give children flexible vantage points. For example, both forms of *Look/look*, one starting with a capital and one starting with a lowercase, were located in different places within sentences and contexts in all the familiar books the child read

that day. Dana set up opportunities for Lilli to work with her known words in reading and writing; with magnetic letters; write it with her finger on the table, the carpet, and the wall; and find known words in wall posters on the way to and from her lessons. O’Leary (2009) stated, “Designing instruction that accesses multiple ways of learning increases the likelihood that students will understand and remember” (p. 127). It engages more than one memory system and builds connecting networks in the brain.

Other words took similar journeys from teacher control to student control; however, repetitions decreased as the child accelerated her own program for learning a word. Effective teaching involves restraint in collaboration and assistance. Making judgments about when assistance is appropriate and when restraint is wise require careful assessments that come about through careful observation and analysis (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). To foster independent strategic activity in learning how to learn a word, Dana adjusted her support contingent on the degree of control and fluency the child demonstrated. Evidence of her shifting her scale of help can be seen in the following excerpt from the next week’s writing when less repetition was needed and the teacher specifically verbalized the expectation of fluency on known words. Dana’s language consistently set the expectation that Lilli write what she knew quickly.

9/22/09

T: Now listen; today you have a new job. Today, the easy words you have to write quickly
ok? And when you finish writing, what do you do to figure out what the next word is? Go
back and=

C: =try=

T: =Read it again. So your job is to do that quickly today. Ok. My car is going up and up. *My*
is one you can write so you can write it quickly.

C: my *((writes it at medium pace on the practice page))*

T: Write it faster *((covers previously written word))*

C: *((child writes faster))*

T: What word is that?

C: my

T: Write it one more time for me. *((covering words after written))* Ok, that's a word you know so your job is to write it quickly. Go.

C: *((Child writes my again faster))*

The following transcript excerpts document the child's independent control of known words in writing in subsequent writing sequences observed.

9/22/08

C: my car is *((writes the word is fluently and rereads to gather meaning to predict the next word to write))* My pink car is going up and up and down and down.

9/24/09

C: *((begins to read again from the beginning of sentence while pointing her finger on each word))* Look at Nicole. Nicole is *((she writes is quickly without hesitation))*

In the next series of compositions, the words underlined indicate the words and letters the child wrote independently and the italicized words indicate the ones solved by using sound boxes. The unmarked letters and words represent those that the teacher wrote in herself deeming them either not powerful teaching opportunities on that day to foster a strategic process or out of

reach for the child at that time. The following three compositions document an increase in controlled writing vocabulary.

9-08-08

Look at Lilli. Here is the *big hole*.

9-10-08

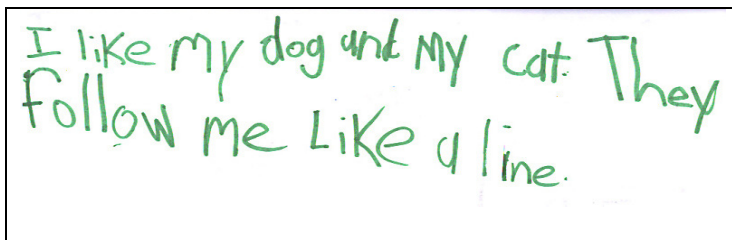
Look mom, said Lilli. Oh no, said mom. Here is a band-aid.

9-22-08

My pink car is going up and up and up and down and down and down.

Gradients of Word Knowledge

Word knowledge takes place on a continuum (O'Leary, 2009). Gradients in word knowledge range from not knowing the word to being able to define it in all contexts. Each time Lilli had opportunities in context to use known or partially known words, she added to her knowledge of that word and its meaning in relation to other words. An example of her layering more meaning around the word *like* occurred one day when she composed and wrote the sentence displayed in Figure 4.29.



I like my dog and my cat. They follow me like a line.

Figure 4.29. I like my dog and my cat. They follow me like a line.

Lilli knew the meaning and spelling of the word *like* in the first sentence's context and wrote it fluently without hesitation. However, she stopped and appealed to Dana to write *like* in the second sentence. Her query puzzled Dana. She told Lilli, "You know that word." To which, Lilli replied, "No, I don't." Then Dana realized *like* held a different meaning in the second sentence, and Lilli must be thinking it could not look the same as the *like* she knew. This powerful opportunity in writing allowed Lilli to increase her flexibility in knowing a word and to learn more about how words work. For the English language learner, this way of knowing words increases success in language learning, concept development, and invigorates academic achievement.

Learning How to Use Known Words Strategically to Problem Solve

Clay (2001) stated, "The power to construct or generate unknown words comes from having a personal writing vocabulary" (p.25). An increasing core of known words provided a bank of words from which Lilli could also make analogies to solve new words. Constructive learners search for patterns and build on the familiar (Fried, 1998).

Dana provided a series of scaffolds to teach Lilli about using patterns in well-known words to solve new words she wanted to write. She adjusted her level of support to foster Lilli's independent use of the strategic action of using a known to solve something new. By adjusting her scale of help, she differentiated instruction and individualized instruction for Lilli. Figure 4.30 depicts the word work conducted on a practice page by Lilli with Dana's support. Figure 4.31 shows Lilli's written composition, *I sleep good and I feel good*. To solve the word *sleep* Lilli asked for sound boxes which Dana drew on the practice page. Lilli said the word slowly and recorded *s, l, e, p* in sequence. Next, Dana provided a verbal and visual scaffold to help Lilli make the link from something she knew to solve the word *sleep*. Dana said, "That word works

like a word you know, *see*.” She wrote *see* above the box with the *e* in it. Lilli responded, “I need another *e* in that box,” which she then recorded. Dana helped her make a link between what she could hear and what she could see in these words.

Lilli wrote the *g* in the word *good*. Then Lilli asked for help with writing the rest. Dana reduced her level of support slightly this time by providing a specific verbal prompt but not a visual support. She told Lilli the word she knew that would help her write *good*. She offered the prompt, “That word works like a word you know, *look*.” Accessing her visual memory of a known word, Lilli replied, “Oh, it has two *o*’s in the middle.” Lilli recorded the rest of the word correctly.

As Lilli prepared to write the word *feel*, Dana reduced her scaffold even more by giving Lilli only a general verbal prompt. She said, “That word works like another word you know.” Lilli replied, “I think it looks like *see* and *sleep*.” She wrote *feel* in her story. Dana expressed her expectation for Lilli to use a linking strategy in the future, “Always think about what you know when you come to a word you don’t know. Think, what do I know that can help me? That’s your job, and it will help you in reading and writing.” Specifically telling the child why this strategy is useful lets the child in on purpose and goal of the problem solving action. Building for transfer from teacher controlled to student controlled changes the instructional interactions from simply assisting the child to solve these specific words at that moment to teaching the child a strategic action that will work in other contexts as well. This finding resonates with Cazden’s (1992) concern about the kind of assistance teachers offered students. Is it the kind of assistance helping children solve the immediate problem or the kind of scaffold helping children solve similar problems in the future? Dana’s support intended to improve Lilli’s understanding of the process and co-construct a generative process for future writing work.

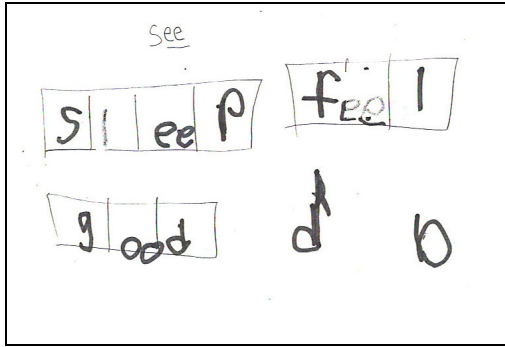


Figure 4.30. Work recorded on the practice page.

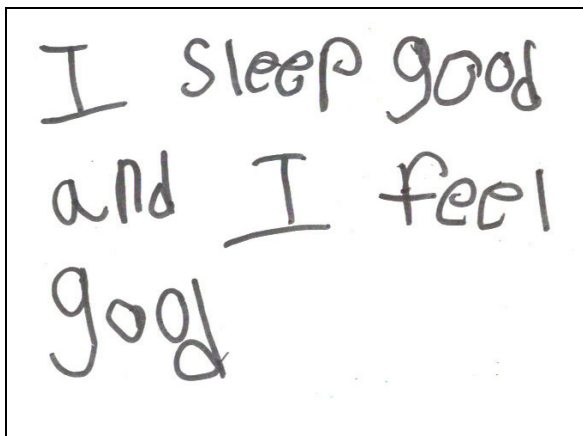


Figure 4.31. Lilli's written composition.

In the writing portion of this lesson, Lilli had the opportunity to produce known words (*I*, *and*), use known words to get to new words through analogy, learn more about orthography, and construct new words by analyzing sounds and thinking about what would look right. Her ability to tackle a new word by relating it to a known word was a new accomplishment that would support her problem solving in reading and writing. Like the familiar proverb, the teacher did not give the child a fish; rather she taught the child how to fish.

The goal is for the child to initiate strategic action independently. She needs to not only learn strategies, but must also be guided to make decisions about when to apply these strategies.

Ultimately, she will need to be thinking through these options independently:

- Is this a word I know?
- What do I hear? How will I write it?
- Is there a part or a word I know that could help?

In order to foster this thinking, teachers must adjust their support and language. Figure 4.32 provides specific examples of high support to low support prompts.

High Support - “You know the word “play.” Teacher writes it.	
↓	“You know the word “play.”
	“Think about what you know that could help.”
	“What could you do to help yourself?”
Low Support - “Teacher stays out. Child writes known word.”	
<hr/>	
High Support - “/S/ /S/ /stick/ What letter makes that sound at the beginning?”	
	“Say it slowly, you know that first sound.”
↓	“Say it slowly and think how you could write that first part.”
	“What could you do to help yourself?”
Low Support - “Teacher stays out. Child works through the word.	
<hr/>	
High Support - “That is like <i>look</i> that you know.”	
↓	“Say <i>shook</i> . You know a word that sounds like that.”
	“Do you know a word that sounds like that?”
	“What could you do to help yourself?”
Low Support - Teacher stays out. Child writes <i>sh</i> then <i>ook</i> .	

Figure 4.32. Specific examples of high support to low support prompts.

Putting It All Together

Not only does daily writing serve academic purposes for English language learners but it also provides opportunities for ownership by generating personal sentence topics (Zeno, 1998). Furthermore, children who have frequent purposeful opportunities to write their own continuous texts learn more about how words work each time they write. Early attention to helping a child build a large core of known writing vocabulary lays the foundation for a strong self-extending writing process. Carefully planned demonstrations and adjusting levels of support will allow a child to initiate action for herself and acquire new learning, becoming more independent and efficient at solving words on the run while writing. Clay (2001) stated, “The teaching has to provide a gradient of difficulty in the tasks such that learners have many new opportunities to try to work at higher levels of complexity” (p. 19). Teaching and learning work in concert so teaching decisions based on the increasing competencies of the child strengthen the learning.

Persistent, consistent, and insistent characterize Dana’s instructional language throughout Lilli’s series of one-on-one writing lessons. Through sensitive observation, she captured, validated, and built on Lilli’s islands of certainty including her item knowledge of letters and words and strategic actions. Dana demonstrated, shared, and guided tasks visually, verbally, nonverbally, and with movement to anchor the strategic process of learning how to learn a word within Lilli’s control. She adjusted her level of support even transitioning her physical proximity. In the beginning, Dana leaned in close to Lilli facing her and warmly smiling as they talked and co-constructed words. She often gently guided Lilli’s hand as she practiced a new letter or word. However, over time as Lilli gained greater control and confidence, Dana sat further back in her chair, made notes in her lesson records, and glanced up to observe Lilli independently writing what she knew how to write.

Dana's instructional language set the expectation that learning a new word served a purpose and sent a message of accountability to Lilli. With many opportunities to use known and new words in written text, Lilli stayed anchored in meaning. "The moment of truth is the moment of input...How well you access it depends on how well you stored it in the first place. How do you become more savvy about the way you remember things? Have a good system" (Squires, 1996, cited in Clay, 2005. p. 102). Dana scaffolded new items linking to Lilli's known which made it easier for her to initiate, access, and master a strategic system of learning useful and meaningful words to record her stories. She taught Lilli "how to" solve by building on her own personal corpus of knowledge rather than only assisting her in solving new words. Clay (2001) stated "...teach children how to do things so that they will forever extend their own competencies" (p. 24). She emphasized individual learners take different paths to common outcomes. What works for one child may not work for another as each is a unique, complex cultural social being. Teachers need to remain tentative and flexible in their understandings.

Dana's main focus remained on reading and writing for meaning as she integrated brief conversational exchanges about the sense of story as well as prompts for activating meaning. However, she wove in many opportunities to increase fluency with visual information on known words as well. Learning more about words in context builds relational meanings for words which is even more critical for English language learning students to increase conceptual understandings. Reading and writing are complex processes. Word knowledge alone is insufficient for understanding text. However, focusing on meaning, use, and forms of known writing vocabulary in the context of actual reading and writing texts and not isolated skills builds layers of the invisible meaning ELLs need in their developing increasing control of English language and words.

As Lilli's proficiency increased, she quickly accessed the information she needed to write unknown words. Toward the end of her lesson series, she wrote stories that were several sentences in length, often working without sound boxes. She tried words independently on her practice page and if they did not look right, she produced an alternate spelling to evaluate if it looked right. Supported by her expanded writing vocabulary, she demonstrated flexibility in her approaches linking what she knew to the unknown.

Lilli extended her writing competencies with the support of an insistent, consistent, and persistent expert teacher. Her learning how to write or spell particular words in English benefitted her in two ways: (1) Her known words could be used to analyze new words through analogy. (2) Learning to fluently write frequently used words freed her to attend to other more challenging parts of the writing process. Automatic learning provides context for new learning.

The frequency principle applies in both reading and writing so one supports the other. Controlling a large core of writing vocabulary words and being able to write those quickly allowed Lilli to increase the fluency with which she recorded her messages in writing. A growing core of known words freed her up to increase the complexity of her written stories and to work on learning other strategic ways of solving new words. Her writing itself bears the proof. Figure 4.33 displays the first sentence Lilli wrote in her lessons with Dana. Lilli copied the text structure from a book Dana had read to her and wrote the letters she controlled: *r* in *Here*, *s* in *is*, *m* in *my*, and *h*, *s* in *house*. Dana acted as scribe for all else in Lilli's sentence. Figure 4.34 illustrates a birthday story Lilli wrote during the seventeenth week of her tutoring sessions with Dana. Lilli, the independent and confident writer, needed little assistance from Dana. Her story tells of her birthday celebration, but it is also the celebration of a writer!

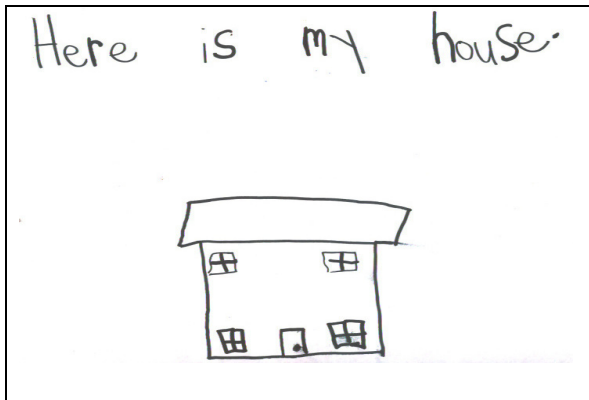


Figure 4.33. Here is my house.

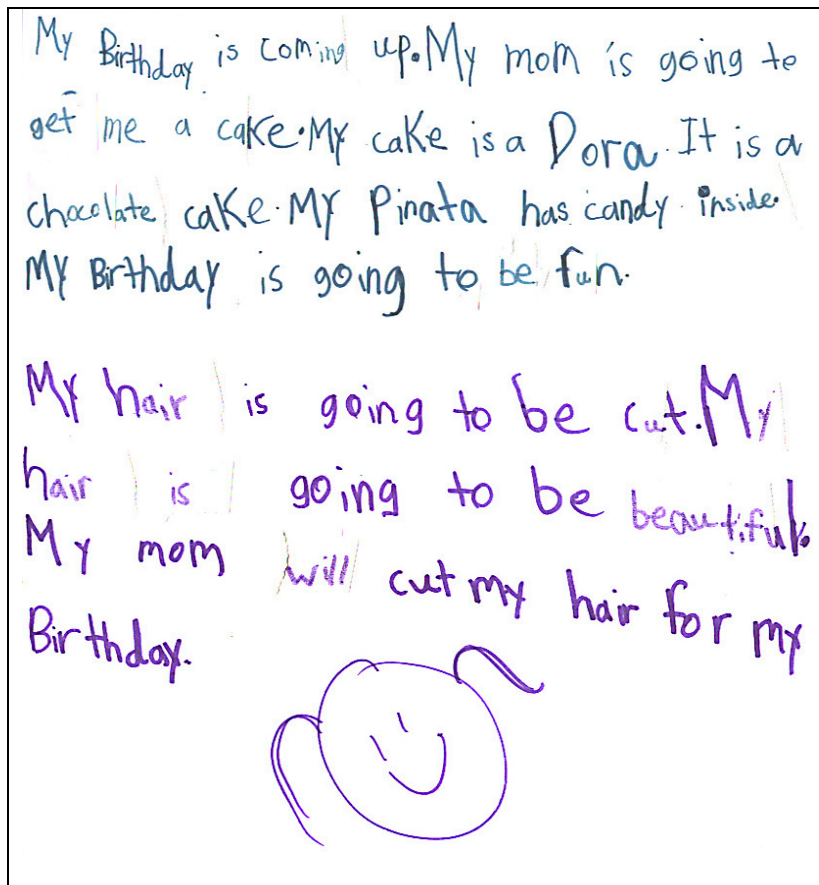


Figure 4.34. My birthday.

Article 4: Scaffolding Progress in One Student's English Language Learning and Writing Development

“Getting a conversation going and getting a story to write from my English language learners is so frustrating. I feel like I am the one generating the story for them. How do I get my English language learning students to talk to me and compose a sentence with meaning?”

Many teachers share the frustration of this teacher in engaging their English language learning students to talk and then compose a story to write. Clay (1991) encourages teachers to “foster oral language development, create opportunities for them to talk, and then talk with them (not at them) (p. 60). Communication, expression, participation, and context: each story that is read or written shares these aspects of language. Effective teachers connect with students, develop a shared culture, and get inside the child’s frame of reference as a way to guide inquiry. Clay (1991) says teachers must be strong minded about talking with a child with whom it is difficult to hold a conversation. The reaction should be to create more opportunities to talk. We do a disservice to children when we talk for them. Think of it as like playing ball: a collaborative process.

One of the components of a Reading Recovery lesson is the conversation that leads the child to compose and write a message. Together, the teacher and child talk to generate a story the child will write with the support of the teacher. Clay (1998) argued, “The very foundation of literacy learning lies in the language the child has already constructed” (p.2). The power of a genuine and natural conversation between teacher and student facilitates English language development, composing, and supports the writing process. However, young children learning English often hesitate to talk. The following story provides an example of a teacher working

diligently to guide conversations and encourage more talk from her English language learning student.

The Story of Dana and Jon: Talking and Composing Expanding Language and Writing Competencies

Dana, a highly successful and reflective early literacy intervention tutor and literacy coach, described her first-grade Latino student, Jon:

Jon displayed several common characteristics of a limited English speaker and limited Spanish speaker. Until he felt comfortable and secure, he was tentative to speak at all. He often answered my questions with a shake or nod of his head. Repeating my sentences was common. His Spanish speaking parents did not speak English; however, I never heard him speak Spanish with his friends or family. He rarely asked what a word meant. My first lesson with Jon is still very clear. His conversations with me were very limited, but his smile was contagious. Most of his one or two word responses were followed with a little ‘hee...hee...hee’ giggle. As he sorted magnetic letters, he made a corky ‘beep... beep... beep’ sound. I realized quickly if I made reading and writing entertaining, he would put forth a greater effort. He didn’t stay quiet for long. Slowly the length of his sentences grew and became more varied in our conversations and his compositions. His stories changed from being modeled after book sentence structures to personal elaborate stories using his own words.

Ironically, my first experience with Jon did not come during the administration of the Observational Survey at the beginning of first grade but instead through conversations with his very frustrated kindergarten teacher the year before. She had sought some advice on how to better help a child who was having trouble learning and remembering words

and letters. Despite the fact that learning was challenging for Jon in kindergarten, he absolutely adored his teacher. He was so proud the first time that he went back to show her that he could read. Every day following, he requested a quick stop to Ms. Almond to show off his reading and writing skills. We eventually had to write letters to schedule his reading showcase. Nothing beats a smile of success!

Upon entry to Reading Recovery, Jon was able to use an introduced repetitive pattern in very simple one-lined text along with picture support to read for meaning. He controlled book handling skills such as turning pages from front to back and identified the top left of a page of print as the place to start reading. Jon wrote from left to right across a line. He demonstrated he could write his first and last name and the word *NO*. He demonstrated early he could say words slowly after Dana demonstrated. He could name and write eleven alphabet letters without Dana providing a model. Jon used isolated phrases and fragmented or very simple sentences in English as illustrated in the following transcript sequence. His words and animated gestures communicated his ideas and feelings; however, the phrases he used often omitted nouns or verbs with errors in articles, verb endings, and pronouns.

C: My ball, my ball.

T: Yes, that's right. That's what Gabby said, didn't she?

C: My ball.

T: And then in our lunch story what did you say that you wanted to have? *((teacher puts book page in front of child and child points to the picture of cookie))*

C: *((child points to picture))* Cookie, my cookie.

On the initial Observation Survey (Clay, 2002) assessment, Jon demonstrated his writing vocabulary consisted of his first and last names and the word *No*. Jon needed many prompts to say words slowly on the Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words subtask. Out of thirty-seven phonemes in this task, he analyzed and correctly recorded the /s/.

In early lessons in September, his Reading Recovery teacher, Dana, and an English language learning first-grader, Jon, shared the writing of: *Jon is the winner*. The composing and writing of this simple sentence required high levels of support from the teacher. Twelve weeks later on December 1, after a brief conversation with the teacher, the student composed and wrote two much more complex sentences with a high degree of independence: *I am moving on the thirteenth day. Ms. Hilaski is going to cry when I move*. In this article, I discuss my analytical approach and the types and characteristics of the teacher's instructional language that I believe fostered this student's growth and progress in oral language and writing development.

I applied a conversation analysis approach to examine interactions during writing instruction in a one-on-one tutoring context in order to create unique insights into my investigation of how one teacher scaffolded instructional language both verbal and non-verbal to accommodate for an English language learner. Roulston (2004) outlined a variety of analytic procedures for conversation analysis. She suggested Pomerantz and Fehr's (1997) analytic procedures:

1. Select a sequence.
2. Characterize the actions in the sequence.
3. Consider how the speakers' packaging of actions, including their selection of reference terms, provides for certain understandings of the actions performed and the matters talked about. Consider the options for the recipient that are set up by that packaging.

4. Consider how the timing and taking of turns provide for certain understandings of the actions and the matters talked about.
5. Consider the ways the actions were accomplished to implicate certain identities, roles, and/or relationships for the interactants.

Step 1: Zooming In: Selecting a Sequence for Conversation Analysis

Context influences what we believe we see and know (Franzak, 2006). Istavan Banyai's picture book *Zoom* (1995) begins with a large view and progressively zooms in thirty pages later to a small dot. By zooming in and out, the reader comes to understand that phenomena are framed by deeper and wider social, cultural, and historical contexts. Using *Zoom* as an analogy, I focused on one teacher and her English language learner to investigate the characteristics of the teacher-student interactions specifically within the context of the writing component of individual Reading Recovery lessons (Clay, 2005).

Developed by Dame Marie Clay (1979), Reading Recovery is a short term early literacy intervention for first graders struggling with reading and writing. This one-on-one tutoring intervention aligns with two of Vygotsky's (1987) primary theories: the role of assisted performance in learning and the function language plays in the process. A specially trained teacher sets up learning opportunities within purposeful settings with real life talking, reading, and writing tasks.

Three distinct events constitute the framework of Reading Recovery lessons as illustrated in Figure 4.35.

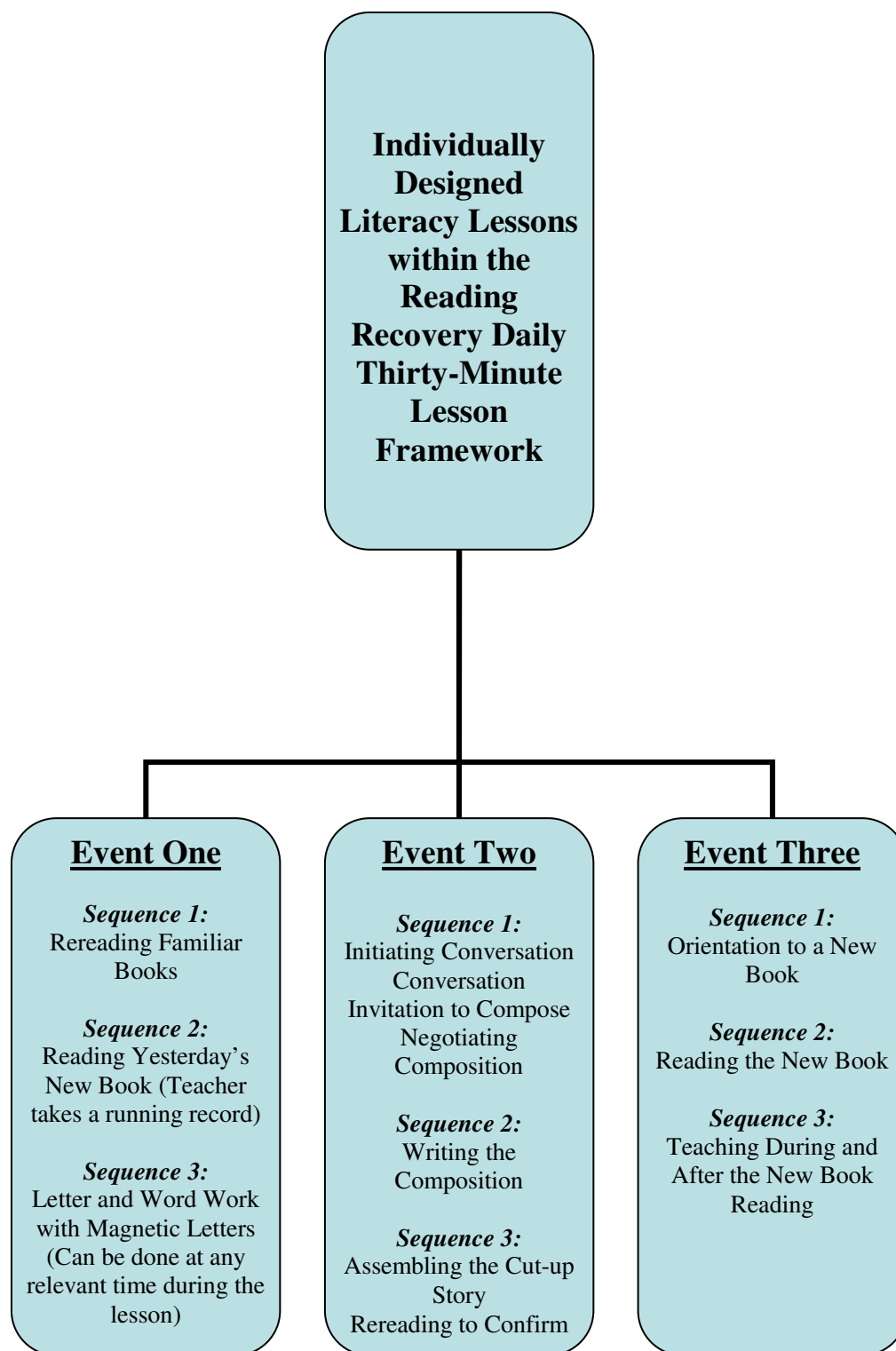


Figure 4.35. The framework of a Reading Recovery lesson.

Event one consists of ten minutes for rereading two to three familiar books, studying letters and words using magnetic letters, and independently reading the last lesson's new book. Event two transitions into ten minutes for a brief conversation for composing, writing the composed story, and reassembling the cut-up story. Event three concludes with reading a new book. I observed and recorded event two during the conversation, composing, and writing as shown in Figure 4.36. I zoomed in selecting the opening sequence of event two between one Reading Recovery teacher and her English language learning student for the purpose of this article. More specifically, the typical first sequence within the writing event consists of the initiation of a topic for conversation, the conversation, invitation to compose, and the negotiation or co-construction of the composition. Schegloff (2007) defined a sequence as "the vehicle for getting some activity accomplished" (p. 2). Within a sequence and through a co-produced stretch of talk, "some course of action gets initiated, worked through, and brought to closure" (p. 3).

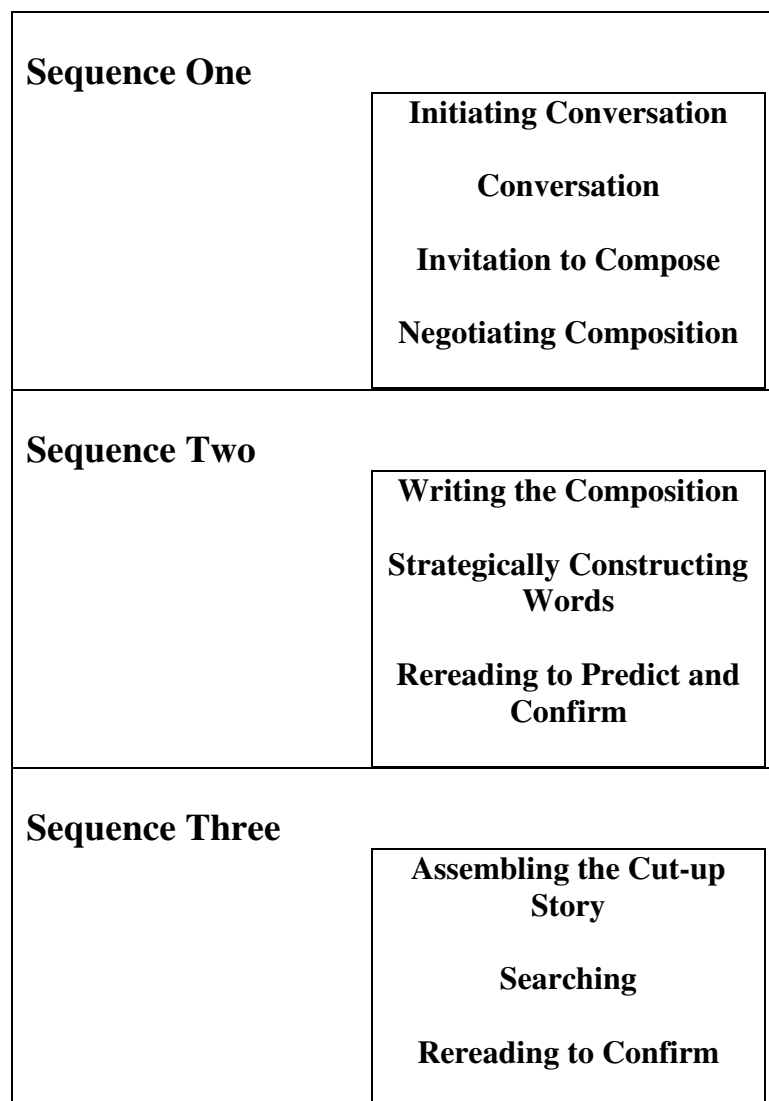


Figure 4.36. Event two map: the writing component in a Reading Recovery lesson.

Within each sequence are conversation actions consisting of adjacency pairs and turn-taking moves by teacher and student. The transcription of the conversational interactions between teacher and student detail these talk cycles and moves. Roulston (2004) discussed the importance of transcriptions that detail the relevant features of the conversation that match the analytic method and audience expectations.

Jefferson (1989) developed the original conversation analysis (CA) transcription conventions. Most researchers modify them in variant forms (ten Have, 2007). I adapted the following CA transcription conventions from Roulston (2004), Liddicoat (2007), and ten Have (2007).

CA Transcription Conventions

[]	Overlapping talk
CAPITALS	Louder than surrounding talk
softly	Softer than surrounding talk
Heh heh	Laughter
(.)	Small untimed pause
(3.0)	Timed pause in seconds
()	Words spoken, not audible
(best guess)	Unclear utterances
T	Teacher
C	Child
((<i>Italics</i>))	Transcriber's description of Nonverbal communication
::	Saying the word slowly; Prolonged sound
?	Interrogative intonation
<u>Underline</u>	Emphasis or stressed word
=	No space between utterances ("latching")

Step 2: Characterize the actions in the sequence.

Figure 4.37 displays the applied CA conventions in the left column and the characterization of the actions in the right column.

Transcription 9/4/08 Teacher B: Child 2 Writing Component of a RR Lesson Start time: 1:37 p.m.	Coding and Categorization of the Characterizations of the Actions
1 T: We read about your go carts today. You like the yellow one? = <u>Ooooo.</u>	Initiation Teacher initiating topic for conversation referencing the book, <u>The go-carts</u> . Teacher's first question expects a certain response of confirmation on a shared conversation earlier after reading the book when the child said the yellow car was his favorite. (See sample of text structure from <u>The go-carts</u> in Figure 4.38).
2 <i>((Teacher nodding head slightly up and down))</i>	Initiation - Questioning expecting a response (partially open with some boundaries); teacher inviting child to join the conversation; attempt at personalization; invitation to reformulate earlier talk into a story
3 T: So what could we say about you (.) in your yellow cart?	Wait time: (assumption: teacher expecting child to respond)
4 (3.0)	Teacher demonstrating how conversation happens in the teacher's culture
5 <i>((Teacher turns her body to face child directing eye gaze perhaps to make eye contact))</i>	Student not making eye contact with adult during conversation
6 <i>((Student looking up and in front glancing at the teacher but not directly turned toward teacher; sitting up and back in chair running hands back and forth across the table))</i>	One word response; preferred response
7 C: <u>Winning.</u>	Reformulating and confirming in the form of a question calling for preferred response Initiation questioning /probing further
8 T: You want to talk about how you won the race? =And who was in the race?	
9 <i>(Teacher nodding and leaning in to child to try to make eye contact)</i>	
10 C: mm::om and dad	Short response telling who
11 T: Mom and dad=Ok, so tell me about Jon and mom and dad.	Evaluation - Accepting - Repeating open-ended invitation; trouble source

12	C: Ummmm	Placeholder while thinking
13	T: What happened?	Initiation - Repair initiation with new question calling for an action component or preferred response
14	C: Jon win?	Repair outcome; preferred response with subject and action; 3 rd person like the story read
15	<i>(Child looks at teacher)</i>	Perhaps signaling the need for more clarification or confirmation
16	T: Win what?	Initiation – Questioning /accepting and calling for object of action; preferred response; elaboration
17	C: Prize.	Preferred response; one word response
18	T: You won a prize?=((excitedly))	Evaluation – Questioning /confirming and reformulating
19	T: =Ah!=	Utterance of understanding; affirming
20	T: =And how did you win the prize?	Initiation – Questioning /calling for preferred response Building on child's response
21	C: <u>Racing</u> .	Preferred response; one word response stating action
22	T: You went racing=	Evaluation - Reformulating
23	T: =Ok.=	Evaluation - Affirming
24	T: =So how could we say about that you won the prize?	Initiation - New Questioning Expecting a certain response; directing student to reformulate in a narrative style
25	C: Jon is... (2.0) first (.) place.	Preferred response formulated in sentence form.
26	T: Jon is <u>first</u> place?= 	Evaluation - Repeating to confirm, affirm; acceptance
27	T: = <u>Boy</u> , I <u>like</u> that story.=	Evaluation – Assessing /Affirming in an “I like...” format.
28	T: =And then what happened when you got first place?	Initiation – Questioning /calling for elaboration
29	<i>(Child throws his hands and arms up in the air in victory stance.)</i>	Gesturing action for demonstrating victory understanding the actions of winning

30	C: Jon is the winner! ↑((voice goes up in higher register))	Response in preference structure
31	T: Ok. ((Teacher makes a big smile))	Evaluation – Assessing /Affirming (verbal and nonverbal)
32	T: Jon is <u>first</u> place.	Evaluation - Repeating child's earlier formulation
33	(Teacher gives child the marker bucket to select his marker.)	Indicating conversation for composing has ended and now it is time to write.
End time: 1:38.05		

Figure 4.37. Transcription of selected conversational sequence.

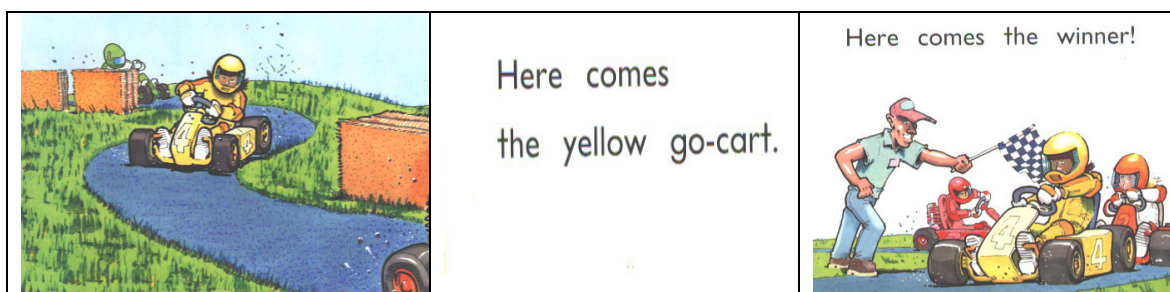


Figure 4.38. Sample pages from The go-carts (Randell, Giles, & Smith, 1996).

Step 3: Consider how the speakers' packaging of actions, including their selection of reference terms, provides for understanding of the actions performed and the matters talked about.

Consider the options for the recipients that are set up by that packaging.

In the conversational sequence, the teacher referencing a familiar book and previous conversation artfully packaged a series of questions expecting and producing responses containing components of personal experience stories needed to compose for story writing. Labov and Waletzky (1967) identified sequences and structural components of personal experience stories that occurred across stories gathered in their research:

- An abstract (summary of the story)
- Orientation (time, place, characters, situation)
- Complicating action (event sequence, plot, turning point)
- Evaluation (narrator comments on meaning and emotion)
- Coda (ending)

The teacher's preferred response questions included narrative elements identified in Labov and Waletzky's study. For example:

- Line 3: What could we say about you...? (abstract)
- Line 8: Who was in the race? (orientation)
- Line 13: What happened? (complicating action)
- Line 16: Win what? (coda)
- Line 20: And how...? (complicating action)
- Line 24: So how could we say that...? (abstract)

After Jon produced a clear statement, Dana captured it and asked him to write it. Clay (1991) stated, “Our efforts should never make him reluctant to offer up his ungrammatical but expressive attempts to construct sentences. As a teacher talks with a child he revises and refines his language, experimenting making funny errors but gaining all the while in control over the expressiveness and the complexity of the language” (p. 69). The teacher’s scaffolding of information within conversational interaction allows for construction of knowledge. Van Bramer’s (2003) study showed that the discourse genre used by the teacher influenced the type and amount of oral response from the child.

Through this instructional conversational process, Dana began to teach Jon how to tell and compose a narrative story. Clay (2005) stated that learning how to tell a story produces a giant leap forward for prospective young readers and writers. Not only does the art of telling a story support academic purposes, but it also provides a framework for a child to record his own voice of personal ideas and stories.

Another interesting observation of packaging involved how Dana repeated and reformulated some of Jon’s utterances. She accepted partially correct responses while communicating affirmation, extension, and clarification. A construct proposed by Cazden (2001) called *reconceptualization* categorizes the instructional language as an expansion or clarifier of what the child said. Recontextualization refers to a shift which takes traditional teacher utterances and places them in a new sphere of influence. For example, teachers respond to children's utterances by expanding them, giving additional meanings, placing them in new types of contexts, and pointing out additional possibilities. Dana reformulated Jon’s response while confirming and placing his response in a complete sentence.

Note the packaging of these adjacency pairs:

- Line 7: Child – Winning

Line 8: Teacher – You won the race. And who was in the race?

- Line 17: Child – Prize

Line 18: Teacher – You won a prize.

Line 20: Teacher – And how did you win the prize?

- Line 21: Child – Racing

Line 22: Teacher – You went racing.

The teacher is tuning the child's ear to hear complete sentence structures he is likely to encounter in text reading and how to respond in a preferred format in instructional settings. The teacher repeated the child's correct utterances using them in simple sentences that he could use in a personal story.

She reflected on her decisions:

I am trying to leave the questions open-ended enough to spark more than one word answers. However, I accept the one word answers to encourage him to continue giving responses. I also try to take his one word responses and build on them to compose a whole thought and model English language sentence structures.

An important concept in language acquisition is the notion of the English language learner needing to hear models of language which are comprehensible but also beyond what the learner is able to produce independently. Skills and strategic behaviors on the edge of emergence can be enhanced by varying degrees of assistance located within the ZPD (Bodrova & Leong,

1998). Development springs out of forward leading instructional assistance that keeps the task “proximal” (slightly above independent functioning. Vygotsky (1987) advocated, “The teacher must orient his work not on yesterday’s development in the child but on tomorrow’s. Only then will he be able to use instruction to bring out those processes of development that lie in the zone of proximal development” (p. 211). Because constructive activity is important, the teacher gently nudged the child to work actively with new knowledge. She reformulated and extended the utterances modeling possibilities of what could be said. The teacher added pronouns in her reformulations where the student lacked them. Interestingly, the student reproduced the same verb tense in his composition as was used in the familiar text structure. He did not appropriate the verb tense modeled by the teacher; however, he did compose his story in a complete sentence. Perhaps he saw himself as the character in the book rather than a retelling of an actual personal experience. The teacher accepted the student’s third person account and did not correct it to a first person formulation.

Text: Here comes the yellow go-cart. Here comes the winner.

- Teacher: How could we say that you won the prize?
- Child: Jon is first place. Jon is the winner.
- Teacher: Boy, I like that story.

Step 4: Consider how the timing and taking of turns provide for certain understandings of the actions and the matters talked about.

In Line 4 (see Figure 4.37), the teacher pauses three seconds to wait for the child’s utterance. Matczuk and Straw (2005) found that Reading Recovery teachers of high progress students fostered independence by waiting three seconds or more for students to reflect and

respond. They emphasized the importance of providing appropriate wait time for students to consider their responses; however, waiting too long might invite frustration. Rowe (1986) found that appropriate wait time promoted positive changes in how students used language and logic. Wait time shifts control to the child and communicates to the child that the teacher expects the child to take action. In the selected sequence of conversation, I found one example where the teacher waited three seconds for a response. I found similar patterns of wait time behavior in other recorded sequences of my data collection. For an English language learner, appropriate wait time or pausing provided him with opportunities to take a risk, craft a response, or repair his speech.

In a turn-taking series (Lines 11-17), the teacher reformulated her question to accomplish a “repair” when the child responded with “ummmm” rather than a preferred response. The child looked at the teacher after his response (“repair outcome”) which had a slight questioning intonation. The teacher interpreted this turn as an appeal for clarification and elaboration to which she responded with another question that accepted his response and requested further elaboration.

- Line 11: T: Mom and dad=Ok, so tell me about Jon and mom and dad.
- Line 12: C: Ummmm
- Line 13: T: What happened?
- Line 14: C: Jon win?
- Line 15: (*Child looks at teacher*)
- Line 16: T: Win what?
- Line 17: C: Prize.

When the child used the interrogative intonation as seen in Line 14, posing his response as a question, he was seeking confirmation from the teacher of the accuracy of his response. It seems that he is not too sure, which is supported by his looking at the teacher. The teacher reformulated or repeated what the child said, thereby, maintaining interactive ease, removing ambiguity, confirming, and also modeling for the child that further discussion was expected.

Step 5: Consider how the ways the actions were accomplished implicate certain identities, roles, and/or relationships for the interactants.

In dominant Western school culture, teachers typically define a good story as having the following elements: events in the right order (beginning, middle, ending); first person telling; sticking to a topic; inclusion of details that tell who, what, why, when, where; and concluding with an emotional response from the student (Riessman, 2008). In the selected sequence of conversation prior to writing, the teacher's topic initiation and connecting questions demonstrated how she guided the student to construct a story with institutionally expected elements. I wonder about the definitions of what makes a good story in the teacher's mind and perhaps how it might not be the same as the student's storytelling practices. Further research could examine over time how a student appropriates or resists a teacher's framework of story construction.

The teacher turned her body to face the child, leaned in, and attempted eye contact, but the student faced straight ahead with occasional glances to the teacher. Further study could provide illumination on whether body positions and eye gaze reflect cultural behaviors or efforts to avoid taking a turn. Cole (1996) stated, "Like fish in water, we fail to 'see' culture because it is the medium within which we exist" (p. 8). Widening the filter and gaining knowledge of

students' cultural behaviors increase opportunities for more positive understandings and successful communication (Kim, 1997).

Misunderstandings are difficult to resolve if appropriate questions are not posed. Teachers may misunderstand the reasons underlying their behaviors when students do not make direct eye contact with adults. Different behaviors carry different cultural meanings for diverse populations. It is important to remember that behind every behavior there is a motivation and a cultural why (Seelye, 1993; Morain, 1986). Appreciating the silent cultural language affords illumination of the underlying principles that guide behaviors (Hall & Hall, 1998). Over time, I observed a pattern of the teacher using eye gaze to non-verbally transfer initiative to the child to take the next action. Establishing eye contact and other nonverbal expressions were used in other lessons to communicate interest, support of the child, certain understandings, and particular prompted actions. Smiling signaled interest in the child's ideas and offered him encouragement. These nonverbal forms of language are principally critical for English language learners who may need more than words to construct and express meaning.

The analysis revealed that the teacher's use of wait time allowed the child to think about his response to the topic initiated. She also validated his language by not correcting his responses or his final composition but rather reformulated his utterances in how stories are told in an instructional context. The teacher personalized the conversation bringing the child's experiences to bear on the topic. The teacher found "shared territory" (Lindfors, 1999, p. 170) by initiating the conversation with a connection to a recently read familiar book. Personalization of the conversation before writing and reformulation of the child's words scaffolds the appropriation of new language (Van Dyke, 2006). The child played with the language of "first place" and then

revised that to “the winner” which was used in the familiar reading text. The student also emulated the third-person vantage point as reflected in the text he had previously read.

Reformulation or repetition of what the child says helps the child remember as he begins to write and allows the child to further expand an idea. Effective teachers use reformulation to summarize a long conversation, to rephrase using English grammar, to put an idea into the child’s head, to take the child’s meaning and say it in another way, and to help the child pull together an idea (Cazden, 2001). The teacher’s turns had an impact on the child’s oral language production, including how much he had to say and how he brought his words together from one-word responses to a complete sentence. Cazden (1992) put forth the idea that the teacher’s conversation with the student influences the learner’s independent problem solving. The teacher in this study reformulated the child’s one-word responses into complete sentences and the child appropriated that language. She smiled warmly to encourage the child in the construction of meaning. She paused appropriately to encourage his initiative. Personalization, reformulation, validation of partially correct responses, and wait time act as effective scaffolds in conversations to support children in appropriating new language in speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Lose (2008) reported teachers foster optimal learning and encourage children when their voices and gestures communicate genuine interest. The messages the teacher conveyed nonverbally were characterized by her attentiveness and responsiveness to the child. These messages without words included body language, tone of voice, timing, shifts and adjustments to the child’s behaviors, and models.

Conclusions

While ideally children would be taught to read and write in their first language, practically speaking this is not always feasible (Kelly, 2009). In the district in which this study

took place, Reading Recovery teachers worked with children speaking fifty-two different languages. It is a mistake to lump students into one category of ELL because each child is an individual with unique cultural (family, community) and language experiences. Nevertheless, quality instruction in English for second language learners is possible when teachers hold high expectations for their students, co-construct literacy learning with students, and differentiate instruction based on students' individual linguistic and cultural strengths. Williams and Haag (2009) encouraged teachers to carefully craft their academic language and provide diverse response opportunities to match the competencies of each individual ELL. Clay (2005) stated "Children who come to school speaking any language will have a preparation for literacy learning that is to be valued, whatever that prior language is" (p. 6).

Through the practice of conversational analysis, I was able to view data through a new micro lens revealing interesting aspects about the instructional interaction in the context of one teacher and one student in a school where English was the language of instruction. The interesting aspects included wait time, reformulation, how the teacher fostered oral language development, how the teacher's language and the use of warm friendly questions guided the child in learning how to create a story, and how the teacher adjusted her language when the child did not understand. While reading researchers laud the importance of the interesting aspects of instructional scaffolding I identified, rarely do teachers have opportunities to get the detailed and descriptive views in up-close moments of subtle interactions between teacher and student.

The power of Jon's writing continuous texts (whole texts vs. isolated items) is that it provided multiple cues from which to get and give meaning. This is even more important for ELL like Jon because each additional cue and element of predictability increases the child's chance to make sense of print. First and second language learners demonstrate similar processes

in writing development. Boyle and Peregoy (1990) showed that students can profitably engage in writing in their first and second language before they have control over phonological, syntactic, and semantic systems of spoken English. Early in Jon's learning, the predictable sentence patterns that generated questions, statements, or commands offered a scaffold for him when writing. The sentence patterns of familiar texts and conversations with Dana modeled English structure and provided a framework for his writing. Providing opportunities for ESL children to experience a wide variety of reading genres and then to use what they learn to construct their own text supports them in making reading and writing connections (Hudelson, 1989). The structures from familiar books helped him produce written language beyond his current proficiency. In his speaking, reading, and writing, Jon soon used the sentence level scaffolds provided by familiar reading texts and his conversations with Dana.

In essence, writing floats on a sea of talk (Britton, 1970). However, Dyson (2000) proposed that talk mediates a sea of voices formulated by diverse events and networks of social organizations (home, church, popular media, peer cultures, and school). A child's writing voice is connected to the collective oral voices all around as learning from and with other voices combining with appropriation of those voices for self-expression. Congruent with Vygotsky's (1987) theory, Ferreiro (2003) stated that "to read and to write are social constructs. Every epoch and every historical circumstance give new meaning to these verbs" (p. 13). She suggested that children who are immersed in stories and nurtured with positive conversations and experiences to write little books with enthusiastic choice are already promising writers. Behind those little eyes, ears, and hands "lies a person who thinks and attempts to incorporate into her own knowledge this marvelous medium of representing and recreating language, which is writing" (p. 34). Listening to and talking with children builds positive learning relationships and supports

teaching in response to the child's interests and strengths. Constructing scaffolds to sustain and extend learning prove to be stronger when built contingent on individual student's language and actions. Expertly guided conversations develop language and teach children how to compose stories in school for writing.

Founder of Reading Recovery, Marie Clay (2005) whose literacy work continues to influence my thinking, teaching, and learning shared:

Children who come to school speaking any language will have a preparation for literacy learning that is to be valued, whatever that prior language is. Research is clear that most children can add a second language at this age with relative ease, and although it does not happen overnight, it does not take them long. We need to see them as competent children who speak and problem-solve well in their first culture and who are lucky to be learning a second language while they are young and active language learners. It is surprising how rapid their progress can be. (p. 6)

Language use expands as children read and write, as well as when they talk. Clay (2004) described children who are talking, writing, and reading as being involved in a "complex dance of circular causation" (p. 1). In this case study, the Dana scaffolded conversation, composing, and writing to support Jon in putting together some of the pieces in his literacy dance.

Article 5: It Looked Like Ice Dancing: Orchestrating Interactions that Scaffold the Writing of English Language Learners

“Two are better than one because they have a good return for their work...

one will lift up his companion.” Ecclesiastes 4:9

“When people dance together like in ice skating,

they dance together because they are in unison.” Mikhail Baryshnikov

Introduction

This qualitative case study describes characteristics of effective instructional scaffolding for writing instruction with English language learners within the context of one-on-one tutoring lessons. Just as in paired skating on the ice, coordination of a lift and leap requires the intentions and collaboration of both partners. This study partners, supports, and adds a new dimension to the existing research in order to understand and describe the role instructional language plays in an English language learner’s literacy acquisition. Woven within the review of literature, significant moments and findings from this investigation reveal teachers presented opportunities for lifts and leaps in students’ writing achievement during one-on-one early intervention literacy lessons.

Early literacy intervention teachers meet with challenges when organizing literacy instruction to differentiate lessons effectively for diverse learners. The nature and pattern of language interactions and the particular scaffolding of performance between tutors and children play a critical role in students’ literacy understandings. Effective tutoring is dependent on the

nature of the teacher and student's interactions. The teachers in my study orchestrated their instructional talk to create a rich learning context for emergent speakers, readers, and writers.

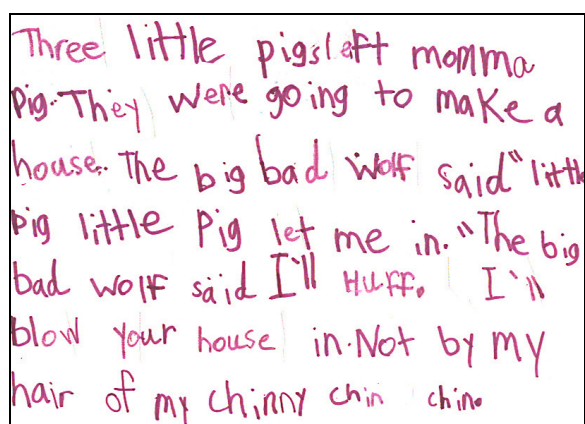
In this article, I weave together previous research results and exemplars from my study of three teachers' instructional scaffolding for talking, composing, and writing with English language learners within the context of one-on-one tutoring lessons. First, I present a prelude illustrating one dyad's teaching and learning dance in constructing a strategic writing process followed by a brief overview of the study methods and introduction of the participants. Next, I discuss how the teachers customized their conversations in the writing component of their lessons to coordinate with their students' prior experiences and competencies and to scaffold new language and skills in composing and writing. I offer examples of how the teachers adjusted their level of support to foster independent strategic actions and show one exemplar of how a teacher capitalized on the child's intentions, welcomed the use of his home language, and responded to his lead in composing his story for writing. In addition, I provide examples and discuss how the teachers' careful listening communicated respect and supported meaningful conversations and compositions. Furthermore, from my findings, I share nine types of instructional assistance the teachers applied to bridge actual development to potential development in their students' writing processes. Finally, I discuss how the teachers created opportunities for their students' to expand their English language competencies through their conversations, compositions, and writings.

A Prelude

Warm beautiful brown eyes eager to learn...Long black hair neatly tied back into a pony tail allowing her to see the world clearly around her...Gentle little hand looking for a hand to hold...Lilli was ready and eager to learn. She just needed the right opportunities and uniquely

designed literacy support to ensure she would be successful as she followed the weaving path of literacy.

The first story Lilli, a bright-eyed six-year old Latino first-grader and English language learner, composed and wrote in her tutoring program with Dana, her teacher, was a simple sentence, *My mom is cooking*. Lilli copied the text structure from a familiar book and wrote the letters and the word she controlled: *m* in *my*, *mom*, *s* in *is*. Dana acted as scribe for all else in Lilli's sentence. The next week, Lilli composed a sentence with increased complexity after she and the teacher shared a conversation about a familiar book and negotiated the composition, *Danny is eating all the treats*. After twelve weeks of sharing conversations about familiar books and personal experiences with the teacher, Lilli wrote the following story: *I went to my Grandpa's house and I went to my friend's house and I got some candy. I said trick or treat*. In the seventeenth week of tutoring sessions, Lilli composed and wrote the story about three little pigs as documented in Figure 4.39.



Three little pigs left mamma pig. They were going to make a house. The big bad wolf said "little pig little pig let me in." The big bad wolf said "I'll huff, I'll blow your house in. Not by my hair of my chinny chin chine."

Figure 4.39. The three little pigs.

What characteristics of Dana and Lilli's interactions fostered this progress in composing and writing? The following representative episodes describe some of the contributing characteristics of the instructional language. In daily instructional conversational sequences before writing, Dana and Lilli negotiated a composition together. What appeared to be warm friendly conversation between friends actually provided the catalyst for extending language and constructing a writing process.

One day, Lilli composed the sentence to write *The flower is purple* immediately after Dana's initiation to talk about a flower Lilli brought to her that day. The teacher replied with a reformulation of the child's response in her next question which also called for elaboration from the child. Subsequent to further conversation, Lilli composed a new story: *I got the pretty flower in the dirt. After she wrote the first sentence, further conversation led to the story's extension: I got the pretty flower in the dirt. It is purple. It is for Mrs. Hilaski.* Figure 4.40 displays the written composition.

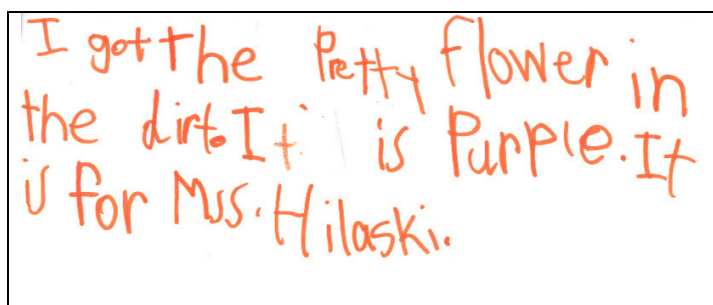


Figure 4.40. I got the pretty flower in the dirt.

The revised composition after more conversation increased language complexity and opportunities for problem solving words in her writing (see Appendix A for transcription conventions).

<u>Transcription</u>	<u>Categorization of Action</u>
C: The flower is purple.	Initiating
T: It is purple.	Reformulating
Where'd you find it?	Questioning
C: In the dirt.	Preferred Response
T: Where? In the dirt? <u>Where?</u>	Repeating; Questioning
C: Outside.	Preferred Response

The next day, when Dana initiated a conversation, again Lilli immediately produced a sentence to write before engaging in a conversation. Dana responded with an affirming question calling for elaboration and more dialogue.

T: () talk about your cats and dogs today? What about them?

C: I like my dogs and I like my cat.

T: Why do you like them so much?

C: They're so sweet and they play with me. *((said in a sweet little voice))*

T: Awe *((said sweetly and softly))* Yeah, what do they play with you?

C: Outside. One dog behind me and one cat behind the dog.

T: So it was you and then the dog and then the cat *((motioning hands to show order))*. Oh my goodness. You were like a line in school.

C: *((nods head yes and smiles))*

Lilli revised her original sentence weaving in language shared with the teacher thus increasing learning opportunities from her first response: *I like my dog and my cat. They follow me like a classroom line.* Figure 4.41 shows the written composition.

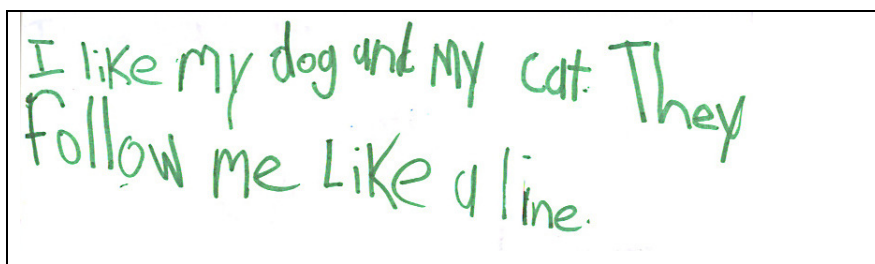


Figure 4.41. I like my dog and my cat they follow me like a classroom line.

Dana reflected later on her decision-making in shaping shared conversations with Lilli. She had noticed over time Lilli learned the daily expectation to compose and write and quickly began to have a simple composition ready. However, Dana's goals of using the conversation for language development, practicing new grammatical structures, and gathering more information to tell a story superseded the quick simple sentence to write. She expressed how she valued the child's first responses and built on that to extend the talk. She stated, "I want to hear more talk from the child. I keep questioning to provide her with more opportunities to use certain structures and to tell more information to formulate the story composition. I emphasize talk first before composing."

At the end of eighteen weeks of daily one-on-one literacy lessons, Lilli was on grade level in reading and writing. With her self-extending process, she will carry on her literacy learning with greater independence. This brief overview of Dana and Lilli's teaching and learning dance in constructing a strategic writing process provides a glimpse into what I

discovered in a larger study observing three expert early literacy intervention teachers and six of their first-grade limited English language learners during the writing component of one-on-one early intervention literacy lessons.

Overview of Study Methods

The purpose of the study was to investigate the types and characteristics of instructional scaffolding to support English language learners (ELL) as they come to be English writers. I used an exploratory and descriptive qualitative multiple case study approach (Yin, 2006) to investigate the characteristics of the teacher-student interactions between three expert teachers and two of their first grade ELL (six students in all) during conversation, composing, and writing components of their daily one-on-one literacy lessons.

For eighteen weeks, I gathered data using digital video recordings and transcriptions, researcher's notes (jot notes and reflective questions outside of the recordings), teacher interview transcriptions, teachers' reflective lesson records, and student writing books. The three teachers, Shelley, Dana, and Vivian, who graciously accepted the invitation to participate volunteered from a purposefully selected pool of early literacy intervention teachers who had the highest success rates with English language learners in a one-on-one tutoring program in a large metro school district.

Introducing the Teacher Participants in the Study

At the beginning of the study, the Shelley, Dana, and Vivian shared their priorities for writing instruction with me. From the interviews, I identified the following themes that characterized their beliefs that teachers need to:

- Have a clear focus for instruction;
- Scaffold with appropriate levels of support;

- Foster independence and transfer outside of tutoring;
- Have a conversation to compose before writing; (Conversation was mentioned twenty-four times in all three teachers' interviews.)
- Emphasize echoes/links/connections/repetitions across a lesson;
- Model language – tuning the ear for English structure;
- Link oral language development, writing, and reading;
- Build a core of known words in writing.

When asked the questions, “How is your literacy instruction uniquely different for English language learners than for English speakers? How did home culture and language enter into your literacy instruction?”

Shelley shared:

When thinking about English Language Learners (ELL) that I have had the privilege to teach, instruction is slightly different than students in which their primary language is English. One difference that comes to mind is the rehearsal of the book's structure during a book introduction. I tend to spend more time on this with my ELL students. In writing, I will initially accept the child's oral language structure during the composition of the story, but as lessons progress, I will reformulate what they say and have them use the correct English structure. The importance of their hearing the structure correctly in writing often carries over in reading in which they can anticipate the correct structure. I also tend to point out labels that a child may not be familiar with, to help unlock the meaning in the story. My teacher support depends on the child's level of English proficiency. I spend a great deal of time just talking to the child on the way to and from

their classroom so they have multiple opportunities to talk and to hear the English language structures. Exchanges that I have with my students within the context of the lesson, or within conversation, sometimes are centered around the foods they like to eat, the music they listen to, and what their families do together to have fun. All of these situations are usually somehow emerged in their culture. These are things that these students know a lot about and can talk freely and easily about. They are often great conversations to compose a story. A specific example of a discussion with Hugo about what he had for dinner was quite interesting because in the conversation he was hesitant to continue the story because it was a Spanish word. When I asked him what the word was he said quesadillas. I quickly replied that I knew that word and I liked quesadillas too!

Dana responded:

I try to individualize each child's lesson by pulling from his/her background experiences. Although this is a goal for all my students, the nature and the content of my conversations are different with my ELL students. More time is spent in conversation to allow them to hear and practice the English language. Our walks to and from the lesson give me an opportunity to hear their oral language structure and model English structures. It is not uncommon after reading a book to allow a child an opportunity to connect personally with the events of the story. For example, after reading a book, I asked my student what his mom said when she tucked him in at night. He said that she said I love you but she would say it in Spanish. To validate his language and culture, I asked if he could share what she said in Spanish. The content of writing is often influenced by a child's culture.

Students love to write about their family. One of my students wanted to write about his Tio. Rather than explain that in English *tio* means uncle, I validated his language and allowed him to write the Spanish word *tio* in his story. This child also shared many of experiences from his life in Columbia. At the beginning of his program when his item knowledge was very limited, we created a book based on his experiences in Columbia. While the story and sentence structure were basic, he understood the meaning behind the words because they were his experience. Together we created a meaningful book with a familiar sentence structure that made use of limited item knowledge. I try to allow children to relate to reading, writing, and language in a way that is familiar. If they can link their new knowledge to something they know, it is more likely they will understand and remember.

The child's proficiency of the English language and his/her literacy experiences in his/her native language greatly influence the degree to which I integrate the child's first language. The majority of students with whom I work are Latino and from Spanish speaking homes. If the child is considered Non-English Proficient, I incorporate more Spanish into the lesson to help him learn and understand English vocabulary. I also may give my directions in Spanish giving them a better idea of what is expected. When a student has a difficult time expressing his/her thoughts in English, I sometimes allow the child to explain to me in Spanish. After I have an understanding of what the child means, we can collaborate to create a sentence in English. At this beginning stage in a child's English language acquisition, I expose the child to the English language through books. Listening to me read books gives them an opportunity to hear and experience "book language." My support in a child's native language decreases with a higher degree of

proficiency. Instead, I would spend more time exposing these students to vocabulary and English language structures through conversations and books. A more detailed book introduction and rehearsal of difficult language structures help to provide support to students who can speak English but are still learning the irregularities of the English language. I invest more time in analyzing limited English proficient students' oral language. This analysis helps me understand what language structures may be challenging or unfamiliar and consequently, what will need to be rehearsed before the first reading of a book. Introducing new vocabulary with concrete examples is also helpful. For example, one of my students liked to connect a concept to a meaningful link. When he was reading about pirates, he would say *Arrrgh* after reading the word *pirate*.

Vivian responded:

My instruction is uniquely different for English language learners than for English speakers because I adjust (differentiate) my instruction to meet the needs of the learner. I embrace the child's oral language by allowing for literal translations from original language to English and by allowing for code switching within the lesson. My book selections provide opportunities for the English speaker to 'tune the ear' to hear English language/book structures. I model English structures within the context of conversations around books and writing and rehearse tricky structures in text before a reading to ensure the child's success during reading. As lessons progress, I expect the English language learner to take over the task of controlling correct structure in his oral language. To help the English language learner with this in writing, our discussions center around the texts

read. Eventually with teacher scaffolding of support, the child is able to take on this task independently and transfer this knowledge into stories of their own personal experiences.

All three teachers' first language is English; however, each one grew up and had taught in different regions of the United States with varied cultural and linguistic experiences. Dana is able to converse a little in Spanish. In addition to serving as Reading Recovery teachers, Shelley, Dana, and Vivian provide reading and writing instruction to small groups from kindergarten up to fourth-grade and literacy instructional coaching for teachers in their elementary schools. Administrators and teachers in their school communities view them as literacy experts and leading resources for best instructional practices. Over the last three years, their success rates reached the high end of the overall county average for discontinuing English language learners' early intervention programs. Discontinuing is the term used in the early literacy intervention program when students reach grade level expectations in reading and writing within 12 to 20 weeks. The national discontinuing percentage in 2007-08 was 73% and the county in which the study was being conducted achieved an average 88% discontinuing rate of students tutored.

The selection of the two corresponding students for each teacher was determined by a variation of English proficiency on the National Data Evaluation Center (NDEC) English Proficiency rubric, scores on the Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement (Clay, 2002), and teacher selection. NDEC is an ongoing research project of the School of Teaching and Learning in the College of Education and Human Ecology at The Ohio State University. All six Latino students who participated listed Spanish as their home language. Appendix B records data from the six students' entry and exit literacy assessment scores. Shelley worked with May and Huron; Dana with Lilli and Jon; and Vivian taught Brandon and Eddie. (All participants'

names are recorded under pseudonyms.) I provide descriptive introductions to the students in subsequent sections of this article. One important point to make is while race and culture are vital aspects of a child's identity; there is no one way of being Latino. Each child and family are unique and when teachers respect and honor this uniqueness, strong teaching and learning relationships can be built.

Standing on the Shoulders of Research and Extending the Reach

Several relevant research studies provided the foundation for my investigations into the instructional scaffolding identified in my observations and analysis of three early intervention teachers working one-on-one with first grade English language learners. Just as in paired skating on the ice, coordination of a lift and leap requires the intentions and collaboration of both partners. I propose my study supports, partners, and adds a new dimension to the existing research because it seeks to understand and describe the role instructional language plays in an English language learner's literacy acquisition.

Responsive Instruction: Contingent Teaching to Student Background

In a seven-month naturalistic study, Many (2002) identified two major patterns in her study that she described as responsive instruction and background emphases. She found levels of scaffolding that teachers employed included modeling, supplying information, clarifying, assisting, questioning, prompting, and focusing attention. She noted the importance of providing varying degrees of support for students at different levels of learning which pointed to individualized responsive teaching contingent to the students' knowledge and experiences.

Table 4.5 displays how Shelley, Dana, and Vivian customized their conversations in the writing component of their lessons to scaffold for and coordinate with their students' prior experiences and competencies and to scaffold new language and skills in composing and writing.

I identified patterns of responsive instruction and background emphases to students' skill with the English language. I found patterns of teachers bridging students' background knowledge with new information, strategies, and skills.

The teachers initiated conversations with questions and comments about recent stories read, personalized connections to the story ideas, or personal experiences of the children. They provided opportunities for their ELLs to make personal connections with the stories they read. Familiarity with students' culture characterizes effective teachers of ELLs. Effective teachers build needed background knowledge by helping ELLs make personal connections and develop meaningful context (Harper & de Jong, 2009).

By providing opportunities for personalization, the teachers developed context with their students. Van Dyke (2006) conducted an inquiry of teacher behaviors that support the oral language development of students during the writing component of individual literacy lessons. She drew three conclusions that conversations are personalized when the teacher:

- talks about the child's own experience with a topic;
- accepts the child's idea about a topic; and
- provides opportunity for the child to talk about personal interests.

I identified similar categories in my descriptive study as documented in Table 4.5. From these conversational topics, the teachers and children co-constructed messages or the children composed independently for writing.

Table 4.5

Conversation Topics Initiated From a Variety of Sources

Teacher/Student	Text Abstract/Event	Personalization to Text	Personal Experiences
Shelley/May	5	6	6
Shelley/Huron	6	2	2
Dana/Lilli	2	7	9
Dana/Jon	0	5	8
Vivian/Brandon	7	6	2
Vivian/Eddie	4	6	5

Tracking the changes and the interchanges that occur during writing is a very complex task. *What factors influenced these decisions? Was the goal to build and connect meaning and language structures from the reading to the writing? Did the variety of topic sources match the individual interests and strengths of students? How do teachers plan for the conversation, composing, and message writing? How did the teachers scaffold conversation and composing to assist in increased complexity of story sentences and opportunities to construct a writing process?* I asked teachers for their perspectives on lesson transcriptions and my analysis. They shared their reflections of their decision making for conversation engagement relating to their instruction.

The Dancers: Shelley, the teacher, and her students, May and Huron

Shelley shared an introduction to May:

May is a bubbly, happy child that comes from a family of four. She does speak what her mother refers to as “Spanglish” at home. May’s mom has spoken to me on several occasions about the fact that May was starting to lose her Spanish. May comes from a

Mexican culture. Upon entering the program, May had many sight words that she could recognize and write, which made her a very strong writer. Writing was more a strength for her than reading, so showing her how to use what she could do in writing in reading was one main charge I had throughout her program. In her classroom, May moved from the bottom of the class to the top upon completion of her program. Her teacher stated that she knew May was accelerating quickly when May started using instructional prompts to her friends in reading group, such as, 'find the part you know in that word.'

Shelley shared insights into Huron's background and progress:

Huron is an extremely happy child and comes from a family of three. He is enthusiastic and interested in learning new things. At home he speaks primarily Spanish. When he entered the program, he had such a sense of determination and he quickly began taking risks. I saw his confidence about being a reader and a writer soar. Huron comes from a Mexican culture, and his two parents are very supportive of him and his education.

Although his mother speaks very little English, she showed great interest in his progress by writing me letters in Spanish from time to time to inquire about his progress and ask me questions about how she can help him at home. Huron's father is a truck driver and is gone several days out of the week, but he still made an effort to read with Huron every night he was at home. At the end of Huron's Reading Recovery program, his classroom teacher stated he does very well and is meeting and sometimes surpassing grade level expectations.

Shelley initiated conversations in early lessons directly related to events or main ideas in familiar reading texts. In fact, sixty percent of Huron's compositions retold the abstracts or events from familiar texts read in those sessions prior to the writing components. For a few children, the path to composing stories may need to take a short detour using structures in books they can read (Kelly, 2001). Using phrases from a text for a short period may be a helpful part of some children's development as writers, particularly those whose English language structures are initially limited.

Shelley shared her thinking about how she plans her conversation invitations to her students:

Personally speaking, when working with all my students, but especially my ESOL students, I try to pull out the structure of the book language to enhance their oral language structure. Making that connection in writing fosters meaning and structure in reading. Occasionally, my plan is not interesting to the children and they choose to write about something else, and then I will just follow their lead. I think teaching style also comes into play. Dana started the majority of conversations around personal connections to the text and personal experiences. It may be she initiated those scenarios in early lessons. I typically initiated events from the text a lot. After seeing the data, I am thinking more about possibly mixing it up a bit with my students.

Appendix C shows examples of Shelley's early conversation starters and invitations to compose with May. Appendix D displays the changes over time in May's compositions. For example, May copied a familiar book's structure in her early composition of *Monkey pushed Little Teddy and Little Teddy was sad*. The last two stories she wrote in her tutoring program illustrate how her language, composing, and writing progressed. She wrote *I will read my books*

at my house and get my brain smarter and smarter. Then the next day she wrote I went to the shop to buy my mom a flower and I bought my mom a ring and earrings.

Appendix E exhibits a few of the conversation initiations tailored for Huron. For example, Shelley invited Huron into a conversation referring back to an earlier experience by asking, “What did you say to me when we were walking to the trailer? You saw something that was on the floor and you picked it up. Tell me about what you found.”

Appendix F documents the transitions of Huron’s compositions. Comparing an early and a late composition reveals the development in his composing and writing process. An early composition tells what happened in a book he read: *Little Red and Little Blue tricked mom and dad*. His composition four weeks later tells a much more detailed account of something that happened in a familiar book: *Bella and Rosie had umbrellas and towels and they forgot the sunglasses. Bella and Rosie got into the car, and Bella said, “Are we there yet?” “No,” said Rosie, “the beach is far far away.*

The Dancers: Dana, the teacher, and her students, Lilli and Jon

Dana reflected on her decisions for engaging her students in conversations to compose:

I know when a child controls very limited English language, I often use the books as a starting point for writing. For example, both of my students started as limited English language learners so I often offered and allowed a familiar book to structure the child's writing for the day. This shifted as the children read a diverse selection of books which allowed their repertoires of language structures and confidence with the language to expand. Having students at differing levels of language ability, I have to pick up on what students know and need.

Dana described Lilli, a bright, brown-eyed Latino girl, as eager and motivated to learn. With increased opportunities to talk, read, and write in English and with appropriate levels of teacher support fostering her independence, Lilli progressed quickly. Language structures in writing correlated with what Lilli experienced in her reading texts. For example, when inflectional endings were introduced in books, she started using them in her writing. As she became more familiar with past tense structures, Lilli started to use consistent past tense verbs in her writing. An important concept in language acquisition is the notion of the learner needing to hear models of language which are comprehensible but just beyond what the learner can produce independently. In a sense, the books were scaffolding her control of speaking and writing in English. Familiar books served as conversational springboards for contextualized language creating greater familiarity with English language patterns, structures, and vocabulary. The books and conversations about the stories with Dana expanded her understanding and usage of the English language. Appendix G illustrates examples of how Dana initiated conversations and invitations for Lilli to compose. Appendix H documents the transformation of Lilli's writing compositions.

At text levels seven and eight, Dana started offering Lilli choices for different structures as she composed stories. Offering choices was important because these were the levels that structures became more varied in her text readings. Increasing awareness and control of mature English structures supported language development and a feed-forward anticipation of meaning and structure in speaking, reading, and composing for writing.

Dana reflected on her decision about tuning Lilli's ear to hear more complex English language structures:

She really needed to start hearing how the English language sounded a particular way. If she started to develop this in her writing, she would be more apt to use structure as a source to cross-check in her reading. The role of text for Lilli evolved throughout her program. At first, it seemed to provide a structure for her writing compositions. The texts provided an idea for her story and allowed her to use words she had experienced in reading. Later, the text was used only for inspiration rather than language structure. What an amazing journey!

Dana described Jon, a Latino boy with a mischievous twinkle in his eye, as having a contagious laugh and fun sense of humor. Dana arranged for a Spanish speaking interpreter when communicating with Jon's parents and sent home all notes in Spanish. At the beginning of his work with Dana, Jon was tentative to speak and make eye contact. He often answered questions with a shake or nod of his head. Jon often repeated Dana's sentences. His compositions to write were simple and his English vocabulary limited. The structure of book language often created difficulty for him. He rarely asked what a word meant. Upon entry to the early intervention, Jon used isolated phrases and fragmented or very simple sentences in English. His words and gestures communicated his ideas and feelings; however, the phrases he used often omitted nouns or verbs with errors in articles, verb endings, and pronouns.

9/04/08

C: Winning.

T: You want to talk about how you won the race? =And who was in the race?

((Teacher nodding and leaning in to child to try to make eye contact))

C: mm::om and dad

9/05/08

C: My ball, my ball.

T: Yes, that's right. That's what Gabby said, didn't she?

C: My ball.

T: And then in our lunch story what did you say that you wanted to have? *((teacher puts book page in front of child and child points to the picture of cookie))*

C: *((child points to picture))* Cookie, my cookie.

The initial Observation Survey (Clay, 2002) assessment showed Jon's letter knowledge was limited to a set of eleven (A, F, Bb, Oo, Xx, Tt, and y) identified by letter name only and not demonstrating knowledge of name, sound, or key word for many letters. Several attempts to identify letters provided evidence of visual and phonemic confusions: B/P, b/p, b/d, z/s, Gg/Jj. On the Writing Vocabulary subtest of the OS, he wrote his first and last names and the word *No*. Jon needed many prompts to say words slowly on the Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words subtask. Out of thirty seven phonemes in this task, he analyzed and correctly recorded the /s/.

In the first five early conversations before composing, Dana initiated and personalized the topic from familiar texts recently read by Jon. For example, after Jon read a story about some animals that went for a boat ride, Dana invited Jon into a conversation by asking him where he

might go in a boat. Appendix I shows early sequences of how Dana used text patterns to co-construct compositions with Jon. Dana explained her decision about initiating the conversations about recent books, “Jon has trouble composing stories in English. We are using the stories to provide ideas as well as sentence structures.” The familiar language structures from the texts provided a scaffold for the child’s compositions. From those conversations, Jon composed sentence stories using the English text structures he was learning to control. For example, he used the same language structure from a familiar book when he composed *Jon is hungry. Here is some pizza*. Dana supported Jon’s progress in communicating, composing, writing, and reading in English by engaging him in conversations around familiar books and using the language structures of the text early in his lessons. The following sequence illustrates one such early conversation and invitation to compose after Jon read a story about two dogs learning to share. Dana used the language structure from the familiar book to scaffold Jon’s composition and writing. In this early sequence, she shared the task of writing a story. She initiated a story using dialogue like the familiar book he had read. Dana modeled the language structure by writing the first part of the dialogue and then transferred the initiative to Jon to compose the next part.

T: So let’s be like Buster. I’m going to be Buster and you be Gabby. Here is my ball!

C: No, no, no, here is my ball. *((shrill silly voice, motioning with hands at himself))*

T: Sounds like a good story. *((Child and teacher giggling))*

T: All right, here’s my part. I’m gonna go first. *((Teacher saying words as she writes and glances at child to see if he is looking at print.))* Here is my *((pauses and looks at child transferring completion of sentence to him))*

C: Ball

T: All right, you read and see if I did it all right. Make sure. Read it with your finger.

C: Here is my ball said Buster. *((child pointing under each word as he reads))*

T: All right what are you going to say? You're Gabby.

C: No, no, no, here is my ball said Gabby. *((child pointing to himself as he talks))*

This examples bears resemblance to what Drucker (2003) discussed concerning the effectiveness of the Language Experience Approach (LEA) (Rigg, 1981) and interactive writing (McCarrier, Fountas, & Pinnell, 2000) with ELL. The rationale for using these approaches can be summed up in these lines: "What I can think about I can talk about. What I can say I can write. What I can write I can read. I can read what I write and what other people write for me to read" (Van Allen & Halvoren, as cited in, Drucker, 2003, p. 26). LEA involves the student telling a story and the teacher acting as scribe. The student can then practice reading it along with the teacher. Neal (2009) discussed three practices in Reading Recovery that are especially supportive of ELL: guided reading, interactive writing, and reading aloud.

In interactive writing during Reading Recovery lessons, Dana and Jon negotiated the text meaning and shared the pen to write it together. Early in Jon's tutoring program, Dana acted as scribe for much of the writing of Jon's compositions. He wrote what he could and she filled in the rest. As Jon progressed in his writing skills, he contributed more and Dana reduced her support. By the end of his program, their roles had reversed as he was writing the majority of his compositions independently.

As Jon's English proficiency developed, Dana initiated the topic from his personal experiences and prior conversations with him. Dana shifted from scaffolding the conversation and composition around text structures to even more personalized structures developing in the child. From these conversations, Jon used his own developing English language structure to

compose. Dana negotiated compositions at times by offering him choices of sentence structures for his messages. Several times she established a purpose and audience for Jon's writing by suggesting he write a message to a favorite teacher or his mom. Figure 4.42 illustrates a message Jon wrote to his mom.

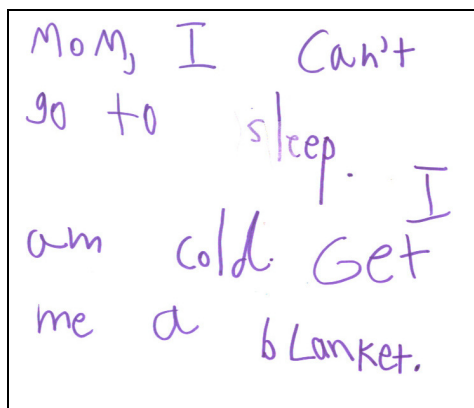


Figure 4.42: A note to mom.

Diaz (2001) emphasized the importance of constantly observing and analyzing the ELL's increasing control over oral and written English language in order to scaffold instruction to support appropriately the current strengths and needs working in the child's zone of proximal development. In this way, teachers fulfill Vygotsky's ideal that the teacher must focus her teaching not on yesterday's development in the child but on today's and tomorrow's (Vygotsky, 1987).

Dana changed her instructional language from directing to coaching to inviting the child to compose from the conversation. By shifting her support in response to the child's increasing competencies in the English language, she fostered independence in the child's ability to compose out of conversations leading to higher literacy success as seen in the increasing

complexity of the child's writing as well as his progress in text level reading. Appendix J displays the change over time in Jon's compositions.

Dana reflected on how Jon's story compositions increased in complexity:

I loved looking at the change over time. It is very interesting to watch how the complexity of Jon's sentences progressed as he moved through text reading levels. While I think the nature of our conversations and the amount and kind of support I gave him contributed to this progression, I think, as he was exposed to more complex sentence structures in his reading, he became more comfortable using them in his writing. I think it just reinforces evidence of the reciprocity of reading and writing.

The Dancers: Vivian, the teacher and her students, Brandon and Eddie

Vivian felt if the children made personal connections to text in early lessons, they might be more likely to make meaningful attempts or predictions in text at points of difficulty. She also engaged her students in conversations around the familiar texts and personal experiences related to the familiar reading story beginning early in the program. In the middle of the tutoring program, there was a shift to talking, composing, and writing about the child's personal experiences either in school or outside of school unrelated to the reading texts. Vivian acted as a weaver interfacing the familiar with the new ideas and thereby strengthening the students' problem solving processes and writing voices. Using what she learned in communicating with the classroom teacher, Vivian set up opportunities for Brandon and Eddie to transfer what they were learning with her back into the classroom and vice versa. For example, when the emphasis in the classroom focused on using transition words in writing, she set up conversations before composing to write using words like *first*, *second*, *next*, *after*, *last*, *finally*. She encouraged the

boys to use the transition words as they retold familiar stories and in their compositions. Providing opportunities for them to practice meaningful usage of the words in their writing layered deeper understanding in the vocabulary. She explicitly linked using transition words to their classroom learning. August (2002) encouraged intervention teachers and ELL teachers to know what children engage in while working in the classroom and use those activities as another source for conversation. According to Cummins (1991) strengthening ELLs' academic language leads to success with academic content. Harper and de Jong (2009) advocated recognizing and teaching vocabulary words likely to be unfamiliar to ELLs and mediate the specific language demands used in their classrooms. ELLs often need more-explicit scaffolding to access the academic language of school tasks and texts. ELLs benefit from purposefully structured opportunities to hear, see, read, write, and speak English in school.

Vivian exemplified how Ladson-Billings (1995) described effective teachers facilitating students' literacy learning and identity construction by serving as cultural bridges and respecting students' culture. Teachers using a cultural inclusivity in their approaches to teaching more often encourage ELLs' active participation in learning (Yoon, 2009). One characteristic of this instructional approach points to valuing and respecting the strengths of the individual child and integrating their prior knowledge and experiences in meaningful learning opportunities. Teachers who view ELLs as complex cultural social beings rather than simply as language learners facilitate ELLs' active participation in language and literacy learning (Yoon, 2009). Not just the teachers' instructional methods but the sensitivity to, interest in, and respect for their students bears strong influence on ELLs' engagement in learning.

Vivian described her student, Brandon:

Brandon, a six-year old Hispanic male, is of average stature, well-groomed, and very cute. He lives with both parents and a sister. His father speaks English, and his mother speaks Spanish. He attended the same elementary school last year in Kindergarten where he went through a “silent period” of not talking for the whole year. This is a possible phase ELLs may go through. He receives speech services for expressive and receptive language along with ESOL support. Our school is a Literacy Collaborative school and the Literacy Coach worked with him in his classroom along with the classroom teacher for the whole year. Guided reading groups and literacy centers are a daily occurrence in his classroom. Brandon loves using the word *actually*. He uses it often in his conversations.

Vivian described her student, Eddie:

Eddie, an energetic Hispanic six-year old, is a little taller than average, well-groomed, and very handsome (and he knows it). He lives with his siblings and parents who understand very little English. He attended the same Literacy Collaborative elementary school last year in Kindergarten. He receives ESOL services. Guided reading groups and literacy centers are a daily occurrence in his classroom. Eddie is very verbal. He loves to hear his own voice and would often make comments during his reading about what he did well and would often sing praises to himself. His self confidence will allow him to be successful along with his metacognition.

When Vivian invited Brandon and Eddie to talk about their personal connections to stories, she communicated genuine interest and respect for what they offered. Her voice

expressed amazement and her questions expressed true curiosity during their conversations together. The following exemplar of a conversation between Vivian and Brandon illustrates their personalized authentic interactions after reading a book about a boy who lost his socks. Vivian's comments and questions indicate familiarity and interest with Brandon's life outside of school. Their conversation is a lovely example of a teacher transferring the lead of the conversation to the child. From the conversation, Brandon composed a story to write about his puppy.

- 1) T: In the story, Tim lost his socks cause Michael had them. You told me you got a new puppy. Has your puppy eaten your socks yet? (*leaning in looking at child and smiling*)).
- 2) C: (*shakes head no*)
- 3) T: Why not?
- 4) C: Cause he can't climb the stairs.
- 5) T: Oh, he's too little to climb the stairs?
- 6) C: (*nods head yes*)
- 7) T: Mmmm, and y'all don't take your socks off downstairs do you?
- 8) C: (*shakes head no*)
- 9) T: So what does he get while he's downstairs?
- 10) C: Toys!
- 11) T: Hmm (*tilts head*). What kind of toys?
- 12) C: Um puppy's.
- 13) T: (*nods head*) Puppy toys. What do you do with his toys?
- 14) C: Sometimes (.) I (.) crawl on the floor and, and go fast and follow me and sometimes I stand up and run.
- 15) T: Mmm hmm (*nodding head and has a big grin on face*)).

- 16) C: Cause he likes to follow me.
- 17) T: *((repeats))* He likes to follow you. Does he ever jump on you?
- 18) C: *((shakes head no then says))* Mmm hmm *((nods head yes))*.
- 19) T: He does!? *((surprised tone))* What happens (.) when he does that?
- 20) C: Actually! Today! Do you know what?
- 21) T: No, tell me! Today what? *((tone of anticipation and excitement; eyes wide and smiling))*
- 22) C: Him scratch me.
- 23) C: No, when I was awake when it was time to go in school, I I go downstairs and go in the bathroom downstairs and open the cage and then him, him didn't know, I didn't know him wanted to drink so I pick him up and go, go in as far as my, almost to the garage and I put him to drink.
- 24) T: You did! You were taking very good care of your puppy weren't you? T: Can we write a story about how you took care of your puppy? How you took her out of the cage and put some water in the carrier that they put and gave her some water? That would make a great story wouldn't it?

Appendices K and L provide more samples of Vivian's conversation starters that engaged Brandon and Eddie and her invitations to compose.

Through authentic conversations ranging from a variety of topics and purposes, both boys progressed in their English language proficiencies and writing abilities. For example, one of Brandon's first compositions was *I go to the bus* and one of his compositions 16 weeks later was *When we are the captains on the hill, we have to say the numbers*. In an early writing lesson, Eddie composed and wrote *I see the balloon*. In contrast illustrating Eddie's development in composing and writing in English at the end of his tutoring program, he wrote *First, red squirrel gets some nuts. Next, gray bird gets squirrel. Then they fight together. Last, red squirrel was*

safe. Appendices M and N show more examples reporting how their compositions changed over time in language and content complexity.

Adjusting Levels of Scaffolding to Foster Independent Strategic Actions

Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) examined scaffolding in tutor-tutee interactions and established the adult's support provided boundaries to tasks and demonstrated solutions. Their ideas of scaffolding parallel Vygotsky's (1987) sociocultural theory of learning. Though the term was never used by Vygotsky, interactional support and the process by which adults mediate a child's attempts to take on new learning has come to be termed scaffolding. Scaffolding represents the helpful social interactions between adult and child that enable the child to do something beyond his independent efforts (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). A scaffold is a temporary framework put up for support and access to meaning and taken away as needed when the child secures control of success with a task. A worker constructs a scaffold to allow him to work on an area of a building, for example, that is out of reach. The types and degrees of scaffolding change to meet the existing and changing competencies of the child.

The teacher participants in this study provided temporary scaffolds to bridge their students' acquisition and control of strategic actions for problem solving in writing. For example, Vivian took cues from Brandon to adjust her level of scaffolding and foster independence in his control of a strategic action in writing. When he opened a familiar book to find a copy for a word he wanted to write, Vivian affirmed his search from his reading knowledge by saying, "You remember that from your story. That will help you." She framed her instructional language on what the child noticed. By capturing Brandon's initiative, she co-constructed a scaffold with him in his use of a familiar text. From this type of interaction, the child confirmed what he knew in

reading could help him in writing. Dana prepared for future learning knowing both reading and writing contribute to learning about print.

At Brandon's next remembrance of a word from reading that he needed to write in his story, the teacher changed her level of scaffolding. She held the book closed and called for him to think about how that word looked rather than using the text for a copy. In this verbal and nonverbal interaction, the teacher shifted her scale of help to foster more independence in the child's use of his visual memory to solve a word in writing. Vivian said to Brandon, "Think about how that word you know in this book looks. That will help you write it." He wrote the word correctly. Then she opened the book so he could locate the word and check his writing. She used a similar prompt when increasing more flexibility in solving words with Eddie:

T: Good, I like how you said that word slowly. Now think about how that word looks in a book because you've read that one a lot.

Vivian taught Brandon and Eddie a generative strategic action for solving words rather than just assisting them through specific words. Vivian established reciprocity by prompting the child to search for information in his memories of reading and writing and link them together. Clay (2005) stated reciprocity does not occur spontaneously, but the teacher must teach "the child to use what he knows in reading when he is writing and vice versa" (p. 27). Both learned responses generate new responding in either reading or writing. By adjusting the level of her scaffolding, she supported and fostered independence in the child's writing process.

Peter Johnston (2004) argued "...children should leave school with a sense that if they act, and act strategically, they can accomplish their goals. I call this feeling a sense of agency. Some

teachers are very good at building a sense of agency in children...” (p. 29). Children who believe in their own agency tend to work harder, attend better, build interest in their studies and are less likely to give up when the tasks become difficult (Skinner, Zimmer-Genbeck, & Connell, 1998). Throughout my study, I found examples of all three teachers building a sense of agency in their students by scaffolding instruction contingent on the students’ strengths and background experiences.

Weaving Rich Literacy Resources from Diverse Resources

Dyson (1990) questioned the term scaffolding and offered a weaving metaphor to portray teachers as weavers supporting children in intertwining literacy from the wealth of diverse resources they bring to school. She advocated providing rich experiences for children to explore their own agendas and capturing moments to help them make connections from their known to the new. Hogan and Pressley (1997) agreed teachers using a weaving approach created meaningful dialogues by incorporating students’ contributions. For example, to scaffold a student’s writing truly, the teacher draws from the child’s personal repertoire of knowledge so the child can use what she knows in one context to help her in another; thereby, weaving in the child’s own cultural and linguistic capital from other learning spaces (Clay, 1991, 2005; Dyson, 1990; Moll, 2004). Connecting to what is meaningful and relevant to the child strengthens the effectiveness of instruction and learning. The weaving metaphor parallels sociocultural perspectives encouraging teachers to build on the diverse resources of children especially the intellectual, literacy, and sociohistorical resources of students often marginalized in school. To scaffold or assist students in weaving writing competencies into their literacy tapestries, the tutor might fine tune her own listening and observing skills before offering support in order to follow the child’s path of learning and capitalize on the child’s individual strengths and intentions.

Cazden (2005) stated the key to a child's intellectual functioning seems to be the familiarity and responsiveness between the child and the tutor. The tutor as weaver implies familiarity with and responsiveness to the whole child. The tutor and child must share intersubjectivity. In other words, they must understand what each other is trying to do (Rogoff, 1990). In the following conversational sequence, Shelley demonstrates the art of listening to Huron to capitalize on his intentions. She welcomed the use of Huron's home language and responded to his lead in composing his story for writing. Honoring the child's language again builds reciprocity in knowing what I can say, I can write, and what I can write, I can read.

T: =You want to write about some things that YOU like before you go to sleep?

(1.0) Or do you want to write about some things that SPACE BOY wants?

C: Me!

T: Ok, what do YOU like before you go to sleep?

C: ((*fidgeting with marker*)) I like to eat, umm, I don't know how to do it in English.

T: Are you talking about dinner? You like to eat your food before you go to sleep?

C: ((*mumbling*)) (It's) something in Spanish.

T: Ok, what's the Spanish word?

C: Quesadilla

T: Quesadilla! ((*nods head in affirmation and smiles*)) That's food! I like that.

They're yummy! So you like quesadillas?

C: ((*nods head yes*)) You know how to spell quesadilla?

T: ((*smiles*)) I think so.

Shelley invited Huron to verbalize in Spanish what he could not find the word for in English. Huron felt reassured when he learned his teacher not only knew about the food he liked but also liked to eat quesadillas like he did, and what a bonus, she knew how to spell it, too! She validated and honored his culture even in a small way just by sharing a favorite food experience.

Listening Communicates Respect: Negotiating Meaningful Conversations and Compositions

Clay (1991) advocated being a careful listener with suitable expectations in this statement, “If the child’s language development seems to be lagging it is misplaced sympathy to do his talking for him. Instead, put your ear closer, concentrate more sharply, smile more rewardingly and spend more time in genuine conversation, difficult though it is” (p. 69). Teacher interaction with genuine conversation shows respect for the ability of ELLs to express themselves orally and fosters verbal expressiveness and story composition. Clay (1991) emphasized the need to criticize not the first language of the ELL, since “it is an intimate possession, understood by loved ones. It reflects their membership of a particular speech group and identifies them with that group” (p.71). When teachers have faith in ELLs and the students believe they can learn, these high expectations lead to academic success (Collier, 1995; Goodman, 1991).

In an investigation of how discourse strategies scaffolded an English language learner’s self reflection, McVee and Pearson (2003) showed how critical it is for a teacher to listen carefully to the student in order to discover what the child knows and to scaffold explorations to make talk meaningful. Van Bramer (2003) examined conversations of tutors with individual students to describe how meaning was being constructed. She investigated the interactions within a one-on-one tutoring setting to determine if the principles of conversation were being applied. In her search for instances of participants checking for understanding, showing signs of

cooperation, and building on previous interactions, she found an emphasis was placed on the active role of the listener with a co-construction of meaning by the speaker and listener. Building upon the existing understandings of children enables them to make meaningful connections to incorporate new knowledge (Clay, 1998).

Fullerton and DeFord (2001) captured how the nature of the conversations differed between tutor/tutee pairs during the conversation before writing in one-on-one tutoring sessions. The nature of the discourse between one dyad resembled tug of war when the teacher and child seemed to be wrestling for topic control. In the other case, the teacher and student constructed more negotiated conversations. Fullerton and DeFord stated the need for many types of studies focusing on instructional conversations in one-on-one settings which motivated me to examine how the teachers in my study co-construct meaningful conversations with their English language learning students.

Shelley, Dana, and Vivian exemplified what Van Bramer (2003) and Fullerton and DeFord (2001) discussed as co-constructed conversations. Some of the recurring characteristics they shared while talking with their students could be compared to ice dancing as they moved in tandem with their students while negotiating conversations and compositions. They offered options, checked for understanding by questioning or repeating, and took turns with the child in formulating the composition for writing. The next sequences provide significant moments of those give and take conversations to compose.

The first example shows how Shelley and Huron co-constructed a composition. Shelley repeated Huron's ideas, questioned for his elaboration, and added connecting words to expand his sentence ideas and complexity providing him increased opportunities for language learning and problem solving in writing. Several times her pregnant pauses and facial expressions

transferred the initiative to Huron to fill in the next word or phrase in the composition. The focus was on the meaning and the message.

T: All right ((*nodding head*)), so you want to say, (.) they went to the garden?

What did they do in the garden?

C: They played.

T: All right, so they went (.), you tell me.

C: They went to play.

T: They went to (1.0) ((*eyes expressing it is his turn*)) [**to** play]=

C: =to play to the garden.

T: They went [to play], they went=

C: =**to the** garden to play to the garden.

T: They went to play to the garden. ((*repeating and nodding head*)) They went to play to the garden. You say it.

C: They went to play to the garden.

The next conversation sequence illustrates how Shelley and Huron negotiated meaning and new vocabulary through nonverbal as well as verbal interactions. Shelley followed Huron's lead in composing the message he wanted to write. She questioned for understanding and clarification and scaffolded additional phrases in his compositions. Repeating his words helped hold in memory the message meaning which in turn kept him composing on the run and moving forward.

C: I help my dad by driving the ((*motions driving a car*)), a car that that gets the, the grass ((*looks to teacher to see if she is understanding him*)) not so dirty.

T: ((*Slightly confused facial expression*)) You, you mean the lawnmower that cuts the grass?

C: ((*Nods head yes*)).

T: You help your dad cut the grass with the lawnmower?

C: Look ((*demonstrates arms straight out as if on the wheel of the lawnmower*)).

It's red! ((*smiling*)) I help my dad drive a (1.0) Huhhh? ((*looking to teacher to help him with the English label to complete his sentence*))

T: ((*Looking to child and saying gently with a smile*)) It's called a lawnmower.

C: Lawnmower

T: Ok I help my dad drive... (.) ((*looking to child*))

C: The lawnmower by driving.

T: What does a lawnmower...

C: ((*Interrupts*)) by driving the car.

T: What does a lawnmower do to the grass?

C: It cuts it.

T: I help my dad drive the lawnmower (3.0) t::o::...

C: To

T: To do what to the grass?

C: To drive it and to cut it ((*making motions for each*))

T: Ok, I help my dad drive the lawnmower to ((*looks to student*))

C: Cut it.

T: Cut what?

C: It.

T: What's it cut?

C: The (.) grass

T: I help my dad drive the lawnmower to cut the grass.

Vivian listened carefully to Eddie as he told a dream story to her. She repeated his ideas with excitement and interest in her voice. Her warm and friendly affect invited him to share more and communicated a sincere interest in his message. In contrast to an interrogation, the tone of her questions showed her eagerness to learn more from him. She turned her body sitting side-by-side and leaned in facing him showing delight in her facial expressions as he told his story. Conversation and writing are tools for thinking about oneself, and writing is a vehicle for communicating and representing one's life in print (Van Sluys & Laman, 2006).

T: Okay Eddie, tell me why did you like Jolly Roger and the Pirate Treasure so much?

C: Because I dream and I was a pirate and I find my own treasure.

T: You dreamed you were a pirate and found your own treasure. *((surprised and excited voice; smiling with eyes wide))*

C: *((nods yes with a big grin))*

T: What happened in your dream? *((leaning in toward child; eager voice))*

C: It happen the pirates came and I get into a boat and we they didn't know.

T: They didn't know you had the treasure? You were sneaking out in that boat, hey. *((eyes wide; smiling; nodding head))*

C: *nods yes*

T: and you got away? (*surprised and excited voice; smiling; eyes wide*)

C: I swim.

T: You swam with the treasure in the boat? (*excited voice; smiling; eyes wide*)

C: *nods yes*

T: My goodness that was some kind of dream wasn't it!

What sounds like a conversation between two friends is actually an example of a highly skilled teacher scaffolding her student's competency in telling a story sequentially with increasing details. Writing is as much about conversation and composing as it is about getting the words down on paper. Being able to tell a story supports reading and writing skills. One of the best opportunities for a teacher to extend a child's language lies in the conversations she has with the child throughout the writing lesson. When the child constructs part of a sentence in a new way, the teacher knows something has changed in the child's language. In the following example illustrating how Dana scaffolded a conversation with Jon, Jon's language changed to a longer utterance indicating growth in his language skills.

T: If you got in the boat where would you go? I think I might go to the beach.

C: Beach.

T: Would you go to the beach, too, or would you go someplace different?

C: Beach.

T: You want to go to the beach. It might be fun to write about Jon and where you're going.

C: Jon!

T: Ok, so what could we say about you in the boat and going to the beach?

C: Jon is in the boat. *((rocking with each word, looks at teacher))*

T: Ah! That's beautiful.

C: Jon is going to the beach. *((looks back at teacher))*

Types of Assistance Bridging Actual Development to Potential Development

Tharp and Gallimore (1988) depicted the developmental process of the learner's ability to regulate performance on a continuum of phases within and beyond Vygotsky's (1987) zone of proximal development: (1) assistance by more proficient others; (2) a transition from other-assistance to self-assistance; (3) assistance provided by the self; (4) internalization, automatization, fossilization; and (5) deautomatization and recursiveness. Recursive looping in these phases occurs many times in an individual's lifetime as cognitive capacities develop. Tharp and Gallimore described six types of instructional assistance: modeling, contingency management, feeding back, instructing, questioning, and cognitive structuring. The teachers in their study used these types of assistance to bridge students' actual development to their potential development.

Dana, Shelley, and Vivian provided similar types of instructional assistance as described by Tharp and Gallimore. However, the recurring patterns of teacher decisions and types of scaffolding identified in this study demonstrated more specifically how they assisted and taught students.

The consistent patterns of instructional scaffolding identified included:

1. taking a word to fluency,
2. linking to a known letter, word, or word part,
3. supporting what the child does not yet control,
4. drawing El'konin sound boxes for word analysis,
5. validating what the child did correctly,
6. demonstrating,
7. prompting the child to take action,
8. sharing the task,
9. adjusting the level of support.

The following examples from my data represent significant moments of the following types of instructional support identified in my study:

1. Taking a word to fluency

Dana commented on the following sequence, “I am helping him to learn this word by giving him lots of opportunities to write it quickly. I am trying to provide multiple opportunities to learn this word. Repetition is key.”

C: Here is...

T: ((*Pointing to the top part - practice paper*)) Quick, quick, quick. Here, fast.

C: ((*child writing here*))

T: What word is that?

C: Here...

T: I bet you can write it faster. Go. Here. *((saying as she covers the word, child writes fast))*. Here. What word is that?

C: Here.

T: Did you remember your tall h?

C: *((nods yes))*

T: Ok, go again. Here. *((covers word here with her hand))* Fast, fast, fast.

C: *((child writes here))*

T: What word is that? *((repeats covering word))*

C: Here.

T: One more time. As fast as you can go. *((child writes word here))* What word is that?

C: Here.

Dana built more control of the word *here* by directing him to locate it in all the books he read in that lesson and provided opportunities to read *here* in different contexts to increase his understanding of the word meaning. They constructed *here* with magnetic letters and wrote *here* using various mediums. She directed him to practice identifying and forming tall letters and short letters while making the word *here* with magnetic letters and writing the word *here*. He practiced reading sight word cards: *here, is, Jon*. Dana prompted him to read them quickly to increase his speed of response. She said, “Every time you see *here* you have to say *here* fast.”

2. Linking to a known letter, word, or word part

When Jon needed to write the word *hungry*, Dana provided a known link for him. She commented, “I am linking new learning to things he knows. With his low sound-symbol knowledge, I am using lots of links to help him use what he knows to solve something new.”

T: h

C: h

T: h, That sort of sounds like here.

Dana explained the sequence seen below, “Again I am trying to help him connect a sound with a letter by using a known word. Eventually, I am hoping he creates these links without support.”

C: rrrr

T: rrrr. Like, you remember? Like rabbit

C: rrrr (*voice rising as he pronounces*)

C: (*writes r*)

T: That's it! Good boy! You got it, put it in! All right!

In this representative example, Dana scaffolded solving a word by using an analogy. Lilli had the opportunity to hear how a word she knew sounded like the work she wanted to write.

T: Ok, listen! What word sounds like SOME? SOME=

C: =Cuh:::COME!

T: Do you know COME?

C: (*nods head*)

T: Ok, try to write COME.

C: (*writes c*) C Come (2.5)

T: I'll finish it (*writes o m e*) All right, now! If you know COME, you know SOME.

Write it here ((*points to the top of her page*))

T: [S:::U:::M] See! COME and SOME, they sound the same so they look the same. All right, go ahead!

Dana commented later, “After giving her wait time, I realized *come* wasn’t known in her writing vocabulary. So, I just finished it. I am teaching the principle of solving through analogy. It wasn’t important at that moment if she could write *come*.”

3. *Supporting what the child does not yet control*

Clay (2005) stated acceleration depends on how well the teacher selects the clearest, most memorable example with which to teach a new response, skill, or strategic action. Productive examples lead to further writing control and avoid overwhelming the learner. Dana explained her decision making for writing the letters unknown to the child to complete a word when writing his story. “I knew h was the only letter he knew in the word *hungry* or could link to something new so I spent no more time with the other letters in this part. There were other more memorable places to teach process in other words in his story.”

C: h, h

T: That's the one we need.

C: ((*writes h*))

T: Good job. Let me finish it up for you. ((*teacher writes the rest of hungry*))

Dana reflected about the next interaction:

At this point I am looking for the most powerful place to teach. I know building on what he knows has more power. I don't spend time working on sounds he doesn't know right now. The power is in the letters he does know. I want him to understand he can hear and link the sounds and record those known letters. These sounds are connected to a symbol. The boxes help him to understand what relation the letters and sounds have to others in the word. If he doesn't know the letters, these connections don't happen so I fill them in for him.

T: Watch. *((saying short vowel sound of o))* o:: o::o

C: *((showing no sign of knowing how to represent that sound))*

T: Let me show you. *((teacher writes letter O in matching sound box))*

Dana demonstrated strategic teaching to expand Jon's current competencies to his potential achievement. For example, to enable the child to develop strategic processing in writing, the teacher took responsibility for more item-based elements in the early writing to give the child more opportunities to strengthen what he knew and could control and to develop his sense of story while increasing his control of English language. In early lessons, Dana served as Jon's memory for his composition by repeating it back to him after he composed and as he wrote. She modeled having a plan while writing. With her scaffolding, he wrote his message while maintaining the meaning.

T: Ok, so what could we say about you in the boat and going to the beach?

C: Jon is in the boat. *((rocking with each word, looks at teacher))*

T: Ah! That's beautiful.

C: Jon is going to the beach. *((looks back at teacher))*.

T: Ok, let me see if I got it. Jon is in the boat. Look at me so you can listen. Jon is going to the beach. Is that what you would like to say? *((child smiling, nodding))* Now look at me, you weren't listening. I could tell. *((child faces teacher))* Jon is in the boat. Jon is going to the beach. Is that right?

C: *((nodding yes))*

T: Ok. That is a great story.

In addition, as he wrote she acted as his memory for spatial concepts like spacing between words and return sweep early in his process development with nonverbal cues like pointing where to start the next word. The teacher believed it was more important for him to concentrate on developing the complexity of his language and writing process than to get bogged down in too many details until his proficiency progressed. As Dana faded her support to foster autonomy, Jon took on more independence in controlling some of the tasks Dana had previously supported.

4. Drawing El'konin sound boxes for word analysis

Using the framework of sound boxes provides a child with “a correct orientation to the role of the sounds in language and acquaint him with the correct sound form and structure of words” (El'konin, 1973, p. 556). Sound boxes provide a visual framework to support children in learning that words are made up of individual phonemes or sounds put together to form the whole word. For example, the teacher would draw three connecting boxes to represent each phoneme in the word *mouse*. The boxes represent each phoneme, not necessarily each letter of

the word. The following sequence shows how Dana scaffolded the task for Jon early in his process.

T: MORE! Is that a word you know? *((leans down to face him and gets child's attention by touching his arm))* Is that a word you know?

C: Nnn nnn *((shakes head))*

T: Then we should use some boxes. *((draws a three box diagram))*

T: Watch my mouth *((eye contact; touches mouth))*. mmm::o::rr:: You say it.

C: mm::o::r::

T: OK, slide *((prompting to expected action of sliding finger across boxes while saying the word slowly))*

C: *((while sliding finger across the boxes))* mmm::o::rr::

T: Start at the beginning *((points to the first box))*.

C: *((slides finger across boxes))* mm::o::r::

T: Start at the beginning. *((moves child's finger to the first box))* You can hear it.

C: *((points to first box))* mmm *((looks up at teacher))* (1.5) *((writes m in first box))* M

T: Slide again!

C: *((slides finger across boxes again))* mmm::o::rr:: *((writes r in last box))* R

T: *((writes O and E into the word to make MORE))* Check and see if you're right.

C: mmm::o::rr:: *((slides finger left to right under the boxes while saying sounds and looking at the letters))*

T: You right?

C: *((nods head and starts to write word in his story))*

5. *Validating what the child did correctly*

Vivian verbally provided verbal affirmation identifying specifically the correct action. After Eddie articulated a word slowly and before he pushed the sounds in sound boxes on his practice page, Vivian praised, “Oooo, I like the way you said that slowly to hear those sounds.” In her validation of what Eddie did right, she applied a positive nuance by using the word *and* rather than the qualifier *but*:

T: You know what? You are right. Those are all the sounds you hear in *play* and there’s a letter at the end to make it look right. Do you know what that letter is?

After the Brandon wrote a known word fluently into his story without hesitation, Vivian reinforced with an affirming nod, “Hmhm. Oooo that was fast. Good boy. What you know, you have to do fast.”

6 – 8. *Demonstrating, Prompting the child to take action, Sharing the task*

In the next sequence, all three types of scaffolds were used to move letter formation from teacher regulated to child regulated. When Jon wrote a z backwards, Dana shared the task and moved down on her scale of help as the child gained control of the letter formation. First, she provided a model. Next, she prompted the child to monitor on the features of the model and his backwards z. She adjusted her support using verbal and nonverbal support based on the control demonstrated by Jon. She scaffolded his learning using movement, visual, and verbal prompts.

C: *((writes the letter z backwards))*

T: It is a Z. You're right. What do you notice about your Z and my Z? *((puts plastic letter z on paper above where child wrote z backwards))* Practice that Z like this one up here. *((pointing to the practice page))* You go across...

C: *((writing letter Z with teacher guiding his hand with hers holding his making the movement of the z formation together))*

T: Good, go again.

C: *((writes Z correctly))*

T: Good, do another one.

C: *((starts the wrong way and teacher takes child's hand to redirect the starting place and then moves her hand away))*

T: The other way.

C: *((writes Z correctly))*

T: Good, do another one.

C: *((writes it correctly))*

T: Great. Draw another one. *((takes child's hand when he starts it wrong))*

T: The other way. Do another one.

C: *((writes Z correctly)).*

T: Do another one. *((T. takes child's hand 3rd time to redirect))* Uh...do another one. *((T raising child's hand and drawing in the air))*

T: Let's do it in the air. Across, down, across. Do another one. Across, down, across. Do another one *((releasing child's hand, T/C do simultaneously drawing z in the air))*

T: Across, down, across. One more. Across, down across. Do one here

((pointing to the writing pad)).

C: *((softly))* Across...

T: *((speaking softly))* Uh, across, down, across. Good. Let's fix that Z up *((takes white tape to cover the backwards z on his paper))*. Across, down, across

C: *((child writes a correctly oriented Z))*

T: Beautiful. There's another one in there, too. You need another Z. Across, down, across. Good job.

9. *Adjusting the level of support*

Shelley reread May's story each time she wrote a word to gather up the meaning again in order to predict the next word to write. With an economy of language Shelley explained to May, "When you reread, it helps to know what word would make sense next. Rereading will help you in reading and writing." She then verbally prompted May to reread after writing a word.

Decreasing her level of support the next time, she pointed with her pencil to the first word in the sentence without a verbal prompt. May reread. The next time, Shelley questioned, "What can you do to help yourself know the next word?" Later when May stopped after writing a word, Shelley quickly said, "Help yourself." By scaffolding the strategic action of rereading, Shelley taught May how to consistently monitor her work when writing. May independently reread what she wrote and thought about what word would come next in subsequent writing events. Shelley praised her strategic move, "Good girl! You reread your story and solved it all by yourself! You can do that in reading books, too!" Shelley verbalized this connection to build for transfer from one literate act to another.

Another change over time was evident by May not having to reread all the way from the beginning of the sentence to write each word. She learned to hold the meaning in her head and transitioned from rereading from the beginning of the sentence to only rereading a phrase or one or two words back in order to continue her written message.

Expanding Language Structural Networks and Competencies

In her investigation of instructional conversations, Van Dyke (2006) found personalization and reformulation of the child's utterances were two discourse behaviors that supported children in appropriating new language (Cazden, 1988, 2005; Clay, 1998; Fullerton & DeFord, 2001). Reformulation of the child's utterance provides a form of language support for the ELL. I found significant moments when the teachers used reformulation to rephrase, to summarize, to model English book structure, and to keep the conversation focused. They reflected on their decision making about when they did and did not choose to call the child's attention to hearing how the English structure should sound. In several examples, the teachers were in essence tuning the children's ears to hear the language.

Clay (2004) advocated for teachers to "find ways to prepare their pupils ahead of time to work with new...structures. Get the new phrase or sentence

- to the ear (listening)
- to the mouth (saying)
- to the eye (reading)
- to the written product (creating text)" (p. 5).

Preparing children to hear more complex English structures in conversational exchanges supports their being able to use structure as a valuable source of information when speaking, reading, and composing for writing. Until a child can hear how the structure sounds, anticipating

and monitoring the structure in text is challenging. Signs of growth can be seen when a child stops and notices that something does not sound right while speaking or reading and works to sort it out.

In the following example sequence, Shelley and Huron parsed the language in this conversation to reach a shared understanding. The teacher focused on the message meaning and not grammar. Huron played with the verb forms of *come* and over generalized the past tense *ed* form. Shelley thought later, “I need to think about the appropriate time to model or correct structure.”

C: (0.5) Huron put the ball up and (2.0)

T: ((*repeating and writing his story at the same time*)) Huron put the ball (.) up (.) and what?

C: (0.5) And the air comes (.) comes down and (.) I put them (.) under trailer.

T: All right ((*writing the story he just told her*)). Huron put the ball (.) up (.) and the air comes...((*looking at child and waiting for child to elaborate*))

C: Out=the air come out of the trailer.

T: The air come out of the trailer? ((*squinting face and questioning voice*))? (1.5)

C: ((*shakes head no*)) (.) No.

T: Ok, tell me again.

T/C: (1.5) HURON ((*teacher helps to get him started*))

C: pick the ball up and (0.5) the (.) air comed out of the (.) ball.

Shelley refrained from altering the child’s efforts, but later she wondered if she should increase her support to help him hear correct grammatical structures and extend his vocabulary.

Shelley reflected on the next interaction, “I corrected it, but maybe I should have provided opportunity for him to hear both ways and tell him which one sounded better.”

C: He climbed the tree and get the nuts. *((motioning with his hands))*

T: He climbed the tree and got the nuts *((reformulating what the child said))*

Several weeks later Huron composed the following story. In retrospect, Shelley thought, “At this level, I should model the book structure and tune his ear to hear it correctly instead of letting it go.”

C: Bella and Rosie ride in the car, and then Rosie said, “Are we there yet? and

Bella said, “No, the beach is far, far away.”

In the next example, Shelley offered Huron a choice of structure, but he did not yet control past tense structure. The teacher focused again on the message rather than the grammar.

C: And (2.0) he hide from the animals from the zebras the monkeys and the (0.5)

the what else?

T: (2.0) *((still writing))* Ok, so *((reading what he said so far))* the donkey tricked

the animals and he=do you want to say he HIDE from or and he HID

from=which one do you want to say?

C: Hide

T: And he HIDE from the (2.0)=you want to say all the animals?

Shelley reformulated May's ideas into English book structure in the following examples.

First example:

C: Kick him legs and hold his hands (up in the up) and let, he, he, help ride his bike.

T: Okay, so, Max taught Jake how to ride his bike and then Jake taught Max how to swim. All right, so what can we say about that? (*flips to a blank page in her writing pad*))

Second example:

C: Time clean up al-l-l-l day.

T: She said they need to clean up their rooms. Do you ever have a messy room?

Dana described her response to Lilli's statement in the following sequence, "I am reformulating her language structure but still validating her ideas."

C: Something else. I (.) get (.) a (.) cat.

T: You got a cat?

For the next sequence, Dana provided commentary afterward, "I am honoring her story but offering her a correct language structure. I am asking her how it sounds to her so she takes ownership of the new structure. I repeat the story so she hears the new structure."

C: I went to go pizza. Pizza is good.

T: Ok, so, I went to GET pizza. Does that sound ok?

C: ((*nods head*))

T: I went to GET pizza? ((*confirms*))

The next example shows how Vivian reformulated Brandon's idea.

C. The lion get the mouse.

T. The lion got the mouse didn't he?

In a conversation about a familiar book, Vivian reformulated Eddie's statement about Kingfisher eating his tail in order to help him shape the structure of his message. She tuned his ear to hear how the English structure sounded so that he could use English structure in his own speaking, reading, and writing. In his composition out of that conversation, Eddie appropriated Vivian's reformulation demonstrating development in his use of English language structure.

C: Kingfisher eat him tail.

T: Kingfisher is eating his tail, isn't he?

C: Yes.

T: I heard you say also that lizard is going home because Kingfisher is eating him. Let's write that in our story today. Ok? How do you want to start that?

C: Kingfisher is eating lizard's tail.

In every conversation, the teachers provided opportunities for their students to construct increasingly more proficient English language structures in talking, reading, and writing.

Clay (2004) argues:

when we speak or listen to speech, we are constructing and composing; when we write any message, we are constructing and composing; and when we read text, we are again constructing and composing. The demands for each of these three activities are slightly different but each feeds into one pool of structural possibilities in the language. (p. 4)

Shelley, Dana, and Vivian attended to the expansion of their students' control over more complex language structures in talking, reading, and writing. Having opportunities to hear, say, see, and produce in written form the new language structure or turn of phrase increases the chances of the child claiming that structure for her own. The idea is the composition will be a written-to-be-read text (Neal, 2009). Since the child composed the message and parsed the language structure of it, she has the benefit of language familiarity as the basis for anticipation when she reads her story during and after the writing. A feed-forward mechanism develops as a result of knowing how this written text sounds and enables the child to learn how to use language as a source of information for reading as well.

Concluding Discussion

Consensus abounds on the value of instructing in a child's first language (August & Shanahan, 2006; Genessee & Riches, 2006; Slavin & Cheung, 2003). Native language speaking, reading and writing abilities provide positive resources for taking on a new language. Native language

writing provides opportunities to establish purpose and function, apply first language knowledge, and demonstrate competence of what they know in a language they control (Hudelson, 1989).

Escamilla, Geisler, Hopewell, Sparrow, and Butvilofsky (2009) advocated instruction in Spanish for Spanish-speaking bilinguals serves as a positive scaffold to literacy in English. Their research pointed to the value of meaningful cross-language connections from Spanish to English. However, they stated if teachers are teaching in English medium classrooms, emphases can be placed on English structures and spelling.

In bilingual schools in parts of Texas and a few other states, a Spanish version of Reading Recovery is available to Spanish speaking children. Descubriendo la Lectura (DLL) is the reconstruction of Reading Recovery in Spanish and is designed for first graders having difficulty learning to read and write in bilingual classrooms where Spanish is the language of instruction (Rodriguez & Rodriguez, 2009). Even though the theoretical underpinnings of Descubriendo la Lectura and Reading Recovery are the same and rooted in Clay's (2005) work, some distinctions arise in literacy acquisition in English and Spanish. There are specific language differences as well as socio-cultural differences in language use, such as the prevalence of code-switching in the North American context. Thus DLL is influenced by the field of bilingual education as well as Clay's research and theory (Rodriguez & Rodriguez, 2009).

DLL teachers must be fluent in two languages, have successful bilingual classroom teaching experience, and be certified in bilingual education. Because qualified bilingual teachers are scarce in most areas of the nation, school systems often face recruiting difficulties for DLL teachers.

While ideally children would be taught to read and write in their first language, practically speaking this is not always feasible (Kelly, 2009). In the district in which this study

took place, Reading Recovery teachers worked with children speaking fifty-two different languages. Nevertheless, quality instruction in English for second language learners is possible when teachers hold high expectations for students, co-construct literacy learning with students, and differentiate instruction based on students' individual linguistic and cultural strengths.

Williams and Haag (2009) encouraged teachers to carefully craft their academic language and provide diverse response opportunities to match the competencies of each individual ELL. Clay (2005) stated "Children who come to school speaking any language will have a preparation for literacy learning that is to be valued, whatever that prior language is" (p. 6).

Teachers who view ELLs as only needing English language instruction fail to see the complexities of ELLs' literacy learning process (Yoon, 2009). Children construct and reconstruct their cultural and social identities while they interact with their teacher and peers. Children actively negotiate their identities as they are positioned by others (Greenwood, 1994). The way in which children position themselves is important for their sense of competence, well-being, and performance (Johnston, 2004). Positioning children as intelligent may allow them the possibility to extend what they can do and empower their learning. In this article, I showed how the teachers customized their conversations in the writing component of their lessons to coordinate with their students' prior experiences and competencies and to scaffold new language and skills in composing and writing. They built new knowledge and strategies on the individual child's strengths and prior experiences. The teachers provided opportunities for the children to position themselves as competent intelligent empowered learners.

One of the key components of the one-on-one literacy lesson is the conversation that leads the child to compose and write a message. Together, the teacher and child talked to generate a story the child wrote with the support of the teacher. Clay (1998) argued, "The very

foundation of literacy learning lies in the language the child has already constructed” (p.2). The power of genuine and natural conversations between teachers and students facilitated English language development, composing, and supported the writing process. The students’ language learning and writing competencies expanded out of the conversations, compositions, and writing interactions. The teachers’ instructional scaffolding supported their students’ construction of language networks and access roads to strategic processing in writing. This accomplishment resulted from the children’s experiences with the teachers in talking, reading, composing, and writing.

I provided examples of how the teachers adjusted their level of support to foster independent strategic actions by using a familiar text as a scaffold to help their children with words in writing. One teacher adjusted her level of support fading from visual and verbal cues to verbal only to activate what the child knew in reading to help him in writing. Another exemplar illustrated how teachers capitalized on the children’s intentions, welcomed the use of their home language, and responded to their leads in composing stories for writing. The teachers’ careful listening communicated respect and supported meaningful conversations and compositions.

The teachers consistently applied nine types of instructional assistance to bridge actual development to potential development in their students’ writing processes. I choose significant moments from my observations illustrating those consistent patterns identified. Interestingly, the teachers’ instructional assistance correlated with the priorities they discussed in my interviews with them at the beginning of my study. Through my observations and analysis, I found a consistency with what they expressed as their theories for teaching English language learners and their actual daily instructional practices.

The teachers created opportunities for their students to expand their language structural networks and competencies through their conversations, compositions, and writings.

Appropriation of language can be reciprocal. The teachers appropriated children's utterance in order to revoice or reformulate into more mature forms. Then the teachers' language was available for the children's subsequent appropriation if it was the "just-in-time" language the children needed and could control (Cazden, 2001, p. 96).

The teachers remained sensitive listeners and tussled with appropriate timing of when to reformulate their students' language based on what the child could control. Teachers find challenge in balancing between accepting (and therefore valuing) what the child says and helping him to say it in a way that is going to advance his ability to control good sentence structure and use more interesting words (Peirce, 2006).

The teachers reflected on the importance of tuning the child's ears to hear and providing opportunities to use the English structures to prepare them for monitoring on structure in their speaking, reading, and writing. The teachers and children participated in acts of awareness and parsing of language in every conversation.

Hobsbaum, Peters, and Sylva (1996) concluded, "There is no relaxation of the challenges posed and the teacher is constantly moving to what can be considered as the outer limits of the zone of proximal development" (p.31). They found responsive teaching in the "zone" accelerates the learning. Hobsbaum, Peters, and Sylva questioned if scaffolding can be applied as easily in writing as in learning to read. Decisions about the support needed in reading and writing instruction spring from what the teacher knows the child can do and the anticipated complexity of the task. Scaffolded interaction for text reading allows comparison over time with the same level of text encountered on successive occasions. In a set task, the teacher's expectations rise

rather than the task difficulty. However, in writing, there are no leveled texts. The teacher not only raises expectations in tandem with ELLs' developing language, knowledge and skill, but also the writing task is unpredictable involving new, unplanned content which continually varies in complexity. Researchers' ongoing questions like this one add depth and new perspectives during the process of researching effective instructional scaffolding of an early writing process for ELLs.

CHAPTER V

FINAL DISCUSSIONS

Overview and Review

Chapter five contains a synthesis of what I learned from the teachers and students who graciously welcomed me into their writing lessons for eighteen weeks, from previous research, and from reflective conversations with other literacy educators about my research observations and analysis. I also discuss the implications from my study and offer suggestions for further research.

The purpose of the study was to investigate the types and characteristics of one-on-one teaching interactions that effectively scaffold writing instruction to support English language learners (ELL) as they come to be English writers. The theoretical perspective shaping this study is a sociocultural theory within a worldview of constructivism drawing from the work of Vygotsky (1978, 1987), Vygotsky and Kozulin (1986), Clay (1998), Tharp and Gallimore (1988, 1991), and Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976). Through a sociocultural lens, my view is children construct knowledge and language with more capable others, at first requiring assistance, but gradually becoming more independent (Rodgers, 1999, 2004; Vygotsky, 1978, 1987). In the first article of chapter four, I shared how a sociocultural theoretical perspective influences instructional practices in writing instruction within an individualized tutoring context.

Two research questions guided my explorations and descriptions within the context of the writing component of Reading Recovery lessons with ELL:

1. How do effective early intervention literacy teachers scaffold writing instruction in a one-on-one tutoring context with English language learners?
2. What are the characteristics of the teacher-student interactions in a one-on-one tutoring context with English language learners?

I used an exploratory and descriptive qualitative multiple case study approach (Yin, 2006) to investigate the characteristics of the teacher-student interactions between three expert teachers and two of their first grade ELL (six students in all). In order to describe a teacher's scaffolding and interactions, I described the talk during the writing component of the one-on-one early intervention literacy lessons in rich detail.

Interactions Scaffolding Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words

In each teacher-child dyad lesson interactions, I examined how the teachers scaffolded writing instruction for their English language learning students. First, I investigated the characteristics of one-on-one teaching interactions that effectively scaffolded hearing and recording sounds in words. The dyad case exemplar on which I focused broke the tasks into parts: first, saying words slowly and smoothly; second, pushing sounds into a graphic organizer of boxes for each phoneme while saying the word slowly; next, recording the letters representing the sounds in each box; and finally, checking if the letters he wrote matched the sounds he heard. The fluid and flexible process transitioned to teacher regulated to student controlled. The teacher's support moved in and out depending on the student's competencies. She made

recursive moves adjusting her level of support as needed to foster successful independence in the child.

When introducing the task or when the task seemed out of the child's control, the teacher demonstrated. Her clear demonstrations preceded his production of the behavior. She combined demonstrating with questioning. Perhaps by linking demonstrations and questions, she increased understanding of the task and invited him to take control. This finding supports Wood, Bruner, and Ross' (1976) study of scaffolding that in language acquisition comprehension must precede self-regulated production of new learning. This finding also supports Rodgers' (1999) conclusion that the presence or absence of demonstrating moves by the teacher impacts how well the child learns to apply strategic behaviors.

The teacher's level of support flexibly shifted according to the level of student control from demonstrating, to assisting or sharing the task, to verbal and nonverbal prompting (visual and/or physical) transferring initiative to the child, to affirming (verbally and/or nonverbally), and finally to observing the child's independent control of the task. My study adds to Rodgers' (1998) description of teacher-student talk by identifying distinct types of scaffolding and interactions and extends her line of inquiry by including non-verbal language. I also provided evidence of the changes in language use along the way to self-regulation. I identified verbal and non-verbal scaffolding action:

- Demonstrating (explicit modeling of an action);
- Directing or Transferring Initiative (prompting an action);
- Affirming (confirming with specific or general praise);
- Sharing the Task (doing the action with the student; providing a known link);
- Providing a Prop (diagram of sound boxes);

- Questioning (to prompt sequence or action, to focus attention, for preferred response, to check for understanding).

I found the teacher in the beginning demonstrated for the student, lavished affirmation, and shared the task. Clear demonstrations preceded the child's task production, and questioning for understanding accompanied many of them. When the child erred, the teacher mended or repaired by demonstrating again, questioning, telling, directing, praising, affirming, and/or prompting the child to try again avoiding unhelpful rebuke. She often validated what the child did correctly in his attempts first. She adjusted her level of support in response to the child's growing competencies over time. Later in the child's program, the teacher shifted to more non-verbal affirmation, directing or transfer of initiative. Even her body language shifted over time, from leaning in close to the child guiding the child's hand to slide across the boxes to eventually sitting back in her chair and recording notes in her lesson records as the child wrote independently.

The student produced evidence of self-regulated behaviors by an increase in the number of phonemes he recorded on a final assessment but much more importantly, by the recording of sounds in sequence of unknown words in his authentic writing and the increase in the complexity of his written stories. Like ice dancing partners skate in tandem to support one another, the teacher came in and out with needed support for the child's success but allowed the child to do for himself what he could. The interaction patterns I have described exemplify what Tharp and Gallimore (1988, p. 35) described as a "...steadily declining plane of adult responsibility for task performance and a reciprocal increase in the learner's proportion of responsibility."

Expanding a Meager Knowledge of Words for Strategic Actions in Writing

I investigated how the teachers supported their students in building a large core of known words for writing. An examination of the kinds of scaffolds the teacher provided yielded the understanding that differential assistance was provided by the scaffolds: support in learning a new word and support that produced generative strategies for learning other new words. Persistent, consistent, and insistent characterized the exemplar teacher's instructional language throughout the child's series of one-on-one writing lessons. Through sensitive observation, she captured, validated, and built on the child's footholds in print which could have been controlled item knowledge of letters and words or strategic actions. The teacher demonstrated, shared, and guided tasks visually, verbally, nonverbally, and with movements to anchor the strategic process of learning how to learn a word within the child's control. With many opportunities to use known and new words in written text, the child stayed anchored in meaning which is especially critical for English language learners. The teacher's language set the expectation that learning a new word served a purpose and sent a message of accountability to the child.

Teachers planned opportunities every time their children read and wrote to produce known words fluently, use known words to get to new words through analogy, learn more about orthography, and construct new words by analyzing sounds and thinking about what would look right. The teachers' support for learning how to learn a word centered not on building items but constructing generative strategic processes for solving words by accessing and building on known and controlled word networks. Controlling a large core of writing vocabulary words and being able to write those quickly allow ELLs to increase the fluency with which they record their messages in writing. A growing core of known words opens opportunities for young ELL writers

to increase the complexity of their written stories and to work on learning other strategic ways of solving new words.

Scaffolding Progress in Language Learning and Writing Development

Through the practice of conversational analysis, I was able to view data through a new lens revealing interesting aspects about the instructional interaction in the context of one exemplar teacher and one English language learning student. The interesting aspects included wait time, reformulation, personalization, how the teacher fostered oral language development, how the teacher's language and the use of warm friendly questions guided the child in learning how to create a narrative sentence story, and how the teacher adjusted her language when the child did not understand.

Conversations personalizing the ideas in familiar books children have enjoyed reading may assist reluctant English language learners to start to learn about composing messages and stories for writing. Children learn language through meaningful shared contextual conversations. These findings resonate with Clay's (2004) statement that "if we plan instruction that links oral language and literacy learning (writing and reading) from the start—so that writing and reading and oral language processing move forward together, linked and patterned from the start— that instruction will be more powerful" (Clay, 2001). Teachers' discourse behaviors during lesson conversations— specifically personalization of the conversations, warm, friendly nonverbal invitations to talk which communicated respect and acceptance, appropriate wait time, and reformulation of children's utterances—supported English language learners in appropriating new language and impacted language learning substantially.

Orchestrating Interactions that Scaffold the Writing of English Language Learners

ELLs often need more-explicit scaffolding to access the academic language of school tasks and texts. ELLs benefit from purposeful and meaningful opportunities to hear, see, read, write, and speak English in school. Not only does daily writing serve academic purposes for English language learners but it also provides opportunities for ownership by generating personal sentence topics (Zeno, 1998).

Familiarity with students' culture characterizes effective teachers of ELLs. Effective teachers build needed background knowledge by helping ELLs make personal connections and develop meaningful context. I found the teachers in my study customized their conversations in the writing component of their lessons to coordinate with their students' prior text and personal experiences and competencies and to scaffold new language and skills in composing and writing. They built new knowledge and strategies on the individual child's strengths and prior experiences. The teachers provided opportunities for the children to position themselves as competent intelligent empowered learners.

One of the key components of the one-on-one literacy lesson is the conversation that leads the child to compose and write a message. Together, teacher and child talked to generate a story the child wrote with the support of the teacher. The power of genuine and natural conversation between teacher and student facilitated English language development and composing; and it supported the writing process. In the interactions of each dyad in the study, the teacher's instructional scaffolding supported the student's construction of language networks and access roads to strategic processing in writing. This accomplishment resulted from the children's experiences with the teachers in talking, reading, composing, and writing.

Teachers adjusted their level of support to foster independent strategic actions by using a familiar text as a scaffold to help their children with words in writing. One teacher adjusted her level of support fading from visual and verbal cues to verbal prompts only to activate what the child knew in reading to help him in writing. Another exemplar illustrated how teachers capitalized on the children's intentions, welcomed the use of their home language, and responded to their leads in composing stories for writing. The teachers' careful listening communicated respect and supported meaningful conversations and compositions.

Through my observations and analysis, I found a consistency with what the teachers expressed as their theories for teaching ELLs and their actual daily instructional practices. Further research exploring if and how classroom teachers' theories of learning and priorities in teaching ELLs transfer to their actual instructional practices would be interesting.

The teachers created opportunities for their students to expand their language structural networks and competencies through their conversations, compositions, and writings by appropriating children's utterances in order to re-voice or reformulate into more mature forms. They remained sensitive listeners and tussled with appropriate timing of when to reformulate their students' language based on what the child could control. I found what Peirce (2006) discussed to be true concerning how teachers find challenge in balancing between accepting (and therefore valuing) what the child says and helping him to say it in a way that is going to advance his ability to control good sentence structure and use more interesting words. The teachers reflected on the importance of tuning the child's ears to hear and providing opportunities to use the English structures to prepare them for monitoring on structure in their speaking, reading, and writing. Language in the head helps a child predict what might come next and supports a feed-forward mechanism for meaning in reading and writing.

The findings from this study support the social context for learning and the critical role of appropriate scaffolded instruction. Independent problem solving in writing in collaboration with a knowledgeable teacher enables an ELL to accomplish alone tomorrow what required assistance today (Vygotsky, 1987).

Implications for Teachers

Challenges in scaffolding writing instruction for English language learners extend beyond just good teaching practices (Harper & de Jong, 2009). Effective teachers create opportunities to partner with ELLs in their construction of language and writing strategies. They go beyond words to establish respectful relationships with students and communicate high expectations. Highly successful teachers scaffold learning opportunities applying an understanding of the role of active student interaction and teacher feedback. Integrating listening, speaking, reading, and writing in meaningful contexts plays a key role in useful scaffolding. The way teachers provide support for students in one context influences whether the student regulates the new strategic behavior for herself independently in future contexts.

Expertly guided conversations are critical to developing language and teaching children how to compose stories in school for writing. The ability of teachers to personalize conversations affects what occurs in learning. Oral language provides a rich resource for serving reading and writing. The reciprocity between conversation, reading, and writing helps to accelerate a child's learning (Clay, 2005). Carefully examining the sentences a child generates for writing could guide teachers in selecting books that reflect the syntactical structure within the child's control. Likewise, using familiar texts to demonstrate increasingly more complex English structures supports the ELL child's language development for speaking and composing messages for

writing. Reformulating and providing opportunities for ELL students to hear and rehearse more mature English structures supports the appropriation of new language, not just a transfer of language from teacher to child.

English language learning students struggling to acquire a writing process in English need personal introductions to help them puzzle out the process. Teachers need to support their learning with clear demonstrations accompanied with warm, friendly verbal and non verbal encouragements and affirmations. In order to foster transfer of task control and self-regulation, teachers need to adjust their levels of support in tandem with the child's increasing competencies. Effective and efficient teachers scaffold instruction contingent on the strengths of the child. Co-constructing new knowledge and strategies by building on what the child knows, understands, and controls provides the glue and the grease for self-regulation producing a generative process and making it easy to learn.

So What Can Teachers of English Language Learners Do?

1. Create opportunities for echoes across a lesson linking oral language, reading and writing processes.
2. Capitalize on the child's oral language, reading, writing, and cultural strengths and connect to what the child already knows. Foster a search for relationships.
3. Provide opportunities for the student to hear and produce a variety of sentence structures and create a purposeful need to produce language on the cutting edge of her learning.
4. Provide opportunities to read a variety of books and write a variety of stories (genres, structures, concepts).

5. Create opportunities for more genuine conversations about shared activities, personal experiences, and connections to text. Invite joy and humor.
6. Support phonological awareness and speed of recognizing words and phrases within continuous and meaningful written texts.
7. Demonstrate verbally, visually, and non-verbally clearly helpful moves to problem solve.
8. Affirm and validate the child's responses.
9. Transfer initiative to the child to take action to foster independence.
10. Continue to demonstrate when the task becomes more complex or is out of the control of the child without support.
11. Question in such a way as to prompt the child to a productive and generative action.
12. Monitor and balance wait time to foster independence in the child gaining control of the English language and strategic actions in writing yet avoid frustration.
13. Monitor whether the instructional scaffold is merely assisting to solve an immediate problem or teaching the child a generative strategy to solve future problems.
14. Notice affect and non-verbal cues of teacher and student.
15. Prompt to more than one way of solving words in writing to promote flexibility and fluency.
16. Reflect on how moment by moment decisions made about instructional scaffolding shifted the child's writing process daily. Instead of focusing on a condition of the child as being a reason for slow progress, focus on the nature of the teacher's support.

The teacher holds tremendous responsibility and influence toward a child's learning.

Clay (2005) believed, "If the child is a struggling reader or writer the conclusion must be that we

have not yet discovered the way to help him learn” (p. 158). Many factors influencing ELLs’ success in building a strategic writing process respond to appropriate instructional scaffolding.

My investigations and findings clarified and deepened my understandings and impacted my own writing instruction with ELLs. Through my analysis of the collaborative efforts between the teachers and students in learning how to compose and write, I refined my own literacy coaching approaches and added new perspectives and possibilities on my radar when observing and supporting other early intervention teachers. I remain tentative and open to new perspectives as my understandings evolve.

I hope my research lends support to teachers’ understandings and heightens awareness about the characteristics and nature of effective scaffolding and language interactions that increase the literacy achievement for ELLs.

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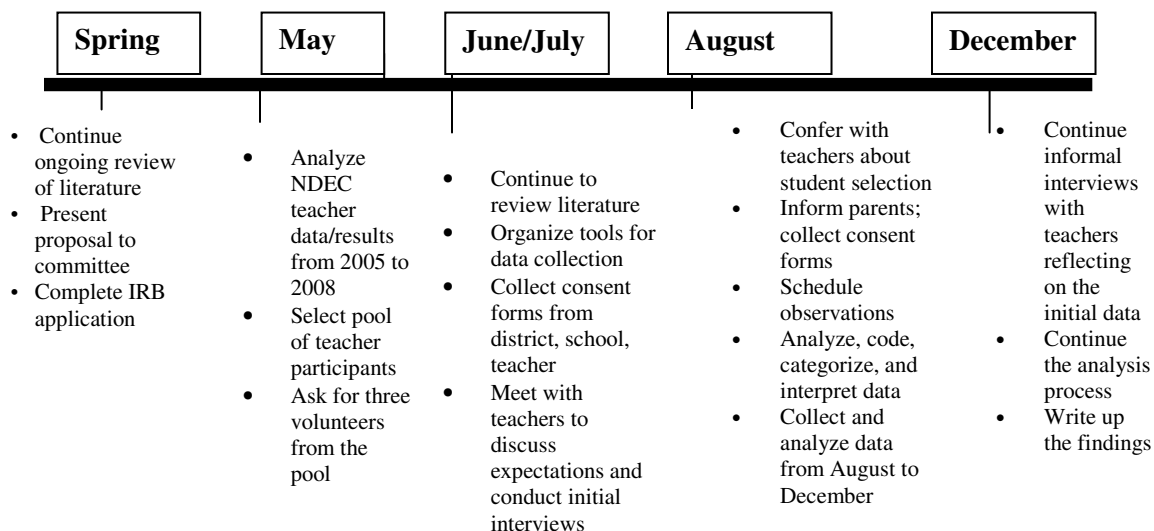
APPENDICES

Appendices for Chapter III

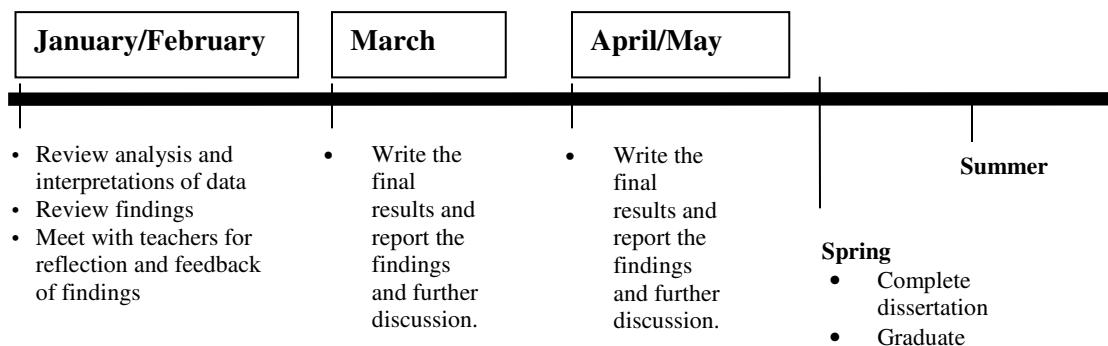
Appendix A

Projected Timeline for the Study

2008



2009



Appendix B

IRB Approval

From: "LaRie Sylte" <lsylte@uga.edu>
To: "llabbo@uga.edu" <llabbo@uga.edu>
CC: "lisa_lang@comcast.net" <lisa_lang@comcast.net>
Subject: IRB Approval- Labbo
Date: Tuesday, June 24, 2008 3:17:29 PM

PROJECT NUMBER: 2008-10852-0
TITLE OF STUDY: Interactions that Scaffold Writing: Case Studies of Three Early Intervention Literacy Teachers and Six English Language Learners
PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Dr. Linda D. Labbo

Dear Dr. Labbo,

Please be informed that the University of Georgia Institutional Review Board (IRB) has granted approval to the above-titled human subjects proposal that was reviewed by expedited review procedure. You may now begin your study. You should be receiving your approval packet and date-stamped consent form(s) via campus mail.

Please remember that no change in this research proposal can be initiated without prior review by the IRB. Any adverse events or unanticipated problems must be reported to the IRB immediately. The principal investigator is also responsible for maintaining all applicable protocol records (regardless of media type) for at least three (3) years after completion of the study (i.e., copy of approved protocol, raw data, amendments, correspondence, and other pertinent documents). You are requested to notify the Human Subjects Office if your study is completed or terminated.

Good luck with your study, and please feel free to contact us if you have any questions. Please use the IRB project number and title in all communications regarding this study.

Regards,

LaRie Sylte
Human Subjects Office
University of Georgia
www.ovpr.uga.edu/hso/

Appendix C

Approval Letter from District Site Coordinator for the Reading Recovery Program



June 23, 2008

**GWINNETT COUNTY
BOARD OF EDUCATION**

Carole Boyce
Chairman
District I

Daniel D. Seckinger
Vice Chairman
District II

Dr. Robert McClure
District IV

Dr. Mary Kay Murphy
District III

Louise Radloff
District V

J. Alvin Wilbanks
CEO/Superintendent

**THE MISSION OF
GWINNETT COUNTY
PUBLIC SCHOOLS**
*is to pursue excellence
in academic knowledge,
skills, and behavior
for each student,
resulting in measured
improvement against
local, national, and
world-class standards.*

437 Old Peachtree Road, NW
Suwanee, GA 30024-2978
678-301-6000
www.gwinnett.k12.ga.us

It is the policy of Gwinnett County Public Schools
not to discriminate on the basis of race, color, sex,
religion, national origin, age, or disability in any
employment practice, educational program, or any
other program, activity, or service.

I, Joyce Berube, give permission for Lisa Lang to make Reading Recovery teacher observations and to collect various observations, interviews, notes, records and digital recordings of these observations based on her job responsibilities as a GCPS Reading Recovery Teacher Leader. This written approval will document her permission to collect the data that she later plans to use for your dissertation, and this documentation should serve as the evidence required by the UGA IRB for her to begin data collection for her research study. Although I cannot guarantee that Ms Lang's request to conduct research for her dissertation will be approved, neither can I anticipate any challenges nor obstacles to this research.

The data collection that Ms Lang plans to conduct as part of her dissertation is well within the area of data collection that is part of her job; therefore, no additional rights/permission would need to be granted to her beyond her present scope of duties and responsibilities.

Name of Gwinnett Supervisor Joyce Berube

Job Title: Director of Curriculum Development and Instructional Support

Contact Information: 678-301-7043(work phone)

Joyce_Berube@gwinnett.k12.ga.us (e-mail)

Name of Researcher
Lisa Force Lang
Lisa_lang@comcast.net
770-891-2357

Signature Joyce C. Berube

Date June 23, 2008

Appendix D

Approval Letter from District Research and Evaluation Director


**GWINNETT COUNTY
BOARD OF EDUCATION**

Carole Boyce
Chairman
District I

Daniel D. Seckinger
Vice Chairman
District II

Dr. Robert McClure
District IV

Dr. Mary Kay Murphy
District III

Louise Radloff
District V

J. Alvin Wilbanks
CEO/Superintendent

**THE MISSION OF
GWINNETT COUNTY
PUBLIC SCHOOLS**
*is to pursue excellence
in academic knowledge,
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local, national, and
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437 Old Peachtree Road, NW
Suwanee, GA 30024-2978
678-301-6000
www.gwinnett.k12.ga.us

It is the policy of Gwinnett County Public Schools
not to discriminate on the basis of race, color, sex,
religion, national origin, age, or disability in any
employment practice, educational program, or any
other program, activity or service.

Lisa Lang
3310 Brownwood Drive
Snellville, GA 30078

Re: **File ID 2009-05**

Dear Ms. Lang:

This is to advise you that your research proposal, "Interactions that Scaffold Writing: Case Studies of Three Early Interventions Literacy Teachers and Six English Language Learners" (File ID 2009-05), has been approved with the following limitations:

- Consider providing parent information and permission statements in the native language of the parents of prospective student participants.

Important: When contacting schools regarding this research, it is your responsibility to provide a copy of this approval letter to the principal. In addition, it is your responsibility to provide your sponsors and project officers or managers with a copy of this approval letter. **Be sure to use the file ID number issued above when contacting schools or district level personnel regarding this research study.**

Please note that schools and teachers may elect not to participate in your research study, even though the district has granted permission.

Please forward a copy of your results to me when they are completed. Also, we would appreciate you providing us with feedback on the research approval process by completing the enclosed survey and returning it in the enclosed postage-paid envelope.

Best wishes for a successful research project. Please call me at (678) 301-7090 if I may be of further assistance.

Sincerely,

Colin Martin

Colin Martin, Ph.D., Executive Director
Research and Evaluation

Digitally signed by Colin Martin
DN: cn=Colin Martin, o=US, ou=Gwinnett County
Public Schools, ou=Academic Support Division,
email=Colin_Martin@Gwinnett.K12.GA.US
Reason: I am the author of this document
Date: 2008.10.02 11:10:32 -0400

Cc: Dr. Linda Labbo, UGA, llabbo@uga.edu
Lisa_lang@gwinnett.k12.ga.us

Appendix E

Local School Administrator Consent Form

Dear _____,

With cooperation of your school district, I am investigating the characteristics and types of instructional scaffolding of effective teachers within the context of the Reading Recovery program. As a Reading Recovery teacher leader in your district in association with Georgia State University and as a graduate student at the University of Georgia, I am hopeful that the information I gather can help to increase our understanding of effective instructional language to build strong literacy processes for beginning elementary English language learners.

I have discussed this study with _____, a Reading Recovery teacher in your school. She has agreed to be a participant in this study. Two of _____'s Reading Recovery students will be present as I observe the teacher's instruction during the writing component of their Reading Recovery lessons. Due to the nature of the study, the designated weekly lessons will be digital recorded and observed. The purpose of the study is to investigate the types and characteristics of one-on-one teaching interactions that effectively scaffold writing instruction to support English language learners (ELL) as they come to be writers. Two research questions guide my explorations and descriptions within the context of the writing component of Reading Recovery lessons with ELL:

1. How do effective early intervention literacy teachers scaffold writing instruction in a one-on-one tutoring context with English language learners?
2. What are the characteristics of the teacher-student interactions in a one-on-one tutoring context with English language learners?

With your approval and the permission of the parents, this study will begin in August 2008 school year and end by December 2008. The data collected in this study will be presented in a dissertation entitled *Interactions that Scaffold Writing: Case Studies of Three Early Intervention Literacy Teachers and Six English Language Learners*. To assure the protection of the student's privacy, names of the district, school, principal, teacher and students will not be recorded in the written manuscript.

If you have any questions or would like additional information, please call me at home or at work. Thank you very much for your support in this research.

Sincerely,

Lisa Lang

District Reading Recovery Teacher Leader

770-891-2357 cell

lisa_lang@comcast.net

I understand the study procedures described above. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I agree to allow my child to take part in this study. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

Signature_____

Date_____

Appendix F

Teacher Consent Form

Dear _____,

As a Reading Recovery teacher with high outcomes for English language learners in your program, I am writing to invite you to participate in a dissertation study that I would like to conduct during the Fall of the 2008-09 school year.

I, _____, agree to participate in a research study titled "*Interactions that Scaffold Writing: Case Studies of Three Early Intervention Literacy Teachers and Six English Language Learners*" conducted by Lisa Lang from the Department of Language and Literacy Education at the University of Georgia (770-891-2357) under the direction of Dr. Linda Labbo, Department of Language and Literacy Education, University of Georgia (706-542-2718). I understand that my participation is voluntary. I can refuse to participate or stop taking part without giving any reason, and without penalty or loss of benefits to which I am otherwise entitled. I can ask to have all of the information about me returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

The purpose of the study is to investigate the types and characteristics of one-on-one teaching interactions that effectively scaffold writing instruction to support English language learners (I) as they come to be writers.

If I volunteer to take part in this study, I will be asked to do the following things:

- 1) Participate in an interview about writing instruction which will take about 20 minutes at the beginning of the study;
- 2) Take part in informal interviews reflecting on instructional decisions throughout the study;
- 3) Take part in digital recordings twice a week of the writing component of my Reading Recovery lessons with two of my English Language Learners during the length of the students' Reading Recovery Programs;
- 4) Allow the writing portion of lesson records of the digitally recorded lessons to be photocopied and used for analysis (all identifying information will be removed).
- 5) Someone from the study may call me to clarify my information.
- 6) My information will be destroyed in 5 years.

The benefits for me are that the analysis and findings of the study may help me understand and improve instructional decision making as a literacy tutor. The researcher also hopes that the findings of this multiple case study will provide a rich description of and deeper insights into effective scaffolding of writing instruction for teachers of I, as well as inform literacy teachers of all groups.

No risk is expected. No individually-identifiable information about me, or provided by me during the research, will be shared with others without my written permission or if required by law. I will be assigned an identifying number and this number will be used on all of the documents used.

The investigator will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project.

I understand that I am agreeing by my signature on this form to take part in this research project and understand that I will receive a signed copy of this consent form for my records.

Lisa Lang

Name of Researcher

Email: lisa_lang@comcast.net

Signature

Date

Name of Participant

Signature

Date

Please sign both copies, keep one and return one to the researcher.

Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to The Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 612 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu

Appendix G

Interview Guide for Initial Teacher Interview

1. What are you thinking and planning for your English language learners' writing instruction?
2. Does your instructional language differ with native English speakers and second language learners? How? Why?
3. What factors contribute to the success of second language learners as they develop as writers? Why?
4. What factors hinder their success in writing? Why?
5. What role will conversation play in your student's writing development?
6. How do you engage your students in conversation and composing?
7. To what do you attribute your success in writing instruction with second language learners?
8. What are the critical aspects of emergent writing development for English language learners?
9. What is the purpose of the writing component?
10. What teaching decisions are you planning when teaching for strategies in writing with English language learners?

Appendix H

Alternate Ranking Form Used To Select Pool of Reading Recovery Student Candidates from the Classroom

Teacher's Name _____ Date _____
School _____

ALTERNATE RANKING

Directions: Please choose the highest reading student and list his/her name on the top line. Choose the lowest student and list his/her name on the bottom line. Next choose the second highest and the second lowest. Continue on through the list. Rank the middle students even though distinctions will be difficult in the middle. The top and bottom rankings are the most important, so just estimate when you get to the middle. Please make a note of students who were retained in the first grade. Kindergarten retentions do not need to be noted.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
15. _____
16. _____
17. _____
18. _____
19. _____
20. _____
21. _____
22. _____
23. _____
24. _____
25. _____

Appendix I

Minor Consent Form

DATE

Dear Participant,

You are invited to participate in my research project titled, *Interactions that Scaffold Writing: Case Studies of Three Early Intervention Literacy Teachers and Six English Language Learners*. Through this project I am learning about how your teacher teaches boys and girls how to read and write in a second language.

If you decide to be part of this, you will allow me to watch you, to digitally record your writing lessons, and take notes while you are writing and talking with your teacher. Your participation in this project will not affect your grades in school. I will not use your name on any papers that I write about this project. I hope to learn something about what good teachers do when teaching writing that will help other children in the future.

If you want to stop participating in this project, you are free to do so at any time. You can also choose not to answer questions that you don't want to answer.

If you have any questions or concern you can always ask me or call my teacher, Dr. Linda Labbo at the following number: 706-542-2718.

Sincerely,

Lisa Lang
Department of Language and Literacy Education
University of Georgia
770-891-2357
lisa_lang@comcast.net

I understand the project described above. My questions have been answered and I agree to participate in this project. I have received a copy of this form.

Signature of the Participant/Date

Please sign both copies, keep one and return one to the researcher.

Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to The Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 612 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E

Appendix J

Entry and Exit Scores for Student Participants

Teacher / Student	A:1	A:1	A:2	A:2	B:1	B:1	B:2	B:2	C:1	C:1	C:2	C:2
	Entry	Exit	Entry	Exit	Entry	Exit	Entry	Exit	Entry	Exit	Entry	Exit
NDEC English Proficiency Rubric <i>Range: 0-5</i>	3	4	3	4	2	4	2	3	3	3	3	3
Observation Survey Tasks												
Letter Identification: Range: 0-54	49	53	52	54	47	50	11	48	49	52	52	54
Word Reading: Range 0-20	3	18	1	15	0	17	0	9	2	16	3	19
Concepts About Print: Range: 0-24	11	20	6	20	11	17	7	20	7	20	9	15
Writing Vocabulary: 10 min. timed task	9	55	3	47	7	59	3	29	15	52	14	57
*HRSIW: Range: 0-37	3	36	9	36	6	36	1	30	23	34	19	36
Text Reading Level: Range: 0-16	0	14	0	14	0	12	0	8	0	12	0	12
<i>*Hearing & Recording Sounds in Words</i>												
<i>Program Exit Status</i>		D		D		D		Moved		D		D
<i>Weeks in the Program</i>		17		13		18		17		17		17
<i>Number of Sessions</i>		72		55		78		75		73		69

D symbolizes Discontinued which means the student's program discontinued successfully when the student met grade level standards at the average or above in literacy as compared with classroom peers.

The five students whose programs were discontinued in 18 weeks or less were above grade level in their first grade classrooms when they exited the early intervention program. The student that moved before the end of his program was on grade level according to the district's standards at that point in the school year.

Appendix K

Parental Consent Form

Dear _____,

Your child's Reading Recovery teacher has volunteered to participate in a study about effective instructional practices in teaching children how to be good writers. As a result, because your child will be one of _____'s students this fall, your child is invited to participate in this study as well.

I agree to allow my child, _____, to take part in a research study titled, *Interactions that Scaffold Writing: Case Studies of Three Early Intervention Literacy Teachers and Six English Language Learners*, which is being conducted by Mrs. Lisa Lang, from the Language and Literacy Education Department at the University of Georgia (770-891-2357) under the direction of Dr. Linda Labbo, Department of Language and Literacy Education, University of Georgia (706-542-2718). I do not have to allow my child to be in this study if I do not want to. My child can refuse to participate or stop taking part at any time without giving any reason, and without penalty or loss of benefits to which she/he is otherwise entitled. I can ask to have the information related to my child returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

The reason for the study is to investigate the types and characteristics of one-on-one teaching interactions that effectively scaffold writing instruction to support English language learners (ELL) as they come to be writers.

The researcher hopes to learn deeper insights into effective scaffolding of writing instruction for teachers of ELL, as well as inform literacy teachers of all groups.

If I allow my child to take part, the 10 minute writing component of my child's Reading Recovery lessons will be digitally recorded twice a week for the duration of his/her program. This activity will take place during the daily Reading Recovery lessons and will not interfere with the literacy lessons or any other daily lesson schedule. If I do not want my child to take part then she/he will be allowed to still participate in Reading Recovery as usual.

The research is not expected to cause any harm or discomfort. My child can quit at any time. My child's grade will not be affected if my child decides not to participate or to stop taking part.

Any individually-identifiable information collected about my child will be held confidential unless otherwise required by law. My child's identity will be coded, and all data will be kept in a secured location.

The researcher will be digitally recording (audio and visual) the lessons and the recordings will be destroyed after 5 years.

The researcher will answer any questions about the research, now or during the course of the project, and can be reached by telephone at: 770-891-2357. I may also contact the professor supervising the research, of Dr. Linda Labbo, Department of Language and Literacy Education, University of Georgia (706-542-2718).

I understand the study procedures described above. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I agree to allow my child to take part in this study. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

Lisa Lang

Name of Researcher

Email: lisa_lang@comcast.net

Signature

Date

Name of Parent or Guardian

Signature

Date

Please sign both copies, keep one and return one to the researcher.

Additional questions or problems regarding your child's rights as a research participant should be addressed to The Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 612 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu

Appendix L

Sample Permission Letters in English and Spanish for Student to Participate in the Reading Recovery Program at the Local Elementary School

To the parents of:

Our school, in cooperation with Georgia State University, is offering the Reading Recovery Program to selected students. This program is designed to help first grade children who need additional instruction in learning to read. Along with regular classroom instruction, the students will receive individual reading and writing lessons with a Reading Recovery Teacher for thirty minutes each day. Your child has been selected to participate in this program.

Since this program is for a limited number of weeks, regular attendance in school is necessary for the program to be effective. Missed days mean missed opportunities to practice reading and writing. We are requesting your support in helping to ensure that your child comes to school every day unless he or she is ill.

We ask that you sign and return the attached permission form as soon as possible so we can begin our lessons. We invite you to call the school to talk with the Reading Recovery Teacher, the classroom teacher, or the principal, if you have questions about the Reading Recovery Program.

Sincerely,

Estidado(s) Padre(s):

Nuestra escuela en la cooperacion con la Universidad de estado de Georgia, esta ofreciendo el programa de la recuperacion de la lectura a los estudiantes seleccionados. Este programa se disena para ayudar a los primeros ninos del grado que necesitan la instruccion adicional en aprender leer. Junto con la instruccion de sala de clase regular, los estudiantas recibiran lecciones individuales de la lectura y de la escritura con un professor de la recuperacion de la lectura por treinta minutos cada dia. Han seleccionado a su nino para participar en este programa.

Puesto que este programa esta para un numero limitado de semanas, la atencion regular en escuela es necesaria para el programa ser eficaz. El medio faltado de los dias falso oportunidades de practicar el leer y el escribir. Estamos solicitando su ayuda en ayudar a asegurarse de que su nino viene ensenar cada dia a menos que el o ella sea enferma.

Les preguntamos que usted firma y vuelva la forma asociada del permiso cuanto antes asi que podemos comenzar nuestras lecciones. Les invitamos a que llame la escuela para hablar con el professor de la recuperacion de la lectura, o el director, si usted tiene preguntas sobre el programa de la recuperacion de la lectura.

Sinceramente,

Appendix M

Sample Permission Form in English and Spanish for Students Entering Reading Recovery

Reading Recovery Permission Form

*YES, I want my child to be part of the Reading Recovery Program at Elementary School.

Parent/Guardian Signature

Date

Student I.D. #
(To be filled out by teacher.)

Child's Name

Street Address

Parents'/Guardians' Names

City, State, Zip

Home Phone
(Please include the area code.)

Work Phone
(Please include the area code.)

Child's Age

Child's Birthday
(Please include the month, day and year.)

Forma del Permiso de la Recuperacion de la Lectura

*Si. Quisiera que mi nino fuera parte del Programa de la Recuperacion de la Lectura en la escuela primaria de

Signatura de Padres

Fecha

Student I.D. #
(Ser completado por la profesora.)

Nombre del Nino

Direccion

Nombre de Padres

Ciudad, Estado, Codigo Postal

Numero de Telefono de Casa
(Y codigo de la zona.)

Numero de Telefono del Trabajo
(Y codigo de la zona.)

Edad del Nino

Cumpleano del Nino
(Por favor encluya mes, dia y ano.)

Appendix N

Permission to Photograph and Digitally Record in English and Spanish Used by Reading Recovery Teacher

We may wish to take photographs or make video of some first grade children working in reading and writing workshop for educational purposes and to share with parents at meetings. These will not be used for commercial gain or advertisement. Please check the box below indicating whether or not you give permission for your child to be photographed. Please be assured we will work with your child regardless of your decision.

☐ I give permission for my child to be photographed.

☐ I do not give permission for my child to be photographed.

Parent's Signature _____

Date _____

Podemos desear tomar fotografías o marca video de algún primero niños de gr̄ado que trabajan en la lectura y escribir taller para prop̄ositos educativos y para compartir con padres en reuniones. Estos no ser̄a utilizado para la ganancia ni el anuncio comerciales. Verifique por favor la caja debajo de indicar si o no usted da el permiso para su niño a ser fotografiado. Sea asegurado por favor nosotros trabajaremos con su niño a pesar de su decisīon.

☐ Doy el permiso para mi niño a ser fotografiado.

☐ Yo no doy el permiso para mi niño a ser fotografiado.

Firma de padre _____

Fecha _____

Appendices for Article Two in Chapter IV

Appendix A

Interactions and Identified Categories for Sequence One

First time introducing the task of saying words slowly to **hear** the phonemes

Transcription Conventions

[]	Overlapping talk; together
CAPITALS	Louder than surrounding talk
(.)	Small untimed pause
(3.0)	Timed pause in seconds
T	Teacher
C	Child
=	No space between utterances (“latching”)
Heh heh	Laughter
((<i>Italics</i>))	Transcriber’s description of nonverbal communication
::	Saying the word slowly; prolonged sound
?	Interrogative intonation
<u>Underline</u>	Emphasis or stressed word
(parenthesis)	Unclear utterances – best guess
()	Unclear utterances - inaudible

1) T: Alright, Huron, we’re going to talk about. I’m going to show you something that is going to help us in our writing, ok? Cause sometimes when we’re writing and there’s words that we want to write in our ss, in our story but we’re not sure how to write them, I’m going to show you how you can help yourself ((<i>sitting to right of child; leaning in with head turned to look at child</i>)). Ok?	Explaining reason for upcoming task Positioning this as a shared task (“we”) <i>Notice the emphasis on how she is instructing him to be an independent learner</i> Initiation
2) C: ((<i>nods head yes</i>))	Questioning for understanding Agreeing response perhaps signaling ready for next direction
3) T: Alright, so let’s look at this picture. ((<i>holding up a picture card of a bed</i>)) (1.5) What is that?	Directing Verbally (Initiation) Using Prop; Initiation Questioning for object identification
4) C: bed	Preferred Response (ID label for picture)
5) T: bed. Now watch my mouth ((<i>points to mouth</i>)) and watch the way I say that word.	Affirming (Evaluation?) Verbally (V) by Repeating child’s one word response Directing Verbally and Non Verbally Directing Verbally to clarify focus of task
6) C: ((<i>looks up at teacher</i>))	C: Complying (Non-verbal Response)
7) T: (0.5) Ready? b::e::d (0.5) See how I did that?	Questioning to prompt attention Demonstrating Verbally Questioning to check for understanding

8) C: ((<i>nods head yes</i>))	C: Affirming (Non-verbal Response)
9) T: I want you to try it.	Directing Verbally / Transferring Initiative to Child
10) C: b::e::th	Trouble Source (with C's articulation) Response
11) T: One more time ((<i>teacher pointing to her mouth</i>)) watch=	No negative response to error (Response to child) Directing Verbally / Transferring initiative for self-correction Prompting Non Verbally
12) C: =b::e::d=	Child self-corrected from non verbal and verbal cue
13) T: YEAH! Say it one more time.	Affirming Verbally (general) Evaluation Directing Verbally Initiation
14) C: b::e::d ((<i>more enthusiastically</i>))	Child Repeated Preferred Response
15) T: GOOD! When you say it slowly you can <u>think</u> about the sounds that are in that word, ok? ((<i>motioning hands to enhance her point</i>)) Let's try another one. ((<i>flips the cards to a new picture</i>)) (1.0).	Affirming Verbally (general) Evaluation Explaining; Formulation of previous demonstration and summing up the action and purpose (Initiation) Transferring initiative to child
16) C: c::a::t	Child identifying label for picture (ID) and saying word slowly (SIS) independently Response
17) T: VERY GOOD! ((<i>smiling; flips to another card; mouth forms b sound but did not make a sound</i>))	Affirming Verbally and Non Verbally (general) (Evaluation) Initiation accomplished by showing picture without verbal prompt here Prompting Non Verbally
18) C: b::o::x	Child independently ID and SIS (Response)
19) T: NICE! ((<i>smiling</i>)) I heard every sound of that word when you said it. ((<i>flips the card to a new picture</i>))	(Evaluation: When she gives specific praise, she validates exactly what he did correctly.) Affirming Verbally and Non Verbally (general) Affirming Verbally (specific)
20) C: c::a::ke	Child independent ID and SIS (Response)
21) T: Good job Huron! ((<i>nods head yes, smiling, and flips the card</i>))	(Evaluation)Affirming Verbally and Non Verbally (general) (Generous praise for each he accomplishes well.)
21) C: h::a::t	Child independently ID and SIS (Response)
22) T: ((<i>nods head yes; smiling</i>)) That's very good. ((<i>smiling; puts the cards down: still looking at child</i>)) So when you get to a word and you're not sure what it is I want you to say it slowly just like you did it, so we can hear ((<i>motions to her ear</i>)) those sounds, ok?	Affirming Non Verbally (general) (Evaluation) Affirming Verbally (general) Directing / Summarizing / Setting Expectation and Reviewing Rationale Demonstrating Non Verbally Questioning for understanding (Initiation)
23) C: ((<i>nods head yes</i>))	C: Affirming Non Verbally (Response)

Key:

^Questioning					
Subcategories					
For specific response					
To capture attention					
To check for understanding					
# in first row columns indicates order letters were recorded					
SIS: Saying it slowly					
! indicates one occurrence of that type of instructional language					

Characteristics of Instructional Language in Sequence One

Teacher ↓	bed	cat	box	cake	hat
Demonstrating Verbally					
Demonstrating Non Verbally					
Directing Verbally / Transferring Initiative					
Directing Non Verbally (Prompting)					
Affirming Verbally General (G) Specific (S)	G G	G	G S	G	G
Affirming Non Verbally					
Sharing the Task Verbally					
Sharing the Task Non Verbally					
Questioning					
Explaining					
Using a Prop					
Repeating Child's Response					

Appendix B

Interactions and Identified Categories for Sequence Two

Transcription Conventions

[bold]	Overlapping talk; together
CAPITALS	Louder than surrounding talk
(.)	Small untimed pause
(3.0)	Timed pause in seconds
T	Teacher
C	Child
=	No space between utterances (“latching”)
Heh heh	Laughter
((<i>Italics</i>))	Transcriber’s description of nonverbal communication
::	Saying the word slowly; prolonged sound
?	Interrogative intonation
<u>Underline</u>	Emphasis or stressed word
(parenthesis)	Unclear utterances – best guess
()	Unclear utterances - inaudible

<p>Child controls or takes initiative independently The dot mentioned in the transcript refers to a small plain round flat disk (a math counter / coin).</p> <p>Talk Cycle to Establish the Task of Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words (HRSIW)</p>	
<p>1) T: Ok, we’re going to do that again but I’m going to show you how it’s going to help us write words that may be a little tricky for us. Ok? <i>((leaning in and looking at child))</i> So here, let’s start with this word, this <u>picture</u>.</p>	<p>Referring to previous activity Extending on previous activity Initiation Explaining rationale for task and again emphasizing expectation for independence Transferring initiative to child</p>
<p>2) C: h::a::t</p>	<p>Child SIS Response</p>
<p>3) T: I LOVE the way you said that nice and slow! <i>((enthusiastically)) ((gathering materials she will need to teach words using boxes and puts them in front of her and child and faces child))</i> Now watch me, I’m going to say this word <i>((picks up a card with a picture on it))</i></p>	<p>Affirming Verbally-Specific Evaluation Directing Verbally Telling Initiation</p>
<p>4) h::a::t nice and slow. Alright, here we go. <i>((begins to push the dots for each letter sound into the boxes as she says the word))</i> h::a::t <i>((child begins to say word with her))</i>.</p>	<p>Demonstrating Verbally Demonstrating Non Verbally Using Props (Models and Repeats) Signaling the beginning of the task</p>
<p>5) Did you see how I did that? <i>((said with enthusiasm))</i></p>	<p>Questioning to ck for understanding</p>

6) C: ((<i>nods head yes</i>))	Preferred Response
7) T: Let's do it one more time ((<i>moves the dots out of the boxes</i>)). Ready?	Transferring initiative Questioning to prompt attention
8) C: ((<i>nods head yes</i>))	Preferred Response
9) T: h:: ((<i>making the H sound and beginning to move a dot into the first box</i>))	Initiation / Demonstrating verbally and non verbally
10) T/C: [h::a]	Sharing task verbally
11) Watch me ((<i>moves the dot back out of the box</i>)), Listen, h:: ((<i>making the h sound as she moves one counter into the first box</i>)) a::t ((<i>moves one counter per sound in sequence into a box</i>)) (1.0)	Directing verbally Demonstrating verbally and non verbally
12) T: You see how every, for every sound in that word, I pushed it in one of those boxes? ((<i>warmly</i>))	Questioning for understanding Explaining verbally
13) T: I'm going to say it one more time and I want you to listen for what you hear in the first box, ready?	Verbally explaining plan and directing for a specific expectation; Transferring initiative
14) C: ((<i>child nods affirmative</i>))	Non-verbal Response (preferred)
15) T: h::a::t ((<i>moving the dots in the boxes</i>)).	Demonstrating verbally and non verbally
16) What should we put in that first box?	Questioning to prompt first sound to letter / Initiation
17) C: ((<i>making the H sound</i>)) h	Partially correct response but not preferred
18) T: What <u>letter</u> do you think (.) we should put in that first box? (0.5) h::h ((<i>making the h sound</i>)) What letter says h::?	Questioning to narrow for preferred response / Initiation Reframing question – Repair attempt
19) C: H	Repair outcome / Response
20) T: Alright, stop ((<i>child pushing in dots and teacher looking around for a writing marker</i>))	Confirming – Affirming / Evaluation Child initiating – Teacher interrupting
21) C: h::a::t ((<i>moving the dots into the boxes for each sound</i>)).	C: Initiating task
22) T: Good ((<i>moves the dots back out</i>)). I'm gonna put an H in the first box. ((<i>writes h in the first box</i>))	Affirming general / Evaluation Initiation / Demonstrating verbally and non verbally
23) T/C: h::a::t ((<i>teacher emphasizing the short vowel sound of a and moving the dots while the child moves them with her</i>)).	Sharing the task verbally and non verbally
24) T: Listen for what goes in the second box, are you listening? ((<i>instructional and rhetorical</i>))	Transferring initiative to focus attention to sequence of sound Questioning to prompt attention
25) T: h::a::t ((<i>emphasizing the short vowel sound of a again</i>)). (.) What did you hear in the middle ((<i>pointing to the middle box</i>))? (.) a:: ((<i>making the short vowel sound of a again</i>)).	Demonstrating verbally Questioning to prompt specific sequence Repeating verbally
26) C: A	Preferred response

27) T: Since that's what you heard, that's what I'm going to put ((writes an a in the second box)). So now we're listening for the last box, right?	Affirming and telling the plan Questioning for understanding
28) C: ((nods head in agreement))	Preferred response
29) T: Alright, here we go. h::a::t= ((teacher pushing dots in boxes as she SIS))	Signaling the start of the action Demonstrating verbally and non-verbally
30) C: =T	Initiating correct response
31) T: Wow! You're good at this! ((smiling and writing a t into the last box)) Let's check and see if you were right. ((turns the flashcard over for the spelling of the picture))	Affirming verbally (general) Demonstrating non verbally Prompting for self-evaluation
32) C: ((reads)) hat	
33) T: Were we right?	Questioning for self-evaluation
34) C: ((nods head yes))	Preferred Response
35) T: Alright, good job. Did you see how saying it slowly helped us write that word? ((erases the letters h-a-t out of the boxes)) (.) Let's do another one. ((grabs another flashcard))	Affirmation verbally Questioning to review and ck for understanding Directing to prepare for next action
36) C: b::o	C: Initiates SIS
37) T: You want to do box?	Questioning for clarification
38) C: ((nods head yes))	Preferred response
39) T: Ok.	Affirming verbally
40) C: How bout cat?	Questioning to offer alternative (why?)
41) T: Let's do box first. Alright, let's say=	Directing
42) C: b::o::ks:	Child takes control of SIS
43) T: ((nods head yes)) Good!	Affirming verbally (general)
44) C: B! ((calling out the first letter of the word))	Child initiates first letter
45) T: Good, b::o::ks ((moving the dots into the boxes with each sound)). Yes, you heard a B. Let's put a B first ((writes B into the first box)).	Affirming verbally (general) Demonstrating verbally and non verbally Affirming verbally and nonverbally Directing for a focus to sequence
46) Now I want you to listen for (.) what comes (.) in the middle. Ready? b::o::x ((emphasizing short vowel sound for o and pushing the dots into the boxes)). What did you hear in the middle ((pointing to the second box))?	Questioning to focus attention Demonstrating verbally and non verbally Questioning for specific response
47) C: A	Incorrect response (vowel but not correct one)
48) T: Let me show you ((writes an O into the box)). (1.5) Ok. It's like octopus.	Demonstrating nonverbally by writing Linking with a known associate
49) T: Ready?	Questioning to signal next move
50) T: b::o::ks:: ((emphasizing the X sound)).	Demonstrating verbally
51) C: S	Partially correct response
52) T: That's a kind of tricky one. Let me show you what that is ((writes X into the last box and flips the flashcard over to reveal the word)). (2.5) Box ((excitedly))!	Validating the challenge Demonstrating nonverbally by writing
53) T: Alright, let's try one more ((erases the word box and grabs another picture card)).	Signaling next move /Initiation
54) C: And then (we'll be going?)	Questioning plan (and signaling that he is ready to be finished with this???)

55) T: Let's do this one ((<i>holds the picture card up to him</i>)).	Directing verbally / Initiation
56) C: c::a::k	Child SIS independently
57) T: Say it slowly ((<i>warmly</i>))	Directing verbally wanting it slower
58) C: c::a::k	Child SIS independently
59) T: c::a::k ready?	Demonstrating verbally
60) c::a::k ((<i>saying it together</i>)).	Sharing task
61) What did you hear first?	Questioning to prompt for sequence
62) C: K	
63) T: It could be ((<i>shrugs shoulders</i>)) but it can also be another letter.	Validating partially correct Offering alternative to cue up prior knowledge
64) C: C	Preferred response
65) T: ((<i>writes C into the box</i>))	Child initiates writing the letter in the box
66) T: Good.	T: Affirming verbally (general)
67) T: c::a::k ((<i>emphasizing long vowel sound of a</i>)). (.)	Demonstrating verbally Pausing
68) T: What did you hear in the middle? (1.5)	Questioning to prompt to sequence Waiting – giving think time
69) T: You want me to do it again?	Questioning to clarify; Repair- ck. understanding
70) c::a::k ((<i>emphasizing the long vowel sound of a again while pushing in the dots for each sound</i>)).	Demonstrating verbally specifically focusing on target
71) C: A	Preferred response
72) T: ((<i>smiling</i>)) Good	Affirming non verbally and verbally (general)
73) T: ((<i>writes a into the box</i>)).	Demonstrating non verbally
74) T: Alright, now we're going to listen for this last sound ((<i>tapping finger in the last box</i>)).	Telling – preparing for next task Narrowing focus verbally and Non-verbally
75) T: c::a::k ((<i>emphasizing the k sound while pushing dots in for each sound</i>))	Demonstrating verbally specifically focusing on target
76) C: K	Preferred response
77) T: Wow! ((<i>writes k into the last box</i>)) Now, (1.0)=	Affirming verbally (general)
78) C: [(In these) ((<i>fidgiting with paper</i>))]	Off task
79) T: =SOMETIMES, look over here, look here ((<i>instructionally</i>)) sometimes the letters don't always get a box because they don't make a sound ((<i>writes an e at the end of the word</i>)). Sometimes they just, you just put it outside the box ((<i>shows him the word on the back of the picture card</i>)).	Redirecting attention verbally Demonstrating verbally and non verbally
80) T: Is the word right?	Questioning to transfer initiative to child for opportunity to monitor
81) C: ((<i>nods head yes</i>))	Preferred response
82) T: Yeah. ((<i>erases word out of the boxes</i>)) Alright ((<i>begins to put everything away</i>)).	Affirming verbally
83) C: ((<i>picks up the paper with the boxes drawn on</i>))	
84) T: ((<i>puts the stuff back on the desk</i>)) Why don't we do one more and I want to see you do it. Ok? (.) Were you watching how I did it? Alright, so let's do <u>cat</u> . Ready?	Questioning (rhetorical) to prepare for next task – setting expectation Questioning to ck for understanding Questioning to focus attention to start
85) C: c::a::t	Child SIS independently

86) T: ((<i>teacher guides child's finger to move one dot into a box for each sound</i>)).	Sharing task non verbally
87) T: Perfect!	Affirming verbally (general)
88) What did you hear first?	Questioning to prompt for sequence
89) C: K? Umm, C.	Appealed but self corrected
90) T: ((<i>smiling</i>)) Alright ((<i>hands child the marker</i>)).	Affirming verbally and non verbally (general)
91) C: ((<i>writes a C</i>)) c::a	Child SIS independently
92) T: =[Uh oh. Whoa, whoa. Whoa, whoa, whoa.] ((<i>takes the marker and corrects his bottom hook on the C</i>)). Ready?	Interrupting error Demonstrating non verbally Questioning to prompt for next action
93) C: c::a:: ((<i>teacher moving child's finger to push the dots into the boxes for each letter sound and he writes a into the next box</i>)).	Child SIS independently Sharing the task non verbally
94) T: Alright, we always have to push each sound in, so let's start from the first one ((<i>instructionally</i>)).	Reviewing and Directing to next action
95) C: c::c::a= ((<i>child not pushing in the boxes</i>))	Child SIS independently
96) T: =You got to push it in, here we go ((<i>guides his hand with hers</i>)).	Clarifying task Sharing the task non-verbally
97) C: c::c::a::t ((<i>saying part of the word together; teacher guiding child's finger into the boxes</i>)). T!	Sharing the task verbally and non-verbally
98) T: Put it in.	Directing verbally Transferring initiative
99) C: ((<i>writes t into the last box</i>))	
100) T: Ready to check and see if you were right?	Questioning to prompt to next task
101) C: ((<i>nods head yes</i>))	Preferred response
102) T: ((<i>hands him the card</i>)) Alright, go see, see if we're right. C: ((<i>flips the picture card over and compares the word he wrote with the one on the back of the card</i>))	Transferring initiative
103) T: Were you right?	Questioning for understanding
104) C: ((<i>nods head yes</i>))	
105) T: Good job!	Affirming (general) Generous praise while learning the task – more than later when words are taken to boxes in writing sessions Task: Review SIS Pushing Sounds into Sound Boxes Recording Letters to Represent those Sounds <i>When the teacher reflected on her decision making after the session, she questioned whether using box was a good choice for introducing the task since the sound of x can be tricky to isolate.</i> <i>Teacher: "Was box a good choice for introducing the task? X can be tricky for most kids."</i> <i>She reflected also on the purpose of her questioning for what he heard</i>

Characteristics of Instructional Language in Sequence Two					
Teacher ↓	hat	box	cake	cat	
Demonstrating Verbally	 				
Demonstrating Non Verbally	 				
Directing Verbally / Transferring Initiative					
Directing Non Verbally (Prompting)					
Affirming Verbally General (G) Specific (S)	S G	S G	S G	S G	
Affirming Non Verbally					
Sharing the Task Verbally					
Sharing the Task Non Verbally					
Questioning	 				
Explaining					
Using a Prop					
Repeating Child's Response					

Key:

Questioning
 To prompt for sequence
 To capture attention
 To check for understanding
 To *narrow focus* / clarify
 For self-evaluation

Prop
 Picture cards
 Dots (counters being pushed into the sound boxes)
 Linking |
 Telling |||
 Signaling the beginning of a task ||
 Validating ||
 Offering alternative
 Waiting –giving think time ||
Narrowing the focus |||||||

first, next, in the middle, and last.
Her comment:
“Trying to establish hearing sounds left to right.”

T constructs task as a strategic behavior that is helpful: Line 35: “Did you see how saying it slowly helped us write that word?” Line 1: “I’m going to show you how it’s going to help us write words that may be a little tricky for us.”

More sharing of the task verbally and non-verbally than later

More demonstrating verbally and non-verbally than later

The teacher controlled the writing of the letters in the boxes for each word until she transferred that initiative over to the child on the last word practiced, cat.

T said, “I want to see you do it.” However, she continued to share the task when he did not control it on the last word, cat, which shows how she matched her level of support to his level of competency at that time.

Appendix C

Interactions and Identified Categories for Sequence Three

First word taken to boxes after establishing the task of using boxes for hearing and recording sounds in words (HRSIW) during writing (9/4/08)

Setting: Child in the middle of writing his sentence, *The books were too easy for Huron Diaz last night.*

The word taken to boxes is *last*.

1) T: Ok, last ((child saying it with teacher)). Hold on, ((begins to draw four connected boxes on the top of his page))	Teacher initiates solving the word by HRSIW using the scaffold of sound boxes
2) C: That's a (blank) piece of paper ((referring to what she just drew)). (2.0) Is that a blank piece of paper?	
3) T: What do you mean a blank piece of paper? It's just like the boxes that we did, <u>remember</u> ? ((grabs the dots)). This, this one has four sounds=	Recalling a previous experience
4) C: =[()]	
5) T: ((tapping child on the shoulder)) Watch me do it first, ready? l::a::s::t ((pushing the dots into the boxes with each letter sound)).	Directing attention Demonstrating verbally and non verbally
6) You got to say that one really slow.	Clarifying focus
7) Ready?	Questioning to prompt attention
8) l::a::s::t ((pushing the dots into the boxes with each letter sound)).	Demonstrating verbally and non verbally
9) I want you to try it ((takes the marker out of child's hand and puts his finger on the dots)). Ready?	Transferring initiative Questioning to prompt attention
10) C: [l::a::s::t] ((saying it together and pushing the dots up together into the boxes)).	Sharing the task verbally and non verbally
11) T: What was the first sound ((warmly))?	Questioning to prompt for sequence
12) C: L!	Preferred response
13) T: Put it in ((instructionally)). Put it in the box!((excitedly))	Directing next action
14) C: ((writes an L into the first box)) l::=	
15) T: *Alright* Oh, oh we got to push it while we say it, ready? ((guides his fingers back up to the boxes again))	Clarifying and interrupting before error Sharing the task non verbally
16) C: [l::a::s::t] ((saying it together and pushing the dots up together into the boxes)).	Sharing the task verbally and non verbally
17) T: What goes right there? ((pointing to the second box))	Questioning to prompt sequence verbally and non verbally
18) C: ((starts writing and whispers)) *A*	Preferred response
19) T: OK, ready? You do it ((instructionally)).	Questioning to prompt action Transferring initiative
20) C: l::a::s ((pushing the dots)).	Child independently SIS and pushing in the sounds
21) T: t:: ((making the T sound he left out and smiling)). What's	Completing the task

going to go right here? (<i>(pointing to the third box)</i>).	Questioning to prompt sequence verbally and non verbally
22) C: C	Trouble source
23) T: s:: (<i>(making the S sound)</i>) like snake (<i>(squinting face)</i>)?	Repair (linking a known word to the letter sound))
24) C: C...K! (0.5) C?	Trouble not resolved; Confusion
25) T: You're guessing and you're not allowed to do that (<i>(matter of fact)</i>). Let me show you (<i>(writes the next letter s into the third box)</i>).	Interrupting trouble approach Demonstrating non verbally
26) C: S	Repair outcome
27) T: Alright, push it in and listen for the last sound. (<i>(instructionally)</i>)	Directing verbally (specific to focus) Transferring initiative
28) C: l::a::s::t (<i>(pushing the dots up into the boxes as he says each sound smoothly together)</i>). T!	Child independently SIS and pushing in the sounds and recording the letter for the sound t
29) T: Put it in.	Directing verbally
30) C: (<i>(puts T into the last box)</i>)	Preferred response
31) T: Put <u>last</u> into your story (<i>(pointing to the boxed word he just completed)</i>)...	Directing verbally

Characteristics of Instructional Language in Sequence Three

Dominant consonant and vowel sounds clearly heard in the word, *last*

Teacher ↓	Task	1 l	2 a	3 s	4 t
Demonstrating Verbally					
Demonstrating Non Verbally					
Directing Verbally / Transferring Initiative					
Directing Non Verbally					
Affirming Validating Verbally					
Affirming Validating Non Verbally					
Prompting for Sequence Verbally					
Prompting for Sequence Non Verbally					
Sharing the Task Verbally					
Sharing the Task Non Verbally					
Who Recorded?		Child	Child	Teacher	Child
Providing Prop	T. draws box framework			*	
Who Made the Decision to Use Boxes to Solve the Word?	T				
^Questioning					

Key:

^Questioning

Subcategories

For preferred response

To prompt sequence

To capture attention

To check for understanding

in first row columns indicates order letters were recorded

SIS: Saying it slowly

|: indicates one occurrence of that type of instructional language

*Linking to a word that starts with /s/

Appendix D

Transcription and Analysis of Solving Two Words Using Sound Boxes

Transcription Conventions

[bold]	Overlapping talk; together
CAPITALS	Louder than surrounding talk
(.)	Small untimed pause
(3.0)	Timed pause in seconds
T	Teacher
C	Child
=	No space between utterances (“latching”)
((<i>Italics</i>))	Transcriber’s description of nonverbal communication
::	Saying the word slowly; prolonged sound
?	Interrogative intonation
<u>Underline</u>	Emphasis or stressed word
Heh heh	Laughter
↑	Rising Voice Tone

Setting: Child in the middle of writing his sentence

Child quickly composed independently out of the conversation.

Little Blue and Little Red tricked mom and dad and they went to the garden.

Working in sound boxes to solve the words *blue* and *red*

1) T: Ok, let’s do boxes ((<i>draws boxes on the top of the child’s page and takes his finger to the boxes</i>))	Teacher’s decision making Direct instruction of task
2) C: bl-oo-uh ((<i>child segments and distorts sounds not saying it smoothly nor matching the sequence of the sounds in the boxes while teacher slides his finger under the boxes left to right; child looks up at teacher</i>)).	Trouble source Sharing task non-verbally
3) T: ((<i>squints face with wrinkled nose and says with supportive tone</i>)) Here, let me say it first. Ready? b::l::ue ((<i>looking at child</i>)) Now you try it.	Evaluating non-verbally Questioning calling for attention Demonstrating verbally Transferring initiative verbally
4) C: b::l::ue ((<i>teacher sliding his finger under the boxes again left to right as he SIS with slight segmentation</i>))	Sharing the task non-verbally Trouble source with slight repair outcome
5) T: b::l::ue ((<i>T. sliding C’s finger under boxes for smoother SIS and coordinating with the sound boxes</i>)). Put what you hear first.	Demonstrating verbally Sharing the task non-verbally Transferring the initiative verbally
6) C: ((<i>writes a b in the first box</i>))	Preferred response
7) T: Ok	Affirming verbally G
8) C: b::eh	Trouble source not repaired

9) T: ((takes the marker away from child and puts his finger back on the boxes))	Repair attempt Transferring initiative non verbally
10) C: b:l::ue ((SIS coordinating with boxes)) L	Repair outcome
11) T: ((hands the marker back))	Affirming non verbally S
12) C: ((writes L into the second box))	Trouble source with letter formation
13) T: Is that L tall?	Questioning to call child to monitor
14) C: ((shakes head no))	Preferred Response
15) T: Ya gotta make it tall ((tapes up his original L)). Just a tall stick, just like this ((writes an l on the practice page)).	Directing verbally Demonstrating verbally and non verbally Task change to letter formation
16) C: ((corrects his L)) b:l::ue ((writes an O into the third space)).	Repair outcome New trouble source
17) T: Ooo↑ that was a good try ((tapes the O up)). It's actually going to be a U ((writes U into the box and then writes an E)). We can't hear that letter.	Validating attempt Demonstrating verbally and non verbally Explaining verbally why
18) C: b:l::ue ((confirms the word after seeing how to spell it)).	Child initiates the check
19) T: b:l::ue ((nods head in agreement))	Repeating Affirming non verbally

Working on the word *red*

1) T: Let's do boxes ((draws the box diagram and puts his finger over the boxes))	Transferring initiative non verbally
2) C: Red, r::e::d	Preferred response (SIS controlled)
3) T: Put what you hear in the first box.	Directing verbally (focusing on sequence)
4) C: ((writes an r in the first box)) Alright.	Preferred response
5) T: ((puts his finger back up on the boxes))	Directing non verbally
6) C: r::e::d ((begins to write I in the box))	Trouble source with vowel confusion
7) T: ((stops him from writing)) What is it, what is it, what do you hear?	Interrupts error
8) C: I	Trouble source
9) T: ((tapes over what he wrote)) It's like elephant.	Evaluating Linking to a known word (Repair attempt)
10) C: ((writes an e into the second box)) r::e::d, E::D=D ((starts to write the d))	Repair outcome Initiating independently
11) T: Are you thinking about how to write that D, where are you going to start? ((reminding the child about where to start the d))	Questioning to prompt prior work on letter formation
12) C: ((writes the d into the last box))	Preferred outcome
13) T: Put it in your story.	Transferring initiative (Directing)

Characteristics of Instructional Language in Sequence Four

Teacher ↓	SIS coordinating with boxes	b	l	u	e
Demonstrating Verbally	ll		*		
Demonstrating Non Verbally			*		
Directing Verbally / Transferring Initiative	ll		*		
Directing Non Verbally / Transferring Initiative					
Affirming Validating Verbally				“good try”	
Affirming Validating Non Verbally					
Prompting for Sequence Verbally					
Prompting for Sequence Non Verbally					
Sharing the Task Verbally					
Sharing the Task Non Verbally	lll				
Who Recorded?		C	C	T	T
Providing Prop					
^Questioning			*		
Evaluating (NV)					

Key:

^Questioning Subcategories

For preferred response

To prompt sequence

To capture attention

To check for understanding

in first row columns indicates order letters were recorded

SIS: Saying it slowly

l: indicates one occurrence of that type of instructional language

*Task changed to letter formation “tall l”

Characteristics of Instructional Language in Sequence Five

Teacher ↓	SIS coordinating with boxes	r	e	d
Demonstrating Verbally				
Demonstrating Non Verbally				
Directing Verbally / Transferring Initiative				
Directing Non Verbally				
Affirming Validating Verbally				
Affirming Validating Non Verbally				
Prompting for Sequence Verbally				
Prompting for Sequence Non Verbally				
Sharing the Task Verbally			+ linking	
Sharing the Task Non Verbally				
Who Recorded?		C	C	C
Providing Prop				
^Questioning				*
Evaluating (NV)				

Key:

^Questioning Subcategories:

For preferred response

To prompt sequence

To capture attention

To check for understanding

in first row columns indicates order letters were recorded

SIS: Saying it slowly

|: indicates one occurrence of that type of instructional language

+Linking to a word that starts with /e/

*Task changed to letter formation

Appendix E

Change Over Time in Complexity of Compositions

First Story Composed and Written in Session 1: I have a horse.

Date, Week/Session	Story Sentence	Topic Source	Structure Source
9-03-08 3 / 12 *TRL: 3 *Text Reading Level	Huron Diaz picked the ball up and the air come out.	Personal experience Teacher invited child to decide topic; prompted to an earlier event	Child's structure
9-04-08 3 / 13 TRL: 3	The books were too easy for Huron Diaz last night.	Personal experience; teacher prompted to prior conversation	Child's structure
9-18-08 5 / 22 TRL 6	Little Red and Little Blue tricked mom and dad.	Abstract from familiar reading text Teacher initiated	Child's and book structure
9-19-08 5 / 23 TRL 6	They went to the garden to play on the swings and slide.	Event from familiar reading text and continuation from yesterday's story	Book structure
10-02-08 7 / 30 TRL 8/9	I help my dad drive the lawn mower to cut the grass.	Personal experience connected to a familiar reading text Teacher initiated	Child's structure
10-03-08 7 / 31	Mother Bear was too big to climb the tree to get the nuts.	Event from familiar reading text Teacher initiated	Child's structure
10-16-08 9 / 39 TRL 10/11	Bella and Rosie got into the car and Bella said are we there yet no said Rosie the beach is far far away.	Events from familiar reading text Teacher gave up her topic agenda for the child's initiation	Child's structure
10-17-08 9 / 40 TRL: 11	I like to eat quesadillas and I like to sleep with my teddy bear Winnie the Pooh.	Personal experience connected to a familiar reading text Teacher initiated	Child's structure
10-30-08 11 / TRL: 12	The donkey trick the animals and he hide from the zebras and monkeys and foxes.	Abstract from familiar reading text	Child's structure
10-31-08 11 / 49 TRL: 13 C. said words slowly and wrote without sound boxes but with T linking tricky sounds to known	<u>The little puppy got into trouble. He ripped books and he wanted pink bear and he fell in the pool.</u> Huron made transition to saying and recording words without boxes.	T. initiated from book; C. not interested and initiated conversation from another book, teacher followed the child's lead	T/C negotiated and co-constructed
Exit Testing 11/13/08 Program Discontinued Child Above Grade Level	Writing Vocabulary in August – 3 words Writing Vocabulary 13 weeks later – 47 words	August *HRSW – 9/37 November HRSW – 36/37 *Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words	

Appendices for Article Five in Chapter IV

Appendix A

Transcription Conventions

<u>Transcription Conventions</u>	
[]	Overlapping talk
CAPITALS	Louder than surrounding talk
softly	Softer than surrounding talk
Heh heh	Laughter
(.)	Small untimed pause
(3.0)	Timed pause in seconds
()	Words spoken, not audible
(best guess)	Unclear utterances
T	Teachers
C	Child
((<i>Italics</i>))	Transcriber's description of nonverbal communication
::	Saying the word slowly, prolonged sound
?	Interrogative intonation
<u>Underline</u>	Emphasis or stressed word
=	No space between utterances ("latching")

Adapted from Roulston (2004), Liddicoat (2007), and ten Have (2007).

Appendix B

Entry and Exit Scores for Student Participants

Teacher / Student	A:1	A:1	A:2	A:2	B:1	B:1	B:2	B:2	C:1	C:1	C:2	C:2
	Entry	Exit	Entry	Exit	Entry	Exit	Entry	Exit	Entry	Exit	Entry	Exit
<i>NDEC English Proficiency Rubric</i> <i>Range: 0-5</i>	3	4	3	4	2	4	2	3	3	3	3	3
<i>Observation Survey Tasks</i>												
Letter Identification: Range: 0-54	49	53	52	54	47	50	11	48	49	52	52	54
Word Reading: Range 0-20	3	18	1	15	0	17	0	9	2	16	3	19
Concepts About Print: Range: 0-24	11	20	6	20	11	17	7	20	7	20	9	15
Writing Vocabulary: 10 min. timed task	9	55	3	47	7	59	3	29	15	52	14	57
*HRSIW: Range: 0-37	3	36	9	36	6	36	1	30	23	34	19	36
Text Reading Level: Range: 0-16	0	14	0	14	0	12	0	8	0	12	0	12
<i>*Hearing & Recording Sounds in Words</i>												
<i>Program Exit Status</i>		D		D		D		Moved		D		D
<i>Weeks in the Program</i>		17		13		18		17		17		17
<i>Number of Sessions</i>		72		55		78		75		73		69

D symbolizes Discontinued which means the student's program discontinued successfully when the student met grade level standards at the average or above in literacy as compared with classroom peers.

The five students whose programs were discontinued in 18 weeks or less were above grade level in their first grade classrooms when they exited the early intervention program. The student that moved before the end of his program was on grade level according to the district's standards at that point in the school year.

Appendix C

Shelley and May: Conversation Starters and Invitations to Compose

<u>Examples of Shelley's Conversation Starters</u>	<u>And the Invitations to Compose</u>
<p>8/29/08 So why didn't Billy want to get into Jack's car?</p>	<p>He wanted to make his own car. And at the end, Jack AND Billy, they both made their own car, right? How could we put that in a story?</p>
<p>10/07/08 So, you were telling me about your tooth. You had a loose tooth, right? <i>((leaning in to child and being somewhat animated to capture attention))</i></p>	<p>So what do you want to say about that loose tooth?</p>
<p>10/24/08 In that book that we were reading Little Dinosaur the Hero. How did Little Dinosaur save Baby Skunk from going down the river?</p>	<p>Yeah. So how, what could we say about Little Dinosaur being a hero and saving that poor little skunk?</p>
<p>11/06/08 In that book that we just read, (0.5) <u>Jake</u> was teaching <u>Max</u> how to do something. What was he teaching him how to do?</p>	<p>Ok, so um, <u>Max</u> taught <u>Jake</u> how to ride his bike and then <u>Jake</u> taught <u>Max</u> how to swim. Alright, so what can we say about that?</p>
<p>11/23/08 So we read a book, The Messy Rooms with Lester and Lila and their rooms were messy. What did Momma Lion tell them they had to do?</p>	<p>WOW! So how could we put that in a story? What do we want to say about you cleaning your room?</p>
<p>11/24/08 Alright, so what do you think we should write about today? Should you write=Should we write about how BOTH of us were sick (.) last week?</p>	<p>Ok! Alright, so what do you want to ssss=What do you want to say about going to grandma's house? (0.5) You tell me.</p>

Appendix D

Shelley and May: Change Over Time in Compositions

First Story Composed in Session 1: She likes to make tricks.

Date Week/Session	Story Sentence Composition	Topic Source	Structure Source
8-29-08 RAK *TRL: 3 *Text Reading Level	Monkey pushed Little Teddy and Little Teddy was sad.	Event from a familiar reading text Teacher initiated	Text structure
8-29-08 RAK	I made a car said Jack and Billy.	Event from a familiar reading text Teacher initiated	Child's structure combined with text structure
9-11-08 4 / 17 TRL: 5	I was having a balloon and then my cat popped it.	Personal experience connected to a familiar reading text Teacher initiated	Child's structure
9-12-08 4 / 18 TRL: 5	My cat ran to my room and he was scared.	Building on yesterday's story and idea Teacher initiated	Child's structure; consistent past tense verbs used
9-25-08 6 / 26 TRL: 7	I got a bear for my birthday and I named her Princess.	Personal experience connected to a familiar reading text	Child
9-26-08 6 / 27 TRL: 7	Flowers need water and dirt and seeds to grow.	Classroom activity connection? Or home? Ck transc. Teacher initiated	Co constructed structure
10-06-08 8 / 34 TRL: 9	Baby Bear went into the forest to look for some honey today.	Event from a familiar reading text Teacher initiated	

10-07-08 8 / 35 TRL: 9	My tooth is coming out and I will have some money to buy toys.	Personal experience Teacher initiated / personalized	
10-23-08 10 / 46 TRL: 11	I clean my room nicely. I put my books away, make my bed and fold my clothes and put my shoes away.	Personal experience connected to a familiar reading text Teacher initiated	
10-24-08 10 / 47 TRL: 11	Little Dinosaur went down the river to save Baby Skunk.	Abstract from familiar reading text Teacher initiated	Teacher
11-06-08 12 / 54 TRL: 12	I helped my sister ride my bike and I put little wheels on my bike.	Personal experience connected to a familiar reading text Teacher initiated	
11-07-08 12 / 55 TRL: 12	The donkey loved being a lion and the animals knew he was a donkey.	Abstract from familiar reading text Teacher initiated with a choice of topics and then child decided topic	
11-24-08 14 / 63 TRL: 14	I went to my Grandma's house and they took me to a store to buy me some shoes and the shoes were pink.	Teacher asked child what she wanted to write about Child generated topic	Child
12-04-08 16 / 68 TRL: 15	My toys go into my toy box and my shoes go into the basket and my clothes go into my drawer and my clothes go into my closet too.	T. initiated from a story and personalized to the child	Child and child revised as she wrote

12-05-08 16 / 69 TRL: 13	I am going to my Grandma's house to sleep over to my Grandma's house to sleep with my sister and I am going to have a sleepover party.	T. initiated from a prior conversation	Child
Last two stories before exiting from the program	I will read my books at my house to get my brain smarter and smarter.		
	I went to the shop to buy my mom a flower and I bought my mom a ring and earrings.		
Familiar Text –Event or Abstract	Personalized connection with familiar text	Personal experience	Child chose or generated topic
5	6	6 (c. generated 1)	17

Beginning of program – Text event or abstract

Middle – Personalized connection to the text

End – Personal experience

Appendix E

Shelley and Huron: Conversation Starters and Invitations to Compose

<u>Examples of Shelley's Conversation Starters</u>	<u>And the Invitations to Compose</u>
<p>9/3/08 What did you say to me when we were walking to the trailer? You saw something that was on the floor and you picked it up. Tell me about that.</p>	<p>Ok, So what what could we say about the ball? What did Huron do to the ball?</p>
<p>9/4/08 Alright, so you were telling me that last night when you were reading your books they were too easy for you.</p>	<p>What could we say about your story? How could we put that in a story about your books being too easy or just right? What do you want to say about your books that you read last night?</p>
<p>9/18/08 Heh heh. Ok, what did Little Red and Little Blue do to <u>dad</u> and <u>mom</u>?</p>	<p>Mmm, ok. So, what can we say about what Little Red and Little Blue did to mom and dad?</p>
<p>9/19/08 T: In the story about Little Red and Little Blue, what were they doing to mom and dad? (<i>facing the child to capture his attention and altering her voice in a questioning whisper tone to engage his interest</i>)</p>	<p>T: Alright (<i>nodding head</i>), so you want to say, (.) they went to the garden? What did they do at the garden? C: They played. T: Alright, so they went (.), you tell me.</p>
<p>10/03/08 So in that book that we were reading with baby bear, how did baby bear help mother bear when they were in the forest? What did baby bear do?</p>	<p>C: ...now what's our story going to be? T: Ok, ok, what do you want, what do you want to say?</p>

Appendix F

Shelley and Huron: Change Over Time in Compositions

First Story Composed and Written in Session 1: I have a horse.

Date Week/Session	Story Sentence Composition	Topic Source	Structure Source
9-03-08 3 / 12 *TRL: 3 *Text Reading Level	(<i>child's name</i>) picked the ball up and the air come out.	Personal experience Teacher invited child to decide topic; then prompted to an earlier event	Child's structure
9-04-08 3 / 13 TRL: 3	The books were too easy for (<i>child's first and last names</i>) last night.	Personal experience; teacher prompted to prior conversation	Child's structure
9-18-08 5 / 22 TRL 6	Little Red and Little Blue tricked mom and dad.	Abstract from familiar reading text Teacher initiated	Child's and book structure
9-1908 5 / 23 TRL 6	They went to the garden to play on the swings and slide.	Event from familiar reading text and continuation from yesterday's story	Book structure
10-02-08 7 / 30 TRL 8/9	I help my dad drive the lawn mower to cut the grass.	Personal experience connected to a familiar reading text Teacher initiated	Child's structure
10-03-08 7 / 31	Mother Bear was too big to climb the tree to get the nuts.	Event from familiar reading text Teacher initiated	Child's structure
10-16-08 9 / 39 TRL 10/11	Bella and Rosie got into the car and Bella said are we there yet no said Rosie the beach is far far away.	Events from familiar reading text Teacher gave up her topic agenda for the child's initiation	Child's structure
10-17-08 9 / 40 TRL: 11	I like to eat quesadillas and I like to sleep with my teddy bear Winnie the Pooh.	Personal experience connected to a familiar reading text Teacher initiated	Child's structure

10-30-08 11 / TRL: 12	The donkey trick the animals and he hide from the zebras and monkeys and foxes.	Abstract from familiar reading text	Child's structure
10-31-08 11 / 49 TRL: 13 C. said words slowly and wrote without sound boxes but with T linking tricky sounds to known	<u>The little puppy got into trouble. He ripped books and he wanted pink bear and he fell in the pool.</u> Underlined parts written by child independently.	T. initiated from book; C. not interested and initiated conversation from another book, teacher followed the child's lead	T/C negotiated and co-constructed
Exit Testing 11/13/08 Program Discontinued	Writing Vocabulary in August – 3 words Writing Vocabulary at Exit 13 weeks later – 47 words	August HRSW – 9/37 November HRSW – 36/37	
Abstract or events in reading text	Personalized connection to familiar text	Personal experience	Total Episodes
6 (60%)	2	2 (early lessons)	10

Appendix G

Dana and Lilli: Conversation Starters and Invitations to Compose

<u>Examples of Dana's Conversation Starters</u>	<u>And the Invitations to Compose</u>
<p>9/08/08 T: Maybe we could talk about how when yooou go in your car just like in the story. What could we say? (1.0) ((<i>child looking at book picture</i>)) or do you want to pretend you're in this car? ((<i>pointed to picture in book</i>))</p>	<p>T: How do you want to say it? Look C: Look at Lilli. The big hole is there. (<i>Dana leads off with the first word to get Lilli started.</i>)</p>
<p>9/10/08 T: So have you had a boo-boo before? ((<i>teacher turned sideways facing and looking at child</i>))</p>	<p>Alright, so what did you say to mom when you had all those boo boos? So you want to tell your story like the story in the book?</p>
<p>10/06/08 ((<i>facing child with hand propped on head</i>)) So what did you do over the weekend?</p>	<p>Alright so let's write about how you went to the store.</p>
<p>10/07/08 Why are you so sleepy? Did you have a party last night?</p>	<p>Well that's fun! Ok, so what could we say about your big ole party last night?</p>
<p>10/22/08 T: () talk about your cats and dogs today, huh? What about them?</p>	<p>T: Alright, so what do you want to say?</p>
<p>11/03/08 T: What should we do your story about today? ((<i>leans in towards child</i>)) Should we do it about Halloween ((<i>raises eyebrows</i>)) or something different? Cause you were telling me something good in the hallway when we were walking. You were telling me about your costume ((<i>raises eyebrows</i>)). (1.0) What did you decide to be for Halloween?</p>	<p>T: Ok! So what do you want to write about? Should we write about how you got into your costume or should we write about how you got to your grandpa's house or should we write about how you went to your friend's house?</p>
<p>11/05/08 Do you want to write a story about your day at home or do you want to do a story about something that we've read?</p>	<p>Those are good things ((<i>nods head</i>))! ((<i>repeats</i>)) So I will read, I will play, I will write ((<i>counting them off on her fingers</i>)). Should we start that with you, I like school and then you'll say all the things you will do at school?</p>

Appendix H

Dana and Lilli: Change Over Time in Compositions

First Story Composed in Session 1: Here is my house.

Date Week/Session	Story Sentence Composition	Source of Topic	Structure Source
8-28-08 RAK *TRL: 2 *Text Reading Level	T: Is Lilli in here? C: Lilli is in the kitchen.	Familiar book structure; personalized; child as book character Teacher initiated	Repetitive text; Shared composition
8-28-08 RAK TRL: 2	Danny is eating all the treats.	Abstract of familiar book Teacher initiated	Text, teacher, child negotiated and child appropriated
8-29-08 RAK TRL: 2	T: Where is Lilli? said Mom. C: Lilli is hiding in the table.	Familiar text; personalized using child as book character Teacher Initiated	Text, teacher, child negotiated and child appropriated; child revised during writing; shared composition
8-29-08 RAK TRL: 2	Here is the princess said Lilli.	Familiar book and connected personal experience Teacher initiated	Text and teacher
9-08-08 4/15 TRL: 3 Early boxes right out of RAK- pushing counters; T prt. to reread Taking HF words to fluency	Look at Lilli. Here is the big hole.	Personalization from familiar text Teacher initiated	Text, teacher, child
9-10-08 4/17 TRL: 3 Boxes-pushing counters Slow ck. after boxes Taking HF words to fluency T. language changed to prt. C. to reread	Look mom, said Lilli. Oh no, said mom. Here is a bandaid.	Personalization from familiar text Teacher initiated	Teacher, text, child Composed after first sentence while writing.
9-22-08 6/25 TRL: 4/5 T. validating initiatives C. rereading independently No counters with the boxes/sliding finger under	My pink car is going up and up and up and down and down and down.	Personalization from familiar text Teacher initiated	Text and child Teacher offered choice to revise (pink)

9-24-08 6/27 TRL: 4/5 DVD damaged on this sequence in parts	Look at Nicole. Nicole is eating one fish. Oh no said Lilli.	Personalization from familiar text Teacher initiated	Text, teacher, child
10-06-08 8/35 TRL: 6	I went to the store. I get a puppy. I “bringit” the puppy home.	Personalization from child’s experience Teacher initiated from prior conversation	Child
10-7-08 8/36 TRL: 6	I eat a lot and a lot and a lot of food. Then I went back to bed.	Personalization from child’s experience Teacher initiated from prior conversation	Child
10-21-08 10 / 45 TRL: 7/8	I got the pretty flower in the dirt. It is purple. It is for Mrs. Hilaski.	Personalization from child’s experience Teacher initiated; offered choices for topic	Child Teacher tuning C. ear to hear book language structure; offering choices; C controlled English structure choice
10-22-08 10 / 46/8 TRL: 7	I <u>like</u> my dog and my cat. They follow me <i>like</i> a line.	Personal experience Child initiated	Child <i>Note: From this observation on to the end, consistent past or present agreement verb tenses are used in compositions.</i>
11-03-08 12/52 TRL: 8	I went to my Grandpa’s house and I went to my friend’s house and I got some candy. I said trick or treat.	Teacher initiated connecting to child’s experience	Teacher and Child negotiated
11/05/08 12/53 TRL: 8	I like school. I will read at school. I will play. I will eat at school. I will go to home.	Teacher initiated choice of topic; child chose	Child
11/17/08 14/61 TRL: 8	My brother is one. All the people will come for my brother’s birthday. We will eat the cake.	Teacher initiated topic from previous conversation about personal experience	Child

11/19/08 14/63 TRL: 9/10	I went to get some pizza. Pizza is good. I went to my friend's house. I went to my house. My kitty cat broke glass.	Teacher offered choices to transfer initiative for topic	Child
12/09/08 17/71 TRL: 11	Ms. Hilaski looked in the bathroom but Lilli was not there. Ms. Hilaski looked at art but Lilli was not there. But then Lilli was at the computer lab.	Teacher initiated from a shared experience and prior conversation	Child and teacher negotiated
12/11/08 17/74 TRL: 13/14	Three little pigs left momma pig. They were going to make a house. The big bad wolf said, "Little pig, Little pig, let me come in." The big bad work said, "I'll huff. I'll blow your house in. Not by my hair of my chinny chin chin."	Retelling of a previously read story.	Child
End of program compositions	My birthday is coming up. My mom is going to get me a cake. My cake is a Dora. It is a chocolate cake. My piñata has candy inside. My birthday is going to be fun.	Personal experience	Child
End of program compositions	My hair is going to be cut. My hair is going to be beautiful. My mom will cut my hair for my birthday.	Personal experience	Child
Personal connection to text	Abstract or events in reading text	Personal experience	Total Episodes
7	2	9	18

Appendix I

Dana and Jon: Conversation Starters and Invitations to Compose

<u>Examples of Dana's Conversation Starters</u>	<u>And the Invitations to Compose</u>
<p>9/05/08 The teacher began the conversation springing from two books that the child had read in familiar reading. One was about two dogs fighting over things and the other one was about food to eat at lunch.</p> <p>So let's be like Buster. I'm going to be Buster and you be Gabby. Here is my cookie!</p>	<p>Alright what are you going to say? You're Gabby.</p>
<p>9/15/09 You said you were hungry when you walked in today. So what are you hungry for, for lunch?</p>	<p>Ohh, you want hot dogs and pizza on the same day? <i>((child looking at teacher))</i> Aah, that would be the best. How can we write that in a story? Should we say you're still hungry? <i>((child nods yes))</i> Ok, so how should we say that?</p>
<p>9/17/09 What happened in the boat ride? Where do you think he was going to go in his boat? If you got in the boat where would you go? I think I might go to the beach.</p>	<p>Ok, so what could we say about you?</p>
<p>11/10/09 So do you have plans for today? What will you do at school today?</p>	<p>Tell me the words you want to use for your story about how you will ride your bike tonight.</p>

Appendix J

Dana and Jon: Change Over Time in Compositions

First Story Composed in Session 1: Mom is walking.

Date Week/Session	Story Sentence Composed	Topic Source	Structure Source
9-04-08 3 / 12 *TRL: 3 *Text Reading Level	Jon is the winner.	Personalized from familiar text Teacher initiated	3 rd person text structure Child
9-05-08 3 / 13 TRL: 3	No, no, no. Here is my ball said Jon.	Personalized from familiar text Teacher initiated	Text
9-15-08 5 / 19 TRL: 3	Jon is hungry. Here is some pizza.	Personalized from familiar text Teacher initiated	Text
9-17-08 5 / 21 TRL: 3	Jon is in the boat. Jon is going to the beach.	Personalized from familiar text Teacher initiated	Text, teacher, child
9-29-08 7 / 29 TRL: 4	Come on Mom. No more balloons. Look at the rocket ship.	Personalized from familiar text Teacher initiated	Text
10-01-08 7 / 31 TRL: 5	*Ms. Almond we are going to visit you on this day.	Personal experience Teacher initiated	Child
10-15-08 9 / 40 TRL: 6	I am eating ice cream in the lunchroom.	Personal experience Teacher initiated	Child
10-16-08 9 / 41 TRL: 6	I didn't get any yesterday. I am getting ice cream this day.	Personal experience Teacher initiated	Child
10-30-08 11 / 50 TRL: 8	I am playing with my dog. He loves me.	Personal experience Child initiated	Child
11-10-08 13 / 55 TRL: 8	I will play with my bike tonight. I will ride it in the road.	Teacher initiated to provide opportunity to extend fluent control of <i>will</i> .	Child and Teacher
11-12-09 13 / 57 TRL: 9	I am bringing money to school for the book fair.	Teacher suggested choices Child led topic	Child <i>Teacher shifts teaching to shift child's process in HRSIW to SIS smoothly</i>

12-01-09 15 / 66 TRL: 9/10	I am moving on the thirteenth day. Mrs. Hilaski is going to cry when I move.	Teacher linking to a prior conversation	Child
12-03-09 15 / 68 TRL: 9/10	*Ms. Almond I am moving on the thirteenth day. Can I read to you? Can we read or not? Can we come?	Teacher linking to prior conversation establishing a purpose for writing and an audience	Child
<i>Child's exit status: Moved</i>	<i>*Ms. Almond was Jon's kindergarten teacher.</i>		<i>Most of the child's compositions came from the child own oral language structure.</i>
Abstract or events in reading text	Personalized connections to familiar text	Personal experience	Total Episodes
0	5	6 + (2 for specific audience)	13

Appendix K

Vivian and Brandon: Conversation Starters and Invitations to Compose

<u>Examples of Vivian's Conversation Starters</u>	<u>And the Invitations to Compose</u>
<p>8/28/08 Do you have, do you ride a bike at home? (.) Do you have a bike?</p>	<p>T: Yes ((<i>confirming</i>)). Ok, well, let's write a note to your dad. ((<i>message about asking dad to take the spider webs off his bike</i>)) How about we do that, write a note to your dad?</p>
<p>9/21/08 You like the two cats in the book? Why do you like those cats so much? What's so funny about them?</p>	<p>T: What do you want to say about Kitty Cat and Fat Cat? (5.0) You want to talk about how they eat the mice, the mouse? C: ((<i>nods head</i>)) T: How do you want to say that in your story today?</p>
<p>10/07/08 You know in that story, Who Will Be My Mother, it was pretty silly because the boy became the mother didn't he?</p>	<p>T: Can we write that in our story today about how you think a sheep should be his mother? C: Yes. T: How would we start that in your story about how a sheep should be his mother?</p>
<p>11/06/08 In this story Tim lost his socks cause Michael had them. You told me the other day you got a new puppy. Has your new puppy eaten your socks yet?</p>	<p>Ok, well let's go back and write about this morning about how you came down the steps and you got=so how would we say that in our story? (1.5) About how you took the dog out of the cage and fed her some water and carried her out there. ((<i>nodding head</i>)) That would make a great story.</p>
<p>11/07/08 T: ((<i>gasps</i>)) You know how to count by twos, that's good! You know what else I, I saw you do when you came in, you'd been telling me about VERBS you've been learning in your classroom too! (1.0) You came in and you=</p>	<p>T: That would be a great story to write about nouns and verbs ((<i>grabs the marker box for child</i>)). We can show that to your teacher today.</p>

Appendix L

Vivian and Brandon: Change Over Time in Compositions

First Story Composed and Written in Session 1: I am in the car.

Date Week/Session	Story Sentence Composition	Topic Source	Structure Source
8-28-08 2 / 7 *TRL: 3 *Text Reading Level	Dad, can you take out the spider web off my bike?	Personalized from previous conversation; writing a note to Dad Teacher initiated	Child
8-29-08 2 / 8 TRL: 3	I like to read to my mom. Her likes it. I like to play with my Dad we play cars.	Personalized from personal experience and text connection; Teacher initiated	Child
9-11-08 4 / 16 TRL: 5	Kingfisher is eating lizard's tail. The tail is not yummy.	Event of familiar text Teacher initiated	Text and Child
9-12-08 4 / 16 TRL: 5	Kitty Cat is eating a mouse. The mouse is yucky.	Event of familiar text Teacher initiated	Child
9-25-08 6 / 24 TRL: 6/7	I went to the roller coaster. My friends say close they eyes.	Personal experience Teacher initiated from prior conversation	Child
9-26-08 6 / 25 TRL: 6	I am playing my Nintendo DS. Today is Friday.	Child initiated conversation	Child
10-06-08 8 / 31 TRL: 8	The dogs are crazy because the dogs are going to the roller coaster and the cars and the swimming pool.	Events in familiar text Teacher initiated	Child
10-07-08 8 / 32 TRL: 7/8	A girl sheep is her mother. Will you be my mother?	Event from familiar text Teacher initiated	Child and Text

10-23-08 10 / 43 TRL: 8/9	On Friday Mrs. Johnston write a note. Brandon read his books.	Personalization connecting to prior conversation; audience; teacher initiated	Child
10-24-08 10 / 44 TRL: 9	At my sister's house, I saw a movie and a deer.	Personalized from text connection Teacher initiated but child took the lead	Child
11-06-08 12 / 52 TRL: 11	This morning I wake up and go to my mom's bed and saw T.V. Then I go downstairs.	Teacher initiated a personalized topic about his puppy but child took the lead and started a series of stories	Child
11-07-08 12 / 53 TRL: 13	Nouns are things and persons and place. Dad, mom, girl are persons.	Personalized from child's classroom experiences Teacher initiated	Child
11-20-08 14 / 62 TRL: 13	The five little fox was hungry and the fox got a hen.	T. initiated from text with purpose of shaping sequence of a story retelling using transitional words in the composition-preparing for classroom transfer	Child (T/C used transitional words in the conversation however the child composed his story without them; 2 stories prior to this one contained transition words: First, Then, Last)
11/21/08 14 / 63 TRL: 13	First the bird wanted to drink water. Then the bird found water.	T. initiated from familiar text; shaping composition to use transitional sequencing words, first, next, then, last.	Child
12/03/08 (not observed) 16 / 68 TRL: 14	First they wanted to ride a horse. Then they find a branch horse. Last they ride the horse.	? retelling of a familiar text using transitional words	Child
12/11/08 Program Discontinued Successfully			

Wondering: Were there opportunities to monitor and search (tuning of the ear) for book structure in conversations and compositions negotiated together between teacher and child over time?	Child still making errors in verb usage in speech and compositions at the end of the program. How did that compare with text reading structures and his process in reading to use structure as a source of information?	I am wondering how the text structures in reading compared to the structures in writing.	
Personalized from text connection	Abstract or event in text	Personal experience	Total Episodes
6	7	2	15

Appendix M

Vivian and Eddie: Conversation Starters and Invitations to Compose

<u>Examples of Vivian's Conversation Starters</u>	<u>And Invitations to Compose</u>
<p>9/05/08 T: Little Chimp fell on Big Chimp and then Big Chimp tried to get him, didn't he? <i>((child nods yes))</i> T: You ever played chase with someone? Played a game where you ran after each other? <i>((child nods yes))</i> T: Tell me about that game</p> <p>9/18/08 You've been picking red berries before. Tell me about what happened when you did that. <i>((He talked about picking berries but changed the topic to a story about when his sister ate chicken feet. The teacher followed his lead.))</i></p> <p>10/02/08 You know the book in soccer at the park about Tim. The big boys thought Tim was too little to play that game. Has there ever been a time that someone thought you were too little?</p>	<p>T: let's write about Carlos in your story today. Okay?</p> <p>C: <i>((nods yes))</i></p> <p>T: I heard you say I like to play with Carlos.</p> <p>Let's write about your baby sister. What do you want to start your story off about her?</p> <p>T: you play with your Dad at the park and you play football. I think that would make a great story. Don't you? <i>((child nods signaling yes))</i> T: How do you want to start that story?</p>
<p>11/13/08 So you used those words <u>FIRST</u>, <u>NEXT</u>, <u>LAST</u> in your story and your teacher said she wanted to see you doing that more <i>((raised her eyebrows and made eyes big))</i> in your writing in the classroom*. We want to practice that some today. We read the story Mushrooms for Dinner. What did Baby Bear do <u>FIRST</u> in this story? (2.5) Let's see what he did first. <i>((opens the pages of the book))</i></p>	<p>He walked <u>UP</u> the hill and <u>DOWN</u> hill <i>((motioning up and down on the page with her fingers))</i>. Ok, so can we say that in our story? <i>((pushes his writing pad toward him to initiate his writing))</i> Get you a marker and let's say that that's what he did first.</p> <p><i>*((Vivian was working on transferring skills he needed for classroom success.))</i></p>

Appendix N

Vivian and Eddie: Change Over Time in Compositions

First Story Composed and Written in Session 1: I see the balloon. (copied from text)

Date Week/Session	Story Sentence Composition	Topic Source	Structure Source
8-22-08 RAK 1 / 4	I like to sleep on the ground.		Child, Teacher, Text
9-04-08 3 / 11 *TRL: 4 *Text Reading Level	Come here baby sister.		Child and Text
9-05-08 3 / 12 TRL: 4	I like to play with Carlos on the trampoline.		Child
9-18-08 5 / 19 TRL: 6	I see my baby sister. She eats chicken feet. (Why not saw/see; ate/eats?)	Teacher initiated from text but child took the lead elsewhere	Child
9-19-08 5 / 20 TRL: 6	I see a snake and they killed it. (Why not saw/see?)	Personal experience connection to familiar text Teacher initiated	Child
10-02-08 7 / 28 TRL: 7	I play football with my dad and I win the score. (Why not played/play; won/win?)	Personal experience connection to familiar text idea Teacher initiated	Child
10-03-08 7 / 29 TRL: 7	My dad is going to buy my costume of Ninja white.	Personal experience	Child
10-16-08 9 / 37 TRL: 9	I went to the dentist. They brush my teeth. (Why not brushed/brush?)	Personal experience Teacher initiated	Teacher and Child

10-17-08 9 / 38 TRL: 9	I hide in the car. Nobody find me. I peek up. (Why not hid/hide; found/find; peeked/peek?)	Personal experience connection with familiar text Teacher initiated	Child
10-30-08 11 / 47 TRL: 10	First he finds the goose. Second he finds the frog. Last he finds the boy. (Why not found/find?)	Retelling from familiar text Teacher initiated	Teacher and Child
10-31-08 11 / 48 TRL: 10 (Teacher noted a pattern of simple sentence compositions and wondering why the child had not taken on more complex sentence compositions.)	After snack we write our story. I read my story. (Why not wrote/ write?)	Personal experience T/C shared initiation and both provided choices for talking and writing	Child
11/13/08 13 / 52 TRL:11	First he finds some mushrooms. Second he finds the rabbit. Last they ate dinner. (Why not found/find?)	T. setting up classroom connections with writing style using transitional words in composition; initiated idea of using familiar text to retell story in sequence	Child Teacher initiates the “First..., Second..., Last.”
11/14/08 13 / 53 TRL: 12	First I take the little wheels off. Then I leave my bike. (Why not took/take; left/leave?)	T. initiated topic from familiar text; C initiated composition using transitional words from classroom work and yesterday’s format in RR writing; personalized connection	Child

12/04/08 16 / 65 TRL: 14	First put the rope on his head. Next put the towel on his back. Then ride on it. Last they laughed.	T. discussed sequence of events from familiar book	Child
12/05/08 16 / 66 TRL: 14	First they put the food. Next they opened the door. Then they walked away. Last they sat outside. (T. offered verbal link to <i>looked</i> and visual link in text for child to solve <i>walked</i> . C. monitored on S and asked sit or sat?)	T. initiated and set a purpose for writing: "Your teacher hasn't heard this story How would you tell her about it?"	Child
12/08/08 (not observed) 17 / 67 TRL: 15	First they bring my cake. Next they bring presents. Then they ate cake. Last I watched a movie. (Why not brought/bring?)		
<i>Program Discontinued Successfully 17 weeks – Child on grade level in reading and writing</i>	<i>Wondering: What role does language structure play in the reciprocity of the reading and the writing process?</i>		
Personalized from text connection	Abstract or event in text	Personal experience	Total Documented
6	4	5	15