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GRADUATE COLLEGE

YOUNG CHILDREN'S SELF-PERCEPTIONS OF COMPETENCY IN LITERACY
DURING ONE-ON-ONE TUTORING

A Dissertation

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

By

PAULETTE G. BELSHE

Norman, Oklahoma

1999

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YOUNG CHILDREN'S SELF-PERCEPTIONS OF COMPETENCY IN LITERACY
DURING ONE-ON-ONE TUTORING

A Dissertation APPROVED FOR THE
DEPARTMENT OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP
AND ACADEMIC CURRICULUM

BY

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Dedication

To my husband, Gordon

**Whose generous spirit of love, encouragement, and understanding
have helped make this endeavor a reality.**

To my children, Rob and Jim

Whose accomplishments have been both an inspiration and a delight.

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Abstract

The research described in this paper explored young children's feelings of competence to engage in print-related tasks within the context of one-on-one instruction. Over an eight-month period, six randomly selected low-achieving first-grade children (three boys and three girls) were observed and audiotaped weekly as they were tutored by college students.

Data from field notes, tutoring transcripts, and attitude assessments were used to determine changes in the children's self-perceptions of their competency in literacy. Pre- and post- reading and writing assessments were used to determine changes in literacy performance. Based on self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1986, 1995), the research addressed the questions: (1) What changes in the participants' self-perceptions of competency occur over the year of the tutoring? (2) What interaction patterns with the tutors during the tutoring seem related to those changes? (3) How does the participants' literacy performance seem related to their self-perceptions of competence?

Social interaction in the form of positive verbal feedback to the children's literacy performance (reading and writing) appeared related to the children's positive changes in self-perceptions of competency. The positive feedback provided instantaneous encouragement and support of the children's reading and writing attempts, thus enhancing motivation to continue engagement in print-related tasks during the tutoring.

Findings from this study provide evidence of the importance of one-on-one instruction for children considered at-risk for school failure in influencing continued engagement in literacy tasks (reading and writing), the tutors' use of positive

feedback that seems to promote positive self-perceptions of competency in literacy, and how children's feelings about their competence and their literacy performance change over time. As a whole, the children's increase in positive self-perceptions of competency paralleled their literacy performance across the year.

Chapter I: The Problem

A teacher mentally surveys the children in her first-grade classroom, noting those who appear to be making adequate progress in reading and others who are experiencing great difficulty in making sense of written language. She recognizes that some of the lower-achievers do not seem as motivated to read; they rarely pick up a book on their own. She remembers the answer given in response to a question she had asked one of the children “Do you like to read?” to which the child had quickly remarked, “No. I don’t know how.” As children are expected to learn to read during that formidable first-grade year, the teacher realizes the monumental task for which she is responsible – to facilitate the literacy learning of those children making progress in reading, as well as those children who do not appear to be learning to read “according to society’s schedule” (Allington, 1991). She fears those children will not be able to catch up with their peers in reading and may eventually drop out of school. The teacher described above may or may not be cognizant of the fact that children’s beliefs about themselves as literate individuals (i.e. readers and writers) directly influence their desire to read and their reading performance.

A challenge and offer of assistance to teachers with low-achievers in reading was recently brought to the attention of the American public by President Bill Clinton. In response to President Clinton’s educational challenge to enlist people from all walks of life, particularly college students, in increasing young children’s ability to read independently by the end of third-grade (Maughan, 1997), a study was designed in conjunction with a large Southwestern university employing college students as tutors of at-risk children in first- and second-grade. College students qualifying for federal financial

aid were recruited as reading tutors at one rural and two urban public elementary schools. The research focus was to examine the effects of the tutoring on the children's reading achievement, interest, attitude, and motivation to read over the course of a year. I served as coordinator of the study/tutoring program during its pilot implementation for the 1997-1998 school year (September-early May).

Background of the Study

Difficulty in learning to read has been the barometer used to measure children's success in school, and many children are stigmatized by the various labels attached to them as a result of their low performance in reading (McGill-Franzen, 1994). Historically, some of those labels include "economically disadvantaged," "learning-disabled," and "handicapped." Regardless of the label, many of these children are recommended either for placement in Special Education or Title I Reading (Allington, 1991, 1994; Allington & McGill-Franzen, 1995; Allington & Walmsley, 1995; Johnston & Allington, 1991; McGill-Franzen, 1994; Walp & Walmsley, 1995). Both placements are educational compensations for the children's difficulty in learning to read in the regular classroom. Therefore, it is necessary that low-achievers in reading be identified within their first-grade year and given early literacy intervention before set patterns of repeated failure are established (Stanovich, 1986).

Definition of Terms

Literacy. Learning to read is a participatory process as children engage in diverse aspects of print involvement (Clay, 1991). For example, alphabet knowledge, letter-sound association, word recognition, writing, and oral or silent reading are print-related tasks in

which children may periodically engage that promote their growth in literacy, thus enhancing ability to read. Being able to read is the way in which others judge competency in literacy. However, the term “literacy” includes oral reading, writing, and any other involvement with print that enhances children’s capabilities as readers and writers. Therefore, within the context of this study I use the term “literacy” to denote involvement in a variety of print-related experiences during one-on-one tutoring, including oral reading.

At-Risk. Over the last decade, the prevalent term used to describe children who experience difficulty in learning to read has been “at-risk,” although it is difficult to arrive at a consensus of an all-encompassing definition of the term (Slavin, 1989), particularly as it relates to young children and their achievement in reading. However, a major criterion for inclusion in an at-risk category appears to be children from a low-income home (Smith, 1997; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). Smith followed 57 children of low-socioeconomic status from their fourth birthday until they were nine years of age and discovered two features common to families of limited financial means: (a) storybook reading was almost nonexistent in their homes, and (b) the parents considered it the school’s job to teach the children how to read. Thus, the children were not exposed to, or encouraged to engage in, literacy activities that may aid in bridging the gap between the home and school literacies. Not only do poor children face the problems associated with difficulty in learning to read, but, also those from a minority ethnic group (Snow et al., 1998). Within the context of the research described in this paper, I use the term “at-risk” to denote children of low-economic status, who may or may not belong to a minority group, who are having difficulty learning to read in first-grade and are thus considered at-risk for

school failure.

Self-Perceptions of Competency in Literacy. Based on Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory of motivation, I use the term competency in literacy to denote the children's self-perceptions of their ability to participate in and perform print-related tasks, such as reading and writing activities during a one-on-one tutoring situation.

Significance of the Study

Children's self-perceptions of their competency in literacy represent an important area of study, enhancing understandings about the motivational aspects of one-on-one tutoring in reading. Children's self-perceptions of competency in literacy affect their self-efficacy in ability to participate in various print-related tasks, thus influencing how they go about the business of learning to read and write, including how much time and effort they are willing to devote to engagement in all facets of literacy.

Self-efficacy, a major construct of motivation, is a common thread to engagement and proficiency in an activity (Bandura, 1986, 1995). Therefore, I wanted to examine any changes in the children's feelings related to self-perceptions of their competence throughout the year of the tutoring, and how those changes may be related to their motivation to read, as well as their literacy learning. While acknowledging the home, classroom, and other contexts on children's literacy learning, I opted to explore children's motivations to read, specifically, self-perceptions of their competency in literacy within the context of one-on-one tutoring in a school setting.

In light of the knowledge that not all children arrive at school having had the same experiences with text, supporting young children's early literacy learning must be a

priority of both practitioners and researchers. Individual differences in children's experiences with text before school entry seem to account for most of those initial differences in literacy learning (Clay, 1991), influencing subsequent motivation to read (Oldfather & Dahl, 1994). In essence, young children who are initially poor readers upon school entry tend to remain poor readers. Thus, many children deemed at-risk for failure in reading emphasize a need for early literacy intervention (Clay, 1991, 1993b, Stanovich, 1986). As previously mentioned, President Clinton brought the issue of the at-risk learner to the forefront of the American public in a State of the Union address (Maughan, 1997), in which he proposed that work-study funding be channeled toward pay for college students who work as reading tutors with at-risk children. There is now considerable evidence that one-on-one tutoring is an effective form of instruction in enhancing the learning of those children who seem to be experiencing difficulty in learning to read (Bloom, 1984; Clay, 1991, 1993; Glass, Cahen, Smith, & Filby, 1982; Slavin et al., 1989; Wasik & Slavin, 1993).

An ever-increasing body of research over the last decade supports the use of one-on-one instruction in enhancing the literacy learning of the lowest achievers in reading as an adjunct to their regular classroom instruction (Clay, 1991, 1993b; Iversen & Tunmer, 1993; Juel, 1996; Pinnell, 1989; Shanahan & Barr, 1995; Stanovich, 1986; Vellutino, Scanlon, Sipay, Small, Pratt, Chen, & Denckla, 1996; Wasik & Slavin, 1993). However, some researchers suggest that the positive long-term effects of tutoring on young children's literacy learning may be overly touted and somewhat limited, and does not always result in increased learning (Shanahan, 1998).

In supporting young children's literacy learning, an instructional context that promotes positive attitude and interest in reading is fundamental to children's motivation to engage in literacy activities (Oldfather & Dahl, 1994). One-on-one tutoring seems to provide a social context that helps support young children's literacy learning through the guidance of a more knowledgeable other, the tutor (Clay, 1991, 1993a; Clay & Cazden, 1990; Juel, 1994, 1996; Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord, 1993; McCarthy, Newby, & Recht, 1995; McCormick, 1994; Pinnell, Lyons, DeFord, Byrk, & Seltzer 1994; Shanahan & Barr, 1995; Wasik & Slavin, 1993). Clay & Cazden (1990) have argued that children's cognitive development (higher order thinking skills) and subsequent understanding about literacy may be enhanced as a result of the scaffolded instruction engaged in by the more able, the tutor.

Early intervention, such as one-on-one tutoring may provide a context conducive to enhance learning, although our understanding of young children's motivation to read within that context is extremely limited. None of the researchers cited above included a detailed qualitative analysis of interactional patterns within the tutoring dyads that might add to understandings about the influence of one-on-one tutoring on children's self-perceptions of their literacy competence. With the exception of Juel's study (1996), research is extremely limited on cross-age tutoring dyads with minimally trained adults and low-achieving children in reading. Although Juel (1996) qualitatively examined what occurs during one-on-one tutoring of low-achieving children in reading by minimally trained college students instead of highly-trained teachers, she did not explore how interaction patterns within the tutoring dyad may relate to changes in the children's self-

perceptions of their literacy competence. Commonalities among most of the studies cited include (a) the use of certified, experienced teachers as tutors, and (b) daily one-on-one instruction that usually does not support classroom instruction.

Cost and time have been prohibiting factors in the implementation of tutoring programs that use qualified teachers as tutors of young children. For example, it has been estimated that the average expenditure for each Reading Recovery teacher is approximately \$46,246 (Shanahan & Barr, 1995), compared to \$3200 for each minimally trained college tutor. Part of the expense is the full year of intensive training that is required of all Reading Recovery teachers. Also, Reading Recovery teachers may work with approximately eight children over the course of a year, before the children are discontinued from the program. Tutors also work with very few children a year; however, due to their yearly salary, it may be more cost-effective in helping teachers bridge the gap between those who excel in reading and those who have great difficulty.

Preventing early reading failure has been a major educational and pedagogical concern for quite some time. If children are to be successful in school, from an early age they must develop the competencies that result in learning to read well (Paris, Wasik, & Turner, 1991). It appears that one-on-one tutoring may be an important vehicle in helping to narrow the ever widening gap between successful literacy learners and the children who, for whatever the reasons, continue to have difficulty in reading (Clay, 1991).

Previous research shows that one-on-one tutoring by college students may provide a nurturing environment in which to enhance the literacy learning of those children who find learning to read difficult (Juel, 1994, 1996). Yet, increased understandings are

needed about how one-on-one tutoring influences motivational processes of the at-risk learner. How are young children's self-perceptions of competency in literacy influenced as novice and expert work together in a one-on-one tutoring situation?

Research Questions

The purpose of the study was to explore the first-grade children's thoughts about their reading competence during one-on-one instruction in reading by college tutors. The research addressed the questions:

1. What changes in self-perceptions of competency occur over the year of the tutoring?
2. What interaction patterns seem related to those changes?
3. How does their literacy performance seem related to their self-perceptions of competency?

Chapter II: Review of the Literature

Theoretical Stance

The present research was built on three premises: (a) all language learning is a social construction (Vygotsky, 1978); (b) learning is situated (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Vygotsky, 1978), and (c) children's efficacious beliefs of their competence in reading affect their motivation to read (Bandura, 1986, 1995). First, children's literacy learning does not occur in a vacuum; rather, it occurs in the larger sociocultural context of the child's social milieu and is mediated through the skills, knowledge, values, and ways of thinking that are modeled by a more knowledgeable other (Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1991). Children are active participants in the construction of knowledge; they are able to choose text, and, based on prior experiences (in the home or preschool), use oral language in mapping speech to print.

Consequently, language is the principal psychological tool that mediates the development of more advanced ways of thinking and knowing (Vygotsky, 1978, 1986). In fact, the purpose of a mediated learning experience is to facilitate the child's becoming a competent learner (Kozulin & Presseisen, 1995). The tutor may use language to mediate understandings about the forms and conventions of written language as he or she engages the child in discussions about the text; the talk that surrounds the text is probably what makes the difference in the mediation of young children's literacy learning (Barton, 1994). Through the use of language, the more knowledgeable (expert) involves the less knowledgeable (novice) in a social interchange that leads to higher-order thinking.

From birth, social interaction, such as the use of words, signs, gestures, or facial

expressions, is essential to a child's development (Vygotsky, 1978; Heath, 1983), provides a context for learning (Cook-Gumperz, 1986), and mediates all cognitive processes inherent within a culture (Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1985). Social interaction is paramount to a mediated learning experience, as learning occurs first on a social plane through interpersonal communicative interaction between expert and novice (Vygotsky, 1978). Social interaction, in face-to-face interactions, is fundamental to the tutoring dyad as an aid in uncovering confusions (Clay, 1998), and in promoting growth in intellectual skills such as reading and writing (Clay, 1998; Clay & Cazden, 1990).

Talk is a primary mediator for social exchange during face-to-face interaction (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984; Nofsinger, 1991). Face-to-face interaction is a dialogical teaching format that provides opportunities for the child to engage in conversation with someone more knowledgeable (Clay, 1998). As a facilitator of the child's literacy learning, the tutor uses talk to mediate learning on an interpersonal plane. Through conversation and dialogue the tutor has the opportunity to "scaffold" (Wood, 1988) the child's learning until he or she is capable of being independently successful; the child is able to monitor his or her own reading through a self-extending system (Clay, 1991). That is, the child is able to independently make use of the four cuing systems (syntactic, semantic, phonological and visual) in constructing meaning from text.

The indicators of such interaction are displayed in social interchange within the tutoring dyad as expert (tutor) and novice (child) cooperate in culturally-specific activities in a process that Rogoff (1990) coined guided participation. Rogoff emphasizes that learning occurs as children are guided through joint decision-making processes. Learning

to read is one such process (Clay, 1991), contingent upon the amount and quality of social interaction children engage in with someone more proficient during one-on-one tutoring (Clay & Cazden, 1990). The process of guided participation within the tutoring dyad is particularly important in facilitating children's growth in literacy understanding.

Social interaction (in the form of talk) within the context of school has been determined to mediate literacy learning in children even before they enter first-grade. Rowe (1989) investigated the role of social interaction in the literacy learning of 3- and 4-year old children as they participated in literacy activities at a class writing center. Findings showed that social interaction, manifested as conversation, was the primary method of meaning construction as children read their own as well as others' original compositions authored at the writing center. Conversation provided a window into the various perspectives of the children as they negotiated access to space and materials and shared personal experiences. In addition, their own and others' original texts provided a familiar context for the development of shared understandings. The children seemed to internalize the cognitive strategies necessary to foster independent reading and writing.

In a recent study (Young & Beach, 1997), social interaction was the common thread in the mediation of first-grade children's understandings about becoming literate individuals within the context of school. The authors did a cross-case analysis in generating evidence about children's implicitly and explicitly held theories of literacy during their first-grade year in school. Twelve focal children's interviews and their conversations with adults and peers were analyzed. The main theme generated from the data was that learning to read and write is a social accomplishment. The children read and

wrote together, scaffolded each other's reading and writing, and shared their compositions. The children's sense of being literate served as a psychological tool in literacy learning and in maintaining social relationships; the children viewed literacy as being an integral part of the social fabric of the classroom. An important finding in their study relevant to my research concerns children's self-perceptions of competency in reading and writing. The children in the Young and Beach study (1997) were able to articulate their feelings and beliefs about their competence as readers and writers, which revealed what the researchers referred to as the children's "literate self-efficacy." The Rowe and Young and Beach studies provide evidence of a powerful connection between social interaction and literacy learning.

Social interactions not only mediate learning, but they contribute to self-regulatory development (Diaz, Neal, & Amaya-Williams, 1990). Self-regulation refers to behavior that is guided by personal plans or goals and the ability to adjust behavior as goals and situations change. Vygotsky argued that development is culturally determined (Diaz et al., 1990) as young children first use language as sign strictly in communicative acts with their caregivers. Later, through social mediation children learn to use language to guide, plan, and to monitor their activities. The tutoring dyad represents a shared social event in which tutor and child engage in an interpersonal process that may lead to internalization of culturally valued activities such as reading and writing.

One-on-one tutoring in reading involves social interchange between one more knowledgeable and one less knowledgeable in making sense of various symbols on the page. Joint collaboration between expert (tutor) and novice (child) may lead to

intersubjectivity, or shared, socially-mediated understandings, which may further increase opportunities for a child's working within his or her zone of proximal development.

Vygotsky (1978) created the concept of the zone of proximal development which he defined as the area between what the child is capable of accomplishing on his or her own, and that in which he or she still needs expert guidance. Expert guidance is paramount to the tutoring dyad as a mediation toward shared understandings about the many functions and message-bearing intent of all print (Clay & Cazden, 1990).

Second, learning is socioculturally, historically, and institutionally situated (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wertsch, 1985, 1991), that is, it occurs within a particular context, time, and place. Lave and Wenger suggest that the novice, in this case the child as a result of his or her status in reading development, is not yet a fully functioning member of the literate community. The child, as an active contributor to social construction of literacy within the tutoring dyad, experiences literacy peripherally as he or she is invited to participate in literacy events from the margins. Thus, the child accomplishes learning through legitimate peripheral participation, an ever-evolving process in which learning, thinking, and knowing are interrelated (Lave & Wenger, 1991). The tutoring dyad presents a sociocultural context for learning through collaborative participation as both tutor and child negotiate socially-mediated understandings about literacy as they read together and discuss the text.

Third, self-efficacy, or self-judgments of personal capabilities, is at the crux of human activity as it affects one's level of motivation by influencing choice of activities, amount of effort expended, and how long energy will be directed toward completion of

those activities (Bandura, 1986, 1995). One's self-perceptions of ability to perform an act mediate future attempts at engaging in an activity, regardless of whether that activity is as simple as reading a favorite nursery rhyme or complex as reading the complete works of Shakespeare.

Young children's beliefs about their competence in reading affect their self-concepts as readers, and, thus, further engagement with text (Gambrell et al., 1996). Children who have positive self-perceptions of competence in literacy usually read frequently, thus receive the practice necessary to increase their world knowledge, develop a broad vocabulary, enhance understandings about the functions of print, and demonstrate an increase in reading fluency. On the other hand, children with negative self-perceptions of competency in literacy may develop "learned helplessness" (Bandura, 1986), and therefore may have a tendency to avoid reading. Based on past experience, a child with learned helplessness feels that he or she has no control over outcomes. For example, a child at-risk in literacy may not feel competent in his or her ability to engage in print-related tasks. He or she may feel that the attempt is not worth the effort, because the outcome is always the same – failure at reading or writing. Consequently, children displaying learned helplessness do not engage in the extended practice necessary to increase literacy learning.

In summary, one-on-one tutoring provides a social context in which literacy learning may be mediated through the influence of a more capable other. In turn, mediation may lead to higher cognitive processes involved in the ability to engage in print-related tasks, aid in constructing meaning from print, and influence young, at-risk

children's self-perceptions of competence as literate individuals.

Literacy Development

Research in literacy development has shown that becoming literate, that is, learning to make sense of written language is a complex, ongoing process. Beginning at birth, it occurs along a continuum through repeated exposure to culturally specific literacy activities until the child is able to read and write conventionally (McGee & Purcell-Gates, 1997). Therefore, many children know a great deal about literacy before they enter school (Sulzby & Teale, 1991).

Some important components are considered prerequisites to beginning readers' understandings of literacy as they progress in their expanding expertise as readers and writers, and that are related to their subsequent success in school: parental involvement (Morrow, 1995); classroom instruction (Michel, 1994; Wood, 1988); interactive storybook reading (Heath, 1983); and, social interaction (Clay & Cazden, 1990; Rowe, 1989; Young & Beach, 1997). Evidence now suggests that children of low socioeconomic status may lack this intellectual nurturing, thus placing them academically at-risk by the time they enter formal schooling (Smith, 1997; Snow et al., 1998).

Typically, middle-class children are enculturated to the sounds, syntax, and semantics of written language through storybook reading in the home (Heath, 1983; Rogoff, 1990), evidenced as children's emerging literacy as they learn about the many uses and functions of print, especially its message bearing intent (Clay, 1991; McGee & Purcell-Gates, 1997). Heath (1983) found that the way in which parent and child interact with print in the home during storybook reading is a good predictor of that child's future

success in reading at school, because storybook reading is a literacy event that provides a social model of the sounds of written language. Interactive storybook reading (Morrow, O'Connor, & Smith, 1990), phonemic awareness (Ehri, 1998; Share & Stanovich, 1995; Torgesen, Wagner, & Rashotte, 1994; Yopp, 1988), and knowledge of the alphabetic principle (Adams, 1990; Blachman, 1997; Liberman, Shankweiler, & Liberman, 1989), are all a part of young children's reservoir of literacy resources that affect their literacy learning at home and at school. Schools can provide a social context conducive to such mediated experiences with text for children whose home literacies may be lacking in those culturally rich one-on-one interactions (Morrow et al., 1990).

Important evidence from a recent study (Beach & Young, 1997) broadens the view of young children's literacy development. The authors developed a theoretical model of the development of young children's literacy resources, such as functions of and concepts about print, phonemic awareness, and alphabet knowledge. They argue that literacy development should no longer be viewed as an hierarchal subset of skills (knowledge of letters and corresponding sounds) that children need to learn prior to processing whole text. In contrast, they indicate that young children have a personal, yet global view of what it means to be literate, and that children develop schooled concepts about print in kindergarten, thus arrive in first-grade with high expectations of "doing literacy" (Gee, 1990). Therefore, Beach and Young's study provides evidence that kindergarten children have an arsenal of mediated understandings of literacy that have their developmental roots in the sociocultural context of the home that are fostered further as they enter the context of school.

Self-Efficacy

As previously noted, self-efficacy affects level of motivation by influencing choice of cognitive activities, as well as time and effort exerted in completion of those activities (Bandura, 1986, 1995). Self-perceptions of competency in literacy are directly related to time spent reading connected text, and, thus, are central toward one's motivation to engage in print-related tasks.

Reading Engagement

Regarding the act of reading, engagement refers to time and effort expended reading connected text. Thus, reading engagement refers to one's choice to read, and is driven through personal interest in a search for understanding: Engaged readers are actively involved either through vicarious experience or social interaction (Guthrie, 1996). Children who are active participants in their learning are self-directed (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991). Therefore, engaged readers are also self-directed; they willingly engage in reading, and thus gain the practice necessary toward becoming strategic readers (Guthrie, 1996). Within the context of this research, I use the term engagement to refer to the children's decisions to willingly participate in reading with their tutors. In short, they appeared to be motivated to engage in the act of reading during the tutoring. Motivation to read is a common thread to engagement in literacy, and may be evidenced as increased feelings of competence in literacy (Guthrie, 1996).

Self-Efficacy, Self-Concept and Self-Esteem

Often, self-efficacy, self-concept, and self-esteem are used interchangeably; therefore, it is important to differentiate among the three terms. The nestedness of the

terms is grounded in self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy denotes a person's beliefs in his or her ability to successfully engage in and complete an academic task. Traditionally, self-concept has been used in a broader sense than self-efficacy, defined as a person's "... composite view of oneself. . ." (Bandura, 1986, p. 409). A positive self-concept is also important to academic achievement. Findings suggest that children in first-grade have a global self-concept that becomes more differentiated with age (Marsh, Craven, & Debus, 1991), and affects self-esteem, or the over-all global worth of an individual. Thus, self-efficacy is an important and necessary component of one's self-concept. As an example, children who believe they are highly capable of engaging in the act of reading usually have positive self-concepts of themselves as literate individuals. Those positive (or negative) self-concepts as capable readers and writers affect how they feel they are valued by other members of their culture. In summary, self-efficacy directly influences one's self-concept in a given domain, and consequently adds to that person's sense of global self-worth.

Metacognition

One of the most important factors differentiating humans from other animals is their ability to self-reflect, for example, to ponder, conceptualize, and act upon those thought processes (Bandura, 1986, 1995). Bandura argues that such self-referent thought mediates action. Thus, action is predicated on one's self-perceptions of his or her ability to undertake and complete a discrete academic task, regardless of whether those perceptions are positive or negative. In turn, those perceptions directly affect a child's reading performance, academic achievement in reading, and motivation to read. Within

the context of one-on-one tutoring, a child's beliefs about his or her reading ability represent a major factor in that child's motivation to read. Further, recent evidence suggests a reciprocal relationship between efficacious thought and performance (Chapman & Tunmer, 1995). The authors found that first-grade children's initial beliefs about their reading ability mediated subsequent performance in reading. Performance then mediated or changed the children's efficaciousness as readers.

Earlier investigators caution that young children often over-estimate their abilities (Stipek, 1981; Light, 1992). However, recent studies found young children capable of metacognitively assessing their ability to read and do school-related work (Michel, 1994; Young & Beach, 1997). In her first-grade study, Michel (1994), discovered that not only could the children articulate their views, but they also showed profound understanding. Michel discovered that young children may not appear to share our understandings from our perspective, but are able to give discrete interpretations of a situation in accordance with their individual perspectives. Her research provides insight into young children's ability to think about and articulate their literacy learning. Young and Beach (1997) also found children in first-grade capable of articulating their perceptions about themselves as competent, literate individuals.

Performance/Achievement

Much research now demonstrates a link between self-efficacy, academic performance and achievement (Pajares, 1996). Recently, in an experimental study (Shell, Colvin, & Bruning, 1995), the authors examined the interaction between development and achievement and found a direct link between beliefs and reading and writing achievement.

Most of the research regarding competency beliefs indicates a relationship to reading and writing achievement and has investigated students much older than those in first-grade (Ehrlich, Kurtz-Costes, & Loridant, 1993; Shell et al., 1995), and only rarely in connection with one-on-one instruction (Cohen, McDonell, & Osborn, 1989).

Performance Feedback

Verbal feedback to one's performance during instruction gives children information about their capabilities as literate individuals, thus, providing motivation and direction (Bandura, 1986). Therefore, verbal feedback is an important source of children's evaluative information, as it promotes self-evaluation of their capabilities. The way in which young children interpret that information influences self-perceptions of their competence in literacy. In addition, verbal feedback gives children important cues about their academic performance (Bandura, 1986; Barker & Graham, 1987; Gallimore & Tharp, 1990; Keller, 1983; Weiner, 1979, 1984), thus, adding to its effectiveness as an important source of self-evaluative information.

Verbal feedback may be categorized as positive or negative (Keller, 1983), neutral (Nofsinger, 1991), attributional (Bandura, 1986; Weiner, 1979, 1984) or corrective (Bandura, 1986; Heubusch & Lloyd, 1998; Keller, 1983). Positive feedback, or positive reinforcement following a desired response, is indicative in statements of praise such as "You have done very well today," or "Yes, that's a good 'I.'" Negative feedback implies blame or criticism of one's actions in statements such as "No, you got that all wrong." or "You just don't know how to do that." Neutral feedback consists of phrases such as "Uhhuh," "Oh," or "I see."

“Verbal attributional feedback increases one’s expectations of success, and provides a direct link that helps children make the connection between effort and ability” (Keller, 1983, p. 197). Attributional feedback to instruction consists of phrases that explicitly provide information about the cause of one’s performance, and is usually ability- or knowledge-related. Examples of attributional feedback include “You can read those, can’t you,?” or “You know all those words, don’t you?”

Corrective feedback is an important instructional technique (Heubusch & Lloyd, 1998; Keller, 1983). Heubusch and Lloyd examined 24 studies on the use of corrective feedback during oral reading to determine its effects on word recognition and comprehension. In the three studies involving beginning readers (six to seven years of age), they discovered that teachers’ use of supplying unknown words in text was more effective in improving word recognition than a phonetic emphasis. There was no improvement in comprehension. From their examination of the studies, Heubusch and Lloyd deduced that for corrective feedback to be effective, it should be immediate, require students to repeat the correct response, and match correction procedure to the instructional situation and the learner.

Corrective feedback is often used in conjunction with positive feedback (Keller, 1983). When coupled with positive feedback, corrective feedback affects quality of performance by providing direction through additional information needed to adequately perform a task, such as “Yes, that is right, and here is another way to read this word.” Corrective feedback appears synonymous with the “interactive method of instruction effective teachers use to facilitate learning” (Gallimore & Tharp, 1990). Teachers actively

engaged in providing instruction furnish additional information through modeling or explicit instruction, as in the example above. Therefore, positive, negative, neutral, attributional, as well as corrective feedback during reading and writing activities provide cues to children of their capabilities to engage in academic tasks.

In a recent study (Roller, 1994), Roller examined children's accuracy during oral reading and its influence on the type of feedback provided during one-on-one tutoring in a summer reading clinic. Teachers provided one-on-one instruction to at-risk children, eight-to-twelve years of age. Roller found that as the children's accuracy improved an emphasis on decoding feedback decreased. That is, the use of corrective feedback, such as, "Sound it out," became less frequent. Her study provides evidence that children's accuracy during oral reading greatly influences teacher-student interactions.

Teacher feedback during reading performance seems directly related to children's perceptions of ability and effort. For example, a study of verbal feedback during instruction provided evidence that young children (four to seven years of age) construe praise statements (positive feedback) to infer higher ability and blame statements (negative feedback) to infer lower ability (Barker & Graham, 1987). Positive feedback during engagement in reading, or other print-related tasks, provides information to the child that he or she is a capable reader or writer. On the other hand, negative feedback during such engagement provides information about the child's incompetence in literacy-related activities. Feedback to performance is one important source of information children receive that impacts their self-evaluative thoughts, which, in turn, influences their beliefs of their capability to engage in literacy.

Causal Attributions

Weiner (1979) proposed that people seek reasons for their actions. He emphasized that the attributions persons give for their personal accomplishments and failures are indications of cognitive processes in action. Building on Weiner's theory of attributions for one's success or failure on academic tasks, Bandura (1986) reemphasized the importance of causal judgments as self-evaluative reactions to events. Bandura described major sources of that information and their link to self-efficacy: (a) enactive performance attainment; (b) vicarious experience; (c) verbal persuasion; and, (d) physiological state. Bandura (1986) stated:

Appraisal of self-efficacy is an inferential process in which the relative contribution of ability and nonability factors to performance successes and failures must be weighted. The extent to which people will alter their perceived efficacy through performance experiences will depend upon, among other factors, the difficulty of the task, the amount of effort they expend, the amount of external aid they receive, the circumstances under which they perform, and the temporal pattern of their successes and failures. (p. 401)

Two important studies (Nicholls, 1979; Wagner, Spratt, Gal, & Paris, 1989) provide an account of age trends in children's explanations of their academic successes and failures in reading. In Nicholls study, each child was presented with a page of faces, the one at the top representing best reader, and the face at the bottom representing worst reader in the child's classroom. Each child was directed to choose the face that showed

how well he or she was doing in reading. Then each child was asked to make causal attributions about times he or she did really well in reading. Findings showed a positive correlation between six-year-old boys' attributions of effort to success in reading in relation to reading performance. Results showed that the younger children (both boys and girls) attributed success to high effort, compared to high ability attributions of the older children. However, there was a mismatch between the younger children's perceptions of their ability compared to their teachers' ratings of their academic performance.

A longitudinal study of first-grade and fifth-grade Moroccan children's causal attributions of success and failure (Wagner et al., 1989), provides a cultural comparison to those of American children. Findings for the children in Morocco were similar to those of American children. Both the good and poor first-grade readers attributed their successes to effort (74%), as compared to ability (26%). The younger children's beliefs about competence in reading were important predictors of their beginning reading performance. Causal attributions were more strongly related to the reading performance of the older children than the younger children, and the older children provided more indicators of ability-related attributions.

Children with high self-perceptions of competency in a domain (such as literacy) may attribute their successes to ability, such as "I can read good" or "I can read lots of words." Such self-awareness of one's learning (Marton & Booth, 1997), coupled with the verbal attributional feedback children receive during one-on-one instruction, are important sources of self-evaluative information.

Goals

Children's motivations have been linked to goals – learning/performance (Dweck, 1986), social (Urduan & Maehr, 1995; Wentzle, 1991), and personal (Ford, 1992). The recent literature on motivation is an outgrowth of achievement motivation, and involves competency-related goals. Historically, children's goal-oriented behavior has been examined from two perspectives – learning versus performance goals (Dweck, 1986). Learning goals, also referred to as mastery goals, or task-involved goals (Maehr, 1984), are exhibited when students engage in activities to increase their competence while learning something new. On the other hand, students who either wish to avoid negative judgments of their competence, or to seek favorable judgments, are typically said to be performance-goal oriented. Performance-goal oriented behavior has also been referred to as ego-involved behavior (Maehr, 1984). Social goals may refer to one's desire for belonging, power, and prestige (Urduan & Maehr, 1995), or a desire for enjoyment or having fun (Wentzle, 1991). Although Wentzle examined the social goals of high school students, having fun surfaced as a viable desired goal attainment in her study.

Therefore, goals define direction. Personal goals are simply thoughts about desired or undesired outcomes, consequences to either be achieved, or avoided (Ford, 1992). Ford gives four criteria for prioritizing goals within a particular context. Are the goals meaningful within a particular context, are they significant to the individual, are they believed to be attainable, and what are the actions and consequences associated with achieving them? Children at-risk for reading failure may or may not have learning to read as a personal goal, and based on prior experience with text, may avoid reading and writing

altogether.

Some say the goal orientation that students adopt influence them in several ways. It affects their choice of tasks, or activities that they engage in within the classroom environment (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Elliott, 1983), and may affect intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Someone intrinsically motivated readily chooses to read simply for the enjoyment inherent in the activity (Csikszentmihalyi, 1977). Students with high learning goals have been shown to experience intrinsic rewards significantly more than students with high performance goals (Miller, Behrens, Greene, & Newman, 1993). The goals that children adopt, based on individual perceptions of their experiences during one-on-one instruction with a tutor, may influence the rewards they experience as literate individuals.

An experimental study was designed to investigate how mastery (learning) and performance goal constructs differentiate students' perceptions of their classroom experience (Ames & Archer, 1988). Some important questions were asked in that study: (1) How are students' perceptions of classroom goals related to their task choices, attitudes, and beliefs about the causes of success and failure? (2) How do students' perceptions of classroom goals relate to their selection and use of effective learning strategies? The findings suggest that when students perceive their class as emphasizing a mastery (learning) goal orientation they are more likely to have a positive attitude for task involvement, and a preference for tasks that are challenging. The tasks at-risk children participate in during one-on-one instruction may influence their attitudes and beliefs toward success or failure in literacy.

Summary of Self-Efficacy

If children are to believe themselves competent in print-related tasks (such as reading and writing) that they encounter in the classroom, and elsewhere, they must be intrinsically motivated to engage in such tasks. Self-efficacy, an important construct of motivation, affects one's self-concept as a reader and writer and contributes to one's sense of global self-worth as a literate individual. In turn, the attributions children give for successes or failures have their origins in past performance history, vicarious experience (such as observing others' oral reading and writing), and evaluative feedback. Therefore, self-efficacy is a powerful determinant of young children's self-perceptions of their literacy competence and subsequent engagement in academic reading and writing activities.

One-on-One Instruction

Researchers have stressed the need for additional support in literacy instruction for children deemed at-risk in reading (Allington, 1991, 1994; McGill-Franzen, 1994; Slavin, 1989; Slavin, Karweit, & Madden, 1989; Stanovich, 1986; Taylor & Hiebert, 1994; Walmsley & Allington, 1995; Walp & Walmsley, 1995). In response, an increasing body of knowledge advocates the use of one-on-one tutoring with at-risk first-grade children in reading, versus whole-group or even small-group instruction (Clay, 1991, 1993b; Clay & Cazden, 1990; Juel, 1996; Lyons et al., 1993; Madden & Slavin, 1989; McCarthy et al., 1995; Pinnell et al., 1994; Shanahan & Barr, 1995; Smith-Burke & Jaggard, 1994; Vellutino et al., 1996; Wasik & Slavin, 1993).

Wasik and Slavin (1993) evaluated five one-on-one tutoring programs in which instruction was delivered by adults (i.e., certified teachers, paraprofessionals, or

volunteers) to children in first grade who were learning to read for the first time: (1) Reading Recovery; (2) Success for All; (3) Prevention of Learning Disabilities; (4) Wallach Tutoring Program; and (5) Programmed Tutorial Reading. These five programs have been declared to be effective early reading interventions for low-achieving young children (Madden & Slavin, 1989). Evaluations of the five programs revealed differences and similarities among the methods of instruction and classroom support, tutors, children tutored, and location of the evaluations. In addition, the adults used as tutors in the cited studies varied among the five programs. As mentioned previously, tutors in Reading Recovery are highly trained teachers. Success for All and Prevention of Learning Disabilities both use certified teachers as tutors, but training is not as extensive as in Reading Recovery. Although Success for All and Reading Recovery seemed to yield the most substantial results, all the programs showed significant treatment gains over the course of the first-grade year in contrast with the control groups.

One-on-one tutoring appears to have a direct impact on at-risk children's reading performance (Clay, 1991; Juel, 1996; Lyons et al., 1993; Wasik & Slavin, 1993); and self-efficacy in literacy (Cohen et al., 1989). Employing a post-test only research design, Cohen et al. used an individually administered multiple-choice, self-efficacy scale to compare the attributions and self-perceptions of competency to engage in reading and writing tasks of three groups of children in first-grade: (a) children in a one-on-one tutorial (Reading Recovery, Clay, 1993b), (b) other at-risk children in a remedial (small-group) program, and (c) a group of high-achievers in reading. The researchers found that first-grade children participating in the tutoring program, Reading Recovery (Clay 1991,

1993b), showed increased feelings of competence in reading ability, and they performed more like the high-achievers. Other findings suggested that the children receiving the one-on-one tutoring seemed more like the high-achievers regarding attributions of success in reading, such as ability, effort, and mood. Compared to the other at-risk children, those who received the one-on-one tutoring seemed more confident about their ability to read and write, as well as engage in various other school-related tasks.

Juel's (1996) study provides a prototype of tutoring by college students. Juel explored the effects of one-on-one tutoring by at-risk college athletes enrolled in a developmental reading class on at-risk first- and second-grade children's achievement in and attitude toward reading. Each college athlete received one hour of training before tutoring, and worked one-on-one with the same at-risk first grade child in reading for 45 minutes, two days a week, over the course of a school year.

To flesh out qualitative differences or similarities, she analyzed data, in the form of audiotapes and videotapes, from some of the more successful dyads and thus, discovered they each had several features in common. Each tutor used modeling, explicit instruction, and offered visual and auditory support. For example, the tutors taught letter-sound associations, phonemic segmentation, and often pointed to words as the children or the tutors read aloud. Above all, each of the most successful dyads seemed to provide a safe, nurturing environment that secured the children's trust. Juel reported (1994) that overall, the tutoring positively affected achievement of the at-risk children whose mean score on the Metropolitan was at the 26th percentile (in September), compared to the 41st percentile on the reading comprehension subtest of the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills (in

April). Although Juel looked at success in terms of academic achievement, a surprising finding concerned the children's attitude toward reading.

Juel assessed the children's attitude toward reading at the beginning and at the end of the study with a scale designed for the research; conflicting results were obtained from quantitative and qualitative analyses. Statistical analysis of the children's responses to questions related to their attitude toward reading showed a decline in attitude over the course of the year; however, the observers' interpretations of the videotaped tutoring sessions contradicted that finding. The children and their tutors were observed engaging in interactions that seemed to promote a positive attitude toward reading (such as reading together, laughing, and talking about the texts).

In addition (Juel, 1996), 15 other at-risk children were mentored by the college students, which consisted of either visiting with the children or reading to them for 30 minutes, one day a week. There was neither interactive storybook reading nor reading instruction during these mentoring sessions, and statistical analysis showed no difference in reading achievement for the group of mentored children. Juel's (1996) study does support the importance of one-on-one interactions that involve scaffolded and modeled processes and the bonding that may occur between tutor and child as a result of the tutoring.

Juel (1996) has shown us what tutoring sessions by college students may entail. Her research provides evidence supporting college students' ability to effectively scaffold young children's learning with only a few hours of training, coupled with regular feedback from researchers or their college instructors. The present study extended her research

regarding amount of tutor training, job description, and research questions addressed. The tutors in my study received 15 hours of initial training in appropriate techniques to use with beginning readers in their early literacy learning, weekly tutoring feedback sessions during the first semester of the tutoring, and monthly troubleshooting sessions during the spring semester of the study. In addition, I observed them periodically as they worked with the children.

Summary

The preceding discussion suggests the importance of examining at-risk children's self-perceptions of their ability to engage in reading and writing activities during one-on-one instruction. This study was designed to contribute to current understandings about changes in children's self-perceptions of their competency in literacy during one-on-one tutoring in reading by college students, of the social interactions during the tutoring that may further illuminate those understandings, and their relation to literacy performance and achievement. Social interaction in the form of positive, negative, neutral, attributional, and corrective verbal feedback to performance while engaged in reading and writing tasks is an important source of self-evaluative information for children as they build a belief system about themselves as literate individuals.

Chapter III: Methodology

The present research involved the systematic observation of six at-risk first-grade children (three boys and three girls) during their eight months of one-on-one tutoring in reading by college students. This section contains a detailed description of the school sites, each of the first-grade participants, the tutors, and the tutoring lesson format.

Settings and Participants

Schools

The three schools selected provided a variety of sociocultural contexts; they had a large population of children of low socioeconomic status and ethnic diversity, and were located within a twenty-five mile radius of the university that the college students attended. The sites included two schools in an urban district (Stanton Elementary¹ and Addams Elementary), and one school in a rural district (Clara Barton Elementary).

Jane Addams Elementary School (Urban Site). Addams Elementary, built in 1953, is located in a large city in the Southwestern United States – population of approximately 600,000, in a low- to medium-socioeconomically situated community of mixed ethnicity. At the time of the study the school population was 53 per cent Caucasian; the other 46.4 per cent was of mixed ethnicity (i.e., Hispanic, African American, Native American, and Asian American), and 70-80 per cent of the population qualified for the federal meal program (either free or reduced price meals).

Due to over-crowded conditions at Addams Elementary School, all tutoring at

¹Pseudonyms are used for the names of the schools and the children.

Addams occurred in the school library, a rather large room with ample natural light provided by the windowed east and west walls. The library provided a positive tutoring environment for two important reasons: (a) proximity to the large collection of text aided in book selection, and (b) large, round tables interspersed throughout the library were conducive to reading and writing activities. Although some classes had to travel through one area of the library (to go to P. E. or lunch), the flow of traffic did not seem to interfere with the tutoring dyads. It appeared that the children and the tutors adjusted quite well to movement within the library, as they seemed to tune out any extraneous noise. To my knowledge, the only time other classes were a distraction was during inclement weather conditions (such as extremely cold or rainy days). I happened to be there on two of those occasions as several classes watched videos in an area of the library adjacent to the tutoring area, creating commotion from video dialogue, loud talking, and shuffling feet.

Stanton Elementary School (Urban Site). Built in 1928 and located in the same urban school district as Addams, Stanton is situated in a low socioeconomic, predominantly African American community. At the outset of the study, Stanton's population was 99 per cent African American, and approximately 90 per cent of the children qualified for the federal meal program. Recently, an aggressive curriculum had been implemented at Stanton which included extra help for children experiencing difficulty learning to read.

Over-crowding was also problematic at Stanton; therefore, the tutoring site varied throughout the year. Originally, tutoring occurred in the halls outside the children's classrooms. However, as a result of the noise level, the tutoring was moved to the second

floor teachers' lounge. Soon, the teachers' lounge proved to be an unsuitable site as well. Consequently, beginning in January, 1998, all tutoring at Stanton occurred in one of three locations – the teachers' workroom, computer lab, or library.

Clara Barton Elementary (Rural Site). Constructed in the mid-1960s, Clara Barton is located in a rural, farming community approximately 30 miles south of the two metropolitan schools, and adjacent to another slightly larger town. Also, Clara Barton is in proximity to a state prison, thus most of the families are employed in surrounding communities. At the time of the study, approximately 40-50 per cent of the children attending Clara Barton qualified for the federal meal program, and the population was predominantly Caucasian (87 per cent). 13 per cent was comprised of Native American, Hispanic, African American, and one Pacific Islander. Both of the focal children at this site were tutored at either a small desk or table in a corner of their individual classrooms.

Children

Teacher judgment was valued as a determining factor in identification of the lowest-achieving children in each of the three schools as participants in the larger study, as well as in the present research. Assessment criteria used by the teachers to determine the at-risk children included the children's performance on teacher-administered informal assessments in letter identification and word recognition, and placement in the lowest reading groups within their classrooms.

From that pool of children, a table of random digits (Moore & McCabe, 1993) was used to select six focal children as participants in the present study. Due to research results indicating gender differences related to early literacy learning (Beach, 1992), one

boy and one girl at each site were selected. I anticipated that there could be a conflict in scheduling, for example, two children randomly chosen and sharing the same tutoring time slot. However, I only had to make one adjustment as a result of such a scheduling conflict – at Stanton Elementary. The first two children selected at Stanton were scheduled for tutoring at the same time. Therefore, I simply had one of the tutors adjust the order of the children with which he worked. The change did not create a problem for the classroom teacher.

The children selected were Julie², Adrian, Suzette, Cedrick, Michelle, and Jonathan. They each spoke English as a first language and did not receive other services such as Special Education or extra reading instruction. At the time of the study, their mean age was six and one-half years. To provide consistency for the teachers, the children, the tutors, and me, each tutor worked with the same children on the same day and at the same time each week over the course of the year. In addition to the tutoring, the children received regular classroom instruction.

Julie (Jane Addams Elementary). Julie was a six-year-old Caucasian female, in first-grade, and had attended kindergarten at the same school the previous year. She struggled with word recognition and fluency at the beginning of the study, although she appeared to have a positive attitude toward and interest in reading. She was always happy and laughing during the tutoring. She had the same tutor throughout the year.

Her tutoring sessions occurred in the school library every Monday, Wednesday,

²Pseudonyms are used for the names of the children and the schools they attended.

and Friday from 11:30 a.m. to 12:00 noon. Initially, the tutor always accompanied Julie to and from her classroom, then later in the year allowed her to return to the classroom by herself. Several round tables were positioned throughout the library; tutoring for this child occurred at a table in a rather low-traffic area, so other children visiting the library did not seem to interfere with the tutoring. The tutoring was interrupted only twice by other movement or noise – when weather prohibited the children from playing outdoors, and groups of children watched videos in an area adjacent to Julie’s table. Julie seemed to enjoy the sessions and participating in the reading and other activities. At the end of many of the sessions Julie asked to turn off my laptop computer, which she coined “putting the computer to sleep.”

Adrian (Jane Addams Elementary). Adrian was a six-year-old African American male, in first-grade, who had also attended kindergarten at the same school. He also was having difficulty in learning to read. Although Adrian increased in reading ability over the year, he often tried to delegate the reading to the tutor.

Adrian was tutored every Monday, Wednesday, and Friday from 12:00-12:30 p.m. by the same tutor as Julie. Initially, the tutor always accompanied Adrian to and from the tutoring sessions. Later in the year, Adrian’s teacher sent him to the library for the tutoring. As he was tutored immediately after Julie, he often tried to make his presence unknown to the tutor, first, by crouching behind a bookcase, then, placing his finger to his lips in a shhhhhing motion in an effort to gain my participation in the conspiracy. However, the tutor was aware of his game. After Julie had returned to her classroom, the tutor often asked Adrian to come over to the table and get ready to read. Adrian seemed

to enjoy the tutoring sessions, although later in the year he mentioned not wanting to miss his center work in the classroom. Therefore, many times he tried to initiate termination of the tutoring sessions. On many occasions he managed to include his brothers' or his mom's name in discussions around and about the text. Often, the tutor was forced to remind him to return to the topic at hand.

Suzette (Stanton Elementary School). Suzette was a six-year-old African American female and in first-grade; she had attended half-day kindergarten the previous year at Stanton. It was apparent from the beginning of the study that Suzette was having difficulty in reading. She struggled with practically every word and needed constant assistance. However, she always engaged in the reading, though she often got up from the table to investigate things in the tutoring environment, such as the refrigerator, telephone, or to see in what activity another tutoring dyad was engaged.

Classroom space was at a premium at Stanton, so initially Suzette was tutored at a table outside her classroom. Suzette's tutoring occurred every Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, from 9:00-9:30 a.m. After I conferred with the principal about the noise from classes in transit from one area of the school to another, Suzette was tutored either in the teachers' lounge, or the teachers' workroom, whichever was available. (A counselor and school psychometrist shared the teachers' workroom.) Most of her tutoring occurred in the teachers' workroom on the second floor, which was a short distance from her classroom. Suzette had three tutors over the course of the year and each accompanied her to and from the tutoring sessions. Although Suzette did not seem to enjoy the sessions initially, she appeared more eager to attend later in the year.

There were times when Suzette's classroom teacher used the tutoring as a reward or punishment. On three occasions when I asked the tutor why he was working with another child instead of Suzette (at the 9:00 a. m. slot), he informed me that the teacher was keeping Suzette in the regular classroom on that particular day for either misbehaving, or not completing her seatwork

Cedrick (Stanton Elementary School). Cedrick was a six-year-old African American male, and had attended half-day kindergarten the previous year at the same school. At the beginning of the study, Cedrick appeared shy about reading in front of me with his tutor. What appeared to be reluctance from poor reading ability, soon surfaced as a stuttering problem. He was evidently embarrassed, although in time, he appeared to relax and engaged in the reading on a regular basis.

Cedrick was tutored Monday, Wednesday, and Friday from 9:30-10:00 a.m. He had the same three tutors as Suzette, and they always accompanied him to and from the tutoring sessions. He also began his sessions in the hall outside his classroom, then was tutored either in the teachers' lounge or the teachers' workroom, and occasionally in the Computer Lab. Cedrick worked cooperatively with the tutors and didn't seem to attend to either my presence or my typing on the laptop computer.

Michelle (Clara Barton Elementary School). Michelle was a six-year-old Caucasian female and had attended half-day kindergarten at the same school the previous year. At the beginning of the study, Michelle needed extra intervention in reading and her teacher was concerned that she lacked confidence in her ability to read. Michelle seemed to enjoy participating in the reading and working with her tutor, often joking with or

teasing him.

Tutoring for Michelle occurred at a table in the back of her classroom from 9:15-9:45 a.m. on Tuesdays and Thursdays throughout the year. During the tutoring sessions the regular classroom teacher worked with a reading group in another area of the room, and a teacher's aide assisted other children at their desks with various seatwork. The other children in the classroom showed only a mild interest in happenings at the tutoring table.

Jonathan (Clara Barton Elementary School). Jonathan was a six-year-old Native American, in first-grade, and had attended half-day kindergarten at Clara Barton the previous year. At the beginning of the study he seemed rather shy, and had great difficulty with word recognition and fluency. He became more relaxed throughout the year, and I discovered that he liked scaring his tutor with stories about snakes.

Tutoring for Jonathan always occurred at a desk by a side chalkboard within his classroom from 8:15-8:45 a.m., Tuesdays and Thursdays during the first semester, and at the same time on every Monday, Wednesday, and Friday of the second semester. During the tutoring sessions, the regular classroom teacher worked with a reading group in an opposite corner of the room. The other children worked independently on seatwork assignments. They only seemed to look upon the tutoring dyad with mild interest as they gravitated back and forth to the pencil sharpener or other areas of the classroom. Jonathan had the same tutor throughout the year. He seemed to enjoy working with the tutor, and my presence did not appear to bother him or interrupt the instruction.

Tutors

Each college tutor was hired to facilitate the literacy learning of the children – to provide instructional support to first- and second-grade children considered to be behind their peers in learning to read. Each tutor and child comprised a dyad of expert (tutor) and novice (child) in literacy ability. The main criteria for each applicant considered for a position as a reading tutor included (a) an interest in and commitment to working one-on-one with young children in literacy-related activities in a school setting, (b) a 3-4 hour block of time (three days a week) available for tutoring that did not conflict with their college classes, and (c) a valid Oklahoma driver's license. Travel time to each site varied from 20-35 minutes. The tutors had to allow 20-25 minutes for a one-way commute to the rural site, Clara Barton. Depending on traffic at the time, 30-35 minutes were required to reach either of the urban sites, Addams or Stanton.

The college students hired as tutors were not required to be education majors. (At the time of the study, only one tutor was majoring in education.) In fact, the tutors of the focal children came from diverse academic colleges within the university. As communicated to me during individual interviews, their areas of concentration at the time of the study included education, business, psychology, physical therapy, advertising, and one, undetermined.

Structure of the Tutoring Lessons

As research has shown that tutoring sessions longer than 30 minutes are not as effective, resulting in less quality time on task (Clay, 1991), each tutoring session consisted of one-on-one instruction by a college student, for 30 minutes (Clay, 1991), two or three

days a week. Previous research indicating that a strictly mentoring relationship, that is a college student reading to and visiting with a child for 30 minutes one day a week does not enhance literacy learning (Juel, 1994; 1996), coupled with findings that instruction mediates children's understandings about the purpose and nature of reading (Freppon, 1991; Michel, 1994), a structured lesson format was followed. (See Appendix A for the daily lesson framework.) Since the college students were not highly trained teachers, teacher guidance was incorporated into the tutoring sessions (e.g., choice of text, emphasis on skills and strategies).

Components of the lessons included reading and rereading whole text chosen by the children or their teachers, writing about the reading, and instruction in strategies to enhance understanding, such as rereading and decoding. As much as possible, all instruction was geared to the individual needs of each child according to teacher recommendations. The described lesson format provided a framework for the minimally trained college students to implement teacher-directed instruction. A detailed explanation follows.

A typical lesson began with interactive storybook reading, which research shows provides a social context for meaning construction (Heath, 1983), "... appears to improve free and probed recall comprehension, attempted readings of favorite stories, children's concepts about books and print, and children's awareness of how they are learning to read" (Morrow et al., 1990, p. 271); and scaffolded support during storybook reading sessions contributes to later success in reading (Mason, 1992). During this portion of the lesson, tutor and child often engaged in oral reading text strategies geared to enhance reading fluency and understanding, for example, paired reading (Topping, 1987; Topping &

Lindsay, 1991) and repeated readings of books, a technique that contributes to children's knowledge about print such as directionality, meaning of 'word,' punctuation markers (Clay, 1993a), and reading accuracy and fluency (Mathes, Simmons, & Davis, 1992; Samuels, 1997).

The next portion of the lesson consisted of writing about the reading. While engaging in writing the child develops an awareness of written language through the manipulation of letter-sound correspondences (Clay, 1991, 1993a), and learns that writing has a purpose (Barton, 1994). The tutor's role was to guide the child in his or her attempts to write sentences or short paragraphs about the story, for example, by supplying unknown graphemes and corresponding phonemes, then having the child read and reread the writing. Constructing messages during the tutoring sessions (such as greeting cards, and other messages) aided in demonstrating to the children that writing has a purpose.

A typical tutoring lesson concluded with strategy instruction, such as reading by analogy, asking questions about the reading, spelling words, or reviewing unknown vocabulary. One of the major precepts of the study was that tutoring should support classroom learning; therefore, teacher-directed strategies and activities were incorporated within this portion of the lesson framework. It is important to note that a major goal of strategy instruction is to scaffold children's learning through meaningful activities that are related to text. Guidance through joint participation in reading, writing, and strategy instruction connected with self- or teacher-chosen text provides support for children's literacy learning within the social event termed one-on-one tutoring (Clay & Cazden, 1990).

Data Sources

As an aid in triangulation of the data (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996), it came from many sources – three interviews of each of the six children, field notes, transcribed tutoring sessions, selected items on motivation and attitude instruments, as well as literacy performance assessments consistent with reading and writing activities commonly used in first-grade classrooms. (Appendix B contains copies of the motivation and performance assessments.) The following data were used to address the first research question: What changes in the children's self-perceptions of competency occur over the year of the tutoring?

Assessment of Self-Perceptions of Competency

The Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (McKenna & Kear, 1990), an approximately 20-25 minute group-administered instrument, was used to determine the children's attitude toward their willingness to engage in reading. Each item is followed by four pictures of Garfield that are arranged along a continuum from very positive (happiest Garfield) to very negative (saddest Garfield). Prior to administration, I engaged the children in a discussion about the meanings of each of the emotional states represented by the Garfield pictures. To control for a threat to internal validity (the individual reading ability of each child), I encouraged the children to read along as I read each item aloud. The specific items I recorded were those related to children's attitude toward reading engagement (2, 3, 5, 6, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15). Individual item responses for each were recorded on a coding rubric and comparisons made from the beginning and end of the study.

The Reading Survey portion of the Motivation to Read Profile (Gambrell et al., 1996) was used to assess motivation to read based on the constructs of self-concept and the value placed on reading. The Reading Survey is a self-report instrument and includes (a) ten items related to self-concept as a reader, and (b) ten items related to value placed on reading. It may be group- or individually-administered. I read each item aloud to reduce the threat to internal validity (i.e., the individual reading ability of each student). Each of the numbered items contains a stem with four possible choices related to the children's feelings about their reading ability. Specifically, individual responses pertaining to information about the children's self-perceived competence in reading (1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 14, 15, 16, 19) were documented on a grid, coded, and used in comparison to other findings that emerged from the data.

In addition, the teachers were asked to rate each child's beliefs about his or her competence in reading at the beginning and at the end of the study, on a scale of 1-4, using the following criteria: A child was given a rating of 1 if the child's self-perceptions of his or her reading ability were evidenced as extreme incompetence; a rating of 2 if the child's self-perceptions of his or her reading ability were evidenced as slight incompetence; a rating of 3 if the child's self-perceptions of his or her reading ability were evidenced as competence in ability to read; and, a 4 if the child's self-perceptions of his or her reading ability were evidenced as extreme competence. Individual item responses for each were recorded on a coding rubric, and comparisons made from the beginning and end of the study. (See Appendix C.)

Literacy Performance Assessments

The following reading and writing assessments were used in a qualitative analysis of the children's growth in literacy performance over the year of the tutoring.

An adaptation of Clay's (1993a) Concepts About Print was used to determine children's understanding of the terminology and conventions associated with written language (directionality, concept of "word," "letter," capitalization, and punctuation). A 10-item checklist, designed to be used with any text, was employed in the assessment of the children's understandings about the conventions of print. Each child was handed a book (from the classroom or school library). As the story was read aloud, the child was asked, for example, where to begin reading, to identify the meanings of different symbols in the text (such as a letter, or a word), and various punctuation markers (such as a period, comma, or exclamation point). Individual item responses for each were recorded on a coding rubric, and comparisons made from the beginning and end of the study.

The Letter Identification (Clay, 1993a) assessment was used to ascertain the children's knowledge of both capital and lower-case letters of the alphabet. As part of a group, the children were asked to identify all letters of the alphabet in random order. The children were provided tagboard markers to use in tracking as they were directed, for example, to "find and circle an A." Individual item responses for each were recorded on a coding rubric, and comparisons made from the beginning and end of the study.

Seventy-two of the most frequently encountered words in children's literature (Bookwords, Eeds, 1985) were used to individually assess the children's recognition of words read in isolation. Previously prepared 3 x 5 cards, each containing one of the 72

bookwords, were fanned out ten at a time in front of child. Each child was then asked to pick up and read aloud each word he or she knew. Individual item responses were recorded on a word count matrix, and comparisons made from the beginning and end of the study.

An adaptation of the Cloze procedure (Blachowicz, 1977; Gove, 1975) was used to assess reading comprehension. The cloze technique was applied to a story familiar to most first-grade children, The Three Little Pigs. First, the story was rewritten in simplistic prose. Then ten words in the text were deleted with three graphically and phonemically similar choices given for each deleted word. As a group, the children were asked to read the story to themselves and to supply the missing words. They were then directed to choose the one word for each sentence that made the most sense. Again, individual item responses for each were recorded on a coding rubric, and comparisons made from the beginning and end of the study.

The 10-Minute Writing Sample (Clay, 1993a), an individual assessment, was used to determine the children's ability to recall and construct a list of known words. The tutor provided each individual child a sheet of unlined paper. Beginning with the child's name, the child was asked to write as many words as he or she knows. The ten minutes commenced after the child had written his or her name; however, the child was not aware of the time constraint. Prompts, such as "Do you know how to write 'is,' 'a,' or 'I,'" were given until either ten minutes had elapsed or the child's writing vocabulary appeared exhausted. Individual item responses were recorded on a coding rubric, and comparisons made from the beginning to the end of the study.

A Writing Assessment–Dictation (letter-sound association) task (Clay, 1993a) was used to assess the children’s knowledge of phonemes and graphemes. As a group, the children were asked to write a story as it was read aloud. The “story” consisted of the alternative sentences from Forms A and B of Clay’s Observation Survey (1993a, p. 67). The story was read aloud as the children listened. Then, as the same story was reread, the children wrote the words as they heard them. At the end of the study, the alternative sentences from Forms D and E of that survey were administered in the same manner as described above. Responses were recorded on a coding rubric, and qualitative comparisons made from beginning to end of the study.

Running Records (Clay, 1993a) were used to assess the children’s ongoing oral reading behaviors. Using paper and pencil, each tutor was directed to record, at monthly intervals, everything a focal child said and did while reading aloud a familiar text. Oral reading behaviors the tutors were expected to observe included word-attack strategies, omissions, substitutions, repetitions, self-corrections, and substitutions. Yet, the number of Running Records varied (three-to-seven per child). The assessment began with the tutor asking the child to read part of a book or story from the previous month’s reading selections. The observations were recorded on forms prepared especially for the assessment. A miscue analysis (Clay, 1993a) was used to document changes in the children’s oral reading behaviors (such as use of self-corrections, change of errors, patterns and frequency of strategy use, phonetic cues, omissions, substitutions, syllabication, syntax, and semantics). Individual error responses for each were recorded on an error analysis coding rubric, and comparisons made over the course of the year.

Interviews and Observations

Data, in the form of six individual interviews with each focal child and weekly observations of each tutoring dyad, were used to address both the first and the second research questions (e.g., changes in self-perceptions of competency and interaction patterns that seem related to those changes). The first interview (October, 1997) contained questions adapted from The Conversational Interview (Gambrell et al., 1996). The second interview, given the first week in February, 1998, contained some questions from Henk & Melnick (1995) that had been adapted to fit an interview format; and the third interview, conducted during the last week of April, 1999, was a combination of both the first and second. The first interview was used to determine initial interest and attitude toward reading. General categories of questions across the second and third interviews included questions pertaining to the children's self-perceptions of their reading ability, self-perceptions of how others view their reading ability, and attitude toward reading. (See Appendix D for interview questions for all three interviews.)

Transcripts of tape-recorded weekly observations of the children's individual tutoring sessions were also analyzed for information related to the children's self-efficacy in literacy. I looked at the talk that occurred during the tutoring that indicated a child felt good or bad about his or her ability at the time. Some examples included "I can read that now," and "I read that good, didn't I." Counts were entered on a grid, coded, and comparisons made across the year.

Data Collection/Procedure

Data collection was ongoing throughout the eight months of the study. The

individual child interviews, field notes, tape-recorded tutoring transcripts, and performance assessments, were collected in either individual or small-group settings from the fall of 1997 through early May, 1998. Written artifacts in the form of the tutors' daily logs were turned in to me on the last day of each week of the tutoring.

Before initiation of the study, my introduction into the schools and hiring and training of the tutors occurred in the following manner. First, during the months of June and July, 1997, Dr. Sara Beach, Associate Professor, Reading Education, negotiated access to the three schools through telephone conversations with superintendents and principals.

Second, Dr. Bonnie Konopak, Department Chair, Instructional Leadership and Academic Curriculum, and I met together with the principals of each of the three schools at the University of Oklahoma. That meeting provided the opportunity to explain the purpose of the pilot tutoring program, and to set tentative dates to meet with the teachers at each of the three schools.

Third, I enlisted the cooperation of the first-grade teachers at each of the schools. Dr. Konopak and I met with the principals and the teachers at their respective sites to further explain that (a) the teachers would have an opportunity to have college students work one-on-one with their at-risk first- and second-graders in reading for the 1997-1998 school year, (b) pre-tests and post-tests would be given to ascertain the effectiveness of the tutoring, and (c) letters of explanation and consent forms for the parents, their children, and the teachers would be sent to each school. The principals and the teachers at the three schools expressed an interest in being part of a study that may add

understandings of how at-risk children's self-perceptions of competency in reading may be influenced during one-on-one instruction.

During July and August, 1997, 18 college students were hired as tutors, and I conducted their 15 hours of training during the first three weeks of September. The training consisted of whole-group, small-group, and individual instruction in appropriate methods and techniques to use with young children in early literacy instruction. To ensure that my student-tutors met the 15-hour pre-tutoring criteria, and for the tutors to assimilate the information over time, training was accomplished as follows: (a) four hours each were provided at three consecutive Saturday morning sessions (8:30-12:30), and (b) three, two-hour evening sessions (6:00-8:00). The three extra hours allowed make-up training time for those students who lacked the required 15 hours of training before being placed in the schools. A similar time-frame was used in the training of four additional tutors in December, 1997.

After allowing time for the teachers to identify the low-achievers in reading, the return of consent forms, placement of the tutors within the three schools (randomly assigned to the children they would be tutoring), and random selection of the six focal children, the study began in the fall of 1997. To control for observer effect (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996), I asked to be introduced to the children at each of the three schools.

To facilitate pre-testing, available tutors accompanied me to each of the three schools to serve as monitors during the testing sessions. For example, they provided tagboard markers to assist children in marking their responses on the correct line, and in handing out and filing testing materials. Due to unexpected district-wide achievement

tests scheduled for the first week in September at the two urban sites, the pretests were administered during mid-September at all three sites.

Motivation and Performance Assessments

The six focal children were administered the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey, Cloze, Letter Identification, and Writing Assessment-Dictation as part of a small group of children in the larger study. The tutors individually administered the Reading Survey, Concepts About Print, 10-Minute Writing Sample, and the Word Test. In addition, monthly Running Records of each child's oral reading were administered and collected by the tutors. With the exception of the Running Records, the above motivation and performance assessments were administered at the beginning and the end of the study. Each focal child's assessments were photocopied and placed in individual folders containing their initials and pseudonyms.

I wanted to keep the assessment procedure consistent across all three sites to ensure that the children could understand and respond to each item as true to their feelings as possible. I had originally planned to administer the Reading Survey portion of the Motivation to Read Profile (Gambrell et al., 1996) in small-group settings. Instead, certain threats to reliability influenced my decision to train the tutors to individually administer the Reading Survey at the beginning and at the end of the study: (1) The MRP was normed for children in second through sixth grade; (2) the print was rather small for young children; and (3) the only available area at Clara Barton at that particular time was not conducive to group assessment – one end of the school cafeteria with a loud air conditioner. Also, a custodian was mopping around the tables where the children were to

sit. Individual administration allowed the tutors to enhance understanding for the children by clarifying meaning and asking the children if they understood the sentences. All the group assessments were administered in the morning hours and within a two-week time period. All assessments, both group and individual, were again administered the last week in April and the first week in May, 1998, and in the manner described above. After the above assessments were initially administered at all three sites, I conducted the first of the three individual interviews with the six children over a two-week period.

Interviews

Before the first interview with each of the children, I briefly talked with them about needing their help in learning how first-graders learn to read and how college students work with them in their reading. Using ethnographic methods of inquiry (Adler & Adler, 1994), I conducted semi-structured individual, audiotaped interviews with each of the six focal children at the beginning, middle, and end of the study. The principals and teachers of the three schools were instrumental in locating an available space for the interviews at each of their respective sites. At Addams Elementary the two focal children's interviews were conducted in the school library; at Stanton, in the teachers' workroom; and, at Clara Barton the interviews were managed at a small table at one end of the second-grade hallway (adjacent to the first-grade classrooms). During each interview I placed a hand-held tape recorder on the table or desk directly in front of the child and me. In an attempt to make each child at ease as much as possible, we sat side-by-side as I encouraged each one to articulate his or her feelings about the questions I asked. Depending on conversational interaction at the time, some of the children's individual responses lead to

other questions or dialogue.

Observational Data

Field notes and tape-recorded conversations between tutor and child were collected weekly during one of each child's 30-minute tutoring sessions. To allow for individual differences in children, the particular day I observed varied from week-to-week. Therefore, one hour a week at each of the three schools I entered field notes on a laptop computer of observations of the interactions that occurred as the children worked with their tutors. Sitting as closely as possible to the tutoring dyad, I attempted to record as much detail as possible related to problem-solving in reading that occurred during the tutoring. For identification, storage, and retrieval purposes, each child's initials, school, and the date were typed at the top of the field notes and transcripts.

To provide a verbatim account of the dialogue that occurred between tutor and child, I also tape-recorded most of the sessions. (As a result of intermittent recording apparatus malfunctions, not all of the 116 tutoring sessions I observed over the course of the study were audiotaped.) At the end of each day's observations I obtained hard copies of those tutoring sessions. The summer and fall of 1998 were spent transcribing the taped sessions. Hard copies of the field notes were attached to each corresponding individual transcription, and were then chronologically filed in individual folders that were labeled with the children's pseudonyms. I periodically reviewed all the above data as initial steps toward reduction and analysis

Data Analysis

The volume of the data, though quite overwhelming at times, provided rich layers

of analysis. A description of the methods and techniques employed in analyzing the data is organized by each particular research question.

Question 1: Changes in Self-Perceptions of Competency Over the Year

Data sources for the first research question included the semi-structured interviews, the tutoring transcripts, and selected items on the Reading Survey portion of the Motivation To Read Profile (Gambrell et al., 1996) and the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (McKenna & Kear, 1990). First, I attempted to reduce the data to find a more manageable way of retrieving and examining the interviews and transcripts for a more minute analysis. From those initial and subsequent examinations, I constructed a typology of the children's feelings about their competence as literate individuals.

I was looking at the children's feelings about their competence in a collective sense, so I used both variable-oriented and case-oriented strategies in analyzing the data (Miles & Huberman, 1994). I constructed a cross-case display of the six children's responses to each interview question from transcripts of the three interviews across the year of tutoring.

An analysis of changes in the children's self-perceptions of competency in literacy was guided by Bandura's (1986, 1995) indicators pertaining to a person's feelings about his or her ability to engage in and complete a task, persistence and effort toward completion of the task, and goals consistent with ability and performance. Based on self-efficacy theory, I then applied the following set of questions to each individual interview, tutoring transcription, and selected items on the Reading Survey and Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (listed above). What evidence is related to (a) the children's perceptions

of their capabilities as readers, (b) the children's goals for themselves as literate individuals, (c) the children's willingness to engage in reading, and (d) their persistence or effort exerted in reading? Each question was color-coded by category and matched to the corresponding conversation in the data. As a check for interrater reliability, an independent observer examined three randomly selected interviews and six of the tutoring transcripts until at least 90% agreement was reached on both.

In a line-by-line analysis, I read and reread each child's tutoring transcripts. As I searched the children's words for evidence related to their feelings about themselves as literate individuals, I attached the color-coded tabs where applicable. Coding rubrics of each child's individual responses to items on the motivation instruments, the Reading Survey and the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey were also examined. A coding frequency count was obtained for each descriptive category. Subcategories emerged related to the children's self-perceptions of their competence in print-related tasks. (A summary of the categories and emergent subcategories is presented in Table 1.)

Criteria for Determining Children's Level of Self-Perceptions of Competency

After the above data were organized and coded, I again examined each child's data to determine level of self-perceptions of competency at the beginning and at the end of the study. Using a scale ranging along a continuum from low, medium, and high, first, I noted each child's counts for the subcategories that emerged from the categorical question – How does one perceive reading competence? Particularly, I noted counts of each child's capability feelings about reading (cannot read, a good reader) and ability to read with understanding.

Table 1:

Summary of Coding Categories for the Children's Self-Perceptions of Themselves as Literate Individuals

Category	Subcategory	Definition/examples
How does one perceive reading competence?	cannot read	No ability/I don't know how, I don't know that one
	a good reader	Reading ability/I can, I know how, I can read the words/ 'cause I read a lot at home and at school
	reads with understanding	Constructs meaning/ I know the words/I can read my teacher's books
What attributions does one ascribe to reading competence?	self-awareness	Because I study hard, I practice a lot/I be reading louder than anyone else/I hear myself and I think I am
	others' feedback	When teacher smiles/others say so, my friends say I'm a good reader, one told me so, they like when I read
	ability-related (read words/spell)	'Cause I can read all the first-grade words, because I know a lot of words/can spell them without looking
	difficulty	It's hard, it's easy
Willingness to engage in reading	no engagement	Tells tutor he or she will not read
	likes to read	Indicates he or she likes to read

(table continues)

Table 1. (Continued)

Category	Subcategory	Definition/examples
What/who influences one's reading engagement?	school	Reads books at school, heard about a book at school, had book in classroom/book fair
	parents/grandparents/siblings	My momma, Nanny, my sister
	tutor	Tutor allows children to choose books/they play
How is persistence and effort demonstrated?	talk	Don't tell me/I want to read that
What are the children's goals for themselves as literate individuals?	social	Implicit goals/It's fun, I feel happy

The extent to which a person is willing to engage in an activity is a direct indicator of one's degree of self-efficacy in a particular domain (Bandura, 1986). Therefore, I also noted counts for each child's engagement in literacy activities during the tutoring, such as "no engagement," "likes to read," and engagement "at school." After examining those counts, I determined that no child fit into the low category of competency beliefs. Yet, there was a thin, red line between the categories of moderate and high. To further illuminate that gray area of the children's beliefs about their literacy competence and feelings about engaging in reading, I re-examined each child's responses to items on the Motivation to Read Profile and the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (Garfield). I had originally included each of selected item stems on the Motivation to Read Profile as a count for either positive or negative self-perception of competency for each child. I had also included pictures of the happiest Garfield or the contented-looking Garfield as a count for positive attitude toward reading, and either the upset or the angry Garfield as a count for unwillingness to engage in reading. I went back into the data to make note of those shades of competence for each child on those above instruments. After making comparisons among the described data, I assigned Suzette, Cedrick, and Jonathan a rating of moderate competency, and Julie, Adrian, and Michelle a rating of high competency at the beginning of the study. Using the same criteria and procedure, all of the children were high in self-perceptions of competency by the end of the study.

Question 2: Relationship of Interaction Patterns to Changes in Self-perceptions of Competency

The tutoring transcripts were the primary data source used to address the second

research question. Feedback to children's performance in the form of "... instantaneous teacher responses to children's conversation. . ." (Gallimore & Tharp, 1990, p.180) has a profound influence on self-perceptions of their ability, as it informs and motivates performance (Bandura, 1986, 1995). As an aid in organizing and retrieving the children's conversational feedback during the tutoring, I used Microsoft Office '97 Access to create a database of the tutors' feedback, by category, and by child.

Tutors' feedback during the tutoring provided information to the children about their literacy competence in various print-related tasks, such as oral reading, writing, letter-sound association, and word knowledge. Therefore, I also used cross-case analysis of the social interactions, in the form of talk, during the tutoring. Once again I scanned each child's tutoring transcripts, listing on a grid each instance of tutor feedback that seemed relevant to engagement in print-related tasks (reading and writing activities).

I then placed each tutor's verbal feedback into one of four subcategories – positive, negative, neutral, or attributional. However, upon further analysis, it became obvious that some of the children's positive and negative feedback contained an attachment, or adjunct information important to scaffolding the children's learning (corrective feedback). At that point, I once again scanned each child's positive and negative entries (in the Microsoft '97 Access database) for a count of instances of corrective feedback. Those counts were noted and entered in the appropriate columns of the feedback response frequency table. (Definitions and examples of each category are provided in Table 2.)

I was explicitly looking for verbal feedback that provided an indicator of each

Table 2:

Subcategories of Tutor Feedback Responses During Tutoring

Subcategories	Definitions/examples
Positive Feedback	Praise/you have done a good job today, too/ good, right, very good/ There ya go/ Oh, this is good/ wonderful/ this is correct/ you were doing such a good job, too/ you're so good at spelling/yeah, I'm so proud of you/excellent reading
Negative Feedback	Criticism/No, that's not 'boy,'/uhuh, no, end of the sentence not the middle/ no, but close
Neutral Feedback	Neither positive nor negative/Uhhuh/ I see
Attributional Feedback	To what tutor attributes child's competence/Well, see, you're just getting smarter with every day that passes, aren't you?/ you have a better memory than I do/but you'll be learning this pretty soon/you know how they're spelled/you know this word/you just need to think before you write
Corrective Feedback	The provision of additional information to enhance learning/No, why don't you add an E?/Watch, this is how you make an H

child's performance in print-related tasks at any particular point in time. Therefore, "other" talk, such as discussions about family and friends, or upcoming social events were neither listed nor counted. An outside observer and I independently attached one of the codes listed above to each recorded feedback, for which we were able to reach 90 per cent agreement.

Any particular point in time was defined as a conversational turn in which the tutor supplied positive, negative, neutral, attributional, or corrective feedback to the child. Positive feedback consisted of praise responses that let the child know he or she was right on track, such as "good job" or "yeah, there we go." "Yeah" was coded as positive because that response was only given during the tutoring to indicate a child's correct performance on a print-related task. Negative feedback consisted of criticism responses that let the child know he or she was not on track, such as "no, no, no" or "uh-uh." Neutral responses were those that were neither praise nor criticism. When two persons engage in dialogic conversation the utterance "uhhuh," or "okay," is merely a way of letting the other person know that one is attending to the talk, and are considered neutral responses (Nofsinger, 1991). Therefore, responses such as "uhhuh" and "okay" were coded as neutral unless followed by an explanatory word or phrase that confirmed or negated the child's performance, or provided additional information related to the child's learning. Feedback was coded as attributional if the tutor alluded to the child's knowledge, intellect, luck, or references to maturation, such as "you're getting smarter with every day that passes," "Uhhuh, lucky guess," or "You know all those words now." Negative or Positive feedback in which the tutor provided additional information needed

for learning was coded as corrective feedback. “No, you wrote that last part of it right, but see it’s not adout, it’s about, with a B in it” is one example of corrective feedback.

Question 3: Relation of Literacy Performance to Self-perceptions of Competency

The six focal children’s reading and writing assessments were analyzed for qualitative and quantitative changes in literacy performance over the year of tutoring. Qualitative changes I recorded were those related to literacy learning. For example, I was interested in change in the children’s ability to construct sentences based on knowledge of letter-sound correspondences, and their concepts about print from the beginning to the end of the study. I also examined and noted growth in sight-word vocabulary, as well as changes in their approach to problem-solving during oral reading. Item responses on each performance assessment were entered on a coding rubric and comparisons made from the beginning to the end of the study. To analyze problem-solving behavior while engaged in reading connected text, information obtained from the monthly Running Records of each child’s oral reading was entered on a miscue analysis sheet and patterns noted. To readily observe changes in performance over the year, I constructed a grid of all the children’s pre- and post-test scores for each assessment, each of which I described earlier. I then constructed a grid showing change in each child’s self-perceptions of competency over the course of the study (M for moderate self-perceptions of competency, H for high self-perceptions of competency), and in comparison to change in performance in the reading and writing activities mentioned above.

Researcher Role

Although my position as researcher varied within each of the three school settings,

my overarching role was that of non-participant observer (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996; LeCompte & Preissle, 1993). My aim was to blend in, although I realized my mere presence contributed to observer effect (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996).

A researcher must be both cognizant of and acknowledge inherent biases that are a product of that person's history, or lived experience (Peshkin, 1991). One cannot erase a lifetime of cognitions and ways of thinking about how children learn. I knew from the outset of the study that my 23 years as an elementary teacher could, and probably would, bias my approach to the present research. The lens through which I viewed the research was colored by those prior experiences with young children in various classroom contexts.

Therefore, my aim was to view the tutoring sessions from the perspective of a visiting teacher-researcher—one who may empathize, but does not sympathize or give assistance to the tutors or the children. Although difficult to do, I resisted the urge to assist the tutors, unless directly approached. For example, on one occasion I recall a tutor asking me how to spell a word, and another conversation about a schedule change. Thus, non-interference often led to feelings of detachment from the tutoring situation. On the other hand, that very detachment from a more familiar supportive teaching role gave me the mental freedom to plan and contemplate as I recorded field notes during the tutoring – of which time would not allow in my regular role as first-grade teacher. My specific roles at each of the schools are elaborated below.

Jane Addams (Visiting Teacher)

My role at Addams was strictly non-participant observer. I was familiar to Julie and Adrian from my administering group assessments in the fall of '97; they knew I was a

teacher, and that I was connected with the tutors. However, at times they wanted clarification about my presence at their tutoring sessions. Several times they asked the tutor what I was doing, referring to my typing on the laptop. Usually the tutors referred to me as their boss, and that I was there to make note of what they both were doing and reading during the tutoring sessions. Once, Julie wanted to know if I were her tutor's mother.

Each time I arrived to observe the tutoring, I retrieved the laptop and turned on the tape recorder as unobtrusively as possible. After exchanging greetings with the child and the tutor, I went into my teacher-researcher mode as I proceeded to type field notes and become part of the background.

Stanton (Visiting Teacher)

I was also familiar to Suzette and Cedrick from the initial interviews and the group assessments at the beginning of the study. They also knew I was a teacher and that I was there to observe them with their tutors. As a non-participant observer, and taking on the role of visiting teacher-researcher, each time I observed I tried to set up as quickly and unobtrusively as possible and begin typing field notes. Suzette and Cedrick did not inquire about my presence, although Suzette was always interested in the tape-recorder, sometimes asking either the tutor or me if she could listen to it. The tutor(s) always promised she could at a later time.

Clara Barton (Visiting Teacher and Tutor)

I was familiar to Jonathan and Michelle from the group assessments at the beginning of the larger study, and the knowledge that I was also a tutor. They often

observed me carrying around a white box identical to the ones the other college tutors used for tutoring supplies. Also, I tutored two children at that site three days a week; therefore, I spent more time at Clara Barton. As a result, the children occasionally saw me in the halls during drink and recess breaks, often waving or greeting me with a “hi.”

Tutoring at Clara Barton also provided me with the opportunity to be an active visiting teacher. Again, as an aid in preventing the threat of observer effect, I purposively chose to tutor in a teacher’s class other than those of my focal children. That opportunity arose when one particular teacher asked me for extra help with two of her first-graders, one who was in the larger study, one who was not. Working one-on-one with those children also benefitted me as a researcher because I was able to experience the same tutoring constraints as the tutors, such as not always accomplishing everything that needed to be done within the 30-minute time frame, child absenteeism, on-the-spot planning, and administering assessments in a timely manner. Therefore, my roles at Clara Barton were two-fold – visiting teacher-researcher and tutor. Approaching my research through the lens of a visiting teacher-researcher provided me with the mental armor to constitute my roles within each of the school contexts.

Chapter IV: Findings

Findings are presented according to the research question being addressed. The tutors' daily logs were not used in the final data analysis because they did not provide information pertinent to assessing change in the children's feelings of self-competency in literacy. The children's transcribed tutoring sessions, three individual interviews, selected items from attitude and interest surveys, and the teachers' ratings were analyzed to address the first research question.

Question 1: Changes in Self-Perceptions of Competency Over the Year

To reduce and display the data, and to make comparisons (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993), I constructed two frequency tables, each representing different data points (see Tables 3 and 4). Table 3 includes response counts from selected items on the attitude and interest surveys, the first interviews, observations, and tutoring transcripts from the fall of 1997 through the first of February, 1998. Table 4 includes response counts from selected items on the attitude and interest surveys, the second and third interviews, observations, and tutoring transcripts from mid-February through early May, 1998.

To clarify triangulation of the data, footnotes detail particular data sources. Those data sources are included in parentheses by individual counts for the items on Tables 3 and 4 (cannot read, a good reader, reads with understanding, ability-related attributions, difficulty, engagement, and talk). Unless otherwise noted (e.g., Table 6) counts came from the tutoring transcripts. For example, looking at Table 3, Suzette's 4 counts for "cannot read" were from her tutoring transcripts. As illustrated by a footnote, 1 of Cedrick's 3 counts for "cannot read" were from the Motivation to Read Profile.

Table 3:

Frequency of Coding Children's Self-Perceptions of Competency In Literacy During Tutoring--Fall, 1997 to Early February, 1998

<u>School</u>	<u>Stanton</u>		<u>Addams</u>		<u>Clara Barton</u>		
<u>Child</u>	<u>Suzette</u> Moderate Competency	<u>Cedrick</u> Moderate Competency	<u>Julie</u> High Competency	<u>Adrian</u> High Competency	<u>Michelle</u> Moderate Competency	<u>Jonathan</u> High Competency	<u>Totals</u>
<u>How does one perceive reading competence?</u>							
cannot read	4	3(1, MRP) ¹		1	5(1, MRP)	2	15
67 a good reader (I can/I know how)	4(2, MRP)	5(2, MRP)	5(2, MRP)	5(2, MRP)	3(2, MRP)	4(2, MRP)	26
reads with understanding	1(MRP)	2(1, MRP)	7(1, MRP)	3(1, MRP)	4	1(MRP)	18
<u>What attributions does one ascribe to reading competence?</u>							
don't know	4	2	1				7

(table continues)

¹Motivation to Read Profile

Table 3. (Continued)

<u>School</u>	<u>Stanton</u>		<u>Addams</u>		<u>Clara Barton</u>		
<u>Child</u>	<u>Suzette</u> Moderate Competency	<u>Cedrick</u> Moderate Competency	<u>Julie</u> High Competency	<u>Adrian</u> High Competency	<u>Michelle</u> Moderate Competency	<u>Jonathan</u> High Competency	<u>Totals</u>
self-awareness		1		2			3
others' feedback	1	1	1	1	1	1	6
ability-related (read words/spell)			2(O) ²	9(5, O)	1(O)	1	13
⊗ cannot spell				5(1, O)	1(O)	1(O)	7
it's hard	1(O)						1
it's easy	2		1	3(1, O)	2	2	10
practice				2			2
(table continues)							

²Observations

Table 3. (Continued)

<u>School</u>	<u>Stanton</u>		<u>Addams</u>		<u>Clara Barton</u>		
<u>Child</u>	<u>Suzette</u>	<u>Cedrick</u>	<u>Julie</u>	<u>Adrian</u>	<u>Michelle</u>	<u>Jonathan</u>	<u>Totals</u>
	Moderate Competency	Moderate Competency	High Competency	High Competency	Moderate Competency	High Competency	
<u>Willingness to engage in reading</u>							
no engagement	7(3, G) ³	3(G)	4(2, G)	4(1, O ⁴ , 3, G)	2	3(G)	22
likes to read	1	1	1	1	1	1	6
at school	15(3, G)	20(3, G)	18(4, G)	20(1, G)	20(6, G)	14(3, G)	107
<u>What/who influences one's reading engagement?</u>							
school		2				1	3
parents/grandparents/ siblings/peers	1		1	1	3	1	7
tutor				1			1
							(table continues)

³ERAS/Garfield

⁴Observations

Table 3. (Continued)

<u>School</u>	<u>Stanton</u>		<u>Addams</u>		<u>Clara Barton</u>		
<u>Child</u>	<u>Suzette</u> Moderate Competency	<u>Cedrick</u> Moderate Competency	<u>Julie</u> High Competency	<u>Adrian</u> High Competency	<u>Michelle</u> Moderate Competency	<u>Jonathan</u> High Competency	<u>Totals</u>
home	1						1
book fair						1	1
child/self-awareness	1						1
<u>How is persistence and effort demonstrated?</u>							
talk	18(9, 0) ⁵						18
<u>What are the children's goals for themselves as literate individuals?</u>							
fun/enjoyment			1		1	1	3

⁵Observations

Table 4:

Frequency of Coding Children's Self-Perceptions of Competency In Literacy During Tutoring-Middle of February to Early May, 1998

School	<u>Stanton</u>		<u>Addams</u>		<u>Clara Barton</u>		
Child	<u>Suzette</u>	<u>Cedrick</u>	<u>Julie</u>	<u>Adrian</u>	<u>Michelle</u>	<u>Jonathan</u>	Totals
	High Competency	High Competency	High Competency	High Competency	High Competency	High Competency	
<u>How does one perceive reading competence?</u>							
cannot read	1	1		1		1	4
a good reader (I can/I know how)	9(2, MRP ¹ , 2, 1 ²)	7(2, MRP, 2, 1)	6(2, MRP, 2, 1)	6(2, MRP, 2, 1)	6(2, MRP, 2, 1)	8(2, MRP, 2, 1)	42
reads with understanding	3(1, MRP)	3(1, MRP, 2, 1)	2(1, MRP, 1, 1)	3(1, MRP, 2, 1)	5(1, MRP, 2, 1)	3(1, MRP, 2, 1)	19
<u>What attributions does one ascribe to reading competence?</u>							
don't know						5	5
						(table continues)	

¹Motivation to Read Profile²Interviews

Table 4. (Continued)

School		<u>Stanton</u>		<u>Addams</u>		<u>Clara Barton</u>		Totals
Child		<u>Suzette</u> High Competency	<u>Cedrick</u> High Competency	<u>Julie</u> High Competency	<u>Adrian</u> High Competency	<u>Michelle</u> High Competency	<u>Jonathan</u> High Competency	
72	self-awareness	4	1	11	6	4	6	32
	others' feedback	4	5	5	4		2	20
	ability-related (read words/spell)	5(3, 0 ³)		9	14	2	4(1, 0)	34
	cannot spell							0
	it's hard		1					1
	it's easy		1	1	1	1	1	5
	practice							0
(table continues)								

³Observations

Table 4. (Continued)

<u>School</u>	<u>Stanton</u>		<u>Addams</u>		<u>Clara Barton</u>		
<u>Child</u>	<u>Suzette</u>	<u>Cedrick</u>	<u>Julie</u>	<u>Adrian</u>	<u>Michelle</u>	<u>Jonathan</u>	<u>Totals</u>
	High Competency	High Competency	High Competency	High Competency	High Competency	High Competency	
<u>Willingness to engage in reading</u>							
no engagement	1(G) ⁴	1(G)		4(G)	2(G)	4 (2, G)	12
likes to read	2	2	2	2	2	2	12
at school	19(5, G)	37(5., G)	28(6, G)	32(2, G)	47(4, G)	15(4, G)	178
⁷³ <u>What/who influences one's reading engagement?</u>							
school							0
parents/grandparents/ siblings/peers		1			1		2
tutor	1	1	1		1	2	6

⁴ERAS/Garfield

Table 4. (Continued)

<u>School</u>	<u>Stanton</u>		<u>Addams</u>		<u>Clara Barton</u>		
<u>Child</u>	<u>Suzette</u>	<u>Cedrick</u>	<u>Julie</u>	<u>Adrian</u>	<u>Michelle</u>	<u>Jonathan</u>	<u>Totals</u>
	High Competency	High Competency	High Competency	High Competency	High Competency	High Competency	
home							0
book fair							
child/self-awareness					2	1	3
teacher	1						1
⁷⁴ <u>How is persistence and effort demonstrated?</u>							
talk	14(7, 0) ¹						14
<u>What are the children's goals for themselves as literate individuals?</u>							
fun/enjoyment		2	2		1	1	6

¹Observations

The other 2 counts for that item were from Cedrick's tutoring transcripts.

As a whole, the children showed an increase in interest and participation in reading during the tutoring. Fewer instances of children saying they could not read were recorded at the end of the year, as compared to the beginning. However, at the end of the study, Adrian, an outlier, reported that he does not like to read. When probed further he said, "I don't get excited about reading books. I just read books."

Patterns of Changes in Self-Perceptions of Competency

An analysis of the frequency coding across the year (Tables 3 and 4) suggested that, at the beginning of the study three of the children's feelings about themselves as literate individuals were described as moderate self-perceptions of competency in literacy and high self-perceptions of competency for the other three.

Students' feelings of competency continued to increase over the course of the year. How could that be for those three children considered high in self-perceptions of competency at the beginning of the year? I constructed a table to illustrate differences in individual responses on the Motivation to Read Profile and the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (Garfield). (See Table 5.) Items on the MRP were related to the children's self-perceptions of their competence, and items on the Garfield were indicators of the children's attitudes and feelings about engaging in reading. Table 5 shows each child's pre- and post-test mean scores (most positive mean of 4.0) for items on the Motivation to Read Profile and the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey. For example, on a scale of 1-4, differences occurred on stem responses of the Motivation to Read Profile. Similar differences occurred depending upon which Garfield a child circled – the Happiest

Table 5:

Pre/Post Mean Scores on Motivation to Read Profile and Garfield (ERAS)

<u>Child</u>	<u>MRP* (4.0)¹</u> <u>Pre – Post</u>	<u>ERAS ** (4.0)²</u> <u>Pre – Post</u>
Suzette	2.3 - 3.3	2.0 - 3.6
Cedrick	3.5 - 3.9	2.6 - 2.9
Julie	3.1 - 2.4	3.1 - 3.8
Adrian	3.6 - 2.7	2.0 - 2.1
Michelle	2.5 - 3.3	3.3 - 3.1
Jonathan	3.1 - 3.5	2.2 - 2.8

***Motivation to Read Profile**

****Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (Garfield)**

¹Represents most positive mean score.

²Represents most positive mean score.

Garfield (score of 4), the contented Garfield (score of 3), the upset Garfield (score of 2), or the angry Garfield (score of 1).

Information from the MRP in Table 5 shows that Suzette, Cedrick, Michelle, and Jonathan each increased in positive self-perceptions of competency from the beginning to the end of the study. Although Julie and Adrian show a decrease in positive self-perceptions of competency from the pre- to the post- MRP, their initial self-perceptions were high (3.1 and 3.6, respectively). Their lower means could be a result of error measurement, or regression to the mean. (Cedrick showed the highest gain.) Yet, from pre- and post-test means on the Garfield, Julie and Adrian showed an increase in positive attitude toward reading. The increase in positive self-perceptions of competency in literacy noted on the MRP, coupled with five of the children's increase in reading engagement on the ERAS, helped refine those minute, quantitative differences in self-perceptions of ability. Observations corroborated that all the children increased in self-perceptions of competency and attitude to engage in literacy over the year.

Further examination of the data revealed three important sources of the children's information about their self-perceptions of competency in literacy – feedback from others, self-awareness of learning, and ability to read and spell words. (See Table 6.) Table 6 provides a count of each child's attributions for literacy performance over the year. The counts were noted from responses during individual child interviews and from selected items on attitude and interest surveys about the children's competency beliefs. Those sources of self-evaluative information are elaborated in the next section.

Table 6:

Children's Attributions for their Self-Efficacy in Literacy Across the Year**1st Semester**

Child	DK	Reads Words	Practice	Reads More	Spells Words	Others' Feedback	Self-Aware★
Suzette	1			1		1	
Cedrick	2	1				2	
Julie		2			2	2	1
Adrian		2	2	1		1	
Michelle				2		1	
Jonathan		2		3		1	
Totals¹	3	7	2	7	2	8	1

2nd Semester

Child	DK	Reads Words	Practice	Reads More	Spells Words	Others' Feedback	Self-Aware.
Suzette				1		3	
Cedrick						3	1
Julie		4		1		2	1
Adrian		1			1	2	
Michelle	5	2			1		
Jonathan		1			2	2	1
Totals²	5	8	0	2	4	12	3

★Self-Awareness

¹Totals for counts from beginning to middle of study.²Totals for counts from middle to end of study.

Others'-Feedback.

By the end of the study, four of the six children gave responses during their individual interviews indicating that significant others influenced their self-perceptions of reading ability, such as family, friends, or the teacher. As an example, Suzette said that she knows she is a good reader because “my teacher says I am good at reading,” and her momma, daddy, sister, and brother make her a good reader, and “Because some of my friends like it when I read.” Cedrick remarked, “My friends say I’m a good reader.” Jonathan said that his friends think his reading “is great.” Julie stated that the class likes her reading, and Adrian said that his teacher told him he is a good reader. As noted, feedback from others was a positive source of performance feedback.

Self-Awareness.

According to the data, another important way in which the children became more aware of their literate capabilities was through self-knowledge. For example, some of the children indicated that they knew how to read because they know in their head, or that they say they are and that makes it so. Examples of such self-awareness included “ ‘Cause I read good,” and “I hear myself and I think I am.”

Skill-Related Competency As Word Reading Ability.

At the beginning to the middle of the study, all six children, compared to five of the six at the conclusion of the study, expressed positive self-perceptions of competency in literacy. In other words, they considered themselves capable readers. The attributions they gave as evidence of those self-perceptions of competency in literacy over the year disclosed a trend toward skill-related competency in word knowledge. (See Table 6).

The children's responses were a result of probes during answers to individual interviews and selected items on interest and attitude surveys. To evaluate change in the children's feelings of competency, I asked them if they thought they were good readers and were improving. I also asked them about their ability to recognize more words than previously noted, and word knowledge compared to their peers. Some examples typical of the children's responses to such probes included, "Because I can read all of the first-grade words," "I know most of the words in the story," and "my tutor asked me eight bags of hard words, and I only missed two of them." When asked to make normative comparisons on word knowledge, three of the six children indicated they know as many or more words than other children. The qualifications those children gave for knowing as many or more words as their peers included "I know more words than the girls, even other boys," "Sometimes I can, sometimes I can't read better than them." Cedrick indicated that he knows as many words as other children because "they still miss all the words."

The teachers' ratings of the children's competency in reading were used to compare alignment between the teachers' and the children's perceptions of change in self-perceptions of competency in literacy over the year. On a competency scale of 1-4 (from least to most competent), three of the children were given a rating of one at the beginning of the study; two were given a two; and, one was given a rating of three, resulting in a mean score of 1.6. By the end of the study each child received a rating of either a three or a four. As a whole, all the teachers reported increased competency in literacy for the children, although only two of the teachers elaborated on their children's successes. Michelle's teacher remarked about her increased confidence in reading ability, as a result

which she thought had contributed to an increase in willingness to read more – especially in her reading group.

Adrian's case is an interesting outlier. Although his self-perceptions of competency in literacy increased over the year, toward the end of the study Adrian often delegated the reading to the tutor in comments such as, "You read now." Adrian's teacher rated his change in self-perceptions of competency from beginning to end of study from a 1 to a 4, reflecting highest positive change. She purposefully visited one of the tutoring sessions midway into the study to report that Adrian's weekly spelling test scores had come from D's and F's to 100 per cent, and that she directly attributed it to the one-on-one tutoring. Scrutiny of the tutoring transcripts revealed that Adrian's tutor frequently assisted him in learning his weekly spelling words. Surprisingly, he expressed a dislike for reading by the end of the study.

Children's Willingness to Engage in Literacy

Specifically, engagement in print-related activities, such as reading, writing, and word recognition strategies during the tutoring was not difficult to ascertain: The children either made the choice to engage, or not to engage, in literacy-related activities during the tutoring sessions. Therefore, one count of engagement per child was noted per tutoring session unless a child verbally indicated that he or she did not wish to participate. If a child indicated that he or she did not want to engage in a particular activity during a tutoring session, I noted that as a count for "no engagement." Additional evidence of a child's choice of whether or not to participate in various print-related tasks during the tutoring was noted from his or her responses to interview questions and conversations

with the tutor during the sessions. For example, sometimes the tutors allowed the children the choice of whether or not to engage in the reading by questions such as “Do you want to read now?” The children’s initial engagement in literacy-related activities increased over the course of the year. By the end of the study, the children as a whole, had more instances of engagement during the tutoring than they did the first half of the year.

Children’s Goals

The only evidence provided by the children regarding their goal-orientation during the tutoring was their references to the social goal of enjoyment, entertainment, or intrinsic interest. In response to interview questions, the children said they liked to read because “it’s fun.”

Summary of Changes in Self-Perceptions of Competency in Literacy

All the children had an interest in and a positive attitude toward reading at the beginning of the study, that varied along a continuum across the year. Only Adrian expressed a dislike for reading by the conclusion of the study. The children’s self-perceptions of competency in literacy were moderate to high from the onset of the study and increased over the course of the year. The children felt competent in their ability to read, as well as to participate in various other print-related activities (such as writing or learning new vocabulary). By the end of the study, all of the children considered themselves good readers, and, with the exception of Adrian, said they were more willing to engage in reading and other print-related tasks. In addition, the children were able to articulate their literacy capabilities in comparison to their peers. Most considered themselves as good, or better, in reading ability and word knowledge compared to their

classmates. Their social motivation for engaging in the reading during tutoring was explicitly stated as a desire to have fun.

The children's feelings of competence were in alignment with their teachers' judgments of their literacy capabilities. By the end of the study all of the teachers believed that the children demonstrated a more positive attitude toward reading, more willingness to engage in reading in the regular classroom, and an improvement in reading and writing performance.

Question 2: Relationship of Interaction Patterns to Changes in Self-Perceptions of Competency

Analyses of the tutors' interaction with the children in the form of verbal feedback during tutoring were used to address the second research question. Each child's tutoring transcripts were scanned using the following questions as a guide: What types of conversational feedback do the tutors provide during the tutoring that serve as indicators of each child's performance in print-related tasks at any particular point in time?

Patterns of Verbal Feedback

One commonality across all six cases was that feedback provided immediate knowledge about the accuracy of the children's performance, and positive reinforcement of the children's reading and writing behaviors. Findings for each category are reported in the order of their prevalence in the data – positive, neutral, negative, attributional, or corrective. (To show the distribution of feedback by category, a frequency count of the five categories is provided in Table 7.) Conversational turns between tutor and child are furnished to provide clarity of the context within which the feedback occurred.

Table 7:

Frequency of Tutor Feedback Responses by Category During Tutoring

Child	Positive	Neutral	Negative	Attributional	Corrective	P/Cor. ¹	N/Cor. ²	Totals ³
<u>Suzette</u>	124	126	25	7	20	1	19	302
<u>Cedrick</u>	124	71	17	4	8	0	8	224
<u>Julie</u>	207	43	24	24	33	16	17	331
<u>Adrian</u>	79	16	4	39	19	18	1	157
<u>Michelle</u>	143	100	69	10	20	7	13	342
<u>Jonathan</u>	191	15	2	5	23	20	3	236
<u>Totals</u>	868	371	141	89	123	62	61	1592

¹Positive feedback coupled with corrective feedback.

²Negative feedback coupled with corrective feedback.

³Sums for Positive, Neutral, Negative, Attributional, and Corrective feedback columns only.

The tutors' feedback is highlighted in bold, and T and Ch are used to signify Tutor or Child, respectively. Ellipses are used to indicate that additional conversation either preceded or followed the feedback.

Positive Feedback.

Positive was the most frequent type of feedback provided during the tutoring. From the examples provided, it appears that the tutors used positive feedback in the form of praise and encouragement as social reinforcement and affirmation of their ability during the tutoring. The following exemplars are typical of the positive feedback provided by the tutors.

Praise, Encouragement, and Support.

Adrian – Ch: (reading aloud) I can't do it. This is a big
bike. I'll fall.

T: **That's right!**

Michelle – Ch: A period.

T: Period, okay, can you put a period on there?

Ch: (Ch places period at end of sentence.)

T: **There ya go!**

Jonathan – Ch: (reading aloud) Jonathan likes his new green jeans.

T: **Very good.**

Neutral Feedback.

Most of the neutral feedback consisted of word(s) that served as continuers of the conversation, that is, words used in communicating to the child that the tutor was

attending to what the child was engaged in during the tutoring. The most prevalent neutral response was ‘Uhhuh,’ although other terms such as “alright,” and “getting warmer,” and “close” were sometimes used. Cedrick (high competency) had the most amount of neutral feedback; I provide an example from one of his tutoring transcripts which is a typical representation of the neutral feedback.

Continuers of the Conversation.

Cedrick – T: Right here? Okay can you start right here?

Ch: I’ll . . .

T: Uhhuh.

Negative Feedback.

Negative feedback, the third most prevalent type of verbal feedback during the tutoring, provided a negative connotation to the children about their performance at that point in the tutoring session. An example from one of Michelle’s tutoring transcripts provides an instance of typical negative feedback.

Blame or Criticism.

Michelle – Ch: Buh, bird, bird. It’s like that.

T: Nooooo-No! No, it’s bird. Try to remember, ‘b.’

Corrective Feedback.

Corrective feedback provided additional information to enhance learning, and in the present study occurred as an add-on to either negative or positive feedback.

Positive Feedback Coupled with Corrective.

Adrian – Ch: (Unintelligible) told me to put “ike,” might tell her, too.

T: Okay, yeah.

Ch: I, K, E

T: That's right, ike is I, K, E

Cedrick – Ch: A comma?

**T: Uhhuh, yeah. Yeah, put a comma right there and here,
it's like to separate the month and the day.**

Negative Feedback Coupled with Corrective.

Adrian – T: All right. How do you spell “stop?”

Ch: I don't know.

**T: S, no this is lives, S, T, O, P, and
don't you see that on the stop signs?**

Jonathan – Ch: A

**T: No, that would be lag, 'cause it has an A there, “luh,”
“eh”, “eh” . . .**

Attributional Feedback.

Attributional feedback was the least supplied feedback during the tutoring.

According to the data, most of the attributional feedback informed the children of their discrete knowledge in word identification, ability, or conventions of spelling and writing. I provide examples of Adrian's first, because he had the most amount of attributional feedback of all the six children, yet he expressed a disinterest in reading by the end of the study.

Has Knowledge.

Adrian – Ch: Um, I like this one. I know this one.

T: **You know all those words, they've been your vocabulary words for a long time.**

Adrian – Ch: L

T: **L, "ag," A, G, you do know how to spell it.**

Ability-Related.

Julie – Ch: I

T: **Lights, this is a hard one, kind of a hard one to spell.**

Summary of Patterns of Verbal Feedback

Positive feedback, in the form of praise and encouragement was the most prevalent type of verbal feedback provided for all the children during the tutoring. Positive feedback, as positive reinforcement, provided affirmation of the children's reading and writing abilities. Examples of typical positive feedback show that the tutors supported the children's efforts in print-related tasks by giving praise and encouragement. Neutral was the next type most often used as feedback to performance, and attributional feedback was provided the least amount of the time. Through the use of Neutral feedback (such as "Uhuh"), the tutors indicated that they were actively attending to the children's words as they participated in various reading and writing activities. Analysis of both negative and positive feedback revealed ways in which the tutors sometimes scaffolded the children's learning through performance correction. For instance, the word 'no' or 'yes' was sometimes followed by the tutor repeating the word correctly for the child or by supplying

additional instruction. Across all six children, approximately the same amount of positive and negative feedback was coupled with corrective feedback. Julie received the most amount of both positive and corrective feedback, while Adrian received the least amount of feedback, period.

As noted above, the majority of verbal feedback that the children received provided encouragement and support. In addition, information from the children's interviews and selected items on the interest and attitude surveys showed that the children had moderate to high self-perceptions of their competency in literacy at the beginning, and high self-perceptions of competency by the conclusion of the study. There may be a link between the type and quality of the feedback (i.e., positive) and in the children's increase in self-perceptions of competency over the year. (See Table 8 for a summary of the most and least category of feedback supplied during the tutoring, changes in the children's self-perceptions of competency, as well as changes in level of literacy performance over the year.)

Question 3: Relationship of Performance to Self-Perceptions of Competency

Analyses of the following materials were used to assess the children's performance in reading and writing from the onset to conclusion of the study: Concepts About Print (Clay, 1993a); Letter Identification (Clay, 1993a); Word Test (Bookwords, Eeds, 1985); Cloze (Blachowicz, 1977; Gove, 1975); 10-Minute Writing Sample (Clay, 1993a); Dictation (letter-sound association, Clay, 1993a); and Running Records (Clay, 1993a). Findings are arranged by the materials, as listed above. As explained below, the Concepts About Print and Letter Identification measures did not serve as reliable

Table 8:

Summary of Feedback and Changes in Self-Perceptions of Competency in Literacy and Performance by the End of the Study

<u>Child</u>	<u>Feedback by Category</u>	<u>Competency in Literacy</u>		<u>Performance</u>
	<u>Most – Least</u>	<u>Beginning – Ending</u>		<u>Decrease – Increase</u>
Suzette	Neutral/Positive – Attributional	M ¹	H ²	✓
Cedrick	Positive – Attributional	M	H	✓
Julie	Positive – Negative, Attributional	H	H	✓
Adrian	Positive – Negative	H	H	✓
Michelle	Positive – Attributional	M	H	✓
Jonathan	Positive – Negative	H	H	✓

¹Moderate Self-Perceptions of Competency

²High Self-Perceptions of Competency

performance indicators.

Changes in Performance

For performance assessment purposes, high pre-test scores and ceiling level post-test scores on both the Concepts About Print (CAP) and the Letter Identification displayed no growth. Therefore, neither the CAP nor the Letter Identification performance data was used in a report of the findings. (A composite of the children's pre- and post-test scores for each performance measure is provided in Table 9.)

Word Test. The Word Test was used to assess the six focal children's knowledge of the 72 most frequently used words in children's literature. The children were asked to read the words in isolation. In comparing pre- and post- attempts at recognizing the 72 words, all the children showed growth in their knowledge of sight words from the beginning to the end of the study. However, according to this pre- and post-test measure of sight-word knowledge, Michelle and Adrian made the most gains in ability to recognize words in isolation.

Cloze. The Cloze provided information about the children's ability to read a short passage with understanding. The children attempted an independent reading of a simplistic version of a story familiar to most first-graders – The Three Little Pigs. according to the Cloze, five of the six children showed growth in understanding from the beginning to the end of the study. Four of the six children attempted at least eight of the ten items on the pre-test. No items were left blank by any of the children on the post-test, which indicates they knew more words by the end of the study than before. However, by their incorrect choices on both the pre- and post-tests, it appears that the children attended

Table 9: Pre-Test/Post-Test Performance Assessment Composite

<u>Child</u>	<u>CAP¹ (10)★</u>	<u>Letter Ident. (52)</u>	<u>Word Test (72)</u>	<u>Cloze (10)</u>	<u>10-M/Wrig.²</u>	<u>Dictation (74)</u>
Suzette	4/8*	47/52	11/65	5/3	25/15	15/72
Cedrick	8/9	51/52	50/69	2/9	6/24	35/73
Julie	8/10	51/52	18/70	1/8	21/35	10/72
Adrian	8/9	45/52	12/72	2/8	15/24	12/74
Michelle	9/10	46/52	5/71	1/9	10/13	13/69
Jonathan	8/8	39/51	17/68	2/6	6/37	27/71

★Numbers in parentheses indicate total number of possible points for that particular assessment.

* Numbers in bold indicate scores of the children with no change, decreased score, or minimal gain in a particular assessment.

¹Concepts About Print

²10-Minute Writing – Interminable number of total possible points for this assessment.

to the initial sounds, then attempted a guess.

Due to Suzette's decrease in performance over the year, her results on the Cloze are described in more detail. Suzette's performance on the Cloze indicates a decrease in her understanding from beginning to the end of the research. At the beginning of the study she was not a risk-taker. For example, when required to make a forced choice (circle one of three possible words that make sense in the blank), she left four of the ten items blank. All correct responses Suzette gave on both the pre- and post-tests were sight words. Correct responses on the pre-test were then given incorrectly on the post-test. It appears that words Suzette treated (and knew) as sight-words on the pre-test, she then identified on the post-test as words that needed to be phonetically attacked. Suzette's attempts at decoding unknown words on the post-test seem to indicate that she attended only to initial sounds.

A hypothesis of Suzette's performance on the Cloze (reading comprehension) may be twofold: (a) perhaps she made good guesses on the pre-test; (b) by the end of the study, when in doubt, she attempted to make letter-sound associations attending to only the first letter in the word, then saying a word that most represented a word from her lexicon. Her latter strategy may be due to classroom instruction (of which I was not aware), or the tutors' emphasis on "sounding it out." Information from Suzette's tutoring transcripts supports the "sound it out" hypothesis. Suzette's third tutor most often emphasized the "sounding out" strategy when Suzette encountered difficult words in stories. In fact, throughout the study Suzette struggled with word recognition, although she exhibited effort and persistence by frequently saying to the tutor, "Don't tell me."

As mentioned, Suzette attempted six of the ten items on the pre-test, of which five were correct. Although she attempted all items on the post-test, only three were correct. Wrong word choice and semantically incorrect responses on the Cloze at the end of the study provide evidence of Suzette's lack of understanding.

10-Minute Writing Test. The 10-Minute Writing Test was given to all the children to discern their knowledge of words and ability to reproduce them from memory. Two limitations to this assessment must be mentioned at this time. First, the tutors did not provide me with any information that could help in determining the source of the children's written vocabulary. For instance, I did not know if the two children at Clara Barton (who were tutored in their classrooms) visually searched the classroom environment for color words or class spelling lists. Second, I was not sure how strictly the tutors adhered to the 10-minute time limit. Therefore, the analysis is solely from my visual inspection of the children's lists.

Varied information was obtained from the 10-Minute Writing Test. No overall patterns were found for the beginning of the study regarding the children's ability to recall and record a written list of words. However, initially, three of the children were each able to reproduce 15 to 25 words. Patterns emerged by the end of the study: There was an overall increase in written word knowledge; four of the six children made gains in the ability to reproduce words on the post-test. Post-test lists included names of significant people in their lives. At that time, five of the six children included in their lists the names of family members, classroom friends, or their teacher. However, by the end of the study, Michelle only showed an increase of three words, and Suzette decreased in number of

words she could reproduce. According to the data, Jonathan made the most growth in number of words he could write from memory .

Writing Assessment-Dictation Test. The Dictation Test provided information about the children's knowledge of letter/sound correspondences. Letter/sound correspondence can be translated to mean one's ability to spell words according to their letter-to-sound association. The Dictation Test consisted of having the children write a short, two-sentence story as I read it aloud. Spelling ability is a developmental process (Clay, 1991). Therefore, I used the criteria described in Stages of Spelling Development (Temple, Nathan, Temple, & Burris, 1982) to determine the children's developmental spelling level on the pre- and post- measures of the Dictation Test.

According to the data, all the children showed growth in their knowledge of letter/sound associations from the beginning to the end of the study. An analysis of their writing on the pre-test indicated that four of the six children were in the phonemic stage of spelling ability. (The phonemic stage refers to the use of one or two letters to represent the sounds heard in the words the children write, with perhaps some added random letters, or words they know, but that do not fit the meaning.) In contrast, by the end of the study, all of the children were writing conventionally – correct letter/sound correspondences with the use of some invented spelling. The children's writing also showed (on both the pre- and post- measures) that they were aware that print in the English language flows from left-to-right. Three of the six children showed awareness of punctuation by their use of periods. Overall, the findings showed that the children increased in their ability to make letter/sound connections, and to use other possible letter combinations to approximate

correct spellings.

Running Records. Running records were used to assess the children's problem-solving behaviors that they employed while reading aloud connected text. (See Table 10.) Although the number of running records varied (three to seven per child), samples from the beginning, middle, and end of the study were used to make comparisons. Each child's Running Records were examined for patterns of errors, expressed as ratios, that provided insights about the children's problem-solving strategies. To examine change in problem-solving behaviors over time, I specifically examined each child's rate of errors to total words read, and rate of self-corrections to total number of errors.

As an example, at the beginning of the study, data for Suzette (Table 10) shows she missed 1 out of every 7.5 words read. A self-correction ratio of 0:2 shows she did not make any self-corrections for either of the two miscues (errors) she made on that selection. There was no running record to compare at the middle of the study. By the end of the study, she was missing 1 out of every 9.6 words read, and she was self-correcting 1 of every 4 miscues.

Children's attempts at problem-solving while reading connected text cannot be determined if no errors are made (Clay, 1993a). Michelle's 100% reading accuracy at the beginning of the study, and Cedrick's, Julie's, and Adrian's at the end of the study, do not provide information about problem-solving attempts. However, looking across Table 10 at change in ability to problem-solve during reading, it is apparent that Michelle, Julie, and Adrian had increased in reading fluency by the end of the year. As illustrated in the above example, Suzette had no Running Record to use in comparison at the middle of the study.

Table 10:

Summary of the Children's Oral Reading Behaviors – Beginning, Middle, and End of Study

<u>Child</u>	<u>Beginning</u>		<u>Middle</u>		<u>End</u>	
	<u>Error Rate¹</u>	<u>Self-Cor. Rate²</u>	<u>Error Rate</u>	<u>Self-Cor. Rate</u>	<u>Error Rate</u>	<u>Self-Cor. Rate</u>
Suzette	1:7.5	0:2	ND ³	ND	1:9.6	1:4
Cedrick	1:5.7	1:16	1:19	1:1	0:129	0:0
Julie	1:7.5	1:5	1:9.2	0:3	0:77	0:0
⁹⁶ Adrian	1:3	0:12	1:18.6	1:4	0:99	0:0
Michelle	0:38	1:1	1:17	1:4	1:111	0:1
Jonathan	1:9.5	0:4	1:6.9	0:9	1:7.1	0:8

¹Error Rate (Ratio)/Running words divided by number of errors

²Self-Correction Rate (Ratio)/Errors plus self-corrections divided by number of self-corrections

³ND indicates no data for that child

example, Suzette had no Running Record to use in comparison at the middle of the study. An examination of the text on which the Running Records were taken revealed that most of the stories had a controlled vocabulary. Some had several words per page, but the level of text difficulty did not vary over the year.

Error ratios in Table 10 provide evidence that at the beginning of the research five of the six children were missing approximately one out of every six words read. By the middle of the study they were missing approximately one out of every 14 words read. As a whole, by the end of the study, their error rate had decreased even more. The three children with errors at the end of the study were then missing only one out of approximately every 42 words read. So, as on the Word Test, they knew more words by the end of the year, and evidence from the Running Records indicates that they were reading more fluently.

Additional evaluation of the Running Records revealed how the children attempted, or did not attempt problem-solving during the reading. On the first Running Records, four of the six children simply omitted unknown words in text, which were supplied by the tutors. There were only a total of 2 omissions by the end of the study. But by the middle of the study, the children showed they were able to monitor their reading by self-correcting. On the final Running Records they engaged in self-correction less frequently, yet they were then making more substitutions, because they then knew more words. Of course, that finding is consistent with the low rate of errors by the conclusion of the study. Overall, the children knew more words by the end of the study.

Summary of Performance

From the beginning to the end of the study, all of the six children were aware that English print tracks from left-to-right, and of the differences among letters, words, and sentences. Throughout the year all of the children increased their store of sight words, and improved in ability to write a story based on their ability to recall and reproduce written text based on knowledge of letter/sound relationships. In being asked to make a forced choice, five of the six children showed growth in understanding and comprehending text over the year by writing semantically correct words in a Cloze activity. By the end of the study they were reading more fluently.

All the children's self-perceptions of competence in literacy increased over the year, and with the exception of Suzette, so did their literacy performance. Over the course of the study, Suzette was the only child who actually decreased in reading with understanding, and in the ability to write words from memory within a 10-minute time frame. How could that be? Information from Suzette's tutors' daily logs and her tutoring transcripts indicated that, due to Suzette's behavior in the classroom, there were times she was not allowed to attend the tutoring sessions.

As a whole, the children's improvement in literacy performance paralleled their increased feelings of competence to perform print-related tasks during the tutoring. As their self-perceptions of competency in literacy increased, so did their literacy performance.

Chapter V: Discussion and Conclusions

This study explored changes in at-risk first-grade children's self-perceptions of competency in literacy during one-on-one tutoring by college students. Findings of this research support the importance of one-on-one instruction as early intervention in reading for children at-risk for reading failure (Clay, 1991, 1993b; Clay & Cazden, 1990; Juel, 1996; Lyons et al., 1993; Madden & Slavin, 1989; McCarthy et al., 1995; Pinnell, Lyons, DeFord, Byrk, & Seltzer, 1994; Shanahan & Barr, 1995; Smith-Burke & Jaggard, 1994; Vellutino et al., 1996; Wasik, 1998; Wasik & Slavin, 1993). The argument is not whether the curriculum for children at-risk in reading should include extra reading intervention, but, precisely, how does early tutoring intervention influence children's feelings of self-perceptions of competency in literacy? What comparisons can be made of at-risk children's feelings about their capabilities as literate individuals from the beginning to the conclusion of the study?

Question 1: Changes in Self-Perceptions of Competency Over the Year

Although the children were identified by their teachers as in need of extra intervention in reading, and thus at-risk for reading failure, at the outset of the study they (children) had positive attitudes toward and an interest in reading. The children's feelings of self-perceptions of competency in literacy then increased over the course of the year. One possible explanation may be young children's desire to please an authority figure, such as a teacher, or a tutor; therefore, it might be expected that they would attend to print-related tasks and engagement in reading during the tutoring. I now discuss and examine the children's changes in self-perceptions of competency in literacy.

Changes in Perceived Competence in Literacy

Three of the children had moderate self-perceptions of competency at the beginning of the study. That initial level of feelings of competency increased, so that by the end of the study those children demonstrated high self-perceptions of competency in literacy. The three children with high positive self-perceptions at the beginning of the study also continued to increase in positive self-perceptions of their ability to engage in print-related tasks. Those increases seemed to run along a continuum, as the children's competence matched their proficiency in reading and writing. The results are in keeping with findings of an earlier study that established the positive reciprocal effects of one-on-one tutoring on first-grade children's self-efficacy while participating in a Reading Recovery program (Cohen et al., 1989). The children's growth in literacy knowledge during the tutoring influenced their capability beliefs in reading. In turn, that increase in self-efficacy in reading seemed to produce higher gains in reading performance.

The crucial difference between the Cohen et al. research and this study was their use of highly-trained teachers as tutors, versus minimally-trained college students. Although the tutors in this study expressed an interest in helping young children with their reading and writing, they came from various educational and experiential backgrounds. Some tutors were psychology, physical therapy, or business majors at the time they began tutoring, and they ranged in age from 18 to 51. Only one focal child had a tutor who was an education major. With that in mind, the minimally-trained college students in this study were apparently able to foster continued motivation to read, thus resulting in an increase in self-perceptions of competency in literacy throughout the study much as did highly-

trained teachers in the Cohen et al study.

In comparison with the findings of Juel's study (1996) incorporating college students as reading tutors of at-risk first-grade children, opposite effects were found relative to attitude toward reading. Although she didn't examine changes in self-perceptions of competency, the children in her study showed a decrease in attitude toward reading. In contrast, and as already mentioned, all the children's attitudes toward reading in this study, with the exception of Adrian, were positive throughout the study. Perhaps extraneous factors, rather than the tutoring influenced Adrian's decrease in positive attitude toward reading. By the end of the study he was increasingly concerned that he was missing center work in his classroom. (Apparently his classroom schedule had changed over the course of the year, which resulted in Adrian's having to miss out on center work, such as art, science, music, or other interest centers occurring in the classroom the same time as his tutoring.) There was no other time Adrian could be tutored that did not conflict with his tutor's or his teacher's schedule. Also, he was anticipating moving to another place of residence. Although Adrian completed the year at Addams, he often told the tutor he was going to move and attend another school. Those factors were out of my control. Half of the children had positive self-perceptions of competency in literacy at the beginning of the study. Those initial feelings of competency continued throughout the course of the first-grade year for all the children.

Causal Attributions for the Children's Competence in Literacy

The children's beliefs were based on self-appraisal of their competence to engage in reading and writing activities. The attributions the children gave for their competence

during individual interviews across the year contradicts other attributional research. The children in this study attributed success to high ability and those attributions were strongly related to their reading performance. During the interviews the children said they could read and spell more words than they used to in comments such as “Cause I can read all the first-grade words,” “I can spell more words,” and “I can spell them without looking.” Those high ability attributions the young children in this study furnished were more like those of older children in previous research (Nicholls, 1979; Wagner et al., 1989). Findings common to both of those earlier studies indicated that first-grade readers usually attribute success to high effort, and older children (fifth-graders) to ability. Also in contrast to findings of my research, Wagner et al. found that causal attributions were more strongly related to the reading performance of the older children, than the younger children. In this study, the tutors’ use of ability-related feedback may have influenced the children’s interpretations of their competence.

Willingness to Engage in Reading and Writing Activities

Again, with the exception of Adrian, an outlier, the children readily engaged in print-related tasks during the tutoring. By the end of the study, although Adrian admitted that he did read, he expressed a dislike for reading. During his tutoring sessions that I observed, he was more willing to have the tutor read to him than to read himself. There did not seem to be a release of responsibility from tutor to child for his own literacy learning. It was evident that the other five children took more responsibility for the reading and writing during the tutoring as the year progressed. It appeared to me that Adrian found being read to more enjoyable, requiring less effort on his part. One child,

Julie, seemed exuberant about the tutoring. She always complained about having to end the sessions. Though not characteristic of all the children, she summed up her high self-perceptions of competence in literacy and positive attitude to engage in literacy-related tasks during the tutoring with the remark, "I wish we could take like a hundred million minutes together."

Indicators of Persistence and Effort/Goals

As mentioned previously, for the most part, all the children in my study engaged in and persisted in that engagement in print-related tasks during the one-on-one instruction. In face-to-face interaction the tutors mediated further engagement through conversational dialogue. In examining that dialogue, only one child (Suzette) verbally demonstrated true persistence and effort during the tutoring with remarks, such as "Don't tell me! Don't tell me! When she made those remarks, her vocal pitch increased and she would raise her upper body out of her chair. She did not want the tutor to rescue her by supplying unknown words.

From the interview data, as in Wentzel 's (1991) study, it seemed that the children's most salient goal was a social one – total enjoyment –"it's fun." There may be several reasons for the children viewing literacy as enjoyable. Perhaps the tutoring situation itself was inherently motivating, creating intrinsic enjoyment. The children could readily participate in face-to-face conversation with a more knowledgeable other. Each child had his or her personal teacher. Possibly the children viewed the tutoring as a chance to be heard. After all, someone appeared interested in them as literate individuals. I can't be sure, but it could be that the children were in an instructional context that

provided the nurturing around text that had been lacking in the home environment. Whatever the reasons, the children provided “fun” as their motivation to engage in literacy.

Question 2: Relationship of Interaction Patterns to Changes in Self-Perceptions of Competency

Social interaction, manifested as verbal feedback to the children’s performance, was the variable under investigation during the tutoring sessions in an attempt to answer the second research question. I particularly noted the type and frequency of the feedback that the tutors used in response to the children’s performance during the tutoring, such as positive, neutral, negative, corrective, and attributional.

Performance Feedback

Positive, constant feedback to children’s oral reading is motivating to their present and future performances (Keller, 1983). The majority of the time, the tutors supported the children’s reading and writing attempts through the use of positive feedback. They frequently provided positive indicators of the children’s ability with remarks such as “Good!” and “There you go!” Given the children’s increase in beliefs about their literacy competence, as Keller (1983) indicated, the tutors’s use of positive feedback may be related to that increase in self-perceptions of competency. Positive verbal feedback in the one-on-one instructional settings was also immediate; thus, it provided “instant feedback to the children about their competence in the literacy task engaged in at the time” (Gallimore & Tharp, 1990), and provided positive reinforcement that enhanced self-perceptions of their ability, (Keller, 1983). That immediacy was

possibly a determining factor of the motivational impact provided by verbal feedback during one-on-one instruction. There was no delay in feedback to the children's performance, as, for example, in whole-class settings, where feedback may be postponed, if provided at all (Keller, 1983).

Neutral verbal feedback to the children's reading and writing attempts was the next most prevalent type of feedback. The neutral feedback, continuers of the conversation (Nofsinger, 1991), was value-free, that is, it merely served as indications to the children that the tutors were actively listening as they participated in reading and writing activities. A remark such as "Uhhuh" provided motivation to continue in a particular print-related activity at the time.

Negative feedback in remarks such as "No," or "No, that's not right!" provided adverse undertones of the children's literacy performance. However, the use of negative feedback did not appear that detrimental to the children's overall feelings of competency or their attitude toward literacy engagement. Michelle received the most amount of negative feedback, yet, from my observations, seemed eager to engage in print-related activities.

Corrective feedback was embedded in positive and negative feedback, equally distributed between the two. Therefore, it either supported or negated the children's performance but with an instructional addend. As a form of instructional assistance, corrective feedback provided a standard for the children to measure their behavior. Perhaps corrective feedback from a more capable other (tutor) aided the children's ability to internalize instruction and to increase self-regulation capabilities. As Gallimore and

Tharp (1990) emphasized, “the instructing voice of the teacher becomes the self-instructing voice of the learner in the transition from apprentice to self-regulated performer” (p. 181).

Attributional, the least supplied feedback during the tutoring, provided a window into the children’s reasons for success or failure in reading and writing. Most of the attributions provided by the tutors were ability-related in remarks such as, “You’ve been doing very well on your spelling tests so you’re a very good speller,” or “This is going to be hard.” Attributional feedback to performance is an important source of children’s self-evaluative information (Bandura, 1986). Children interpret that evaluative information through the cognitive evaluation process, then draw conclusions about their efficacy. In this study, those conclusions then affected their self-perceptions of competency in literacy.

Of all the six children, an outlier, Adrian, received the least amount of feedback. His case is important because of some of the possible causes of that lack of feedback. Although Adrian’s tutor provided ability- or knowledge-related attributional feedback the majority of the time, Adrian was adept at having his tutor do most of the reading during his tutoring sessions. When the tutor did manage to get Adrian to read aloud, after reading only a few sentences he would quickly “give the floor” (Nofsinger, 1991) back to the tutor by saying, “You read now.” In essence, he avoided reading during the tutoring.

Often, a child’s name in a story triggered Adrian’s thoughts about his brothers, or other family members. At that time, he would relay a story to the tutor about something his brother had done or was involved in at the time. After a few minutes of indulgence, the tutor reminded Adrian that they had work to do. Although he made

reading and writing gains in his classroom as well as during the tutoring, he took every opportunity to avoid reading and writing during the tutoring sessions. Adrian's manipulation of who-reads-when during the tutoring was clearly avoidance behavior indicative of "learned helplessness" (Bandura, 1986).

In summary, the verbal feedback the at-risk children received provided instantaneous appraisal of their reading and writing performance. It also impacted the children's self-appraisals of their literacy-related capabilities. Positive feedback gave them a sense of approval which served to confirm their initial and evolving beliefs about their competency. Thus, the feedback provided an incentive to continue engagement in interaction centered around reading.

Question 3: Relationship of Literacy Performance to Self-Perceptions of Competency

As evidenced from pre- and post- performance scores, five of the six children increased in literacy performance over the year. Increase in performance paralleled that of increased feelings of competency in reading and writing activities. Overall, the children increased in word knowledge, letter-sound association, and in reading with understanding. Those findings support other research relevant to the correlation between self-efficacy and academic performance (Pajares, 1996). One would certainly hope that the children's literacy learning increased over the course of the year, although from the present research causal attributions cannot be made. Such analysis would require an experimental design.

Limitations

As with all research in school settings, limitations are inherent in the present study: (a) Hawthorne effect; (b) time tutored each week; and (c) tutoring contexts.

Though not an experimental design, the Hawthorne Effect (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996) could have been at work in the present study – that any innovation may bring about change. That the at-risk children participated in the one-on-one tutoring intervention could have contributed to changes in their self-perceptions of competency and increase in literacy performance over the year.

Time available for tutoring each child was also another limitation. It was my intent to provide consistency and equity in amount of tutoring for each of the children during three, weekly, 30-minute sessions. However, two of the tutors had college schedules that allowed only two days of tutoring per week. In randomly choosing the children for participation at the outset of the study, two of the children were tutored by these two college students. Both tutors proved to be dependable and appeared to effectively work one-on-one with the children. In fact, one of those tutors had three days available for tutoring during the second semester. Therefore, Michelle (who attended Clara Barton) received the tutoring two days a week over the year, while Jonathan, at the same site, was tutored two days a week during the first semester, and three days each week during the second semester. Yet, due to child and tutor absenteeism, school programs, holidays, and various other tutoring interruptions, both children at Clara Barton were observed an average of 19 times over the course of the year.

Another limitation is an underlying assumption inherent in the research design—that all the tutoring contexts are the same across the three sites. To control for variability in tutoring contexts, an ideal situation would have been to have rooms set aside solely for the tutoring, as in Juel's (1996) study, equipped with necessary supplies readily

available. On the other hand, the various contexts may have provided rich texture to the data, including interactions between child and tutor.

Although it may appear that increase in learning was directly attributable to the one-on-one tutoring, other factors out of the control of researchers such as involvement in reading and writing activities in the home and classroom instruction may have affected the children's literacy performance and their perceptions of themselves as literate individuals

Implications of the Study

The results of this study provide information applicable to volunteer tutors of young children and pre-service teacher education programs. If work-study funding continues to be channeled toward pay for college students as tutors of young children in public schools, then the use of appropriate feedback should be included as an integral component of the tutor training. Likewise, pre-service teacher-education programs should include instruction in the use of positive and corrective feedback as an interaction tool during instruction. Pre-service teachers should be taught the appropriate use of feedback to reading performance, not only as a teaching tool for use during one-on-one instruction with at-risk readers, but also with children in whole-group settings.

Further implications include the use of an instructional context that promotes a personal goal, such as the at-risk children in this study – that of having fun. If children find that an instructional context such as one-on-one tutoring meets their social goal of desiring to participate in an interactive teaching format, then teachers need to provide such instruction for their at-risk readers.

Further Research

The results of this study suggest that young children's literacy learning seems related to the type of verbal feedback (Positive, Neutral, Negative, Corrective, or Attributional) provided during the tutoring. An investigation into the interactional emotional climate provided by verbal feedback could shed light on how effective dyadic interactions seem to foster high self-efficacy in reading. Further research should focus on the role of identification between child and tutor as a possible connection to self-efficacy in literacy during one-on-one tutoring. In addition, the reciprocal feedback from child to tutor may shed light on the motivating influences during tutoring and their effect on children's self-efficacy in literacy. Children such as Adrian and Suzette could benefit from similar tutoring programs. Research needs to examine the effects of loss of interest and negative attitude toward reading and writing for children, such as Adrian, on future literacy performance and its relation to learned helplessness within a one-on-one tutoring context.

Conclusions

Although the children in this study were identified by their teachers as at-risk in reading and in need of extra literacy intervention, the children did not seem to share that view. In fact, at the beginning of the study all of the children expressed an interest in reading, depicting either moderate or high self-perceptions of competency in literacy. They apparently did not feel singled out as children who were behind their peers in literacy learning.

In this study analyses uncovered qualitative ways in which the tutors used social

interaction in the form of verbal feedback during the tutoring. Verbal feedback may have had an influence on their attitudes toward reading in general, and their tendency to engage in reading and writing activities in particular. Through the use of positive feedback, the tutors provided encouragement and social support of the children's literacy endeavors. The children felt good about themselves at the beginning of the study. The tutors provided immediate, positive feedback that helped sustain their initial interest and motivation to continue that engagement with print.

Verbal persuasion was one source of the children's self-evaluative information. In the more intimate context provided by one-on-one tutoring, versus whole-group instruction, the tutors used praise and encouragement much as a coach might during football or baseball practice. "There ya go" and "good" were frequently used during the tutoring to encourage the children to get in there and plug on through – to keep up the good fight. The children could do it (read and write), they just needed to get in there and keep trying. It was as if each child received encouragement by having a personal literacy advocate. Perhaps that constant encouragement through social interaction with one more knowledgeable contributed to what Young and Beach (1997) referred to as children's "literate self-efficacy."

The minimally-trained college students assisted the children in their literacy learning during the tutoring, much as experienced teachers. However, one area of tutor expertise seemed problematic – their ability to judge difficulty of text. Each month the tutors chose a text on which to assess the children's oral reading behaviors (such as self-corrections or substitutions) while they (children) read aloud. That choice was to be

based on the tutor's appraisal of the children's changes in literacy learning. The level of difficulty of the text should follow the children's progress. The tutors did not seem to have the ability to ascertain correct difficulty of that text. Most of the text chosen contained a controlled vocabulary that did not promote the observance of fluency and meaning-making strategies. The stories were too easy, thus did not provide a challenge.

The findings of the research presented in this paper offer several hypotheses of the children's self-perceptions of competence in literacy and subsequent relation to print-related performance. Some of the hypotheses support previous research in the area of self-efficacy theory, while others are generative, derived from the findings described in this paper.

1. The type of verbal feedback in scaffolding young children's literacy learning during one-on-one tutoring appears to be linked to their capability feelings.
2. Positive verbal feedback to performance seems to promote increased feelings of positive self-perceptions of competency.
3. Positive verbal feedback provides instant verification of a child's performance status, thus promoting motivation to read.
4. There is a reciprocal relationship between young children's self-perceptions of competency and performance.
5. One-on-one tutoring provides a social context conducive to fostering continuing motivation to engage in print-related activities.
6. Young children often use ability attributions in explaining their success in literacy.

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Appendix A

Tutoring Lesson Framework

Daily Lesson Framework

8-10 Minutes: Reading

5 - 7 Minutes: Writing (about the reading)

13 - 15 Minutes: Skills and Strategies

Appendix B

Motivation and Performance Assessments

Figure 2
Motivation to Read Profile

Reading survey

Name _____ Date _____

Sample 1: I am in _____.

- ☐ Second grade ☐ Fifth grade
☐ Third grade ☐ Sixth grade
☐ Fourth grade

Sample 2: I am a _____.

- ☐ boy
☐ girl

1. My friends think I am _____.

- ☐ a very good reader
☐ a good reader
☐ an OK reader
☐ a poor reader

2. Reading a book is something I like to do.

- ☐ Never
☐ Not very often
☐ Sometimes
☐ Often

3. I read _____.

- ☐ not as well as my friends
☐ about the same as my friends
☐ a little better than my friends
☐ a lot better than my friends

4. My best friends think reading is _____.

- ☐ really fun
☐ fun
☐ OK to do
☐ no fun at all

5. When I come to a word I don't know, I can _____.

- ☐ almost always figure it out
☐ sometimes figure it out
☐ almost never figure it out
☐ never figure it out

6. I tell my friends about good books I read.

- ☐ I never do this.
☐ I almost never do this.
☐ I do this some of the time.
☐ I do this a lot.

(continued)

Figure 2
Motivation to Read Profile (cont'd.)

7. When I am reading by myself, I understand _____.
☐ almost everything I read
☐ some of what I read
☐ almost none of what I read
☐ none of what I read
8. People who read a lot are _____.
☐ very interesting
☐ interesting
☐ not very interesting
☐ boring
9. I am _____.
☐ a poor reader
☐ an OK reader
☐ a good reader
☐ a very good reader
10. I think libraries are _____.
☐ a great place to spend time
☐ an interesting place to spend time
☐ an OK place to spend time
☐ a boring place to spend time
11. I worry about what other kids think about my reading _____.
☐ every day
☐ almost every day
☐ once in a while
☐ never
12. Knowing how to read well is _____.
☐ not very important
☐ sort of important
☐ important
☐ very important
13. When my teacher asks me a question about what I have read, I _____.
☐ can never think of an answer
☐ have trouble thinking of an answer
☐ sometimes think of an answer
☐ always think of an answer
14. I think reading is _____.
☐ a boring way to spend time
☐ an OK way to spend time
☐ an interesting way to spend time
☐ a great way to spend time

Figure 2
Motivation to Read Profile (cont'd.)

15. Reading is _____.
☐ very easy for me
☐ kind of easy for me
☐ kind of hard for me
☐ very hard for me
16. When I grow up I will spend _____.
☐ none of my time reading
☐ very little of my time reading
☐ some of my time reading
☐ a lot of my time reading
17. When I am in a group talking about stories, I _____.
☐ almost never talk about my ideas
☐ sometimes talk about my ideas
☐ almost always talk about my ideas
☐ always talk about my ideas
18. I would like for my teacher to read books out loud to the class _____.
☐ every day
☐ almost every day
☐ once in a while
☐ never
19. When I read out loud I am a _____.
☐ poor reader
☐ OK reader
☐ good reader
☐ very good reader
20. When someone gives me a book for a present, I feel _____.
☐ very happy
☐ sort of happy
☐ sort of unhappy
☐ unhappy

MRP Reading Survey scoring sheet

Student name _____

Grade _____ Teacher _____

Administration date _____

Recoding scale

1=4

2=3

3=2

4=1

Self-Concept as a Reader

*recode 1. _____
3. _____
*recode 5. _____
*recode 7. _____
9. _____
*recode 11. _____
13. _____
*recode 15. _____
17. _____
19. _____

Value of Reading

2. _____
*recode 4. _____
6. _____
*recode 8. _____
*recode 10. _____
12. _____
14. _____
16. _____
*recode 18. _____
*recode 20. _____

SC raw score: _____ /40

V raw score: _____ /40

Full survey raw score (Self-Concept & Value): _____ /80

Percentage scores

Self-Concept

Value

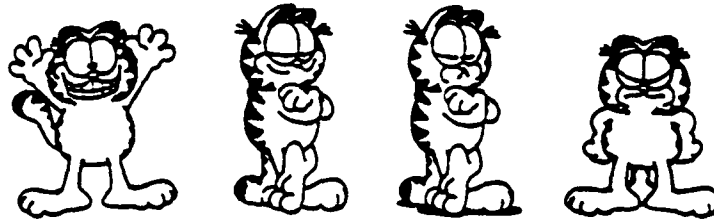
Full Survey

Comments: _____

Name _____ Grade _____ Date _____

Elementary Reading Attitude Survey

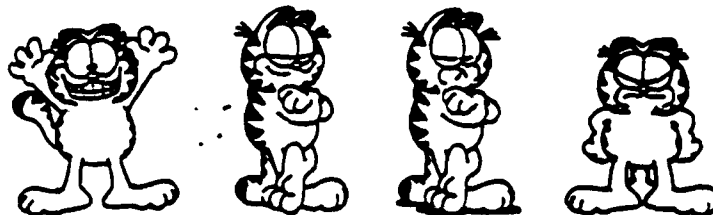
1. How do you feel when you read a book on a rainy Saturday?



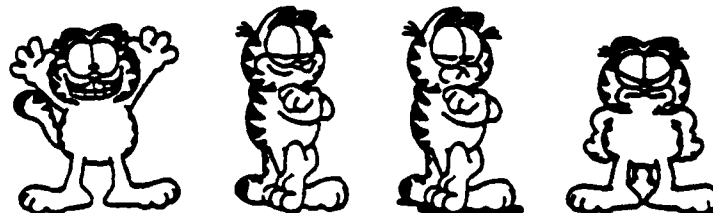
2. How do you feel when you read a book in school during free time?



3. How do you feel about reading for fun at home?



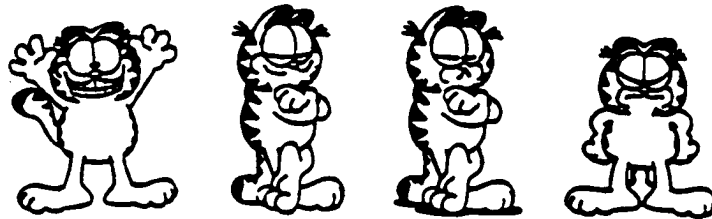
4. How do you feel about getting a book for a present?



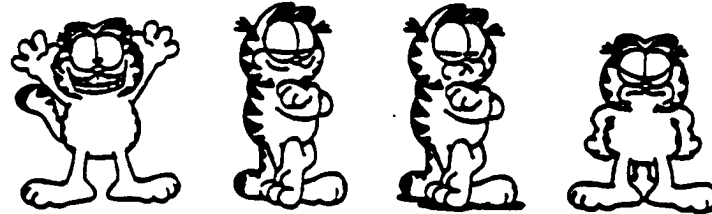
5. How do you feel about spending free time reading?



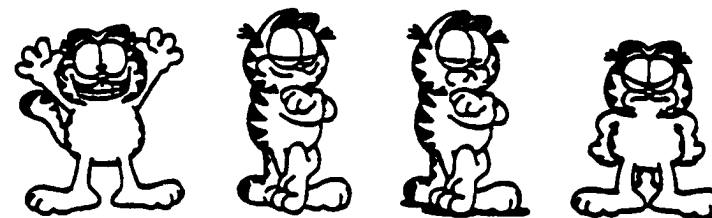
6. How do you feel about starting a new book?



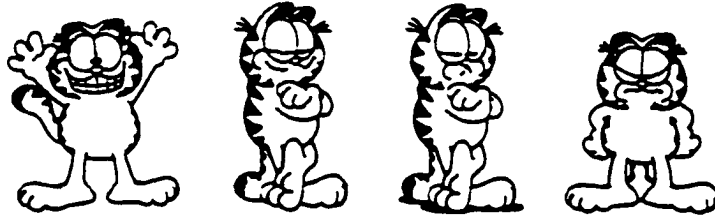
7. How do you feel about reading during summer vacation?



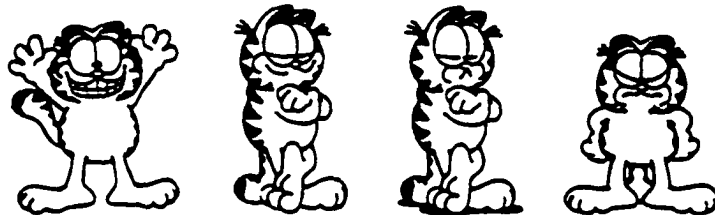
8. How do you feel about reading instead of playing?



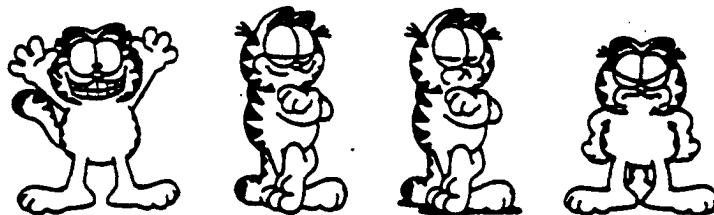
9. How do you feel about going to a bookstore?



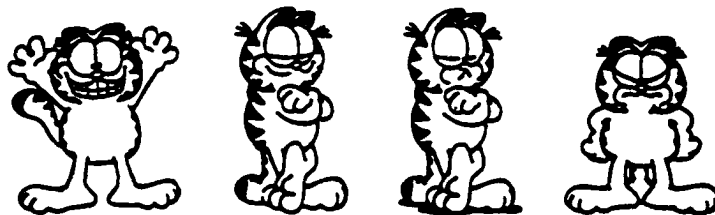
10. How do you feel about reading different kinds of books?



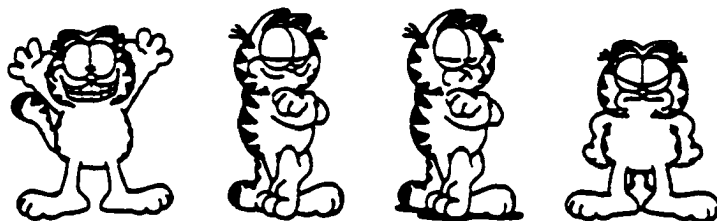
11. How do you feel when the teacher asks you questions about what you read?



12. How do you feel about doing reading workbook pages and worksheets?



13. How do you feel about reading in school?



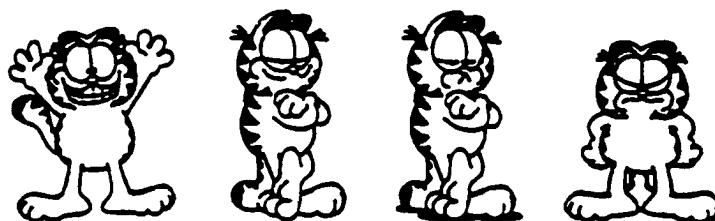
14. How do you feel about reading your school books?



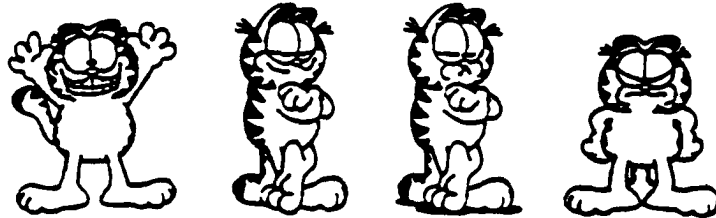
15. How do you feel about learning from a book?



16. How do you feel when it's time for reading class?



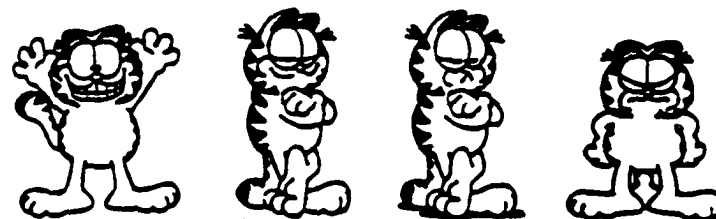
17. How do you feel about the stories you read in reading class?



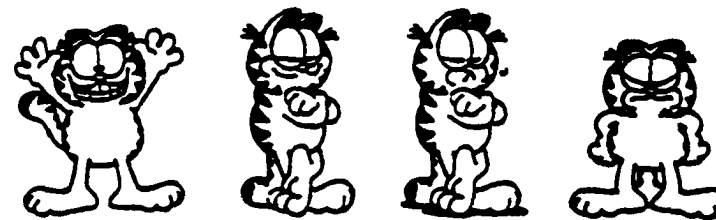
18. How do you feel when you read out loud in class?



19. How do you feel about using a dictionary?



20. How do you feel about taking a reading test?



Name _____ Date _____
Teacher _____ Grade _____

Elementary Reading Attitude Survey Scoring sheet

Scoring guide	
4 points	Happiest Garfield
3 points	Slightly smiling Garfield
2 points	Mildly upset Garfield
1 point	Very upset Garfield

Recreational reading

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____

Academic reading

11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
15. _____
16. _____
17. _____
18. _____
19. _____
20. _____

Raw score: _____

Raw score: _____

Full scale raw score (Recreational + Academic): _____

Concepts About Print

Scoring Standards

Name: _____ **Date:** _____

1. Front of book.
2. Knows what a word is.
3. Knows that print moves from left to right.
4. Shows where to begin reading.
5. Knows top and bottom.
6. Locates one capital letter, and a lower-case.
7. Locates both a first and last letter.
8. Knows that pages precede each other.
9. Know meaning of 'period' and 'question mark'.
10. Knows meaning of quotations.

Tutor: Place a checkmark beside each concept demonstrated by the child. If the child cannot demonstrate knowledge of the concept, simply record a minus (-) sign.

NOTES

Letter Identification/Capital
(STUDENT COPY)

K	H	A	X
P	B	C	F
B	L	K	R
P	B	D	G
X	M	W	N
S	Z	R	L
P	B	G	Q
X	F	T	H
C	Q	D	O
J	U	Z	L
W	V	U	Q
G	K	C	S
K	Y	E	G

Letter Identification/Capital
(STUDENT COPY)

L	Y	J	T
Q	O	D	G
W	N	M	H
Q	G	O	D
M	N	H	A
K	S	Z	X
R	S	X	E
T	I	L	E
E	H	K	T
C	G	U	Q
K	Z	A	R
L	F	T	I
U	W	Z	V

Letter Identification/Lower-Case
(STUDENT COPY)

o	g	c	s
i	u	w	v
o	q	c	a
p	r	b	q
m	n	w	r
f	k	y	j
s	c	a	g
g	y	p	q
w	x	s	z
g	k	v	j
t	f	l	i
p	r	q	b
h	k	u	d

Letter Identification/Lower-Case
(STUDENT COPY)

i	t	l	f
f	u	r	e
c	e	g	a
s	x	k	v
n	m	u	v
b	d	h	p
l	i	t	j
n	u	m	v
p	q	j	g
x	v	w	u
g	p	y	q
s	c	x	r
i	t	l	f

LETTER IDENTIFICATION SCORE SHEET

Name: _____ Age: _____ Date: _____
Test Score: _____ /52

Recorder: _____ Date of Birth: _____

Scoring Key: For each correct response, record a checkmark.
For each incorrect response, record a minus sign.

A	L	c	t
F	Q	u	r
K	M	o	e
P	D	b	x
W	N	w	n
Z	S	k	d
B	X	a	i
H	I	y	m
O	E	z	g
J	G	j	v
U	R	f	q
C	T	p	s
Y	V	h	l

WORD TEST SCORE SHEET

Name: _____

Date: _____

Age: _____

Recorder: _____ TEST SCORE _____

the
and
a
I
to
said
you
he
it
in
was
she
for
that
is
his
but
they
my
of
on
me
all
be
go

can
with
one
her
what
we
him
no
so
out
up
are
will
look
some
day
at
have
your
good
this
don't
little
if
just

baby
way
there
every
went
father
had
see
dog
home
down
got
would
time
love
walk
came
were
ask
back
now
friend

Cloze Assessment
(STUDENT COPY)

The Three Little Pigs

Once upon a time there _____ three
where were want

little pigs. They had to leave _____.
hare hose home

Each of _____ pigs _____ to
the that this had hat his

build _____ house. _____ were
at a as They This That

afraid. The wolf _____ mean.
wash want was

_____ the pigs were _____
Best But Buy goat goad good

The wolf was not a good _____.
friend fried find

THE END!

Alternative sentences

Select one of the following alternative Forms: A, B, C, D, or E.

Form A I have a big dog at home
 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16
 Today I am going to take him
 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33
 to school.
 34 35 36 37

Form B Mum has gone up to the shop.
 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18
 She will get milk and
 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33
 bread.
 34 35 36 37

Form C I can see the red
 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11
 boat that we are going
 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26
 to have a ride in.
 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37

Form D The bus is coming. It
 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15
 will stop here to let me
 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32
 get on.
 33 34 35 36 37

Form E The boy is riding his bike.
 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18
 He can go very fast on it.
 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37

Appendix C

Teacher Rating Scale of the Children's Competence in Literacy

(Teacher's Name),

Although we have spoken informally about your child's self-perceptions of competence in reading, on a scale of 1-4, would you please rate (Child's name) feelings of competence in reading?

How do you rate (Child's name) belief about his or her feelings of competence in reading at the beginning and at the end of this school year?

1=extremely incompetent

2=slightly incompetent

3=slightly competent

4=extremely competent

CHILD'S COMPETENCE IN READING – BEGINNING OF THE YEAR_____

CHILD'S COMPETENCE IN READING AT THE END OF THE YEAR_____

Thank you,

Paulette Belshe

Appendix D

Child Interviews

Initial Child Interview

1. Do you like to read?

Why or why not?

2. Tell me about the most interesting story or book you have read this week.
3. How did you know or find out about this story?
4. Did you read anything at home yesterday? What?
5. Tell me about any book at school today that you are reading.
6. Tell me about your favorite author.
7. What do you think you have to learn to be a better reader?
8. Tell me about any books right now that you'd like to read.

Why would you like to read them?

How did you find out about these books?

9. What are some things that get you really excited about reading books?
10. Who gets you really interested and excited about reading books?

What do they do or say that gets you interested?

Mid-Year Child Interview

Pre-Questioning Prompt:

Hi, (child's name). I'd like to talk to you some more about your reading this year.

1. Do you think you are a good reader? Why or how do you know?

Possible Prompts:

Could you tell me a little more?

What exactly do you mean?

2. Do you think your teacher thinks you are a good reader? Why or how do you know?

3. Tell me how you feel when the teacher asks you to read aloud.

Possible Prompt:

Why do you think you feel that way?

4. Do you know a lot more words than you used to?

Possible Prompt:

What makes you think so?

5. Tell me how you think your friends feel about your reading.

Possible Prompts:

Do they think you are a good reader?

How do you know?

6. Do you ever ask anyone to help you with your reading?

Possible Prompts:

Why and who do you ask?

Why do you ask him or her?

7. Do you think you are getting better at your reading?

Possible Prompts:

How do you know?

What makes you think so?

What do people say to make you think so?

8. Do you think you know as many words as other kids?

Possible Prompt:

What makes you think so?

9. How do you feel when you get to read anything you want to?

Possible Prompts:

Do you ever feel happy, really excited, bored, or unhappy at that time?

Do you wish you could do something else?

Do you ever feel any other way?

10. Do you think you understand most of what you read?

Possible Prompts:

How do you know?

Is there anything else you want to tell me?

End-of-Year Child Interview

Pre-Questioning Prompt:

Hi, (child's name). How are you today? I'd like to talk to you some more about your reading.

1. Do you like to read? Why or why not?
2. What are some things that get you really excited about reading books?

Possible Prompt:

Why do you think that/they makes/make you feel that way?

3. Do you think you are a good reader? Why or how do you know?

Possible Prompts:

What exactly do you mean?

Could you tell me a little more?

4. Tell me how you think your friends feel about your reading.

Possible Prompts:

Do they think you are a good reader?

How do you know?

5. Do you think your teacher thinks you are a good reader? Why or how do you know?
6. Tell me about the most interesting story or book you have read this week. How did you know or find out about this story (or book)?
7. Tell me about any book at school today that you are reading.

Possible Prompts:

How did you find out about it?

Tell me a little about it.

- 8. Tell me about any books right now that you'd like to read.**

Possible Prompts:

Why would you like to read them?

How did you find out about these books?

- 9. Tell me about your favorite author.**

- 10. Do you think you are getting better at your reading?**

Possible Prompts:

How do you know?

What makes you think so?

What do people say to make you think so?

- 11. Do you know a lot more words than you used to?**

Possible Prompt:

What makes you think so?

How do you know?

- 12. Do you think you know as many words as other kids?**

Possible Prompt:

What makes you think so?

- 13. Tell me how you feel when the teacher asks you to read aloud.**

Possible Prompt:

Why do you think you feel that way?

14. Do you ever ask anyone to help you with your reading?

Possible Prompts:

Why and who do you ask?

Why do you ask him or her?

15. Do you think you understand most of what you read?

Possible Prompt:

How do you know?

16. Who gets you really interested and excited about reading books?

Possible Prompt:

What do they do or say that gets you interested?

17. Do you like to read with a tutor? Why or why not?

Possible Prompts:

What does he or she do that makes you feel that way?

Is there anything else you want to tell me?

Appendix E

Consent Forms

.

To the Parents Of _____

We are requesting your permission for your child to participate as a volunteer in a research study. This study is designed to examine the effects of tutoring by a college student on the reading achievement, interest, and attitude of first-and second-grade children.

A college student will work individually with your child in reading, 30 minutes a day, three days a week. Your child's regular classroom teacher will tell the tutor what reading concepts to work on during each tutoring session. Instruction will always be based on the information from your child's teacher. Your child will be getting extra practice in reading and writing during the tutoring sessions. Your child will receive help in learning new words, and in learning various strategies and techniques that will aid in reading comprehension. Some children will be observed during tutoring, and may be asked questions about their learning while working with a tutor. The discussions with the children will be taped, as will some of the tutoring sessions.

Before tutoring begins, your child will complete reading and writing activities to determine reading ability and interest and attitude toward reading. At the end of tutoring, we will be looking at what your child has learned about reading over the course of a year, and any changes that have taken place. Your child will complete these activities again at the end of the study to examine those changes.

The results of all interviews and observations will be kept confidential. They will not be used by the classroom teacher to evaluate your child's learning. Only the investigator and the designers of the reading tutoring study will have access to the activities your child completes. Pseudonyms will be used in all reports of the research, and all publications resulting from the study will be carefully worded to avoid identification of the participants. Since your child would be involved in commonly accepted practices (reading and writing activities), there should be no potential risk to your child. Potential benefits include an increased understanding of the impact that tutoring may have on children's reading achievement and attitude toward reading and increased learning about reading and writing for your child.

If you choose for your child to participate in the study, please sign and return this form. If you choose to decline, there will be no penalty for your child. Furthermore, if you choose to participate, you or your child can refuse to answer any question at any time, or can totally withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

Sincerely,
Bonnie Konopak, Ph. D.
Chair and Professor
Instructional Leadership and
Academic Curriculum
The University of Oklahoma

Sara Ann Beach, Ph. D.
Associate Professor
Reading Education
The University of Oklahoma

Paulette Belshe
Coordinator
Work-study Reading
Tutor Program
The University of
Oklahoma

This is to certify that I

(print full name)

hereby give permission to have my child or legal ward,

(print child's full name)

participate in a study of the effects of one-on-one tutoring on young children's reading achievement, and interest and attitude toward reading.

I understand that since my child would be involved in commonly accepted practices (reading and writing activities), there should be no potential risk to my child. Results of all interviews and observations will be kept confidential and they will not be used by the classroom teacher to evaluate my child's learning. Potential benefits include an increased understanding of the impact that tutoring may have on children's reading achievement and attitude toward reading and increased learning about reading and writing for my child.

*If you choose to decline in having your child participate in the study, there will be no penalty for your child. Furthermore, if you choose to participate, you or your child can refuse to answer any question at any time, or can totally withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

Signature

Date

First and Second Graders and Tutoring*

Ms. Belshe, reading tutor program leader, has asked me to take part in a project for the University of Oklahoma. This project is about how first and second graders learn how to read with the help of a college tutor. I will get extra practice reading stories, learning new words, and making sense of what I read. I will explain about why I read and tell about good books and stories I have read. I will talk about any reading I do at home and things that really get me excited about reading. I will also talk about how the tutor helps me in my reading. I know that Ms. Belshe will tape some of the conversations we have and some of the lessons with my tutor.

I understand that I do not have to take part in this project if I do not want to. I know that I can ask Ms. Belshe questions about the project if I have any.

Student Signature _____

Date

*(Please note: Consent form will be read to the student by the classroom teacher and/or the tutor.)